2018-2019 OFFICERS

President: Robert H. Epstein, University of Central Oklahoma
President-Elect: Veena P. Prabhu, California State University, Los Angeles
Program Chair: Brian W. Kulik, Angelo State University
Proceedings Editor: Ethan P. Waples, University of Houston – Downtown
Secretary/Newsletter Editor: Nancy Kucinski, Hardin-Simmons University
Treasurer/Membership Chair: Brent H. Kinghorn, Texas A&M University – Kingsville
Representatives-at-large: Meghan Wright, Texas Wesleyan University; Natasa Christodoulidou, California State University Dominguez Hills; Carlos Baldo, Colorado Mesa University
Electronic Media Director: Lee Tyner, University of Central Oklahoma
Historian & Archivist: Kenneth Sweet, Texas A&M University – San Antonio
Past President & Colloquia Director: John D. Davis, Hardin-Simmons University

CONGRATULATIONS!

Recipient of the Distinguished Paper Award - Federation of Business Disciplines

The Antecedents to and Consequences of Accountability Approach: Test of Competing Perspectives and Replicable Results across Two Samples
Jeremy Brees, Northern Arizona University
David Sikora, Georgia Southern University
Gerald Ferris, Florida State University

2019 SWAM Outstanding Educator

Manjula Salimath, University of North Texas

Recipients of the 2019 Southwest Academy of Management Best Reviewer Award

Cory Angert, University of Houston – Downtown
Robert Lloyd, Fort Hays State University
2018-2019 Track Chairs

Workplace Behavior: Organizational Behavior / Human Resources / Careers / Leadership / Diversity
Sarah Walker, Creighton University
Zahir Latheef, University of Houston – Downtown
Kenneth Sweet, Texas A&M - San Antonio

Organizational Mission: Organizational Theory / Strategic Management & Leadership / International Management
David Epstein, University of Houston – Downtown
Marcia Hardy, Northwestern State University of Louisiana
Guclu Atinc, Texas A&M University Commerce

Change in Organizations: Organizational Development / Conflict Management
Peter Sorensen, Benedictine University
Therese Yaeger, Benedictine University

Professional Development Workshops
Lee Tyner, University of Central Oklahoma
Suzanne Clinton, University of Central Oklahoma

The Purposeful Organization: Social Responsibility, Consciousness, Relationships, Collaboration, Community & Sustainability
Brian Kulik, Whittier College

Recent Vistas on Management: The Latin American Context.
Sessions in this track are presented in Spanish.
Carlos Baldo, Colorado Mesa University
Oscar Montiel, Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez

The Single Business Enterprise: Entrepreneurship / Small Business / Family Business / Innovation
Manjula S. Salimath, University of North Texas
Vallari Chandna, University of Wisconsin-Green Bay

Teaching and Learning Conference
Janie Gregg, University of West Alabama
Karen Leonard, University of Arkansas Little Rock

Southwest Academy of Management Proceedings Annual Meeting, Houston, TX
March 13 – 16, 2019
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Aguilar, Vengrouskie, & Llyod: *Driving Organizational Innovation as a Form of Intrapreneurship Within the Context of Small Businesses* .......................................................... 1

Almond: *Teaching Value Creation in Negotiation* ................................................................. 5

Bailey: *Clearing the Bar: Vosviewer Standards in Social Entrepreneurship Research* ............. 10

Bakari, Hunjra, & Jaros: *Commitment to Change: Validation of Scale Through EFA and CFA in Privatization Context of Pakistan* ................................................................. 15

Bata & Akella: *Ethical Analysis of Enterprise Resource Planning* ........................................ 21

Baten: *Gender Quota and Organizational Outcome* ............................................................... 27

Brees: *Learning the Accountability Ropes: An Attributional Perpsective* ............................. 33

Brees, Sikora, & Ferris: *The Antecedents to and Consequences of Accountability Approach: Test of Competing Perspectives and Replicable Results Across Two Samples* .................. 37

Calerón Martínez: *Negocios de Servicios Intensivos en Conocimiento: Una Revisión de su Aportación a La Administración* ............................................................... 41

Canedo, Stone-Romero, & Stone: *The Role of Cultural Values on Behavioral Intentions in a Conflicting Roles Situation* .............................................................................. 47

Cavazos-Garza & Santaella: *Career Differences Between Mexican and American Women Workers* ....................................................................................................................... 54


Davis: *Scientific Management in the Sunday School? Are You Kidding Me?* ..................... 67

DeMotta, Gonzalez, & Lawson: *Exploring Strategic Training Approaches that Lead to the Retention of Talented Employees* .............................................................................. 73
Guerrero & Valdiviezo: Speaking Spanish at Work: The Impact on Workplace Familism on Work Outcomes of Bilingual Hispanic Workers ................................................................. 79

Hammer: Identifying Need for MNE Single Leave Policy Creation ......................................................... 83

Hardy, Upshaw, & Williams: Perspicacity, Sagacity & Mentorship: A Management Model for Strategic Leadership Success in Faculty Senate Governance ........................................ 88

Hill: Toxicology- A Phenomenological Investigation: Studying Deviant and Toxic Subordinates in the Workplace ........................................................................................................................ 94

Hill, Adams, Harden, & Shinde: Out of Touch and in the Present: How Mindfulness and Moral Attentiveness May Not Share the Moment ......................................................................................... 98

Homan, Landry, & Lawson: Exploring How Trainers Can Use Humor to Increase Self-Efficacy of Employees .......................................................................................................................... 104

Horner & Valenti: The Human Capital of Boards of Directors ................................................................. 109

Hughes & Camargo: Using Human Resource Development (HRD) Communication Channels, The Integration of Ethics and Diversity, and Diversity Intelligence (DQ) to Develop Leaders 115

Karst: A Multi-Dimensional Model of MNE Region Localization ......................................................... 121

Kooskora & Cundiff: The Moral Development of The Estonian Business Community ........... 127

Kulik & Crozier-Garcia: An Hawai’ian Model for Management Faculty Collegiality: Aloha, Pono And Kuleana ........................................................................................................................................ 134

Lawson: Employing the Internal Marketing Theory to Explain How Knowledge Dissemination can be Enhanced in Organizations .................................................................................................................. 138

Lewis: Ambiguous Leadership Assessment ............................................................................................ 144

Lewis: A Model of the Dimensions of Spirituality and their Possible Influence on Corporate Culture ...................................................................................................................................................... 150
Lewis: *The Salience of Intrinsic Spirituality as a Motivational Construct in the Workplace* .... 156

Lichter & Sokol: *A Tale of Two Leaders: Exploring Sources of Resistance to New Leader Integration* .......................................................................................................................... 161

Lilly, Blackwell, & Wipawayangkool: *Redefining Leadership Roles and Structure in Special Education: Applying Organizational Theory to the Public School System* ......................... 167

Lloyd & Vengrouskie: *Digital Affordances, Traditional Enablers, and Defining the Rural Entrepreneurial Ecosystem* ........................................................................................................... 174

McDonald: *Nonmarket Strategies to Change Institutions Around Digital IP Rights: Firms’ Response to Digital Piracy* ........................................................................................................... 180

McPherson: *Staffing Professionals’ Perspectives of the Secondary Labor Market Protean and Boundaryless Career Phenomenon* .................................................................................................. 187

Montiel: *El Lado Oscuro de La Empresa Familiar: Una Perspectiva Exploratoria* ............. 194

Myers & Evert: *Operation Integration: Modeling Innovative Cross Disciplinary Collaboration* .......................................................................................................................... 200

Murray & Clinton: *Consequences and Predictors of Psychological Detachment: Is Personality A Moderator?* ................................................................................................................. 202

Popoola, Novicevic, & Schafer: *Entrepreneurial Accountability: Implications for Researching Entrepreneurship in Montenegro* .................................................................................................................. 209

Preston & Leonel: *How Signals Influence Citation Patterns* .................................................. 216

Reutzel & Belsito: *Board Characteristics and the Acquisition of Newly Public Firms* .......... 220

Roberto & Johnson: *The Use of Fourth Party References in the Selection Process* ............. 226

Ruddell: *The Federal Sentencing Guidelines For Organizations (FGO) and Proactive Small Business Ethics Programs* ........................................................................................................................................... 230
Ruiz & Peterson: *Retention When Recruiting is Difficult: Medical Technicians in Rural Communities* ................................................................. 235

Singh & Viyarthi: *Examining Power-Distance as a Moderator to the Empowerment-Performance Relationship* ................................................................. 242

Sloan, Mikkelson, & Wilkinson: *How to Communicate Servant Leadership: An Exploration of Relational Communication and Employee Outcomes* ................................................................. 246

Sweet: *Teaching Business Ethics* ................................................................................................................................................................................. 249

Sweet, Rogers, Valenzuela, Zare, & Claw: *A Model of Workplace Hazing* ........................................................................................................ 252

Valencia & Montiel: *Prácticas y Límites de La Publicidad: Una Propuesta Explorativa de Indagación Crítica Hacia Las Campañas Políticas* ........................................................................................................ 259

Villegas, Lloyd, Tritt, & Vengrouskie: *Ethical Gatekeepers: Hiring Ethics and Employee Selection* ........................................................................................................................................................................... 266

Vokkarane & Clinton: *Behavior-Based Interviews: A Literature Review and Interviewee Perceptions* ........................................................................................................................................................................... 272

Walker & Guo: *Stretched Too Thin? The Impact of School-Work Conflict on Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment* ........................................................................................................................................................................... 279
DRIVING ORGANIZATIONAL INNOVATION AS A FORM OF INTRAPRENEURSHIP WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF SMALL BUSINESSES

SONIA AGUILAR
Fort Hays State University

EDWARD VENGROUSKIE
Fort Hays State University

ROBERT LLOYD
Fort Hays State University

ABSTRACT

In the past decades the majority of intrapreneurship research refers to the process of improving organizational profitability, thus enhancing the competitive position within large organizations, while largely ignoring such value to smaller companies (Antonic & Hirsch, 2003; Garvin & Levesque, 2006; Ibrahim, 2016; Kocjancic & Bojnec, 2013). The purpose of this article is stress the importance of practicing entrepreneurship, known as intrapreneurship, within the context small businesses. It is our belief that small businesses, like their larger counterparts, must evolve within a highly competitive environment where innovation is vital. We argue that intrapreneurship is not exclusively for large firms, and the paucity of research on intrapreneurship within small business begs the question; how can small businesses drive innovation as a form of entrepreneurship? Key words: Entrepreneurship, Intrapreneurship, Corporate Intrapreneurship, Innovation, organizational culture, idea generation, small business.

INTRODUCTION

The terms intrapreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship are described in the literature as being more apt for large corporations and are best applied to dynamic environments. Some researchers have used a narrower definition focusing primarily in large corporations, while smaller companies were excluded from the study (Hathway, 2009; Pinchot, 2010). Studies reveal that innovation research in organizations has been mostly in the area of technological innovation (Cader & Badulescu, 2015; Meyer. 2013). There has been a shift in recent years into a non-technological type of innovation. The argument that organizational innovations are not produced by research and development but are the result of entrepreneurial employee behavior leads to the understanding of organizational innovations as a form of intrapreneurship within the context of small businesses. As a result, the innovation that takes place within the context of the small business environment becomes as salient and relevant as the transformative processes taking place in their larger, corporate counterpart. Research on intrapreneurship and innovation within small business is sparse, and as such the importance of this sector needs to be better understood and contextualized.

Our primary goal in presenting this article is to review the literature and present intrapreneurship within the context of small businesses. Our focus will include differences between entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship, idea generation, factors driving innovation, creating a culture of innovation, designing new products and reconfiguration recombination of
Intrapreneur Defined

There are important differences between entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship. Intrapreneurship distinctly belongs to the domain of employee behavior and faces specific limitations that a business hierarchy and an internal business environment may impose on individual initiative as well as specific possibilities for support that an existing business may offer to a nascent entrepreneur (de Jong & Wennekers, 2008 pg. 24). So, while the intrapreneur depends on private resources of capital and on market for equity and debt, the intrapreneur can and must leverage resources provided by the organization. Whereas entrepreneurs commercialize their novel solutions to external markets and diverse customers, intrapreneurs must sell their novel ideas to decision-makers within the organization (Dutton, Ashford, O’neill Hays, & Wierba, 1997). Ultimately intrapreneurs overcome the internal constraints of a centrally managed economy instead of trying to survive in a free market. Intrapreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship is defined as an internal process where an individual within the existing system is looking for business opportunities, without taking into account the established formal channels.

Idea Generation

Researchers have significantly narrowed their focus on product (process) innovation and the body of knowledge on determinants and mechanisms has grown extensively. Whereas other types of innovation are hardly to be found in current research (Ganter & Hecker, 2014). Investigating whether organizational innovations are not fabricated by way of institutionalized research and development nor by dedicated R&D may help bridge the gap between innovation and entrepreneurial studies. Instead, organizational innovations frequently derive from entrepreneurially inclined individuals or intrapreneurs within the company. These intrapreneurs do not follow the customary way of doing business but rather engage with experimentation of new processes or techniques. As they acquire the support of management and corporate, their initiatives take the form of an internal venture aimed at the implementation and internal commercialization of their inventions throughout the organization. Therefore, they fall into the realm of internal venturing and intrapreneurship.

Often, intrapreneurs are usually at the middle-management or operational level and making the development of new processes, products, or techniques is less significant and visible. These individuals exploit opportunities by combining knowledge and/or resources in new ways. They promote their inventions by acquiring the support of co-workers and management and getting the necessary support for resource allocation to make the implementation possible. Idea generation is considered to be the production of new and useful ideas applicable to the perceived opportunity. Access to new information and interpretation and combination of established pieces of information are the raw materials from which new means-ends frameworks are fabricated. The availability of such material is determined by the intrapreneur’s own prior knowledge and experience as well as access to further knowledge resources within the organization (Ozgen & Baron, 2007). The mere availability of knowledge and information is not a sufficient condition for the generation of new and useful ideas, but it requires the re-organization and re-
interpretation of acquired information and knowledge in innovative ways. It requires the employee to be creative thus, forming a block for intrapreneurship. Opportunities are usually poorly structured, thus, exploiting the recognized opportunity by selecting and reorganizing pieces of information together with conceptual knowledge often results in forming a new framework (Hennessey & Amabile, 2010).

Organizational innovations

If organizational innovations are the products of intrapreneurial activity, then the determinants of entrepreneurship are the main antecedents to organizational innovation. Organizational conditions that trigger intrapreneurial employee behavior are in place by management who often stimulate, foster or contribute to organizational innovation. As organizational innovation has been shown to be an important source of a firm’s competitive advantage, wealth, and growth (Hecker & Ganter, 2014) it stimulation and steering should be of particular concern to management. Managing organizational innovations therefore means driving and directing intrapreneurial employee behavior by attending to both the individual level (e.g., HR practices that attract entrepreneurially inclined employees) and the organizational level. Managerial measures of influence and intervention, that may facilitate and foster organizational innovation include: employee selection, training and personnel development. Other managerial measures include having a reward system in place, job definition (to allow time allocation on work activities) and resource allocation.

Creating a Culture of Innovation

Managers and leaders are required to understand the direction of the business and match it to advances in technology and create roadmaps that are flexible and agile to support the business growth. Their core responsibility is to understand when it is time to change, what to change and what to endure. Forward thinking leaders are building systems and innovating in ways that will create virtuous cycles for a generation or more (Meyer, p.58). Culture is an organization’s collective assumptions, norms, and values (Organizational Culture, 2018). It defines what is, and what is not acceptable behavior. Using both positive and negative reinforcement. Leaders hold the keys to creating a culture that values and supports innovation. They can establish innovative culture and encourage experimentation and learning by ensuring that their expectations, processes, and incentives are all closely aligned. There should be clear guidelines for acceptable risks that should be communicated to employees. There should be processes in place to ensure that the organization as a whole is able to learn and benefit from innovation. Companies want to be innovative but do not do much to create the right incentives for their employees to take risks. Most big companies are about avoiding failure, and failure should not be the goal, but is should be okay to fail when it comes to innovation. A well-managed company has predictable results because they control the environment and avoid surprises because they are typically bad. Thus, management is about not having unpredictable outcomes, while innovation is considered to be an unpredictable outcome (Meyer, p.26). According to Meyer (2014), to foster innovation, companies need to assertively take some amount of their resources that they can responsibly put at risk, some amount of their people that they can responsibly allow to do things that will probably fail. If they fail, the company is prepared to deal with it but if it succeeds, they will increase the rate at which the world gets
better solutions to problems. In the past, especially in large organizations, any failure jeopardized reputations, careers, and jobs... As a result, people naturally avoided risk. When failure happened rather than learning and then sharing what they had learned with others, people often felt the need to minimize the failure, even cover it up. This mind-set is still deeply embedded in most large organizations today and reinforced in ways that are not just limited to promotion or pay but basically eliminate innovation (Meyer, p.51).

To move forward, leaders should introduce and maintain a failure tolerant culture. It requires that they dig deep into the organization to ferret out practices that encourage the old mind-set and replace them with approaches that support managed risk-taking and leverage the learning from failure in the interest of innovation. Calculated risks seek the optimal risk/reward trade-off in a way consistent with clear organizational guidelines and practices. These guidelines specify the tolerable limits of downside exposure (e.g., investment, resource time, reputation, etc.) and structure innovation initiatives in a way that allows them, if necessary to fail early and with minimal investment. Failures within these limits are clearly learning experiences. To make those failures yield some value, however, leaders must also ensure that the lessons are actually learned and shared with others, so they will not be endlessly repeated.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
TEACHING VALUE CREATION IN NEGOTIATION

BRADLEY A. ALMOND
Texas A&M University – Central Texas
1001 Leadership Place
Killeen, TX  76549

ABSTRACT

To create value, negotiation students are encouraged to focus on their interests (what they want) rather than positions (how much they will give up). Preparation templates direct students to prioritize their interests, but in practice students do not know what their interests are. A framework is proposed to identify them.

INTRODUCTION

For most negotiated agreements, principled negotiators are advised to focus on their interests (i.e., what they want from the negotiation) rather than their positions (i.e., what they are willing to give up to achieve these interests), to invent many options for structuring negotiated outcomes, to use objective criteria to evaluate these options, and to have the best possible alternatives in case an agreement cannot be reached. The initial framework of interests, options, criteria, and alternatives was first developed by Fisher and Ury in their gold-standard book *Getting to Yes* (1991), and has inspired many follow-up books that clarify or extend a particular aspect of one or more of these essential elements of principled negotiation (Ury, 1993, 2015; Fisher & Ertel, 1995; Stone, Patton, & Heen, 2010; Lum, Tyler-Wood, & Wanis-St. John, 2003).

However, when learning how to negotiate, students often participate in role plays across a variety of business and industry domains for which common interests are not well known to them. In easier, introductory exercises, students are often explicitly told what their interests ought to be. But as exercises become more advanced, students are given more and more leeway to enumerate and prioritize additional interests beyond those specifically articulated in the case, and to seek for agreement with their counterparts on these new bases. Negotiation exercises that allow for such leeway may encourage students to be creative in their negotiating, but in practice many students misinterpret this admonition (directed toward the pursuit of interests) as an encouragement to engage in questionable practices such as deception (e.g., misrepresenting interests, creating new facts) or manipulation. As a result, these encouragements, rather than honing student skill, can produce negative and unintended consequences.

To the degree that a student is familiar with the domain and aspirations of the role they have assumed in a particular negotiation exercise, they are able to approximate the scope and priority of the interests of a negotiator who actually operates in that domain. However, in my experience I have found that generic admonitions to focus on interests are insufficient and of limited use for the simple reason that students simply do not know what is possible much of the time.

A secondary complication related to the instruction of interests-based negotiation is that many cases that purport to teach interests-based negotiations often require a specific and sometimes surprising revelation to be able to successfully resolve them. Students who fail to have this *eureka!* moment may approach subsequent cases with skepticism that the cases are
setting them up to make an error, and consequently fail to engage with them with the expected level of vigor, again reducing the benefit of the use of simulated negotiation exercises.

This lack of familiarity with domain-specific interests is not limited to only students of traditional college age who have not spent a lot of time in the full-time workforce. Worksheets that give students space to list their disparate interests are useful to a degree, but they beg the question by assuming that students already know what their interests are, and merely need a tool by which to specify and prioritize them. In practice I have found this not to be accurate.

As a case in point, I teach an exercise on salary negotiation. During the exercise debrief, students are amazed at the number and variety of value-adding options that many employers offer their employees, and admit that they would never have thought of most of them. This is true even though many of the identified items are interests the students would love to have satisfied by their present or future employers. In other words, even though the students have these interests, they cannot identify them when they are asked to articulate them as part of a negotiation exercise.

Furthermore, there is a bit of a catch-22 in negotiation pedagogy. Best practice dictates that you run exercises first, then thread conceptual and practical tips into the debrief of the exercise (Thompson, 2014). This process often includes pointing out the clever or creative solutions or agreements that particular negotiating parties within the class came up with. Some students find this a bit frustrating, and may see each exercise as a set-up for failure by withholding the trick or key that would have enabled them to succeed. Over time they find themselves waiting during the debrief for the proverbial penny to drop—to learn what mistake they made that will be obvious in hindsight. Of course, you can’t tell students exactly what to do beforehand: otherwise there is very little benefit to the exercise. But if you wait to tell them afterwards what they could have done to be successful you run the risk of having them feel cheated, and of having them disengage from the exercises, generally. This is particularly true in integrative exercises involving logrolling.

In short, I have found that students often commit a common negotiation error—leaving money on the table (i.e., not creating a lot of value in negotiation exercises)—simply because they don’t know how to do so. To address this issue, I have developed a list that identifies the three key domains (and several sub-components) through which value can be created in negotiations. This list will be presented in abbreviated form below.

EXPANDING THE PIE

Negotiators differentiate between the processes of value creation and value distribution (Thompson, 2014). Successful negotiations emphasize the processes in this order. The common error many negotiators make is to focus on the latter of these, value distribution—which relates to the “who gets what?” question—while neglecting the former. Value creation, on the other hand, is dependent on the identification, prioritization, and disclosure of negotiator interests. Exercises and negotiation instruction that purport to teach students how to do this focus on the prioritization of interests (which is a matter of preparation) and the disclosure of interests (which is a matter of both preparation and process). Again, the assumption is that negotiators already know what their interests are, which I have found to be inaccurate in many of the exercises I run with students. To this end, I offer the outline below to help students identify possible interests that may be used to create value in any negotiation. It is not comprehensive, but I believe it is sufficient to kick start the process.
Furthermore, to illustrate some of the items in the list below, I will use the scenario presented in the Coffee Contract negotiation exercise (Simons & Tripp, 2004), in which a food and beverage manager for a hotel negotiates with a sales representative from coffee bean supplier to provide the coffee for use throughout the hotel. The role information for each of the parties identifies how much may be spent (for the buyer) and how little may be accepted (for the seller), and additional personal incentives in the form of bonus compensation is awarded to one or both of the parties for prices above or below a specific sales price threshold. In spite of hints in the role information that encourage students to consider more than just the sales price of the coffee beans, many students spend all of their time haggling over sales price (value distribution) and miss many opportunities to create value altogether.

**Resources**

*Resources* broadly refers to the full range of goods and services that can be exchanged in a negotiation. It is often helpful to think of these resources according to the various business functions brought to bear on a negotiated outcome. Examples include production resources, marketing resources, distribution resources, and sales resources. In the Coffee Contract negotiation, a variety of production, marketing, and distribution resources can be considered as value-creation opportunities. Examples include coffee grinding, brewing (including equipment and materials such as water, filters, and cups), equipment maintenance and training, shipping, and branding opportunities. There are a variety of ways to approach resources within a negotiation to explore value creation possibilities, including the following:

1. **Partitioning**—taking what is normally bought and sold as a bundle or unit and breaking it into sub-components in such a way that additional value is created
2. **Combining / extending**—taking what is normally bought and sold as a discrete item or units and combining it into a single transaction
3. **Complementing**—taking what may be
4. **Prioritizing**
5. **Logrolling**
6. In the Coffee Contract exercise, this area would include many things: shipping (which is negotiated on the bases of shipping costs, storage costs, and shelf life), branding, training, support, filters, additional flavors,

**Relationships**

Just as value can be created through resource considerations, value can be created by negotiating relationship-based considerations. To help students see how this can be so, I often ask them to consider what characteristics or behaviors make a relationship (of any kind—not just a romantic relationship) special. In other words, what differentiates a relationship with a friend, family member, or romantic interest from a relationship with someone you have only just met? I then urge students to consider how the items in the lists they generate could be factored into a negotiated agreement. These items include things like the following:

1. Loyalty / commitment
2. Exclusivity
3. Reciprocal
4. Frequent contact
5. Transparency
6. Trust
7. Shared friends
8. Shared interests
9. Longevity

Many, if not all, of these items can be factored into a negotiation to create value. For example, loyalty and longevity can be operationalized in a negotiation as a long-term contract. Exclusivity can be written into a contract, as well. In the Coffee Contract scenario, the hotel could agree to use only beans from the specific vendor, for example. Many other relationship-based interests can similarly be incorporated into a negotiation either as part of the formal agreement or as part of the process:

1. Respect
2. Referrals or shared contacts
3. Endorsements or sponsorships
4. Reviews or recommendations

Risk

Risk is a necessary concomitant to the above two value creation domains. When two or more parties agree to exchange goods and services over time, there will necessarily be forces and factors that could adversely affect the relative distribution of value to each party over the course of the agreement. This is especially true for forces for which the parties have no foresight and over which they have no control. The ownership of these risks can be incorporated directly into the negotiated agreement. In the Coffee Contract case, I ask students to consider what these risks might be. Once they are primed, students are usually able to generate a lengthy list that includes items such as the following:

1. Crop failure
2. Supply chain interruption due to weather or political problems, etc.
3. Change in coffee consumption volume within the hotel
4. Coffee storage, spoilage, or theft from within the hotel
5. Quality control issues
6. Scandal or bad press for the hotel or the coffee bean producer
7. Government policy affecting imports or local tax rates, etc.

Again, these risks can be incorporated into a negotiated agreement in the form of any number of contingency agreements, including:

1. Morality clauses (allowing contract nullification in the case of a scandal that may damage one of the brands by affiliation)
2. Volume-based discounts that can kick in without renegotiation
3. Allowances for renegotiation upon request by either party for unforeseen circumstances
4. Non-compete clauses
5. First rights of refusal
REFERENCES


CLEARING THE BAR: VOSVIEWER STANDARDS IN SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP RESEARCH

RYAN BAILEY
The University of Tulsa
501-837-3347
rxbailey@ualr.edu

INTRODUCTION

As the field of bibliometrics continues to develop and mature, additional tools have been created to simplify the arduous processing of large datasets to produce meaningful visuals and data analysis. One such tool (VOSviewer), developed by Nees Jan van Eck and Ludo Waltman, enables users to graphically plot copious amounts of data (Van Eck and Waltman, 2010). The tool allows for varying types of bibliometric methods including co-authorship, co-occurrence, citation, co-citation, and bibliographic coupling. Researchers can analyze data based on authors, journals, countries, keywords, and publications. VOSviewer can process data from various data sources including Web of Science (WOS), Scopus, and DOI files. Due to its ability to generate density maps, data clusters, and network analysis, VOSviewer has been increasingly utilized by researchers across multiple disciplines such as arts-based management, entrepreneurship, space research, safety, and sustainability.

The purpose of this study is to generate discussion regarding the creation of more intentional applied standards within VOSviewer as well as to promote further consistency among researchers when conducting empirical analysis of the literature. While this scholastic void currently affects all fields of research employing bibliometric methods, this study provides an initial assessment of the impact on social entrepreneurship research to demonstrate the need for research uniformity.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Bibliometric analysis

Bibliometrics is a branch of scientometrics that provides an empirical method to assess trends and data within published knowledge content. It quantifies the textual word content of titles, abstracts, authorship, and works cited to identify themes and networks within fields of research that may not be readily apparent. It includes five overarching analysis dimensions that allow researchers to conduct literature reviews with reduced bias:

1. Citation – Perhaps the most widely measured and referenced method, citation analysis states the number of times a document has been cited by other publications. This type of information is commonly measured by academic sites such as the Web of Science (WOS) and Google Scholar.
2. Co-citation – A less obvious measure is the number of times two documents are cited together within the bibliography of another document. This method helps to identify clusters of research, which are frequently considered foundational to corresponding topics. High co-citation linkages are regularly indicative of correlations among research content.
3. Co-authorship – Similar to co-citation analysis, co-authorship quantifies the number of times two authors have published documents with one another. It is conducive to identifying research networks, which can reveal nuances, such as relationships between universities, regions and countries.

4. Bibliographic coupling – The least intuitive works cited metric, bibliographic coupling identifies the number of shared references between two documents. In this method, documents are considered to be more strongly correlated when they integrate many of the same foundational texts.

5. Co-occurrence – A final method that takes a sharp turn away from citations is the analysis of keywords that are shared among documents. By assessing commonly recurring keywords within article titles and abstracts, researchers are able to identify topical trends within large datasets.

**VOSviewer**

There are multiple tools (e.g., Bibexcel, Perish, Pajek, CiteSpace, R, Science of Science, Vantage Point, etc.) and mapping techniques for displaying bibliometric data. VOSviewer is a tool to algorithmically create distance-based cluster maps to visually depict relationships among data sets. Some researchers have proposed VOSviewer as an arguably superior alternative to multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) due to the ability to aggregate clusters by corresponding total link strength (Van Eck et al., 2008).

As part of the diagram creation, users are able to set linkage thresholds to control the quantity of data inputs (e.g., minimum number of citations, documents, and keyword occurrence). While various authors have discussed the thresholds used to plot their data maps, no articles located within the WOS have provided any justifications for their chosen standards. Additionally, in multiple publications authors selected different linkage standards for each type of analysis. No commonality was found among research methodologies to support a generally accepted threshold for any bibliometric charts.

**Social entrepreneurship**

Social Entrepreneurship (SE) is a burgeoning segment of entrepreneurial research. It poses the ideal of sustainable organizational development with decreased dependency on charitable donations. In essence, it embodies the altruistic spirit of an entrepreneur directed at societal change. In the most cited article on the topic, Mair and Marti (2006: 37) define SE as a “process involving the innovative use and combination of resources to pursue opportunities to catalyze social change and/or address social needs.” Due to the entrepreneurial nature, SE is characteristically a cross-disciplinary field including a broad spectrum of research nodes, such as accounting, anthropology, economics, education, entrepreneurship, finance, law, management, marketing, operations management, political science, psychology, and sociology (Short, Moss, and Lumpkin, 2009).

The data for this study was collected via the Web of Science (WOS) by searching for the following SE keywords identified by Short, Moss, and Lumpkin (2009): "social entrepre*", "social enterpris*", "social ventur*", or "social business*". By truncating the search terms and using an asterisk to notate the abbreviation, researchers are able to obtain results for any variations of the terms (e.g., social entrepreneur or social entrepreneurship). As suggested by
Rey-Marti et al. (2015), results were refined to articles and reviews published in business journals through 2018, which generated 1,008 results. The results were further reduced by including only results that referenced “VOSviewer”, which resulted in zero articles.

Due to the insufficient data, the study was expanded to include all publications within entrepreneurship utilizing VOSviewer. The subsequent search produced six results:

----------------------------------
Table 1 about here
----------------------------------

DISCUSSION

The research suggests VOSviewer is an unexplored method to analyze SE. Only six entrepreneurship articles have utilized VOSviewer for data visualization and none in SE. As demonstrated by the findings, there is no general consensus of setting thresholds for data inclusion when creating map outputs in entrepreneurship research. Even within given articles, authors set differing thresholds based on the bibliometric method assessed. And in no cases did an author provide an explanation for the chosen standard. Thus, it is speculative if this behavior was to produce a desired number of data outputs, to simplify cluster logic, or to produce a preferred visual map. Regardless, it weakens the empirical strength of the presented content.

The lack of use of the VOSviewer application within SE is partially due to the fact that SE is still an evolving and rapidly growing body of research. In their bibliometric analysis of SE, Sassmannshausen and Volkmann (2018) establish that SE research grew at a glacial pace until 1997, followed by considerable growth from 1998-2006 and a “mega-trend” from 2007-2012. While bibliometric studies in SE have been conducted at least as early as 2010 (Short, Moss, and Lumpkin), the field has only in recent years grown large enough to mandate a more scientific analysis of the literature.

There are several inherent limitations to this study. First only articles included within the WOS databases was assessed. Some have considered alternative data gathering tools such as Google Scholar to provide a more comprehensive dataset; however, that approach introduces a myriad of differing complications for data reliability such as inconsistent data over time and duplicate search results (Sassmannhausen and Volkmann, 2018). Another constraint on the search results is the dependency on the SE, entrepreneurship, and VOSviewer search terms being mentioned in either the title, abstract, or keywords of the article. For instance, identification of a study using VOSviewer in SE was identified via a search of scientometrics and bibliometrics in entrepreneurship research. This risk is most likely to occur when SE is an ancillary focus of an article and thus unlikely to provide as much basis for analysis as more popular topics in the general entrepreneurship field.

Future studies should explore if any empirical standards have been identified by researchers outside of the entrepreneurship field. Additional research is necessary to explore the implications of alternative thresholds. For example, including full data sets may be cumbersome and create difficulties in determining clustering logic not communicated from within VOSviewer. Users must analyze the full data inputs to manually identify clustering logic. However, excessive restrictions on data inclusion may alternatively cause biased data mapping that excludes innovative ideas at the fringes of knowledge networks. Moreover, it would behoove researchers to assess if these standards apply across all bibliometric analytical methods.
or if varying thresholds should be set for each bibliometric type (i.e., citation, co-citation, co-authorship, co-occurrence, and bibliographic coupling).

REFERENCES


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Method &amp; Threshold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Look Back Over the Past 40 Years of Female Entrepreneurship: Mapping Knowledge Networks</td>
<td>Santos, Gina; Marques, Carla Susana; Ferreira, Joao J.</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Journal co-citation: Min = 35; Author co-citation: Min = 30; Document co-citation: Min = 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entreprenurial Cognition and Socially Situated Approach: A Systematic and Bibliometric Analysis</td>
<td>Sassetti, Sara; Marzi, Giacomo; Cavaliere, Vincenzo; Ciappei, Cristiano</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Bibliographic coupling: No Min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurial University: Towards a Better Understanding of Past Trends and Future Directions</td>
<td>Mascarenhas, Carla; Marques, Carla Susana; Galvao, Anderson Rei; Santos, Gina</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>Author co-citation: Min = 11; Journal co-citation: Min = 12; Document co-citation: Min = 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mapping the Field of Arts-Based Management: Bibliographic Coupling and Co-Citation Analyses</td>
<td>Ferreira, Fernando A. F.</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Article co-citation: Min = 2; Journal co-citation: Min = 20; Author co-citation: Min = 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strength in Small: The University of Malta's Scientific Output Since Accession</td>
<td>McMillan, G. Steven; Lalonde, Bastien St-Louis; Bezzina, Frank H.; Casey, Debra L.</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Document co-citation: No min; Country co-authorship: No min; Keyword co-occurrence: No min; Country bibliographic coupling: No min; Organization bibliographic coupling: No min;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University-Industry Cooperation: A Systematic Literature Review and Research Agenda</td>
<td>Mascarenhas, Carla; Ferreira, Joao J.; Marques, Carla</td>
<td>2018</td>
<td>Article co-citation: Min = 10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
COMMITMENT TO CHANGE: VALIDATION OF SCALE THROUGH EFA AND CFA IN PRIVATIZATION CONTEXT OF PAKISTAN

HAROON BAKARI
Department of Business Administration
Sindh University Campus Thatta, Pakistan

AHMED IMRAN HUNJRA
PMAS-Arid Agriculture University Rawalpindi, Pakistan

STEPHEN JAROS
Southern University, USA

INTRODUCTION

The only consistent aspect of organizations is ‘change’. Managing organizational change encompasses greater skills, time and efforts on the part of leaders and employees. Lewin (1947) argues that organizational change can be implemented by altering human behavior and breaking the status quo. Force field analysis suggested by Lewin proposes that there are two forces for and against the change, former wishes to maintain the status quo and latter to break it. In order to move from status quo to a new point of equilibrium, a force is needed that makes this change lasting. Scholars argue that this force is based on the mindset which binds people to a new “course of action” which lead towards internalization of organizational change (see Herscovitch and Meyer (2002: 475)).

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) terms this conceptualization “commitment to change”, and proposed a three-component model comprising affective, normative and continuance commitment to organizational change. Meta-analytic results of 17 studies spread over the past decade (Bouckenooghe et al., 2015) show strong support for the dimensionality of Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) scale and its predictive power towards behavioral support for change. Authors offer a number of future avenues to enhance understanding of commitment to change construct such as they suggest that (1) this construct may be explained further using theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), (2) commitment to change scale needs further investigation in non-north American context so that translation versions of scale may be checked for their conceptual strength, and (3) Outcomes of commitment to change, that is, absenteeism, job satisfaction, behavioral support for change, job performance and turnover intention may be explored to enhance nomological net of the construct. Therefore, purpose of this paper is to report validation of translated version of commitment to change scale in sample drawn from health sector organizations of Pakistan. Future directions in terms of theoretical practical implications of commitment to change scale and construct are discussed specific to Pakistani context.

Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) commented that Commitment to change predicts employees Behavioral support for planed organizational change. Greater proportion is shared by affective commitment to change when the change is perceived to be beneficial to employees. Continuance commitment to change also explains greater impact upon behavioral support when employee feel themselves bound to support the change as opposite reaction (i.e. not supporting the change) is risky and they cannot afford it due various reasons.

Morin et al. (2015) also argue that affective commitment to change is compromised when employee perceive the need for the change, but the process of change is not flawless and is not felt as legitimate. At that time employee may demonstrate continuance commitment to change...
which shows their intention to continue the job due the reasons not necessarily related with planned organizational change initiative. Recent study in Pakistani manufacturing sector organizations studied impact of ACC, CCC and NCC with compliance, cooperation and championing behaviors. ACC was found positive and significant with only compliance behavior and CCC and NCC were found positive and significant with only cooperation behavior. No dimension of C2C was positive and significant with championing behavior (Adil, 2016). Besides inconsistent results (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; Meyer et al., 2007), important limitation of this study was small sample size (less than 200). Authors recommended studying commitment to change in Pakistani service sector with larger sample suitable for SEM (p.15). Thus, this study fills the gap to explore role of various dimensions of commitment to change in shaping Behavioral support for organizational change. Thus, our basic expectation is that the C2C scales will perform similarly in Pakistan compared to published research from western contexts:

H1. Commitment to change is multidimensional construct valid in Pakistani context
H2. Commitment to change dimensions will correlate positively to behavioural support for change

**METHOD**

A suitable setting / context was chosen for this study based on proposed research model. As main objective of the study was to test and validate commitment to change scale, therefore suitable setting for this scale as suggested by Walker et al. (2007) should have been that which is going to experience, is experiencing or has experienced organizational change in recent past. In order to search organizations in Pakistan undergoing changes, a list was prepared based on information collected from internet sources and newspaper reports (Kalyal, 2009; Cunningham, 2006). Available information revealed that in Sindh, Pakistan, some 1700 health facilities were handed over to NGOs under public-private partnership program. These facilities include basic health units, ambulance services, Taluka hospitals and district hospitals. This study focused on five major district hospitals which were being affected in the said program mainly due to the reason that these hospitals have relatively greater number of employees than scattered low-staffed BHUs and were also unionized. As unionized employees are more responsive to recurring changes, this study found this sample as suitable setting for testing commitment to change scale (Brown and Cregan, 2008). There were also the calls for the research to be undertaken in public sector privatization context of Pakistan (Aslam et al., 2015).

Data were collected through structured questionnaires using paper and pencil method by involving researcher and his team personally. In case of hospital, meeting was conducted with respective heads of the institutes and representatives of employee unions in order to remove their initial skepticism and to buffer their perception of any alliance of this research with the objectives of organizations supposed to take over the said hospitals. They were briefed that this research is surely academic in nature and researcher has no any link with proposed organizations which are supposed to take over hospitals. They were also briefed that their response will remain confidential, no identity of respondents will be evident from questionnaire, results will be used to draw theoretical and practical implications for employees and managers of the organizations to improve working conditions in the hospitals.
To measure commitment to planned organizational change an 18-item instrument of (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002) was used. The scale consists of three dimensions and each consists of six items.

For predictive validity of commitment to change behavioural support for change scale was used. It again contains three dimensions such as compliance which refers to employee behaviour of supporting the basic requirement of change, cooperation behaviour refers the employee behaviour of supporting the change beyond what is expected from traditional approach. Championing refers to not only supporting the change but being agent of change to yield support of outsiders of the organizations.

The scales were translated in Urdu, then back translated into English and then translated into Urdu (Brislin, 1970) by three scholars having command of English as well as management literature. The three versions were compared and matched to determine one final version. Scales were also modified to meet cultural and contextual requirements of health sector (Chapman and Carter, 1979).

RESULTS

In this study, exploratory factor analysis was used separately for each C2C variable to investigate and confirm its factor structure in the context of Pakistan and validate each scale for its Urdu version. Four methods were used to conduct exploratory factor analysis. Extraction Value/Load Factor, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure and Bartelett test, Scree plot, and Total Variance Explained. The value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy for commitment to change scale was .878 and the Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant (p <.001), which revealed sample data is appropriate for conducting factor analysis. Analysis of communalities of commitment to change reveals that one item i.e. NCC2 loaded on value less than .4. Item ACC2 showed highest load factor (.803). Principal axis factoring resulted in three factors with Eigen value greater than 1.0 which explained total variance 64%. Following three factors emerged. These factors corresponded to continuance, affective, and normative commitment to change, though there was some evidence of reverse-coding effects with the affective scale. Also, some items of NCC and ACC cross loaded on each other, not surprising since all three scales measure commitment to change. Coefficient alpha scores were acceptable for all three factors.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

This section reports the results of confirmatory factor analysis carried out through using analysis of a moment structures (AMOS) 23.0 software. In this section, factor loadings are computed on the basis of values of factor loadings decision to retain or delete the items is made. Convergent and construct validities are computed based on retained items and their factor loadings.

Factor Loadings, AVE and CR

Table 5 shows the standardized regression weights achieved through AMOS Graphics 23.0 for commitment to organizational change and its three dimensions. Our analysis reveals that factor loadings of affective commitment to change range from .77 to .83 this shows good item to
factor contribution. Factor loadings of Normative and continuance commitment to change range from .52 to 64 and from .7 to 89 respectively. Factor loadings of normative commitment to change, though fulfilling minimum criteria, are lower than .7 thus reflect weaker factor loadings.

Average variance extracted and factor loadings are also used to indicate convergent validity of construct. Value of AVE (> .5) reflect evidence of convergent validity. AVE values for C2C are 0.63, 0.40 and 0.70 for ACC, NCC and CCC respectively.

In order to measure reliability of the scales, criteria of Cronbach’s Alpha is used. As reported in table 5, all the values of Cronbach’s Alpha surpass the minimum threshold i.e. .70. However, researchers suggest that Cronbach alpha is weak measure of reliability due to its sensitivity to sample size. Therefore Fornell and Larcker (1981) introduced measure of Composite reliability which is computed using the values of factor loadings obtained through CFA in a formula suggested by them. Minimum threshold for CR is that it should be greater than .7. Results of this study reveal that the values of composite reliability (CR) for ACC, NCC and CCC is 0.90, 0.80 and 0.93 respectively. It is clear that CR values are greater than 0.80 in all cases which suggest a better construct reliability.

**Comparison of Alternate Models**

To test first hypothesis that three-factor model is valid model in Pakistani settings, four competing models were tested. First model comprises 18-item three factor original model, second model is two-factor model in which ACC and NCC are combined to form one factor, in third two-factor model NCC and CCC are combined to form single factor and in fourth model, all 18 items are combined in a composite factor. Following on Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) approach, this study checks model fitness using measures of expected cross validation index (ECVI), root-mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and Chi-square. Additionally, this study also provides measures of CFI, GFI and AGFI. RMSEA is recommended to evaluate model fitness as it represents maximum likelihood of solution of model. RMSEA measures discrepancy of model to data while adjusting for degree of freedom (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002).

Results showed that RMSEA and ECVI for three-factor model are better fit to the data as compared to other models. Value of RMSEA is less than .1 (.09) for three-factor model as compared to other models whose values range from .127 to .196. ECVI value for three-factor model (2.029) is lowest of all four competing models. Chi – square value of the three-factor model is less than 5 and depicts the model is reasonably fit. P value is significant. Values of comparative fit index, Goodness of Fit Index and adjusted goodness of fit index are also better for three-factor model than that of other competing models. In conclusion, it is safe to believe that three factor-model of commitment to change is a more robust and valid model than other two factor or composite factor solutions in Pakistan.

Second hypothesis is related to predictive validity of the commitment to change, that is, extent to which constructs correlate positively with organizationally relevant constructs. This study used behavioral support for change construct. This construct is also comprised of three components which represent discretionary and focal behaviors. Results reveal that all three
dimensions of commitment to change are positively and significantly correlated with cooperation, compliance and championing behaviors.

**DISCUSSION**

Main objective of this research was to test the validity of commitment to change scale in Pakistani context. Need of this study is well recognized in literature calling for the testing of commitment to change construct outside North America to determine validity of construct in other cultures (Bouckenooghe et al., 2015). Specifically translated versions of commitment to change if found valid will add up to the robustness of the construct. Moreover, in recent past large stream of research has focused on the commitment to change as a mechanism that will result in positive internalization of organizational change (Bakari et al., 2017). This study has applied robust measures to test the validity of three-component model of commitment to change. No such effort has been made earlier in this regard.

Generally speaking, our results are consistent with literature as the overall pattern of results our analyses - reliability estimates, factor structure, and prediction of outcomes – is consistent with the model of commitment to change as proposed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) and validated by them. However, there were some differences between our results in Pakistan and their results generated from the USA and Canada. First, our results showed, significant, positive correlations between all three C2C constructs and all three behavioral outcomes – compliance, cooperation, and championing of change. This study thus shows that the C2C constructs have more predictive power in Pakistan than they did in Herscovitch and Meyer’s original study. Why might this be the case? While further validation research is necessary, this great predictive utility could possibly be reflective of Pakistan’s more collectivist and restrained culture (as defined by Hofstede), as we might expect that a tendency to submit oneself to the ‘collective will’ could result in a greater propensity to support change regardless of the basis of one’s commitment to change.

Second, in the Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) study, respondents reported a higher mean level of continuance commitment to change than of affective or normative commitment to change. In contrast, this study (table 7) found Pakistani respondents to have higher levels of affective C2C than continuance C2C. This is consistent with the notion that, compared to the USA and Canada, Pakistan is a more collectivist society, and one in which people are less likely to act based on their personal preferences, commitment based on one’s personal costs and benefits associated with the change will be lower than commitment which is more oriented towards compliance with social norms (normative C2C) and affinity with the group (affective C2C). However, while representing differences, these findings do demonstrate a considerable amount of robustness in the original Herscovitch and Meyer model, as the constructs did perform consistent with the theory of C2C embodied in that model despite the cultural differences between Pakistan and its places of development.

**Significance of Study**

This study will be significant contribution to the theory and practice as it has applied exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis to test the validity of commitment to change in a Pakistani setting, finding that despite some culturally-based nuances, the model is generally robust and can thus be recommended for usage in Pakistan, and possibly other, south Asian
countries. Although values of Cronbach’s Alpha met and surpass the minimum criteria and thus indicated reliability of the construct. This study also provided evidence of reliability through measure of composite reliability which is a better approach to measure reliability as compared to Cronbach’s Alpha. Evidence is also shared as regards construct validity, convergent validity. Positive correlations of affective, normative and continuance commitment to change with compliance, cooperation and championing behaviour contribute towards predictive validity of commitment to change.

Moreover, this study has provided evidence of predictive validity through testing relationship between commitment to change and behavioral support for change through correlational analysis. This is consistent with how the relations between the C2C constructs and outcomes has been assessed in prior studies (Baraldi et al., 2010; Bakari et al., 2017). But, there is need to test commitment to change in a wider context testing a model underlying antecedents and consequences of commitment to change. More specifically, in a recent book Meyer and Anderson (2016) proposed a model of action commitments involving different aspects such as personal, situational and motivational factors while incorporating impact of other entity based commitments to foster supportive behaviours and organizational outcomes (Meyer and Anderson, 2016: 180). Future research must test this model in Pakistani context.

**Practical Implications**

This study also offers some practical implications. Commitment to change construct is important precursor to supportive behaviours in the organizations; it also incorporates different aspects regarding human attitudes as regards accepting organizational change. This commitment to change construct may serve as a tool to generate positive behaviours at the time when there is great uncertainty and feeling of insecurity when organizations are moving from statuesque to a new stage of refreezing (Lewin, 1951; Bakari et al., 2017). Managers and leaders of organizational change need to display positive benefits of organizational change to generate affective commitment to change. While increasing employee perception that change is most needed they can generate normative commitment to change (Bakari et al., 2017).

**Conclusion**

Major objective of this study was to replicate the validity of commitment to change construct in Pakistani setting. It has been done by providing evidence of reliability and validity of commitment to change through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis and using variety of measures. It is fair to believe that commitment to change construct is robust construct in its three-component structure. This construct may provide greater avenues for future research as it has ability to represent varying attitudes regarding commitment to change initiatives.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR(S)
ETHICAL ANALYSIS OF ENTERPRISE RESOURCE PLANNING

DR. HATEM BATA
Albany State University
500 COLLEGE AVE ALBANY, GA, 31707

DR. DEVI AKELLA
Albany State University

INTRODUCTION

Enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems support the daily business operations and decision-making processes including internal and external management of information across an entire organization (Khaparde, 2012). ERP systems streamline the flow of information inside and across various business processes, thereby improving sharing and processing of information within the organization (Dorantes, Li, Peters and Richardson, 2013). Thus successful implementation of ERP systems can lead to improved business performances (Myreteg, 2015). However, it also causes organization leadership to face conflicting commitments towards their employees and the organization ownership. They realize that successful implementation of ERP will result in competitive advantages improving their financial performance. Better financial performance would result in further organizational growth and expansion (Myreteg, 2015). On the other hand, ERP technology could lead to a variation in the working hours and in the level of workers’ skills needed. Due to technology implementation, some tasks would require less time, resulting in reduction of some labor time and employee pay. Implementation of ERP would result in loss of some jobs, with functions or departments becoming redundant or smaller due to organizational redesign (Hall, 2002).

In other words, in spite of improving organizational efficiency, ERP also leads to labor redundancy raising the issue of corporate social responsibility and business ethics. This paper seeks to examine the ethical implications surrounding the implementation of ERP i.e., whether implementation of ERP system could be deemed ethical regardless of its negative impact on the employees? The paper will discuss research issues pertaining to:

- What are the manager’s corporate social responsibilities towards different stakeholders?
- Which of these responsibilities should take precedence in case of a conflict between them?
- Is implementing ERP system ethical even if it has a negative impact on the employees?
- What are the methodologies through which labor resistance could be minimized to allow better corporate performativity and streamlining?

ERP AND CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Traditionally, management has based technology implementation decisions on the projected financial impact of these technologies. Technologies that are projected to improve financial performance are more likely to be implemented. The ethical impact of these business decisions is usually ignored.

Collectively, private sector managers and employers have had a big impact on the labor market, since 87% of world population works for private institutions (International Labor Organization, 2017). For this reason, many corporations have adopted corporate codes of conduct to regulate their practices and practices of their business partners (Caffentzis, 2016). Nevertheless, there are few corporations that protect their employees’ jobs from the negative
impact of technology as part of their corporate code of conduct. The next section discusses these ethical principles surrounding technology and its implementation within organizations in the context of labor redundancy and job loss.

**ETHICS AND ENTERPRISE RESOURCE PLANNING**

This section discusses two types of ethical theories. The first, normative theory is the study of ethical action. It is the branch of philosophy investigating questions that occur when deciding about the moral source of action. The word "normative" refers to guidelines or norms for ethical principles or values stating human obligations or duties. Normative theory investigates systems of moral rightness and wrongness to provide principles and procedures for determining what (morally speaking) a person should do and should not do (Uhlmann, Pizarro & Diermeier, 2015).

Normative ethics is prescriptive in nature, rather than descriptive. To be effective, ethical discourse must use understandings, procedures, and judgment criteria that most rational people who are concerned with morality and ethics must uphold (Uhlmann et al, 2015). Normative ethics is a theory of morality that originates duty or moral obligation from what is good or desirable as a goal to be achieved. Teleological ethics proposes that the basic standard of duty is the contribution that an action makes to the realization of immoral values. Hence, it is also known as consequentialist ethics. Teleological theories have diverse definitions of immoral goods that actions ought to promote.

The capability approach suggests that freedom to achieve well-being is a matter of what people are able to do and to be, and thus the kind of life they are effectively able to lead. The capability approach is seen as a flexible and multi-purpose framework, rather than a precise theory of well-being. Nussbaum (2014) has used the Aristotelian definition of the greater good using the capabilities perspective. The capability approach makes two key normative claims: first, the claim that the freedom to achieve well-being is of principal moral value, and second, that freedom to achieve well-being is to be understood in terms of individuals’ capabilities, that is, their real opportunities to do and be what they have reason to value. She claims the institution should be designed with the intention to maximize human capabilities (Nussbaum, 2014).

By applying Nussbaum (2014) standards on the role of sociability and responsiveness to others in humans, corporate leader should attempt to make individuals’ life complete (teleon), sufficient (hazkanon), and choice-worthy (hazreton). Corporate social responsibility should be defined in terms of the firm’s duty to maximize capabilities of its different stakeholders. Ideally firms should provide its employees with a livable wage, safe working conditions, good education and training, and empowerment to participate in the decision making. While, managers also have the duty to realize the capabilities of the shareholders by maximizing their return on investment without polluting the environment. These responsibilities could sometime become conflicting as in the case when implementing the ERP system. A manager may face ethical dilemmas because of this conflict.

Sen (2009) has a more flexible and practical approach to capabilities by equating capabilities. The capability approach is defined by giving more choices, options and freedoms to an individual to live the kind of life he/she has reason to value. Freedom is the individuals’ ability to choose the life s/he wants to lead and to choose between different styles and ways of
living. Sen (2009) also acknowledges that the difference in capabilities is based on the social class. This gives a variety of options for executives when implementing technology by giving them the right to trade and make profit to increase their capabilities. On the other hand, technology infringes on the employees’ capabilities through possible reduction in their wages and job security.

Utilitarianism is one of the most powerful and persuasive approaches to normative ethics. Utilitarianism perspective holds that the end consists in the aggregate balance of pleasure to pain for all concerned, so it employs a quantitative and reductionist approach to ethics. Utilitarianism attempts to balance individual goals of pursuing pleasure and avoiding pain with social good. Utilitarianism asserts that the ethical worth of an action is based on its outcome on society by maximizing the advantages and decreasing the disadvantages. According to Hume (2006: 114) “this circumstance of public utility is ever---- than by ascertaining, on any side, the true interests of mankind”.

A firm seeks to maximize profits and minimize costs, therefore the technological choice of ERP that decreases the costs and improves performance. ERPs aim at connecting business processes and technology into a harmonized suite of procedures, applications and metrics connecting the firm with its business partners (Johansson and Newman, 2010). ERP is linked to increased productivity, decreased production and warehousing costs. Technology is also linked to efficiencies in communication leading to improved accessibility to designs, CAD drawings, specifications, work tick-lists, work crew assignments coordination in works, knowledge about handling dangerous materials and scheduling current data (Platner and Dong, 2002).

In addition, successful implementation provides the firm with competitive advantages. ERPs enables the firm to implement standardized business processes to coordinate complicated multifaceted operations. The system provides a full information picture of the organization by allowing different business units to share information with each other. Furthermore, a comprehensive data base leads to reduction in data entry and monitoring costs, while allowing knowledge and innovation to be shared across the organization. This in turn makes the impact of individual business units visible to the whole organization (Lengnick-Hall and Lengnick-Hall, 2006).

Competitiveness of an economy is dependent on the extent to which institutions enact policies that improve a country’s productivity. Productivity sets the bar of prosperity that can be reached by an economy. Key antecedent of productivity include investment in physical capital and infrastructure and technological progress (Schwab and Sala-i-Martín, 2017). Higher investment in technology leads to a marked increase in higher productivity gains at both firm and country levels. Firms that have adopted ERP systems have reported increased long-term productivity.

Strong institutions such as firms play a critical role in the county’s competitiveness. The global financial crisis and several corporate scandals, have shown the importance of accounting and reporting standards and transparency as preventive measures against fraud and mismanagement enhancing investor and consumer confidence (Schwab and Sala-i-Martín, 2017). ERP system provide management with timely information to managers, hence improve their ability to process and analyze accounting information. Since ERP connects different parts
of the organization, it enhances the firm’s ability to collect more accurate information regarding financial performance (Dorantes et al. 2013). Since different departments of the organization and its partners have to work together to collect the information, they need to be trained to follow the proper accounting and reporting standards. This will inadvertently contribute to the spread of accounting knowledge throughout the organization (Caglio, 2003).

Individual firms’ advanced operations use of sound strategies may spill over into the economy resulting in more complex and unique products. Adoption of modern business processes such as ERP system could spread across the country’s business sector leading to a more competitive economy (Schwab and Sala-i-Martin, 2017). Therefore, a manager using the utilitarian moral outlook may see that implementing the ERP technology is beneficial to society.

Sen (2009) introduced the notion of conversion factors to the capabilities approach. Resources like goods, technologies and services possess characteristics that make them useful to society. Personal conversion factors are internal to the individual like metabolism, physical condition, sex, reading skills, or intelligence. Social conversion factors are factors from the society in which one lives. These include public policies, social norms, practices that unfairly discriminate, societal hierarchies, or power relations related to class, gender, race, or caste. Environmental conversion factors emerge from the physical or built environment in which a person lives such as geographic location climate and pollution.

Deontology is a type normative ethical theory judging the morality of an action based on the action's adherence to a rule or rules. The right is defined prior and independently from the good, thus an action cannot be justified by its impact, regardless of how morally good the consequences are, some choices are morally forbidden. Therefore, it could be seen as "duty" or "obligation" or "rule" -based ethics. Deontology provides guidance regarding which choices are morally required, forbidden, or permitted. Rightness of an action is founded upon in following certain norms. Deontology falls within the domain of moral theories that guide and assess our choices of what should be done, thus it is prescriptive in nature (Scheffler, 1982).

Rawls (2009) developed a theory of justice that aims to prove that freedom and equality could be integrated into a seamless unity. He called this justice fairness. He created the reflective equilibrium procedure as a means to answer questions about ethics and justice. Reflective equilibrium identifies a group of principle judgments about justice then tries to provide justification about these judgments by exploring more abstract principles of justice to serve as a foundation and try to remedy any conflict between the principles one has arrived at and considered judgments about justice. Rawls (2009) also created core principles of justice such as guaranteeing equal basic liberties for all citizens such as freedom of conscience, association, and expression, democratic rights, respecting property rights, and ensuring distributive justice. Rawls (2009) also had a clear conceptualization of a well-ordered society where different groups had to present their case, while providing public reason.

It can therefore be argued that corporations are private, profit-making institutions, with strong accountability to shareholders. According to Rawls (2009) conceptualization of justice when implementing an ERP system falls within the property rights. Managers are primarily trustees or fiduciaries for shareholders, who are the legal owners of a corporation or a firm, and
they are entrusted to operate the business in the interests of the shareholders. A manager is directly responsible to his/her employers for the business in accordance with their desires that probably would mean making as much money as possible (Friedman, 1970). The implementation of an ERP system is likely to increase productivity, decrease the costs and improve financial performance. Furthermore, ERP implementation will increase the long-term valuation of the firm leading to higher stock prices (Hitt, Wu and Xiaoge, 2002). Therefore, managers are obligated to implement the system as part of their duty towards the shareholders.

Managers in public traded companies are required by law to provide indicators of financial performance. Most firms provide statements for their strategic visions and key projects such as ERP implementations. These could be seen as an alignment with Rawls (2009) public reason requirement for a well-ordered society. Nevertheless, simultaneously managers also have a duty toward employees which is bound by the contract of employment that imposes standards of ‘good faith’ on their behavior (Cabrelli, 2011).

The employer is obliged to exercise reasonable care for the physical and psychological welfare of its employees. Managers have to act in accordance to how a reasonable person would have acted in the circumstances, bearing in mind the predictability of harm, the risk of that harm occurring, the severity of the probable harm, the cost and feasibility of thwarting it and the justifications for taking the risk (Cabrelli, 2011). Therefore, a socially responsible manager should attempt to mitigate the damage of implementing the ERP systems on employees (Hall, 2002). This could be done by job rotation of workers from jobs they are not needed to new jobs. Implementing an ERP system requires adaptation from workers by having to learn new skills and some may have to change their jobs as well. But, this does not constitute a breach of good faith or reasonable care doctrines. Furthermore, it does not infringe on Rawls (2009) core principles of justice basic rights like freedom of conscience, association, expression and democratic rights.

COMMUNICATIVE RATIONALITY AND MANAGERS’ ETHICAL DILEMMAS

Habermas (1984) philosophy of communicative rationality explores the role of dialogue and language in achieving consensus between different groups of people within organizations. Habermas’ argues that it is possible to reach a common understanding between groups with different agendas and objectives using the concepts of universal pragmatics and communication action (Barrett, 2013).

Communicative rationality explores how groups with differing perspectives can effectively deconstruct their mental schemas and models and resolve their disputes using objective, subjective, moral and ethical reasons (Barrett, 2013). There are two types of external worlds—objective and social. The objective world consists of “totality of states of affairs that are connected by natural laws which exist or can come into existence or be brought about through interventions at a given time” (Sitton, 2003: 36, Barrett. 2013). In contrast, the subjective world consists of “legitimately regulated interpersonal relationships”. The objective world revolves around the state of affairs and is based on instrumental and strategic action. The subjective world revolves around norms where individuals are bound together through “normatively guided interaction” (Sitton, 2003: 46). According to the subjective world, all individuals have varying perceptions of the existing reality. However, by talking, sharing and listening to each other, these
preconceived notions can be changed and modified. It is possible to reach a common ground and formulate new languages and mental models (Sitton, 2003).

Habermas (1984) explains that it is possible to reach common consensus either through influence or consent. Influence is dependent on threats, manipulation, force and pressure. Consent relies on appealing to norms, emotions, facts and subjective experiences. Individuals reach common assumptions by sharing their perspectives, reasons and convictions. Communicative rationality adopts a middle line approach of goal attainment where language is used to allow gradual understandings and common goals (Habermas, 1984). Participants during group conversations, confront harsh realities, decisions and try to reach a situation of mutual consensus.

In other words, the advantages of ERP cannot be denied nor its negative impact on the labor. But management can overcome the negativity surrounding its implementation through labor-management dialogue. Management should design open spaces, forums or meetings, where both management and labor have a chance to converse with each other. A chance where employees are allowed to communicate their feelings, give vent to their perceptions and grievances to the management generating honest, open two-way communication process leading to resolution of conflicts and disagreements (Barrett, 2013). “By focusing … actions or beliefs potentially defensible by reasons, we expand the applicability of the concept far beyond the issue of ‘facts’ about the objective world of things, beyond the question of efficiency of interventions into this world” (Habermas, 1984 in Sitton, 2003: 45). All perspectives and opinions are evaluated and discussed with the end outcomes of the corporations critically analyzed (Sitton, 2003). By engaging in a pragmatic discourse, managers can determine the optimum way to implement the system based on rational basis to the benefit of all affected stakeholders (Zakhem 2008). New solutions to minimize the impact of technology on employees may result in increased productivity, more innovativeness, and more flexibility leading to a win-win for both sides (International Labor Organization, 2017). Proper implementation could also lead to new flexible employment opportunities that afford employees more work-life balance allowing employees to take care of family obligations such as more temporary work, flexible shifts, part-time work, multi-party opportunities, and on-call work (International Labor Organization, 2017).

CONCLUSION

To conclude this paper examines the ethical issues surrounding the implementation the ERP system using teleological and deontological arguments. The researchers argue implementing the ERP system will not contradict the corporate social responsibilities of corporate managers. However, to mitigate the negative impact on workers, the socially responsible managers should comply with the concept of universal pragmatics and engage in dialogue with their workers. This would allow balancing of the dual but contradicting responsibilities of managers towards their shareholders pertaining to maximization of financial returns and duties of good faith and reasonable care towards their employees.

REFERENCES
REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR(S)
GENDER QUOTA AND ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOME.  
A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN COUNTRIES THAT MANDATE GENDER QUOTA AND COUNTRIES THOSE DO NOT

SAMIRA BATEN  
Texas A&M University-Commerce

ABSTRACT

One of the important mechanisms of a company is the board of directors who are responsible for directing as well as leading the business entity and board of directors also protects the interests of the shareholders of the company. Board of directors perform a whole bunch of activities which includes: controlling and monitoring, selecting appropriate strategy, supervising the senior managers, establishing link up between the organization and the external environment. These functions cause them to be one of the vital mechanisms of corporate governance in an organization (Campbell and Minguez-Vera, 2008). On the other hand, when corporate failures occur, mainly the boards of directors are being criticized before anyone else (Abidin et al, 2009).

INTRODUCTION

Studies show that, female representation on Boards is increasing slowly over the years (Pathan & Faff, 2013). Some countries require mandatory representation of female members on board, for instance: Norway requires at least 40% of the board members should be female (Dezso & Ross, 2012). Some studies show that gender diversity can improve the firms’ performance whereas some other research show, companies resulting high performance tend to hire more female members on the board.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In recent years, there were many corporate scandals as well as failures took place because of ineffective and weak corporate governance mechanisms in different countries. The gender composition of the board has attracted significant attention by a lot of parties such as: regulatory bodies, policymakers, managers of the companies, shareholders, governments because of its significant impact on corporate governance. On the other hand, there is still confusion about economic impact of diversity on board because of contradictory as well as inconclusive findings of some previous papers. This study emphasizes on the connection between the financial performance and gender diversity on board of different publicly traded companies.

METHODOLOGY

This study describes whether gender diversity on board has an impact on the financial performance of the publicly traded companies. In this study, we will be using secondary data in order to measure the financial conditions of the companies. We have selected eight countries which have requirements of female board members on their boards.
The financial performances of those countries will be compared to the financial performances of the countries of similar GDP which do not have the requirement. We will also focus on whether there is a difference with regard to cultural background in countries that mandate female presence and the countries they do not have. For this research paper, we will be using quantitative method in order to analyze our data. In this study, we will use instrumental variables regression analysis in order to investigate the relationship between gender diversity as well as firm performance by using 2012-2017 data from the database of Securities and Exchange commissions of different countries. We will also look whether those companies are more innovative or not. The financial as well as board related variables of different companies have been used to analyze the association between the firms’ performance and board diversity.

**HYPOTHESIS**

**Hypothesis 1:** Compared to countries that mandate gender quota on board, firms from countries without a mandate for gender quota are more innovative.

**Outcome measure:** Patents

**Hypothesis 2:** Compared to countries that mandate gender quota on board, board of firms from countries that do not mandate quota is more diverse.

**Outcome measure:** Blau’s index of heterogeneity for gender $(1-\sum Pi^2)$

**Hypothesis 3:** Compared to countries that mandate gender quota on board, firms from countries without a mandate for gender quota have more board vigilance.

**Outcome measure:** Multi-dimensional

**Hypothesis 4:** Compared to countries that mandate gender quota on board, firms from countries without a mandate for gender quota exceed in market performance related to financial performance.

**Outcome measure:** Tobin’s Q

**Hypothesis 5:** Compared to countries that mandate gender quota on board, firms from countries without a mandate for gender quota exceed in CSR activities.

**Outcome measure:** multi-dimensional

Our first hypothesis talks about the innovativeness of the firms. Here we will try to see if the countries that mandate gender quota are more innovative, compared to the countries that do not mandate gender quota on their board. For testing our first hypothesis, we will be using company patents as our outcome measure. The second hypothesis talks about diversity. We will try to examine that, if the firms which have mandatory female representation on their boards are more diverse compared to the firms, which do not make compulsory representation of women on their boards. Here we will be using Blau’s index of heterogeneity for gender as the outcome measure. Our third hypothesis talks about board vigilance. We will try to see if the boards with a mandatory female representation have more board vigilance compared to the firms’ boards which do not mandate female representation on their boards. Our forth hypothesis talks about the financial performances of the firms. As the outcome measure, we will be using Tobin’s Q. Our fifth hypothesis involves CSR activities. Firms who mandate gender quota on their boards
exceed in CSR activities compared to those firms which do not mandate gender quota on their boards.

As businesses continue to globalize and the workforce becomes more diverse, organizations are faced with difficult situations and decisions to align strategically and culturally in an effort to remain competitive and successful. A global effort to represent a number of women on corporate boards is gaining momentum. It is becoming increasingly important for nations and organizations to increase the strength of women in top-level positions, especially on the board of directors of firms. The focus of this study is to compare the countries that mandate gender quota on boards, versus the countries without a mandate for gender quota on boards. A comparison is made to determine if firms are (i) more innovative (ii) more diverse (iii) have more board vigilance (iv) have more impact on financial performance, and (v) exceed in CSR activities.

This study describes whether gender diversity on board has an impact on the financial performance of the publicly traded companies. In this study, we will be using secondary data in order to measure the financial conditions of the companies. We have selected eight countries which have requirements of female board members on their boards. The financial performances of those countries will be compared to the financial performances of the countries of similar GDP which do not have the requirement. The financial as well as board related variables of different companies have been used to analyze the association between the firms’ performance and board diversity.

For our study, we are using the 10K reports of the companies. For this the companies need to be registered in Security and Exchange commission (SEC). The countries those mandate gender quota on their boards, have registered companies in the United State but among the countries which do not mandate gender quota on their boards, two countries (Poland and United Arab Emirates) do not have registered companies in the United States. In the beginning of the study, we were planning to use all the sixteen country data for our study but as two of the countries no companies are registered in the United States, we are excluding Poland and United Arab Emirates. We are considering companies from the same industry to get more accurate results. We are collecting data of different companies from similar GDP countries in order to do the statistical tests (Table 1).

Studies show that, the number of the firms with more than twenty females on board is increasing over the yea, Graph 1 shows; Female representation on the firm board from 11 percent to 19 percent has decreased. Female representation with one percent of women on their board is also decreasing. The number of firms with zero female representation is decreasing over the years as well. According to FORTUNE, the percentage of female senior manager is 20.5% and male senior manager is 79.5%. But when it comes to the percentage of CEO, the number is significantly low for the females. Studies show that, the percentage of female representations on firms’ boards is only 6.4%, whereas percentage of males on the firms’ board is 93.6% which is very low. Researchers have found that, the number of women on boards as upper echelons (especially when it comes to CEOs) is very low although the number of working women is increasing day by day. Table 2 represents women’s global representation on board from the year
2011 to year 2011. This table also talks about when different countries mandate gender quota on their boards.

Table 1: List of countries those who mandate female representation on board and who do not. (Pair matching was based on the GDP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mandatory female representation</th>
<th>Female presence on board not mandatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Poland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>United kingdom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel</td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Russia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Women’s Global Representation on Boards, 2010-2017 (Source: catalyst.org)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Percentage of Women directorships, 2017</th>
<th>Percentage of Women directorships, 2010</th>
<th>With Three or more WOB, 2017</th>
<th>With One or more WOB, 2017</th>
<th>With Zero WOB, 2017</th>
<th>Quota and year introduced</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>28.7%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>48.5%</td>
<td>95.6%</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>25.8%</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
<td>95.8%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>Pending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
<td>75.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>Yes, 2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>40.8%</td>
<td>12.7%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>Yes, 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
<td>94.5%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>Yes, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>93.4%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>Yes, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>35.8%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>Yes, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>47.7%</td>
<td>52.3%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>22.1%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>96.4%</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>Yes, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
<td>9.2%</td>
<td>35.0%</td>
<td>97.5%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>26.8%</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Stated</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
<td>39.2%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Graph 1: 2011 to 2017 Gender Diversity Index (Source: Gender Diversity Index (2011-2017))

REFERENCES

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR
LEARNING THE ACCOUNTABILITY ROPES: AN ATTRIBUTIONAL PERPSECTIVE

JEREMY R BREES
Franke College of Business
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, AZ 86001

ABSTRACT

Accountability researchers argue that employees’ attributions help them perceive and understand workplace accountabilities. However, this process has not been explored. Using attribution theory, I explicate how employees’ attributions influence how they learn about and interpret workplace accountabilities. This paper articulates how specific employees’ attributions lead to accountability response strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Employees utilize organizational culture, values, norms, and expectations in their environment regarding the presence, level, and nature of accountability as natural cues for what they will be accountable for in their workplace (Lerner & Tetlock, 2003). It’s been argued that employees, even within the same or similar experiences, interpret accountabilities differently (Frink & Klimoski, 1998; Tetlock, 2000). While the subjectivity of employees’ accountability interpretations is well known (Hall et al., 2017), how and why they interpret accountabilities and respond to them so differently largely remains unknown. Researchers have claimed that employees’ attributions likely play a key role in how they come to understand accountability expectations (Brees & Martinko, 2015; Hall et al., 2017; Frink et al., 2008; Lerner, Goldberg, & Tetlock, 1998).

Just as accountability interpretations are subjective so too are employees’ response strategies to them. The only behavioral response strategies proposed to date include correcting behavior, coping, enhancing image perceptions (Green, Visser, & Tetlock, 2000) and utilization of behavioral control (Hall, Royle, Brymer, Perrewe, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2006). Frink and colleagues (2008) argued that the next step in theory development is to explore individual responses strategies to experienced accountabilities. However, the creation of employees’ response strategies should be intimately linked with the reasons for an individual’s subjective interpretations of environmental accountabilities and the causes of them.

Accountability Foundations

Accountability is defined as “an implicit or explicit expectation that one’s decisions or actions will be subject to evaluation by some salient audience(s) with the belief that there exists the potential for one to receive either rewards or sanctions based on this expected evaluation” (Hall, Frink, Ferris, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Bowen, 2003, p. 33). Other researchers (Hochwarter, Ferris, Gavin, Perrewe, Hall, & Frink, 2007) added that accountabilities are formed from employees’ phenomenological perceptions of external demands, or more simply stated as the experience of being held answerable. In order to be successful in the workplace, employees must actively seek to understand the behavioral expectations, preferences, and desired outcomes.
of their audience(s) and respond in such a way that balances those expectations against their own personal and professional goals. The process of how employees come to these understandings largely remains unknown. Frink and Ferris (1998) argued that in addition to personality characteristics, social intelligence, and relative status with others, recent accountability episodes are the prime environmental cues that assist and influence employees understanding of their accountabilities that bound their behavior, though it is not yet understood how this occurs or what influences those subjective perceptions.

**Attribution Theory**

Heider (1958) espoused that humans are “ naïve psychologists” attempting to understand the reasons and causes of outcomes for both themselves and others. Causal attributions for events influence how individuals view the world and these assigned causes are foundational for predicting future behavior and expectancies (Weiner, 2006). From these foundations, attribution theory has provided a wealth of knowledge as to why and how individuals assign causes to important events (Martinko, Douglas, and Harvey, 2006). Two types of attributions inform how employees assess causes for themselves and others behaviors/outcomes.

Attribution theory specifies that important and/or surprising events are actively evaluated by individuals for their causes and these causes then influence future behavior, motivation, and expectancies (Weiner, 2006). Fiske and Taylor (1991) argued that people only systematically process information when they are strongly motivated to do so and many accountability researchers have argued that employees are strongly motivated to diagnose and understand their workplace accountabilities. Therefore, attributions likely form the basis for how employees assign causes for their own and others’ accountability events and is a mechanism for predicting their response strategies to them (Brees & Martinko, 2015; Frink et al., 2008; Hall et al., 2017; Lerner et al., 1998).

**Accountability Theory**

When they used role systems (Katz & Kahn, 1978) to develop accountability theory, Frink and Klimoski (1998) argued that accountability expectations, processes and outcomes evolve over time based on organizational and interpersonal processes. The process of learning what one will be held accountable for begins when accountabilities are interpersonally communicated, interpreted, accepted/rejected and evolve over time through iterative cycles of accountability episodes. Role expectations (i.e., accountabilities) are social and organizational norms of not only what should be done, but who should do what, when and how (Dubnick, 2011; McGrath, 1984). These foundations lay the groundwork for constructing the process of how employees learn about and then respond to workplace accountabilities.

Frink and Klimoski’s (1998) role theory model of accountability contains three important and central tenets that influence this paper’s model development. First, employees subjectively interpret the role signals sent by institutional stakeholders (e.g., supervisor, peers, leaders) that become their accountabilities. “Individual differences in such things as the needs, values, and work experiences of the parties to the exchange will have a strong impact on how communications are formulated, perceived, and interpreted” (Frink & Klimoski, 1998: p. 25). Secondly, employees actively shape their work roles and accountabilities based on their personal perceptions, goals and motives. “By and large, workers attempt to control their workplace
Third, employees respond to accountabilities based on their subjective interpretations and role-making behaviors. “The nature, timing, and consistency of sent expectations are thought to be important for determining the worker’s reactions and ultimate definition of his or her role” (p. 25). These three factors (i.e., perceptions, goals, and responses) are all influenced by attributions (Weiner, 2006).

MODEL DEVELOPMENT

Learning from One’s Own Accountability Episodes

Positive accountability episodes. When employees personally experience successful accountability episodes (e.g., a positive evaluation from a supervisor), the causal attributions that they make for those successes will influence how they respond to it. More specifically, if employees attribute a success to an internal and stable cause (i.e., ability), they will likely attempt to repeat the behaviors that lead to this outcome because the outcome is under their control (Weiner, 2006). For example, if employees believe that they received a positive performance evaluation from their supervisor due to their innate talent or ability to perform their role, they will continue to exhibit these behaviors and will not feel the need to modify them. Research shows that when attributions for success come from stable causes such as ability, people will exhibit similar expectancies for future performance (McMahon, 1973).

Negative accountability episodes. Alternatively, when employees experience workplace failures (e.g., a negative evaluation from a supervisor), their attributions for those failures will also influence their perceptions, future expectancies and response strategies but differently than successes would. Specifically, if employees attribute a failure to an internal and stable cause (i.e., ability), they will likely use a coping mechanism and/or actively engage in impression management strategies to respond to such an event (Weiner, 2006). Employees will respond with such strategies because they will have concluded that they simply do not have the skills or ability to achieve successes. Thus, employees will either cope with being unable to change this ability and/or use impression management tactics such as trying to shape, change and/or influence how their failure is interpreted by the audience(s) holding them accountable (Weiner, 2006). Examples of such tactics include excuse-making (Markman & Tetlock, 2000) and attempts to shift their audiences’ attributions for negative outcomes (Snyder & Higgins, 1988) by acknowledging personal wrongness combined with attempts to mitigate personal responsibility (Backman, 1985; Tetlock, 1985).

Learning by Observing Others Accountability Episodes

Positive accountability episodes. Positive accountability episodes provide employees guidance and instruction for what behavior is most socially and organizationally acceptable and that which will result in reward. Therefore, when employees observe others receive positive accountability outcomes, they are most likely to use replication of behavior and behavioral control strategies (Markham & Tetlock, 2000; Hall et al., 2006) for themselves. The difference between replication and behavioral control lies within the observer’s perspective of what is more individually specific behavior (internal attributions to others) versus what behavior is appropriate
within a given group (external attributions to environment). Replication is simply repeating other’s behavior and attitudes to match or align with group norms or specific cultural expectations. Behavioral control is behavioral alignment with specific individuals that are not universally expressed by groups of employees or commonly held company culture expectations.

Negative accountability episodes. Negative accountability episodes are viewed with a drastically different lens by an observer than a positive accountability episode. Negative events are cognitively coded as having punishment outcomes associated with them and thus employees’ response strategies are developed in order to avoid experiencing those same fates. The response strategies utilized in these cases are those of avoidance of similar situations and/or behavioral control behaviors (Green et al., 2000; Hall et al., 2006).

DISCUSSION

This paper proposed a model explicating how employees’ attributions inform their interpretation and response strategies to both directly experienced and observed accountability episodes in the workplace. The value of this study’s model is that it (1) clarifies how attributions influence employees’ interpretation and understanding of accountability, (2) explains how different interpretations may occur across individuals from the same accountability episodes, and (3) maps employee response strategies to accountability episodes based on these attributions. The model is designed to open doors for future theory development by shedding light on how employees come to understand their web of accountabilities (Frink & Klimoski, 1998). The model was built upon the theoretical foundations of attribution and role theories, which state that environments that provide reward or sanctions will increase the likelihood that behaviors that lead to rewards will be adopted and those that lead to punishments will be avoided.

Conclusion

Prior accountability conceptualizations attest to the value and influence of employees’ attributions within their experiences of workplace accountabilities (Brees & Martinko, 2015; Dubnick, 2003; Frink et al., 2008; Frink & Ferris, 1998; Hall et al., 2017), however, there has yet to be a conceptual model developed to explore these relationships. This paper begins the process of integrating attribution theory into accountability research and contributes to research by showing how attributions inform employees interpretations, understandings and response strategies from them. The model is intended to provide a first step in the efforts to understand the role that attributions play in accountability episodes, therefore there are aspects of the model that have little existing research corroboration.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR(S)
THE ANTECEDENTS TO AND CONSEQUENCES OF ACCOUNTABILITY APPROACH: TEST OF COMPETING PERSPECTIVES AND REPLICABLE RESULTS ACROSS TWO SAMPLES

JEREMY R BREES
Franke College of Business
Northern Arizona University
Flagstaff, AZ 86001

DAVID SIKORA
Georgia Southern University

GERALD FERRIS
Florida State University

ABSTRACT

Drawing upon accountability theory, we examined the antecedents to and consequences of accountability approach. Across two data samples, employees’ attribution style, negative affectivity, and core self-evaluations influenced how subjects perceived and approached accountability pressures in their workplace, which in turn, was associated with job satisfaction and intentions to turnover.

INTRODUCTION

Accountability remains a fundamental and pervasive concept that influences employees’ perceptions, behavior, and the social dynamics of everyday organizational life. Not surprisingly, there are many facets about this complex and nuanced construct about which we know little. Researchers argue that accountability has proactive and reactive characteristics – or approach styles in that employees either approach organizational phenomena and contexts as worthy challenges to be overcome or potential threats to be avoided.

We agree and argue that employees either proactively pursue their work goals and objectives in the positive pursuit of success, excellence, and rewards (Schlenker, 1986), or in contrast, reactively with a worried and defensive mindset actively engaging in preemptive self-protective behaviors to avoid responsibility (Tetlock, 1985). The way that employees perceive and approach accountability influences whether, how, and to what degree they may act on accountability pressures that then influence their workplace outcomes.

Despite how intuitive this challenge versus threat approach style is, these concepts have yet to be developed, explored, or empirically evaluated. Few empirical studies have assessed the antecedents to employees’ accountability perceptions, and how accountability is perceived, interpreted, and internalized by employees. Thus, in this study, we tested a model of the antecedents to and consequences of accountability approach, which is when employees either proactively approach accountability pressures as opportunities to show off their knowledge, skills, and abilities (i.e., Schlenker’s self-accountability), or instead, reactively cover their tracks in the anticipation of defending their decisions/actions to others (i.e., Tetlock’s “intuitive politicians”).
ACCOUNTABILITY APPROACH

For this study, accountability approach is the degree to which employees perceive and approach accountability pressures as either proactive challenges in their pursuit of excellence or reactively as threats of punishment to be avoided. This definition portrays accountability approach as a subjective personal acquisition style that originates, at least in part, from employees’ personalities, prior experiences, expectancies, and self-held identities because “identity and accountability are intertwined such that the construction and evaluation of identity takes place in the context of accountability” (Schlenker et al., 1991, p. 96). Accountability is more than a belief or perception, it is by nature a social act (Schlenker, 1986). This is so much the case that employees’ self and social identities influence how they perceive and approach accountability pressures (Schlenker & Weigold, 1989) because accountability amplifies natural human cognitive, affective, and behavioral tendencies (Schlenker et al., 1991). In accordance with Schlenker’s (1987) self-identification theory, we contend that employees’ given approach style remains relatively stable over time and across most situations because people strive to build, communicate, and maintain consistent identities. Employees strive to be observed in alignment with their self-held images, and how they wish to be portrayed by others (Hall et al., 2017) through these images represent a compromise between one’s wishes and reality (Schlenker et al., 1991).

HYPOTHESES

Attribution style. An attribution is a causal explanation (Weiner, 2006), and an attribution style refers to peoples’ tendencies to make specific types of causal ascriptions across situations and domains. Employees’ attributions represent their beliefs about the causes of their successes and failures, and lead to corresponding affective, attitudinal, and behavioral responses to workplace events (Martinko, Douglas, & Harvey, 2006).

_Hypothesis 1:_ Employees with external attribution styles for failures will exhibit a threat accountability approach.

Negative affectivity (NA). NA refers to the tendency to form pessimistic perceptions and to experience negative emotions across time and situations (Watson & Clark, 1984).

_Hypothesis 2:_ High NA employees will exhibit a threat accountability approach.

Core self-evaluation (CSE). CSE is a fundamental appraisal that people make about their self-worth and capabilities (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997) and influences employees’ work motivation (Judge & Bono, 2001) and appraisals (Johnson, Rosen, & Levy, 2008).

_Hypothesis 3:_ High CSE employees will exhibit a challenge accountability approach.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction refers to how contented employees are in their present job. Prior research suggests an inconsistent relationship between accountability and job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 4: Employees who exhibit a challenge accountability approach will express greater job satisfaction.

Intent to leave. Employees’ intent to leave a company is an important indicator because turnover is associated with many organizational success measures (Holtom, Mitchell, Lee, & Eberly, 2008). Several turnover studies hint at how accountability approach may be associated with intentions to leave.

Hypothesis 5: Employees who exhibit a threat accountability approach will have greater intentions to leave their jobs.

Mediating Effects of Accountability Approach

Hypothesis 6: Accountability approach mediates the relationships between attribution style and (a) job satisfaction and (b) intent to leave.

Hypothesis 7: Accountability approach mediates the relationships between negative affectivity and (a) job satisfaction and (b) intent to leave.

Hypothesis 8: Accountability approach mediates the relationships between core self-evaluation and (a) job satisfaction and (b) intent to leave.

METHOD

Samples and Procedures

We tested our proposed hypotheses across two data samples, using two different sampling techniques collected four years apart. Both samples utilized a cross-sectional study design and included multiple attention checkers (e.g., attention filter) and various survey procedures to reduce the likelihood of social response bias (e.g., anonymity) and common method variance (e.g., randomized question order).

Results - hypotheses tests

Accountability approach predictors. Hypothesis 1 proposed that an external attribution style for failures would be associated with a threat accountability approach. This hypothesis was supported in both samples. Hypothesis 2 stated that a high negative affectivity would be associated with a threat accountability approach. This hypothesis was supported in both samples. Finally, Hypothesis 3 stated that a high core self-evaluation would be associated with a challenge accountability approach. This hypothesis also was supported in both samples.

Accountability approach outcomes. Hypothesis 4 proposed that a challenge accountability approach would be associated with greater job satisfaction. This hypothesis was supported in both samples. Next, Hypotheses 5 stated that a threat accountability approach would be associated with greater intents to leave. This hypothesis also was supported in both samples.
Accountability approach as a mediator. Our final three hypotheses focus on the mediated relationships in our research model. Hypothesis 6 proposed that accountability approach mediates the relationships between attribution style and (a) job satisfaction, and (b) intent to leave. This hypothesis was supported as the indirect effects of attribution style (through accountability approach) on job satisfaction and intent to leave were significant. Next, Hypothesis 7 proposed that accountability approach mediates the relationships between negative affectivity and (a) job satisfaction, and (b) intent to leave. This hypothesis was supported as the indirect effects of negative affectivity (through accountability approach) on job satisfaction and intent to leave were significant. Next, Hypothesis 8 proposed that accountability approach mediates the relationships between core self-evaluation and (a) job satisfaction, and (b) intent to leave. Similarly, this hypothesis also was supported as the indirect effects of core self-evaluation (through accountability approach) on job satisfaction and intent to leave were significant. Finally, the mediated relationships proposed in Hypotheses 6, 7, and 8 all demonstrated partial mediation (sample 1) and both full and partial mediation (sample 2) as the direct effects of attribution style, negative affectivity, and core self-evaluation on job satisfaction and intent to leave respectively, were each significant.

DISCUSSION

In this two-sample investigation, we hypothesized and supported that employees’ attribution style, negative affectivity, and core self-evaluations are associated with a preferred accountability approach style, which in turn was associated with job satisfaction and turnover intentions. We introduced a new measure of accountability approach that differentiates how employees perceive and approach accountability pressures and contexts. This study moves accountability research forward by reviving two meaningful accountability conceptualizations and empirically testing them. Schlenker’s (1986) belief that people can be self-accountable and approach accountability from a proactive and positive stance was in direct contraction to Tetlock’s (1985) implicit argument that people predominantly approach accountability from a reactive, guarded, and protectionist stance.

Conclusion

Despite decades of productive research, accountability researchers continue to claim that it is still in its infancy (Frink et al., 2008) or nascent stage (Hall et al., 2017), but it need not remain there. It is time that we bring it through puberty and into adulthood by quantifying and assessing how seminal accountability perspectives (e.g., Cummings & Anton, 1990; Frink et al., 2008; Frink & Klimoski, 1998; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Tetlock, 1985) operate and manifest. More accountability measures are needed in order to understand just how multifaceted accountability is within organizational life, and how employees perceive it beyond simply felt accountability (Hochwarter, Ferris, Gavin, Perrewé, Hall, & Frink, 2007). Prior accountability conceptualizations provide plenty of opportunities to accomplish this.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR(S)
NEGOCIOS DE SERVICIOS INTENSIVOS EN CONOCIMIENTO: UNA REVISIÓN DE SU APORTACIÓN A LA ADMINISTRACIÓN

María Guadalupe Calderón Martínez

Introducción

Uno de los tópicos relacionados con la economía basada en el conocimiento es el estudio de la contribución del conocimiento y la innovación al avance del sector de servicios. Básicamente, la búsqueda de escenarios eficientes para la transferencia de conocimiento y la formación de capital intelectual (Edvinsson, 2006; Simmie y Strambach, 2006; Pinch, Henry, Jenkins y Tallman., 2003; Enright, 1996).

Los KIBS (Knowledge Intensive Business Services) promueven la innovación (Simmie y Strambach, 2006) y el desarrollo de conocimientos especializados (Miles, 2005 y Leiponen, 2005), para el sostenimiento de redes productivas y la formación de capital intelectual (Smedlund y Pöyhönén, 2004; Smedlund y Toivonen, 2005). De acuerdo con Simmie y Strambach (2006), las economías desarrolladas han manifestado un incremento en el número de KIBS, además de una ampliación en el tipo de servicios que ofrecen (Miles, 2005).

El objetivo de esta investigación es establecer el estado del arte sobre la aportación de los KIBS (Knowledge Intensive Business Services) a la administración dentro del marco de la economía del conocimiento para, por un lado, identificar la relevancia del conocimiento en el sector servicios y, por otro lado, los vacíos en la literatura y temas de investigación. La metodología utilizada es de carácter cualitativo. Se utilizará un software de análisis de textos para el análisis de artículos indizados en Scopus. Los resultados darán cuenta, por un lado, de la relevancia del conocimiento en el sector servicios y, por otro, de los vacíos en la literatura y temas de investigación en los que se requiere profundizar.

La investigación relacionada con la administración del conocimiento, la formación de redes, el capital intelectual y su contribución a la economía del conocimiento ha generado una amplia literatura en el área de ciencias sociales y administración (Foray y Lundvall, 1996). El concepto de economía del conocimiento involucra tanto al conocimiento individual como al conocimiento colectivo, así como los cambios que se introducen a través de la interacción social. Entre los temas de investigación relacionados con la economía basada en el conocimiento están la búsqueda de esquemas eficientes para la transferencia y la formación de capital intelectual. Siendo uno de los tópicos particulares el estudio de la contribución del conocimiento y la innovación al avance del sector servicios (Arroyo y Cárcamo, 2009).

El papel de los KIBS es apoyar a las organizaciones de otros sectores en la mejora de sus actividades y procesos de negocios al ofrecer servicios altamente especializados basados en conocimiento. Debido a su importancia en la competitividad e impulso a la innovación resulta de interés precisar el concepto de KIBS y sus aportaciones.

Muller y Zenker (2001) definen los KIBS como empresas consultoras, que prestan servicios de alto valor agregado. Para Miles (2005) son organizaciones que surgen a partir de la tendencia creciente hacia la tercerización de actividades de negocio, del incremento en la demanda de conocimientos especializados, ya sea de carácter técnico, de mercado o respecto a regulaciones de diversa índole. Lo anterior, aunado al crecimiento acelerado de ciertos sectores que requieren el uso de conocimientos acrecent de tecnologías y sus aplicaciones específicas en la resolución de problemas.
**Clasificación de los KIBS**

Se reconocen dos tipos, dentro del tipo I se encuentran prestadoras de servicios profesionales tradicionales como mercadotecnia, capacitación, servicios financieros, legales, administrativos, contables, ingeniería en construcción y arquitectura y servicios ambientales. En tanto los KIBS tipo II utilizan nuevos desarrollos tecnológicos y prestan servicios especializados de telecomunicaciones, redes computacionales, diseño y capacitación en nuevas tecnologías e investigación y desarrollo (Arroyo y Cárcamo, 2009; Miles, 2005), la diferencia fundamental entre ambos tipos está en la intensidad en el uso de tecnología, la realización de actividades menos estandarizadas y la innovación.

Además de la contribución mediante la transferencia de conocimientos avanzados, los prestadores de KIBS contribuyen a la creación de capital intelectual mediante el desarrollo de vínculos y la interacción con otras organizaciones (Smelund, 2006). Como difusores de conocimiento tácito, los KIBS contribuyen a la formación de redes en las que diversas organizaciones comparten conocimientos sobre mercados, innovaciones en tecnología y en procesos administrativos y productivos.

En este sentido, la aportación de los KIBS a la economía del conocimiento se puede resumir como: 1) constituyen una fuente externa de conocimiento para sus clientes, 2) apoyan la formación de recursos humanos expertos y 3) contribuyen al desarrollo de capital intelectual y al sostenimiento de redes productivas y de conocimientos (Muller y Zenker, 2001). Una vez situada la revisión teórica del concepto, clasificación y contribución, resulta de interés establecer el estado del arte sobre su aportación de los KIBS a la administración dentro del marco de la economía del conocimiento. En el siguiente apartado se presenta la metodología para el análisis de los artículos obtenidos a través de Scopus, con ello se pretende que los resultados den cuenta, por un lado de la relevancia del conocimiento en el sector servicios y, por otro, de los vacíos en la literatura y temas de investigación en los que se requiere profundizar.

**Metodología**

Para esta investigación se utiliza una metodología de carácter cualitativo, al realizar una revisión sistemática de la literatura (Dixon-Woods, 2006) se pretende identificar, evaluar y sintetizar estudios relevantes sobre KIBS. Para integrar la base de datos de los artículos analizados se estableció como criterio de búsqueda “Knowledge Intensive Business Services”, en el contenido de los documentos. La selección de materiales se filtró para obtener únicamente artículos de investigación: empíricos, conceptuales y documentos de revisión. Se excluyeron libros, capítulos de libro, memorias de congresos, reportes y noticias. En la Figura 1, se muestra el número de publicaciones detectadas.

El período de búsqueda establecido es de 1995 a 2018. A partir de los resultados obtenidos, se creó una base de datos exportando el resumen o abstract de dichos documentos, así como su información bibliográfica. La organización de datos se hizo de manera cronológica para analizar su contenido.

**Resultados**

Para la interpretación y validación de criterios se crearon códigos, así como sus principales descriptores, a fin de sintetizar y ordenar temáticamente los documentos. Una vez creados los códigos se ubicaron diversas áreas del conocimiento en los documentos, encontrando que se concentran principalmente en Administración, Negocios y Contabilidad (42%), así como en las Ciencias Sociales (19%) y Economía (15%).

**Tabla 1. Temas analizados en la literatura de acuerdo a la codificación**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Área temática</th>
<th>Subtema</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inovación</strong></td>
<td>Knowledge economy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Industry clustering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>External Factors</strong></td>
<td>Locational factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-locational factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creative class</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Racial diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cultural distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Geographic distance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social proximity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interpersonal networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategies</strong></td>
<td>Cost-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Differentiation-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Internationalizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Internal Dimensions</strong></td>
<td>Human capital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Formal knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mediante un segundo análisis se ubicaron los principales subtemas que se desarrollan en los artículos de investigación, cabe mencionar que en la clasificación temática y codificación se determinaron como tópicos principales: “Innovación”, “Factores externos”, Estrategias” y “Dimensiones Internas”, encontrando las categorías establecidas en la Tabla 1. Cabe señalar que se utilizan los términos en inglés con el fin de detectar un mayor número de documentos en la literatura.

Este análisis lleva a detectar áreas donde las Estrategias se traslapan con la Innovación, las Dimensiones Internas y los Factores Externos, en este sentido es tarea de la investigación en administración enfatizar en el diseño de Reportes Integrados de Valor, estudios sobre Grupos de Interés e impulsar el desarrollo de Conocimientos Especializados.

Figura 2. Áreas de interés entre los campos temáticos desarrollados en KIBS.

Fuente: Elaboración propia.
Las áreas contextuales de investigación se identifican en la Figura 2, considerando que los documentos sobre KIBS han desarrollado los estudios referidos de manera aislada y no desde una perspectiva de construcción de nuevos temas que permitan el análisis integral sobre los KIBS y su aportación a la economía del conocimiento. En este sentido, desde la administración es posible proponer temáticas que permitan identificar la relevancia del conocimiento en el sector servicios una vez detectados los vacíos en la literatura y posibles temas de investigación.
Discusión

La identificación de campos temáticos contextuales, permite situar el ámbito de interés de la Administración, ubicando en las organizaciones la administración del conocimiento a través del expertise de los trabajadores del conocimiento en KIBS, el diseño de Reportes Integrados de Valor, los Grupos de Interés que intervienen e identifican en los procesos, la comercialización de KIBS y la importancia de los programas, la educación y el contexto en el desarrollo del sector servicios enfocado al desarrollo de KIBS, como se resume en la Figura 3.

Figura 3. Propuestas de posibles temas de investigación en KIBS desde la perspectiva de la Administración

Fuente: Elaboración propia.

Referencias
THE ROLE OF CULTURAL VALUES ON BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS IN A CONFLICTING ROLES SITUATION

JULIO C. CANEDO
Marilyn Davies College of Business
University of Houston – Downtown
One Main Street, Suite B431, Houston, TX 77002

EUGENE F. STONE-ROMERO
Retired

DIANNA L. STONE
University at Albany, New Mexico, and Virginia Tech

INTRODUCTION

The growing cultural diversity in the U.S. has important implications for behavior in organizations. Individuals from different cultures often enter work organizations with different work-related scripts (i.e., plans or structures that specify the appropriate sequence of events in a particular context) because of differences in their socialization experiences (Stone-Romero, Stone, & Salas, 2003). In a role conflict situation, a subordinate’s cultural values will likely influence his/her work-related intentions. Such intentions, in turn, will guide the subordinate’s behavior (Ajzen, 1991). If supervisor and subordinate differ in their cultural values, the supervisor might interpret the subordinate’s choice as inappropriate and this can lead, among other negative consequences, to poor performance ratings, low pay raises, and diminished career expectations for the subordinate.

Differences in cultural values may lead to role-taking problems for many reasons. One is that cross-cultural encounters “open the door” to considerably high levels of anxiety between role senders and role incumbents (Solomon, Greenberg, & Pyszczynski, 1991). The increasing diversity in the U.S. population enhances the potential for such differences in cultural values. Hence, we analyze the role of a subordinate’s cultural values on his/her intentions to work overtime. In particular, we hypothesize that three cultural values (i.e., collectivism, familism, and individualism) moderate the relations between three predictors i.e., (a) a supervisor's expectations that a subordinate works overtime (supervisor’s expectations hereinafter), (b) the expectations of a subordinate’s family that he/she attends a family event (family’s expectations hereinafter), and (c) a subordinate's personal expectations to do something enjoyable for himself/herself (personal expectations hereinafter) and the criterion of a subordinate's intentions to work overtime (intentions to work overtime hereinafter).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

The Role Taking Model

A role is "the summation of the requirements with which social systems confront their members as individuals" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 219). Role taking is the process that establishes the expectations of a role by others and the acceptance and fulfillment of such expectations by
the role incumbent (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Organizational factors determine the expectations that a role sender has of a focal person (Katz & Kahn, 1966). The role sender communicates these to the focal person (i.e., he/she sends a role). Next, the focal person receives the role, interprets it, and may direct his/her behavior toward its fulfillment. Then the focal person’s role behavior feeds back to the role sender, and the process begins again. Both the interaction of the focal person with the role sender and the attributes of the focal person affect the role sender's subsequent role expectations. Interpersonal factors and the attributes of the focal person interact in the sent-received role relation.

Despite important findings in the role ambiguity, role overload, and work-family conflict literature, the influence of cultural values on a subordinate’s choice to work overtime, when his/her supervisor asks him/her to do so, and the subordinate faces other roles demands, remain unstudied. This is an important issue because people with different cultural values evaluate the information from their environment in different ways; some evaluate factors that are internal to individuals (e.g., attitudes) whereas others evaluate factors that are external to individuals (e.g., social influences) (Triandis, 2000). In a role conflict situation, these assessments can dictate an individual’s choices.

The Model of the Effects of Culture on Role Behavior

The role taking model does not explicitly consider the ways in which the cultures of the role sender and the focal person affect role behavior (Stone-Romero et al., 2003). Determined by culture, scripts enable a person to (a) recognize behaviors that are appropriate in particular situations and (b) “fill in the gaps” that are not explicitly specified in a given situation (Stone-Romero et al., 2003). When sent roles are ambiguous, scripts may guide a person's behavior (Stone-Romero et al., 2003). The model of the effects of culture on role behavior (ECORB) proposed by Stone-Romero et al. (2003) incorporates the influence of culture on the intentions of the focal person in a role system.

Cultural Values

Cultural values are “explicit or implicit conceptions that are distinctive of individuals or groups concerning what is desirable… typically learned in the early years of life… they are instrumental in shaping the attitudes, behavioral intentions, and behaviors of individuals” (Stone-Romero & Stone, 1998, p. 205). Research on cross-cultural differences has approached the topic by assuming that cultural values are equivalent to race, ethnicity, or nationality (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993) and did not measure cultural values directly. Therefore, within-group differences in cultural values may have been ignored. Measuring them directly is the only way to take within-group differences into account. In the present study, we did not infer cultural values from race, ethnicity, or nationality; we measured them directly.

*Individualism and collectivism.* Individualism and collectivism are the most important dimensions when studying cultural diversity (Triandis, 2004). Individualism is a cultural value through which people give priority to their personal goals rather than to those of others (Triandis & Wasti, 2008). Individualists’ behavior is a function of attitudes (what I like to do), as opposed to norms (what I should do). Individualists think of themselves as autonomous (i.e., independent of their group). They see the world from inside out, emphasize achievement, and often have
difficulty accepting that others are better than them (Triandis & Wasti, 2008). Conversely, collectivism is a cultural pattern in which individuals give priority to the goals of their in-group, as opposed to their personal goals (Triandis & Wasti, 2008). Collective behavior is a function of both attitudes (what I like to do) and norms (what I should do). Collective people are self-critical and serve the in-group (Triandis & Wasti, 2008).

The relation between individualism and collectivism is unclear. Some argue that they are opposite ends of the same continuum (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). Others propose that they can be orthogonal, claiming that both cognitions are present in every individual, and the situation determines which predominates (e.g., Triandis & Gelfand, 2012). In this study, we treat individualism and collectivism as independent of one other. We propose that, to collectivists, norms will dictate to comply with supervisor’s requests. Individualists, on the other hand, will think on themselves before complying. Thus, we tested the following two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Collectivism moderates the relation between a supervisor’s expectations and intentions to work overtime. More specifically, the higher a subordinate's collectivism, the stronger the relation.

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Individualism moderates the relation between a supervisor’s expectations and intentions to work overtime. More specifically, the higher a subordinate's individualism, the weaker the relation.

Familism. Familism is "a cultural value that involves individuals’ strong identification with and attachment to their nuclear and extended families, and strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity among members of the same family" (Marin & Marin, 1991, p. 13). Some research suggests differences in familism between Anglos and Hispanics (e.g., Marin & Marin, 1991; Stone, Johnson, Stone-Romero, & Hartman, 2006). Given the projected increase in the number of Hispanics in the U.S. population and the negative consequences that WFC has on some organizational outcomes, the role of familism in organizational settings is worthy of studying. Because we expect familism to influence intentions to work overtime, we tested the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): Familism moderates the relation between a supervisor’s expectations and intentions to work overtime. More specifically, the higher a subordinate's familism the weaker the relation.

Role Expectations

The influence of cultural values on a subordinate's intentions when facing conflicting role expectations (i.e., supervisor’s expectations, family’s expectations, and personal expectations) remains uninvestigated. If a subordinate faces conflict among work, family, and personal roles, his/her cultural values might influence his/her behavioral intentions. Such intentions might differ from the expectations of the supervisor, especially if they have different cultural values. The supervisor may interpret the subordinate’s intentions as a lack of commitment to work and, hence, give him or her poor performance ratings, which may have negative consequences for the subordinate’s career. To gain understanding as to how cultural values shape a subordinate’s choices, we tested the following hypotheses:
Hypothesis 4 (H4): There is a three-way interaction among collectivism, a family’s expectations, and a supervisor’s expectations on intentions to work overtime. More specifically, the higher a subordinate’s collectivism and the lower his/her family’s expectations, the stronger the relation between a supervisor’s expectations and intentions to work overtime.

Hypothesis 5 (H5): There is a three-way interaction among familism, family’s expectations, and a supervisor’s expectations on intentions to work overtime. More specifically, the higher a subordinate's familism and the higher his/her family’s expectations, the weaker the relation between a supervisor’s expectations and intentions to work overtime.

Hypothesis 6 (H6): There is a three-way interaction among individualism, personal expectations, and a supervisor’s expectations on intentions to work overtime. More specifically, the higher a subordinate’s individualism and the higher his/her personal expectations, the weaker the relation between a supervisor’s expectations and intentions to work overtime.

METHOD

Overview of the Design

We used a 2 x 2 x 2 between-subjects, randomized experimental design to examine the main and interactive effects of (a) supervisor’s expectations, (b) family’s expectations, and (c) personal expectations on intentions to work overtime. Also, we examined the degree to which collectivism, familism, and individualism moderated these relations.

Participants

We collected data from 400 working students (208 men, 192 women) enrolled in business courses at a large southwestern university. They averaged 23.84 years of age ($SD = 4.58$) and 6.11 years of work experience ($SD = 4.27$).

Significance Criterion

We used a Type I error rate of .05 to test all main effects. Tests of moderating effects have notoriously low power, and increasing the Type I error rate for such tests is recommended (Stone-Romero, Alliger, & Aguinis, 1994; Stone-Romero & Anderson, 1994; Stone-Romero & Liakhovitski, 2002). We used a Type I error rate of .15 to test all moderating effects. Moreover, all hypotheses were directional. Thus, we used one-tailed $t$ tests in hypothesis testing.

Procedure, Manipulations, and Measures

Information about the procedure, manipulations, and measures used in the study are not presented due to space limitations. This information is available upon request.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliability Estimates
Means and standard deviations ($M, SD$): Intentions to work overtime (31.83, 7.90), collectivism (74.35, 12.09), familism (107.95, 11.68), and individualism (80.09, 15.01).

All correlations were in the expected direction, and all reliability estimates exceeded .80. A table with all correlations and reliability estimates is available upon request.

Tests of Hypotheses

A table including the results of the regression analyses is available upon request.

Considering that all moderators were continuous variables, we produced graphs (Figure 1) using regression equations at three levels (mean minus one standard deviation, mean, and mean plus one standard deviation) of the respective moderator variable (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). All graphs are based on less than the full set of predictors, so the significance tests for the full set may differ from those of the analyses used in creating the plots.

\[ H1. \beta = -0.13, t = -1.56, p < .10. \text{ Graphical analyses (Figure 1. H1) did not support H1.} \]
\[ H2. \beta = -0.08, t = -1.21, p < .15. \text{ Graphical analyses (Figure 1. H2) supported H2.} \]
\[ H3. \beta = 0.10, t = 1.24, p < .15. \text{ Graphical analyses (Figure 1. H3) did not support H3.} \]
\[ H4. \beta = 0.11, t = 1.27, p < .10. \text{ Graphical analyses (Figure 1. H4-A & Figure 1. H4-B) did not support H4.} \]
\[ H5. \beta = -0.10, t = -1.12, p < .15. \text{ Graphical analyses (Figure 1. H5-A & Figure 1. H5-B) supported H5.} \]
\[ H6. \beta = 0.12, t = 1.65, p < .05. \text{ Graphical analyses (Figure 1. H6-A & Figure 1. H6-B) did not support H6.} \]

DISCUSSION

Increases in the cultural diversity of the workforce call for the inclusion of cultural values in the study of individuals’ choices at work. The results of the present study provide some empirical support for the ECORB model (Stone-Romero et al., 2003) in a role conflict situation. In particular, they (a) highlight the role that cultural values play on a subordinate’s choices in a conflicting roles situation, (b) shed some light on the influence that personal expectations have on intentions to work overtime, (c) provide evidence of the moderating effect of familism on the relation between supervisor’s expectations and subordinate’s intentions to work overtime, and (d) underline the importance of measuring cultural values directly. Additional implications of the results of this study are available upon request.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
H1. WO = SE x CO
Collectivism:
- Low
- Mean
- High

Work Saturday
Work Saturday and Sunday

H2. WO = SE x IN
Individualism:
- Low
- Mean
- High

Work Saturday
Work Saturday and Sunday

H3. WO = SE x FA
Familism:
- Low
- Mean
- High

Work Saturday
Work Saturday and Sunday

H4-A. WO = SE x FE x CO
No Family's Plans

Collectivism:
- Low
- Mean
- High

Work Saturday
Work Saturday and Sunday

H4-B. WO = SE x FE x CO
Had Planned to Attend Mother's Birthday

Collectivism:
- Low
- Mean
- High

Work Saturday
Work Saturday and Sunday

H5-A. WO = SE x FE x FA
No Family's Plans

Familism:
- Low
- Mean
- High

Work Saturday
Work Saturday and Sunday

Intentions to work overtime
Figure 1: Results of tests of the interactions hypothesized.
CAREER DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEXICAN AND AMERICAN WOMEN WORKERS

Alicia Cavazos-Garza  
Texas A&M International University  
5201 University Boulevard  
Laredo, TX 78041

Monica Santaella  
Louisiana State University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to have a deeper understanding of career differences and how they may affect the work and family conflict model. Specifically, this research focuses on the difference in the influence of career role salience on WFC between American and Mexican women. The scales used included work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW), as well as life role salience scale (LRSS) used in the work and family conflict (WFC) theory. Partial Least Square –PLS was used to analyze the data. Although we found that Career role gave a weak explanation for both WIF and FIW for the complete sample, the variance explained for the split sample increased significantly for the American sample while it drops for the Mexican sample. Contrary to expected, career role explained more variance for FIW than for WIF for both samples.

Keywords: work and family conflict; role conflict; culture; international; structural equation modeling; partial least squares

INTRODUCTION

The value of balance between work and family has been well documented in organization behavior literature (Zedeck and Mosier, 1990; Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, and Brinley, 2005). Role Conflict theory has identified a work and family conflict (WFC) model with two dimensions (Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian, 1996). Work interfering with family (WIF) or family interfering with work (FIW). Higher levels of job dissatisfaction, turnover intention, and lack of commitment are poor organizational outcomes that can result from mismanagement of these roles. Eby et al. (2005) suggests that both men and women place an important value on the balance of work and family as they seek to achieve fulfilling life roles (i.e. career, marital, parental, and homecare). There have been several WFC models tested in international settings. However, little is known on the explanation of cross-cultural differences of the WFC model (Eby et al., 2005). This study focuses on the career roles differences by comparing a sample using American and Mexican respondents, specifically women.

Both the domestic and international labor markets are increasingly more diverse. In the United States, companies recognize that a key to grow their market share is that they employ a workforce that understands the needs and wants of its future customers. According to the U.S. Census, growth for Hispanics in the United States is expected to increase at a faster rate than the other minority groups. Multinational corporations also manage a more diverse workforce abroad as they seek to penetrate markets for their products and services. Moreover, in order to keep the
best workers, these companies may need to understand cross-cultural differences in the WFC model.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

The work and family conflict (WFC) literature has contributed valuable information for organizations as people have to fulfill various roles in their everyday lives (Robbins and Judge, 2007). The pressures to play these roles both at work and at home give rise to conflicts (du Prel and Peter, 2014; Robbins and Judge, 2007; Amatea, Cross, Clark, and Bobby, 1986; Eby et al., 2005). These conflicts affect the productivity and engagement of employees.

Role conflict is defined by Robins and Judge (2007) as “a situation in which an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations” (p. 307). The sources of conflict can be classified into three basic groups: (1) time based conflict, (2) strain based conflict, and (3) behavior based conflict. “Time based conflict is experienced due to incompatible time demands between work and family,” while “strain based conflict is experienced due to affective spillover from one domain to another,” and behavior based conflict “is experienced when in-role behavior in one domain is incompatible with role behavior in the other domain” (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985, as cited by Eby et al., 2005, p.127).

**Work and Family Conflict (WFC)**

Because work and family are two important focal points of adult life (Netemeyer et al., 1996) an important part of the literature in role conflict has focused on these two roles. Furthermore, the growing number in nontraditional families (e.g. dual-earner, single parent) may lead us to expect a stronger manifestation of the outcomes related to WFC (e.g. job satisfaction, burnout, turnover, depression, and life and marital dissatisfaction) (du Prel and Peter, 2014; Netemeyer et al., 1996).Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996) make an important contribution to theory by defining WIF (or work to family conflict) as “a form of interrole conflict in which the general demands of time devoted to, and strain created by the job interfere with performing family-related responsibilities” (p.401). These authors define “FIW” (or family to work conflict) as “a form of interrole conflict in which the general demands of, time devoted to, and strain created by the family interfere with performing work-related responsibilities” (p.401). Essentially, the responsibilities of one role get in the way of fulfilling the responsibilities of the other roles beyond demand and time, to feeling the stress of having the other role.

**Predictors**

The importance of WFC is highlighted by its outcomes or consequences. These outcomes are subject of high interest for different fields (e.g. psychology, sociology, health, business, etc.) Focusing on its antecedents or predictors is important in order to find an explanation for the differences portrayed by the two samples that may be culturally different. Predictors are factors that cause, increase, or decrease WFC (Eby et al., 2005). These factors have been classified as being either internal, which are those factors that are inherent in the individual, or external predictors referring to the factors in the environment such as cultural, economic and political factors.
Eby et al. (2005) content analysis and literature review of the WFC research in industrial organization (IO) and organizational behavior (OB) catalogued 966 predictors. Among the predictors that have been studied in the work domain are unpredictability in work routine (Fox and Dwyer, 1999), number of hours worked (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Greenhaus, Bedeian, and Mossholder, 1987) and frequency of working weekends or rotating shifts (Shamir, 1983); all these were found to have a positive relationship with WFC.

Referring to family domain, the number of children (Behson, 2002; Carlson, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000), concern about child care (Buffardi and Erdwins, 1997; Fox and Dwyer, 1999), tension with family or spouse (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Fox and Dwyer, 1999), high involvement in family-salient family role (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Parasurman and Simmers, 2001; Williams and Alliger, 1994), and lack of family support (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000) have all been found to have a positive relation with WFC.

Individual differences were considered an additional domain. This field included self-monitoring (Zahrly and Tosi, 1989), type A tendencies (Carlson and Perrewe 1999), big 5 personality dimensions (Grzywacz and Marks, 2000), McClelland’s Needs (Lilly, Duffy, and Virick., 2006), and Culture (Yang, Chen, Choi, and Zou, 2000).

Furthermore, factors that diminish work conflict by decreasing the effects of the conflict are considered relievers. Example for reducing the effect of family demands may be family support, organizational support, and delegating. On the other hand, relievers for professional demands could be organizational support, supervisor support, and delegating as well.

Role Salience

According to Noor (2004), individuals can play a variety of roles and hold various identities granted that the level of salience may not be the same. Hence, it is important to account for all roles taken on by an individual. Eby et al. (2005) also argue that in order to understand WFC, there is a need to go beyond analyzing simple role membership and look at richer constructs such as role salience (e.g. Matsui, Tsuzuki, and Onglatco, 1999; Amatea et al., 1986), role involvement (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Williams and Alliger, 1994) and life role values (Carlson and Kacmar, 2000; Amatea et al., 1986).

In this line, Greenhaus and Parasuraman (1993) argue that female managers could have three different orientations in their roles: career-primary (i.e. top priority for success in their career, sacrificing personal life), family primary (i.e. focusing on family, constraining career opportunities to family demands), and career and family (i.e. same importance to both career and family). This was also supported by Cinamon and Rich (2002) who found three distinct profiles: work profile (i.e. high importance to work role, and low to family role), family profile (i.e. high importance to family role, and low to work role), and dual profile (i.e. high importance to both work and family roles). Both studies (Greenhaus and Parasuraman, 1993, and Cinamon and Rich, 2002) concluded that the third orientation/profile (i.e. career and family / dual profile) had the strongest WFC level.

Culture

According to Zhang, Gowan, and Treviño (2014) culture, represented by country of origin and ethnicity predict career and parental role commitment. Culture as defined by
Hofstede (1994) is “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another” (p.1). According to Hofstede (1994), these categories go from “nation, region or ethnic group…women versus men (gender culture), a social class, profession or occupation (occupational culture), a type of business, a work organization or part of it (organizational culture) or even family.” (p.1)

Furthermore, “value” is defined by Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) as “a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others” (p. 18). This means that values are embedded in individuals, their attitudes and beliefs. Thus, culture could be considered to influence not only externally but also internally the perception of WFC.

The most cited study on cultural differences is that of Hofstede (1980) (Munro-Smith, 2003; Ali and Alshawi, 2005). Hofstede collected over 116,000 questionnaires from IBM employees in 40 different countries from 1967 to 1971. Hofstede found four cultural dimensions: masculinity, power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance.

Aryee, Fields, and Luk (1999) was one of the first studies to test the differences in work interfering with family conflict (WIF) and family interfering with work conflict (FIW) in two different cultures. These authors based their research on the model of Frone, Russell, and Cooper (1992) and tested it in Hong Kong. Aryee et al. found variances in the model because of the differences in culture with respect to the centrality of family. In detail, the reciprocal paths between WIF and FIW are the same for the United States employees; however, the path from WIF to FIW is significantly stronger than the other way around for the Hong Kong employees. An explanation for this could be that since family is considered the fundamental unit of society in Confucianism societies the interference of work on family may threaten the wellbeing of the family identity. Because family plays a key role, workers may not feel that family issues interfere with their work responsibilities.

Yang et al. (2000) supported similar differences in perceived family demands in American and Chinese employees: where the Americans perceived higher family demands than the Chinese. Furthermore, for Chinese workers, work demands had a stronger effect on WFC. This could be that the Chinese place the family at a higher priority than work and hence see the work creating conflict on their family life while excusing their family conflict in work.

Segrest, Romero, and Domke-Damonte (2003) describe gender difference beyond the masculinity dimension in their study of the differences in U.S. and Mexican culture focusing on gender discrimination. Although the difference between Mexico and the United States in the masculinity dimension is not very significant, the difference is magnified when the influences from the other dimensions are considered.

Segrest et al. (2003) explain how power distance may enhance masculinity. Because differences in wealth and power are better accepted in cultures with a high power distance dimension women will not only accept, but even expect inequality. For this reason, women in the U.S. (low in power distance) will have low tolerance for inequalities trying to minimize them, hence being more open to a career role than will Mexican women (high in power distance).

Because Mexico is considered a collectivist society, which are more concerned with a group’s wellbeing (e.g. family), Mexican women are expected to focus more on the parental role than on the career role.

Hypotheses

Based on the literature review, this study proposes the following hypotheses:
Hypothesis 1: Career role is positively and significantly related with WIF.

Hypothesis 2: Career role will not be significantly related with FIW.

Hypothesis 3: The effect of Career role salience of the United States women in WIF will be significantly different than the career role salience for Mexican women.

Hypothesis 4: The effect of Career role salience of the United States women in FIW will NOT be significantly different than the career role salience for Mexican women.

As discussed in the literature, we can best represent these hypotheses by using the model in Figure 1.

---------------------------
Figure 1 about here
---------------------------

In addition to the studied latent constructs, we will be using four control variables: hours worked, marital status, number of children, and responsibility help. Number of hours worked per week has been found to be significantly related to work and family conflict (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Grzywacz and Marks, 2000; Eby et al., 2005). Marital status and number of children will be used as control variables for both family interfering with work conflict and work interfering with family. Both these variables have been found to strongly influence the perception level of work and family conflict (Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Behson, 2002; Eby et al., 2005). Responsibility help is a variable that has been found to reduce the perception of conflict in work and family (Zahrly and Tosi, 1989; Carlson and Perrewe, 1999; Eby et al., 2005) and will be used to control WIF and FIW.

**METHOD**

**Measurement**

The survey used in our study is composed of several previously tested scales. The first scale gauges the career role salience based on the Life Role Salience Scales (LRSS) (Amatea et al, 1986). The second scale assesses work and family conflict, based on Netemeyer et al. (1996). To assure equivalence of the measures in the Spanish and the English versions, a standard translation and back-translation procedure was performed (Brislin, 1980).

**Data Collection and Screening**

The United States surveys were distributed and collected by students in a University from South Texas while in Mexico the surveys were distributed in two *maquiladoras* and collected principally from the north and center of Mexico. Only respondents who were working married women or had children even though they were not married were included in the dataset to warrant a recognizable effect in the measures of WIF and FIW.

**RESULTS**
The data collected does not pass the normality assumption for covariance-based structural equation modeling (CB-SEM). This is a very common problem in data collected via interval scales. Additionally, the final sample size was 153, which can be considered small for CB-SEM. With these limitations, PLS-SEM is an appropriate method and has been used successfully despite these two problems (Chin, 1998; Henseler, Ringle, and Sinkovics, 2009). The authors used Henseler et al. (2009) five criteria to assess the reflective measurement model.

**Discussion**

An abundance of research has focused on work and family conflict (Eby et al., 2005; Schaffer, Joplin, and Hsu, 2011; Ussher, 2015). Furthermore, a selection of research has tested the validity of the work and family conflict in a variety of cultural settings (Schaffer et al., 2011). Although these studies have found that the WFC model is appropriate in these different settings, they have also found that it behaves differently. In other words, the effects of some predictors may be stronger in one setting than in other. This study focused on finding specific differences in the career roles salience and its effect in work interfering with family (WIF) and family interfering with work (FIW) between samples from the United States and Mexico.

The findings give support to the differences in career role salience and its effect in both WIF and FIW in each cultural setting (Zhang, Gowan, and Treviño, 2014). Specifically, career role salience was found to have a much stronger effect for the American sample than for the Mexican sample. In previous research by Cavazos-Garza (2011), Mexican women were found to have stronger role salience than American women. Having a stronger career role salience may reduce the perception WFC for the Mexican women. In other words, women that place a high value their career role may be more tolerant to the conflict between work and family than those that do not place a high value on their career.

Contrary to expected, career role salience did have a considerable effect size in family interfering with work (FIW) for the American women surveyed. In fact, career role explained twice as much of the variance for FIW than it did for WIF in the American sample. Also, in the Mexican sample the variance explained by career role in FIW was much more significant than it was for WIF. Our hypothesis was driven by the description that FIW is the conflict that the responsibilities and behaviors of the family role inflict in the work role. A way to explain this contradiction is that as mentioned earlier, women that place a high value on career may justify the distractions in that the work causes in the family but not the other way around.

**REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS**
Figure 1 Model representation of the hypothesis.

This model represents the relationships of the latent variables as proposed in the hypotheses. The ovals represent latent variables and the lines represent the expected relationship (paths) of the variables studied. A positive sign in the hypothesis number represents direct relationship, while a negative sign represents inverse relationship.
THE BERTH OF A MARITIME MANAGEMENT PROGRAM: A VALUE CREATING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACADEMIA AND INDUSTRY

KEN CHADWICK
College of Business
Nicholls State University
Thibodaux, LA 70310

LUKE CASHEN
Nicholls State University

INTRODUCTION

Despite significant and, at times, disruptive changes to business environments, higher education is often criticized for not evolving in order to address these shifts. As a result, business schools are accused of producing graduates who do not have the skills companies most desire in their new hires (Bisoux, 2018). Essentially, schools of business are no longer having the level of impact they once did as measured by the value (i.e., economic impact) delivered to regional businesses and economies (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2016). King (2015) suggested 60% of industry leaders believed the current higher education system fails to meet industry needs. Additionally, the author noted 71% of corporate recruiters struggled to find applicants with practical experience when recruiting from higher education institutions.

Despite concerns regarding today’s higher education system, there is agreement improvements can be made. A primary mechanism is building and expanding collaborative efforts and partnerships between academia and the private sector in an effort to establish a “more valuable education ecosystem” (King, 2015: 3). Embracing this collaborative model will result in opportunities for higher education and, especially, business schools to find new avenues to increase their impact and, ultimately, deliver greater value to students and the workforce. Now, more than ever, a school of business must focus on its impact since it is directly tied to its credibility, legitimacy, and, potentially, its ability to survive (Pettigrew & Starkey, 2016).

Support for schools of business meeting the needs of industry is fully endorsed by AACSB International, which suggests “business schools must respond to the business world’s changing needs by providing relevant knowledge and skills to the communities they serve” (AACSB International, 2017: 2). Furthermore, in response to shifting business, economic, and social landscapes, AACSB supports the collaborative model between academia and industry by suggesting a successful partnership is one which focuses on co-creation of knowledge and the co-education/development of workforce talent. An example of this collaboration is illustrated in this article. More specifically, the purpose of this paper is to discuss the formulation and implementation of a highly successful partnership between industry and the College of Business (COB) at Nicholls State University. This partnership, driven by the College’s strategic planning process, lead to the creation of a specialized and unique academic program to fill specific white-collar workforce needs in the maritime services sector. Additionally, this paper offers strategic advice to business schools who are considering collaborative relationships with industry.

Developing partnerships between academia and industry is not a new concept. However, in a time of decreased funding and increased competition, it has become an increasingly critical part of higher education’s role in workforce development. Such programs positon schools to
meaningfully deliver value to regional economies. Development and implementation of these programs, while time consuming and costly, can enhance value for graduates and employers.

The Maritime Industry in Louisiana

A 2015 maritime workforce study specifically addressed the need to create stronger ties between higher education and the maritime industry in Louisiana with the goal of enhancing, diversifying, and growing maritime training options in the state (Louisiana Association of Business & Industry, 2015). Strategies addressing these needs were seen as critical to meeting the future workforce needs of an industry vital to the economic vitality of Louisiana.

Maritime employment in Louisiana includes vessel operators, marine terminals, shipyards and workers engaged in the movement of cargo and in the oil and gas industry. According to the above mentioned report, in 2014, approximately one in five jobs and $3.5 billion dollars in employment income were generated by the maritime industry in Louisiana. During this time, the state shipped 500 million tons of cargo (an estimated $59 billion of that going overseas). The total gross economic impact of $11 billion (the highest in the country) resulted in nearly $2 billion dollars in state tax revenue. The maritime industry, one of the largest in the state, is ranked only behind Virginia for private-sector employment in the shipbuilding and repairing.

Despite its size and scope, a scarcity of qualified personnel was seen as inevitably hindering the maritime industry’s ability to continue to expand and prosper. Advances in technology have altered the industry and the necessary skills of its workers. This includes both blue- and white-collar positions. In addition, competition for skilled workers within the state was increasing due to a dramatic industrial expansion. Finally, the sheer size of employee turnover, due to an aging workforce, would further hinder prospects for growth.

At the time, community colleges and technical schools were working to provide the industry with blue-collar workers possessing the necessary skills, training, and licensing required for entry level positions. Multiple programs across the region had been developed and implemented to train graduates in areas such as welding, marine diesel repair, production technology, and other technical positions. However, there were no programs designed to meet industry specific needs for entry- to mid-level managers (i.e., white-collar workers). A survey conducted by the Louisiana Association of Business in 2014 showed that 91% of maritime companies responding felt more needed to be done to provide the maritime industry with trained workers. In addition, the majority of respondents reported having no relationships with four year universities to provide maritime training and/or recruitment. The report specifically identified the need to create a plan to continue and expand recruiting and training efforts so as “to maximize economic opportunities for the state” (LABI, 2015: 8).

The maritime industry in Louisiana is concentrated in the New Orleans and the Houma-Thibodaux regions. The area is home to some of the largest marine transportation (workboat) companies and oilfield service firms in the world. Thus, the COB at Nicholls State University (in Thibodaux, LA) is uniquely positioned to meet workforce development needs in the oil and gas sector of the maritime industry. According to the study, “more students must seek to enter this career and move up the career ladder by earning college credit and portable credentials. The colleges should set a goal to expand for-credit maritime training; there should be a credit, non-credit hybrid that benefits both industry and students” (LABI, 2015: 9). Essentially, the desired
The outcome was private-public partnerships designed to meet mutually beneficial objectives: more knowledgeable graduates; higher starting salaries; and enhanced economic development.

Developing and Implementing the Program

The College’s strategic planning process. Early in 2011, the COB held a strategic planning retreat to which faculty, staff, and external stakeholders were invited. Included were several leaders of regional firms competing in the maritime sector of the oil and gas industry. As part of a brainstorming session, the idea of a program to train students as entry- and mid-level managers was proposed. Firms in the region recognized that business graduates with industry specific knowledge were needed to meet anticipated workforce needs. An executive with one of the largest offshore workboat companies in the region noted, despite hiring high-quality graduates from the University’s COB, a considerable amount of time, money, and other company resources still needed to be deployed in order to provide these new hires with necessary industry-specific knowledge. He suggested if the COB could provide some of that training, graduates would be more valuable to not only his firm, but also hundreds of others that compete in region’s maritime industry and periphery businesses. Based on this feedback, the COB took the idea of a maritime management program under consideration. It was determined that it could provide students with opportunities that might not otherwise exist and would be a great niche in helping differentiate the College from other schools in the state. Additionally, it would allow firms to become more competitive in this increasingly dynamic and global business environment.

Investigating program viability and resource requirements. In an attempt to further gauge industry’s interest in a maritime management program, the COB met with approximately 20 local and regional business leaders. During this evaluation process, two potential hurdles were identified. The first was a lack of financial resources for developing and maintaining the program. In response, a subcommittee was charged with raising the funds necessary to develop, implement, and sustain the program for at least five years. Funds would be used to hire experts to teach industry-specific courses and to market the program to potential students and employers. Within a month, the group was able to secure funding of approximately $350,000 dedicated solely to the program. This accomplishment legitimated the program and its viability in the eyes of prior skeptics, which included administrators, faculty, and other College stakeholders.

The second hurdle was a lack of expertise in maritime education in order to deliver the courses. The College’s did not have the necessary skillset to deliver on these highly-specific teaching initiatives. A second sub-committee, comprising the other half of the local and regional business leaders, was formed and charged with developing topic coverage, program design, course content, and general curriculum development so as to expose students to knowledge most relevant to the industry. The newly appointed Maritime Management Director in the COB worked directly with these local and regional firms to ensure consistency across the courses, as well as, adherence to instructional and pedagogical best practices. The outcome of this endeavor was the creation of five “maritime” courses, which were now part of the newly created maritime management concentration within the existing management major.

The maritime management courses and the concentration. The newly created maritime-related courses and areas of study were: Introduction to Maritime Management; Admiralty Law; Marine Accident Prevention; Economics of Shipping; and, an internship to be completed in a maritime or maritime-related firm. Specifics on these courses are as follows:
1. *Introduction to Maritime Management* provides an overview of the maritime industry with an emphasis on the offshore marine and oil sector, its history, environment and ship design. Graduates are better prepared for entry into the industry due to an understanding of industry-specific terminology, vessel types, offshore energy development and transportation, and various aspects of internal and external vessel management. The COB was able to identify and recruit three individuals from industry to team teach the course. As a team, the group has approximately 80 years of experience in the industry.

2. The *Admiralty Law* course provides a historical and jurisdictional perspective of maritime law. Content includes uniformity, maritime law as it pertains to commerce, vessel ownership and operation, marine contracts, and other areas. The need for graduates to have a basic understanding of maritime law is important because the maritime and oil and gas industries are highly regulated, and litigious. Graduates are able to demonstrate an understanding of the commercial legal environment and apply it to industry. The course is taught by a COB alumni who graduated in the top 10% of his class from Georgetown Law. He has practiced Admiralty Law, almost exclusively, for over 25 years.

3. The *Economics of Shipping* course examines key economic factors, sources of revenue, and shipping theories and trends as they relate to the offshore marine industry. Graduates are better prepared due to their exposure to major factors influencing supply and demand in the industry and how firms make sound capital decision under conditions of constant change in complex business environments. The course is taught by a trained economist on the faculty in the COB. She is a graduate of the U.S. Merchant Marine Academy at Kings Point and served for 13 years in the Merchant Marines.

4. *Marine Accident Prevention* is an online course that was being offered in the Petroleum Engineering Technology and Safety Management Department at Nicholls State University. The course focuses on accident prevention as it relates to the maritime aspect of the petroleum industry and jurisdictions governing safety management in operations. Exposure to federal rules and regulations better prepares students to recognize and reduce/prevent accidents in the workplace.

5. The *Maritime Management Internship* provides students with supervised practical experience performing managerial tasks in an approved maritime-related firm. Students complete a minimum of 150 hours on the job, submit reports outlining their specific activities, and are evaluated by their work supervisor. The need for graduates to have experience in the industry was demanded by some of our local and regional business leaders. Graduates are better prepared to enter the industry due to the experience and participating firms are better able to assess the intern’s potential for a permanent position within their companies. To date, approximately 70 students have completed internships at 40 different local and regional maritime or maritime-related firms. The feedback from both students and firms has been extremely positive as both groups recognize the vital role internships can play in developing graduates to meet specific workforce needs. Additionally, the practical experiences gained from the internship are illustrative of the high-impact practices outlined by Kuh (2008) and, in general, facilitate the transfer of knowledge between academia and practice (Sendall, Stowe, Schwartz & Parent, 2016).

In addition to the five aforementioned courses, the business leaders stressed human resource management, globalization, and the broad range of legal issues in the industry. As a
result, students complete multiple human resources courses, a multinational management course, and two additional to law classes--business law and commercial law.

A decision was made for the maritime management area of study to be structured as a concentration under the existing Management degree/major. A concentration provides graduates with both specialized knowledge of the industry, yet does not deprive a student of broader exposure to other areas of general management critical to a four year business degree in management. Additionally, housing this maritime-focused education as a concentration under the College’s Management degree does not limit the career flexibility of a graduate since their major area of study is still Management. These more general management areas of study are valuable to all companies irrespective of their participation in the maritime sector.

Program Success

The development of the maritime concentration allowed the COB at Nicholls State University to develop a unique program designed to meet specific workforce needs in the region. The College continues to strengthen relationships with a wide variety of external stakeholders. Several regional civic and business associations have provided additional funding to help sustain the program. Unequivocally, the results have been a value creating endeavor for all involved - students, businesses, the industry, the state via the direct impact on economic development, and the University. This program can serve as a model for business schools looking to develop specialized programs in times of reduced funding for higher education.

Despite a dramatic downturn in the oil & gas industry and one that has significantly impacted Nicholls State University’s target market, graduates of the Maritime Management Concentration, continue to find careers in the industry. Since its inception in the fall of 2013, the program has graduated approximately 75 students, of which, approximately 90% are working full-time in professional positions within maritime or maritime-related companies.

Success can also be measured by the multiple firms who have hired multiple graduates of the program. Several companies have hired four and five graduates, others more than one. Similarly, firms continue to request interns from the program, again, with multiple firms sponsoring multiple internships over the years.

Strategic Advice

We offer advice to those contemplating academia-industry partnerships. Our insights are designed for those: desiring long-term collaborative relationships with industry versus one-off projects; and, seeking to make successful collaboration a core competency within their institutions. Value-creating relationships are best if they are:

1. Driven by the strategic planning process of the college or university. Since these relationships require significant amounts of capital, dedication by faculty/staff, and the commitments of external stakeholders, the academic institution must firmly establish the legitimacy of the initiative. Having the partnership driven by the strategic planning process ensures greater expectations of commitment by all involved and fewer obstacles to resource procurement. Additionally, the initiatives resulting from the strategic plan tend to be those that meet the demand and needs of local and regional economies.

2. Not solely dependent on the academic institution for ideas and/or human capital needs. It is acceptable for the necessary collaborative resources to be beyond the academic
institution’s existing resource set. Clearly identifying needs from the beginning stages of the relationship will allow for the development of a plan on how to secure necessary resources. As a result, all partners can openly identify their planned contributions and subsequent action plans, which decreases implementation time of the partnership.

3. **Built on joint commitment and involvement.** Successful relationships are built on establishing a “we” mindset versus “us and them”. Outlining and communicating the benefits for all partners, along with clear deliverables by both parties, translates into buy-in and commitment. Establishing these deliverables (e.g., number of graduates or skills taught) results in a clear delivery agenda and more time to execute on the strategy of the partnership. Both sides should be prepared for ongoing discussions and negotiations.

4. **Established with a clear leadership structure and a visible leader/champion for the partnership.** An effective leader, usually from the academic-side of the relationship, assists in legitimizing the relationship by giving it a “face”. If the leader is from the academic-side, he/she optimally has credibility as a result of existing connections to industry. One of the primary roles of the partnership’s champion is to ensure the relationship continues to have momentum through the critical stage gates, such as formulation, implementation, and maintenance of the collaborative effort.

**REFERENCES**


SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT IN THE SUNDAY SCHOOL? ARE YOU KIDDING ME?

JOHN N. DAVIS
Kelley College of Business
Hardin-Simmons University
Abilene, Texas 79698

ABSTRACT

Scientific Management has been applied to a wide variety of organizations around the world (Wren and Bedeian, 2009). Perhaps less known has been its influence on the Sunday School movement in America, going back to the Progressive Era (Camp, 1916; Dennen, 1914). This paper traces a portion of that influence that continues to this day in some denominational traditions (Mississippi Baptists, 2014). The influence of Scientific Management on Sunday Schools in America has been continuous and pervasive.

INTRODUCTION

Perhaps my favorite subdiscipline in the academic field of management is management history. The Academy of Management’s domain statement for the Management History Division specifies that it includes “pragmatic investigations into the historical evolution of managerial thought and action” (Academy of Management, 2019). Included among the major topics of investigation are “the chronological tracing of the development of contemporary managerial concepts, techniques, behaviors, and practices with the intent of demonstrating (in) effectiveness within a given context, setting, or organization” (Academy of Management, 2019). And, no, I am not kidding you. I propose to begin to trace the influence of Scientific Management (Taylor, 1967) in the Sunday School movement in America.

The Evolution of Management Thought

I teach an online course to graduates and undergraduates entitled “The Evolution of Management Thought.” I’ve freely stolen the course title from the primary course textbook, Wren and Bedeian’s (2009) book of the same name. In reviewing my notes for teaching last year, I was surprised to notice, in the chapter, “Scientific Management in Retrospect,” a discussion of the influence of Scientific Management on the Social Gospel. While no part of this discussion directly addressed Scientific Management in Sunday Schools, there was a brief mention that evangelist Billy Sunday “recommended functional foremanship for the church so that each department could obtain expert advice and lasting results” (274).

Were They Kidding Me?

As a Sunday School teacher myself and as a faculty member at a church affiliated university, this comment immediately caught my attention. I followed a footnote to a “See also” mention of Ernest J. Dennen’s (1914) The Sunday School under Scientific Management and to Eugene M. Camp’s Christ’s Economy: Scientific Management of Men and Things In Relation to God and His Cause (1916). My initial reaction was to be incredulous. Were Wren and Bedeian
kidding me? But a little reflection on my own experiences in Sunday Schools since the 1950s caused me to rethink. My own experiences of Sunday School routinely were about efficiency in teaching the gospel. So began to investigate the topic on my own. Here’s the bottom line up front: Scientific Management influenced the broad Sunday School movement from its earliest days in the Progressive Era, and it continues to do so today, at least in the Southern Baptist denomination of which I am a member.

**SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT, THE PROGRESSIVE ERA, AND BEYOND**

Let’s review and summarize key components of Scientific Management as it pertains to Sunday Schools. Clearly, Taylor (1967) developed the fundamentals of Scientific Management to address workplaces involving workers and employers. Still, it wasn’t long before the associated craze for efficiency in Progressive Era’s led to application of Scientific Management beyond the employer / employee relationship (Haber, 1964).

**Taylor’s Underlying Principles of Management**

Taylor (1967: 130) described what he called “the four great underlying principles of management.”


**Connecting Taylor to Sunday School Practices**

At first glance, this may seem to have little connection to anything happening in any Sunday School. But coming from the perspective of those engaged in the Sunday School movement in the progressive era, there is much more of a fit than one might initially think (Callahan: 45). Consider these:

*First.* In an era of increasingly larger organizations, an efficient science of Sunday School administration seemed possible, especially considering that it was God’s work and that He might well have designed a science of Sunday School just as He designed the growing sciences of chemistry and medicine.

*Second.* Workers in the Sunday School were gifted by God (Jackson, 1988) to accomplish God’s work on this earth. Nothing could be more scientific than finding who God had gifted to fulfill organizational Sunday School responsibilities and selecting them to those tasks and roles.

*Third.* Progressive Sunday School leaders perceived and pursued an increased amount of education, not only among the professional clergy but also among the laity (Benson, 1943; Eavey, 1964; Price, 1940).

*Fourth.* Nothing could lead to more friendly cooperation than being members of the Body of Christ on earth, the church.

**Mania for Efficiency**
Beyond Taylor’s principles of management, the associated mania for efficiency spilled over into Sunday School work. Shailer Mathews went so far as to design and publish (1912) “A Professional Reading Course on the Efficient Church” and explicitly addressed it to ministers and to Sunday School teachers. A key feature of the books he chose for his reading list was that they involve “scientific study” (202). Repeated claims to focus on “efficiency in the Sunday school” (204) and on Scientific Management follow. Interestingly, it took an article in the Nation (Efficiency tests for clergymen) to challenge the legitimacy of applying efficiency tests to the work of the church. A few years later (1916), Warren P. Grant emphasized functional foremanship in organizing the officers of any given Sunday School organization.

Just prior to World War II, Price, Chapman, Tibbs, & Carpenter (1940) published their survey religious education. In their chapter on the Sunday School, they divided the basic methods and activities of Sunday Schools at the time into “instruction, worship, and activities” (811). They specified the importance of selecting the best possible instructors and of instructing them in the best possible methods, examples of Taylor’s second and third principles of management.

THE SOUTHERN BAPTIST EXAMPLE

An excellent example of a protestant denomination that built its Sunday Schools on the principles of Scientific Management is that of the Southern Baptists. Clarence Benson (1934) went so far as to refer to this as “the Southern Baptist miracle (236). Beginning in about 1900, Southern Baptists began an all out effort to train teachers. This included the development of a Sunday School manual that attempted to codify a science of Sunday School administration, thus implementing both the first and the second of Taylor’s principles. Similarly, Benson noted that the Southern Baptist approach included “appeal to the heart as well as the head” (241), a clear example of the fourth principle of friendly cooperation. C.B. Eavey went so far as to refer to the early years of the Twentieth Century as the time when “the Sunday School had its ‘Golden Age’” (268).

Key Southern Baptist Leaders

Key figures in the development of the Southern Baptist’s approach to Sunday School administration were Gaines S. Dobbins (Gunter, 2015) and Arthur Flake (Flake, 1928; Flake, 1944). In particular, Flake’s (1928) Building a Standard Sunday School, was revised, republished, and taught for decades in Southern Baptist churches (“Baptist secretary,” 1928; Jeter, 1947; “Rural church work,” 1920; The first baptist,” 1937)

In the postwar era, William P. Phillips (1954), in his Adults in the Sunday School, published by the Southern Baptist’s Convention Press, focused on how to organize to improve Sunday School work, with special consideration of how to “maintain right relationships” (117). Practically speaking, these involve promulgation of a true science of Sunday School administration, the selection and training of Sunday School teachers and officers, and the cooperation between administrators, teachers, officers, and Sunday School members, hitting all four of Taylor’s principles.

DISCUSSION
No doubt, some readers are, at this point, still questioning the connection between Scientific Management and the Sunday School. And, from the perspective of 2019, I find this easy to believe. Still, there seemed to be no such doubt a century ago among those directly involved in the Sunday School movement. One authority (Camp, 1916: 5) went so far as to maintain that Jesus Christ Himself used Scientific Management “in its fulness in His earthly efforts to plant and nourish the seeds of His Church in the world of men.” This is an intriguing claim, considering that Christ established His Church almost two millennia before Frederick Taylor lived and that Taylor himself is never mentioned in Camp’s book.

More recently, Wolfe (2000) addressed intellectual and educational practices among Christian Fundamentalists and among evangelicals, finding a renewed emphasis on Christian scholarship within the secular academy. Perhaps a study the intersection of Christian Sunday Schools with Scientific Management is a place the two can meet. I will concentrate my own further studies of Scientific Management and Sunday School in the specific area of the Southern Baptist Denomination. I’ve lived the two for 65 years, and I hope to find ways to inform both the management and the Sunday School domains at that intersection.
REFERENCES

Academy of Management. 2019. Division and interest group domains.  


Jeter, A. 1947, February 6. First baptist church news. The Paducah Post. 40(44)


“Rural church work will be developed.” 1920, June 10. The Llano News. 36(7), 6.


EXPLORING STRATEGIC TRAINING APPROACHES THAT LEAD TO THE RETENTION OF TALENTED EMPLOYEES

HOWARD G. DeMOTTA
Wayland Baptist University
1900 W. 7th Street Plainview, TX 79072

SONIA J. GONZALEZ
Wayland Baptist University

SHERON LAWSON
Wayland Baptist University

ABSTRACT

Training is an important segment of HRM practices, which supports the retention and development of employees because of the training given to employees. This research explored literature on strategic training and development approaches that leads to the retention of talented employees and classifies the different strategic methods into a framework.

INTRODUCTION

Training is an integral part of various Human Resource Management (HRM) practices, which supports the retention and development of employees because of the different varieties of training given to employees (Anis, Nasir, & Safwan, 2011; Beaver & Hutchings, 2005). Researchers (Hays, 1999; Smith & Cronje, 2002) have argued training and development are the primary retention strategies used by managers in retaining their best employees. Hays (1999) offers a lack of training and development of employees’ skill was the most significant determinant of personnel turnover in organizations. However, Bussin (2002) contends that continuous training and development of employee skills can undeniably enable their early turnover instead of reinforcing their retention. However, providing employees with the latest training and development increases their mobility (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

Problem Statement

Fishman (1998) claims that there will always be a struggle for talented employees. As such, it becomes increasingly essential for organizations to retain talented and skilled workers to maintain a competitive advantage (Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy, & Baert, 2011). Losing talented employees results in a loss of investment since new employees will have to be recruited and trained along with the loss of intellectual capital and the risk of potential loss of confidential information to competitors (Frank, Finnegan, & Taylor, 2004; Walker, 2001). Further, employee training is a complicated human resource practice that can affect the accomplishments of an organization (Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013).

Purpose and Proposition
This paper explores the literature on strategic training and development approaches that lead to the retention of talented employees. The approach reflects classifying the different strategic training and development methods along with constructing a strategic training and development framework to support the retention of talented employees. The significance of the research is to expose the critical understanding of employee strategic training and development practices to enhance the retention of talented employees. The results of the research will better equip HRM practitioners and scholars with supplemental strategic training and development methods for the retention of talented employees along with gathering insightful information that contributes to the theoretical application of the strategic training and development theories.

The following propositions will guide the research:

Proposition 1: An intellectual learning environment will enhance the retention of talented employees.

Proposition 2: Management development training is necessary to support the retention of talented employees.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Researchers (Anis et al., 2011; Beaver & Hutchings; 2005; Gering & Conner, 2002; Govaerts et al., 2011; Ramlall, 2003; Samuel & Chipunza; 2009; Stahl et al., 2012) have sought to investigate a variety of topics relating to training and development approaches to the retention of a talented workforce. The following literature demonstrates the various concepts of strategic training and development approaches to help garner the retention of talented employees.

Learning Organization Approach

Learning and development opportunities appear crucial for the retention of talented employees (Arnold, 2005; Hytter, 2007). These opportunities correlate to an organization establishing a supportive learning and working climate. The concept “learning and working climate” is derived from research performed by Abram et al. (2008). In general, the idea refers to the environment wherein employees both learn and work. According to Senge (2006), a learning organization is a place in which people continuously deploy their capabilities and fulfill their correct targets in which new ways of thinking are supported, and new common hopes are delivered.

Noe (2017) suggests the strategic training and development process features modeling a learning organization consisting first of a supportive learning environment. This environment must exist primarily for employees to feel safe to ask questions related to work, processes or if a mistake occurs. When in an actual learning environment, employees are encouraged to take risks, be innovative and explore the untested and unknown to develop new products, processes, and services. The learning processes are also essential for practices where knowledge creation, dissemination, sharing, and the application takes place. Managers reinforcing learning is a pillar in sustaining a learning organization.

Cullen (1999) adds to his argument with Noe (2017), which claims to create a continuous learning opportunity for employees and organizations to thrive in, there must be offers of encouragement, collaboration, and teamwork and an environment that inspires dialogue.
Implementing a learning organization leads to a higher problem-solving ability, a value increase of human capital, reduction of risks within decision-making processes, and higher satisfaction of the employees (Luhn, 2016). There is an association between innovation and learning, which Prickett (2017) argues the best solution takes place in a culture where innovative thinking is valued, and where people can take risks in their response to produce those solutions by removing them from outside their comfort zones and into new areas to explore.

Mission-Orientation Employee-Retention Approach

Gering and Conner (2002) show a mission-oriented employee-retention strategy that includes a business plan, value proposition, progress measures, and management influence with a focus on management development training. They suggest training is essential to an effective employee retention strategy. The training prepares management to meet and be accountable for specified standards of performance along with developing skills such as coaching, delegating, and communicating. Further, the retention strategy offers a development program that prepares the employee to perform their jobs and to be accountable for their job performance (Gering & Conner, 2002).

Intellectual Capital Approach

Research shows employers experience difficulty in attracting new employees and struggle in retaining employees (Hale, 1998; Ramlall, 2003). Ramlall (2003) suggest organizations will have to strategically plan and create an intellectual capital environment whereby the exchange of knowledge occurs throughout the organization or risk losing the vital personnel resources that had amassed during the employee’s tenure with the organization. Also, the organizational environment that reinforces training, rewards, recognition, task identification, career advancements, and flexible work schedules are valued discriminator in the retention strategy to retain its employees along with the appreciation of the employee’s career, family, training, and community (Ramlall, 2003).

Strategic HRD Approach

Researchers (Beaver & Hutchings, 2005) offer the examination of critical issues in training, development, and education by identifying the emerging problem of significance in Human Resource Development (HRD) and age diversity management that underscores the essential role for strategic human resource management (SHRM) and HRD in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). This proposition suggests that only those that seek a strategic approach to the administration, training, and development of their HR will profit from a competitive position in their market as well as being able to adjust in uncertain conditions (Beaver & Hutchings, 2005). The research demonstrates HRD increases workforce competence, skills development, and quality, as well as employee motivation and commitment to the organization. Further, organizational learning provides employees with skills in responding to change and an appreciation for lifelong learning (Beaver & Hutchings, 2005).

Social Learning Approach
Social learning theory occurs in all organizations since it is based on the behavior and the learning through others. How social learning took place and implemented within an organization are what provides the organization the ability to benefit (Bandura, 1971). The social learning theory is an effective way to engage and adapt to the learning environment by observing the surroundings (Bandura, 1971). Humans are quick to follow others and adjust to the environment by watching and learning by their experiences. Employees seeing behavior from one another, following procedures, building working relationships along with encouragement in the workplace are a large segment of the social learning theory and crucial to the success of the organization (Bandura, 1971).

Government Legislation and Policy Approach

Research sought to understand the extent to which motivational variables influenced the retention and reduction of employee turnover in both the public and private sector organizations (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009). The research shows the committed to employee training and development by the South African government. The government developed a comprehensive national skills development system with the help of the legislative and policy to back it up. Such legislation and procedures include the Skills Development Act (Act 97 of 1999); the Skill Development Levies Act (Act 9 of 1999); and the National Skills Development Strategy, 2001 (Samuel & Chipunza, 2009).

Gap and Appreciation Approach

Govaerts et al. (2011) claim talent lead to exceptional performances, and talented people are often admired and valued. Talent is viewed as a dominant, innate component (Echols, 2007), while factors from the environment, such as education and training, causes talent to emerge (Barab & Plucker, 2002). Further, since learning and development opportunities appear crucial for the retention of a talented employee, organizations must establish a supportive learning and working climate. This necessity can be described to as appreciation at work, allowance of empowerment and responsibility along with a choice in job tasks and development, challenging and meaningful work, and advancement and development opportunities (Govaerts et al., 2011).

Also, two approaches to learning and working climate exists; the gap approach and the appreciative approach. Finding what is lacking in training should be removed with the introduction of the learning activities. In contrast, the appreciation approach focuses on the finding and enhancing a solution that already is present. Govaerts et al. (2011) stress that when an organization has a desire to retain their employees, it is highly suggested to concentrate on the learning of employees by allowing the employee to engage in doing more and learning more about what they are good at inspires the employee to stay with the organization.

Talent Management Approach

Stahl et al. (2012) offer Proctor & Gamble spends one-third to one-half their time developing talent. Consistent with its promote from within policy and its belief that its leadership development apparatus provides a significant source of competitive advantage, talent management permeates P&G’s entire culture. Employees take advantage of leadership development programs during their career tenure. As a strong commitment to leadership
development, most companies establish state-of-the-art training centers or learning campuses, which partners with the best universities and educational services providers and the use of the latest leadership development tools and technologies. Also, sophisticated training programs, tools, and practices alone are insufficient, whereby organizations that excel in talent management ensure leadership development is an integral part of the organizational culture and actively involves senior leaders in the process (Stahl et al., 2012).

CONCLUSION

This paper examined literature on the strategic training and development approaches that led to the retention of talented employees. An assessment of the literature on strategic training and development approaches exposed a variety of themes that relate to the phenomenon of the retention of talented employees. The related ideas provide the emerging characteristics to the following strategic training and development framework that will better equip HRM practitioners and scholars with supplemental strategic training and development methods that leads to the retention of talented employees:

1. Conduct a gap approach to find what is lacking in training along with locating and enhancing the training provided.

2. Develop policies and procedures directed toward mandating employee training and development tailored explicitly toward the retention of talented employees.

3. Develop an HRD program that focuses on workforce competence, skills development, and quality, as well as motivation and commitment to the organization and the development of teams. Organizational learning equips employees with skills to adapt to change and the gratefulness for lifelong learning which reinforces employee retention.

4. Develop a management development-training program that prepares managers to be accountable for standards of performance. The core training must focus on developing skills such as coaching, delegating, and communicating. Further, demonstrate a strong commitment to leadership development by initiating state-of-the-art training centers or learning campuses that partners with the best universities and educational services providers and the use of the latest leadership development tools and technologies. Also, ensure leadership development is interwoven and is an integral part of the organizational culture that actively involves senior leaders in the process.

5. Allow and support a social learning environment where employees can adapt to their surroundings and search for success by observing others while learning through their experiences. Further, the situation must be supportive of learning and the working culture that displays an appreciation at work, allowing empowerment and responsibility while offering a choice in job tasks and development, challenging and meaningful employment, and advancement and development opportunities.

6. Strategically plan and create an intellectual learning environment where employees learn and work. The situation must offer encouragement, inspire dialogue, collaboration, and
teamwork. The intellectual learning environment allows for the exchange of ideas and innovation with a greater problem-solving aptitude for the employee and the organization.

As previously illustrated in the review of the literature, organizations having a desire to retain their employees will concentrate on the learning of employees by allowing the employee to engage in doing more and learning more about what they are good at, which inspires the employee to remain with the organization. The strategic training and development framework offers HRM practitioners and scholars with compulsory supplemental design to support the strategy training and development practice. Lastly, the findings of this study provide an opportunity to ruminate additional offerings to research that develop the research approaches to the theoretical implications of strategic training and development to support the retention of talented employee’s literature.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
SPEAKING SPANISH AT WORK: THE IMPACT ON WORKPLACE FAMILISM ON WORK OUTCOMES OF BILINGUAL HISPANIC WORKERS

LAURA GUERRERO  
University of Houston – Clear Lake  
2700 Bay Area Blvd.  
Houston, TX 77058-1002  
United States  
GuerreroL@uhcl.edu

SAUL R. VALDIVIEZO

ABSTRACT
Speaking Spanish may prompt bilingual workers to be aware of their Hispanic values. One value is workplace familism, which is a family-like environment at work with supportive co-workers and managers. We present hypotheses about how speaking Spanish at work will lead Hispanics to experience workplace familism and better workplace outcomes.

INTRODUCTION
We use the term Hispanics to describe individuals who live in the US but “who (1) are indigenous to Mexico, the Caribbean, and countries in Central and South America (e.g., Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Argentina) or (2) trace their origins to Spain and the Spanish-speaking regions of Latin America and the Caribbean” (Stone, Johnson, Stone-Romero & Hartman, 2006, p. 9). Although not all Hispanics are Spanish speakers, we focus on Hispanics who are able to speak both English and Spanish even if they are not fully fluent in both languages.

Although at times employers have sought to limit the use of non-English languages at work, the equal employment opportunity commission (EEOC) has stated that English-only rules in the workplace violate the law unless the employer can show that there is a business necessity for such a rule (EEOC, 2018). Restricting the use of Spanish in the workplace may have other negative outcomes that go beyond the legal consequences. Outcomes of not allowing Spanish at work may include lower job satisfaction, lower job performance, lower organizational commitment, and higher turnover of Hispanic workers. To date, the literature has only provided a limited understanding of the organizational outcomes for Hispanics who speak Spanish at work. The literature has not yet addressed why Spanish is valuable for bilingual Hispanic workers and why the ability to speak Spanish at work may make bilingual workers more valuable to their employers. In this paper, we consider the value of speaking Spanish at work for both the workers and the organization that employs them.

LITERATURE REVIEW
For bilingual Hispanics, the Spanish language represents familiarity with traditions, with other Hispanics, and a sense of home. Speaking Spanish is a way to relate to each other and to share personal experiences. In general, bilingual Hispanics speak Spanish in less formal settings (e.g., among family and friends) and speak English in more formal settings (e.g., at work and school) (Navas et al., 2007). Further, Spanish speakers develop a sense of group-identity through shared stories (Bergman et al., 2008). In the workplace, Spanish increases comradery and
cohesion within a group (Bergman et al., 2008). This suggests that allowing worker to speak Spanish in the workplace may result in favorable work outcomes.

In addition to familiarity, sometimes speaking Spanish is easier for bilingual Hispanics. When the direct translation of a word in Spanish is not available, bilingual speakers may become stuck if they are speaking English. For some Hispanics, it may be easier to speak Spanish if their English fluency is low or if they have closer access to the Spanish word.

**Familism**

Speaking Spanish may prompt bilingual workers to be more aware of their Hispanic values. One of these values is familism. Familism means placing high value on family relations and having high levels of loyalty, solidarity and reciprocity with one’s family (Marín and Marín, 1991; Triandis, Marin, Hui, Lisansky & Ottati, 1984). Workplace familism is defined as the familial environment shared within an organization (Restubog & Bordia, 2006). Workplace familism occurs when an organization has an atmosphere similar to a family with support from co-workers and managers. In this setting, managers can take a parental role and serve as mentors to provide guidance and support (Durbin & Tomlinson 2014; Bell & Goldsmith, 2013; Kashima & Callan, 1994; Restubog & Bordia, 2006). These family-like roles may seem uncomfortable or intrusive by other cultures, but may offer comfort to individuals who value familism.

Studies have shown that familism is related to positive workplace behaviors and negatively related to damaging workplace behaviors (e.g., deviant behaviors). Rüstebog and Bordia (2006) showed that having a sense of familism lead to greater organizational citizenship behaviors and in-role performance. In a non-work social setting, familism helps decrease the effects of stress and other social pressures (e.g., Holleran & Waller, 2003; McHale et al., 2005).

**Theory of Conservation of Resources**

The theory of Conservation of Resource (COR) is based on the notion that individuals want to maintain their current level of resources, and whenever possible, they would like to obtain more resources (Hobfoll, 1988, 1989). Resources can be tangible or intangible (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). Actually, losing or gaining resources has an impact on individuals. Even the potential to gain or lose resources can be impactful (Hobfoll, 2011). According to COR, the possibility of losing resources is more meaningful than the possibility of gaining resources (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004; Hobfoll, 2001). In other words, the losses (or potential for losses) are felt more than the gains (or potential for gains). When workers lose resources it results in negative outcomes such as increased stress, burnout (Shirom, 1989), depression and anxiety, (Kessler, Turner, & House, 1988).

The value of resources is context driven, where culture and social norms shape what is important for the group. There are also individual preferences. In our context, a person that speaks Spanish will only deem it a resource if he or she has others that also speak Spanish.

**HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT**

We propose that the preference for workplace familism will be more activated when speaking Spanish at work. Non-Hispanics or Hispanics who only speak English are unlikely to value workplace familism. Thus, we propose the following hypothesis.

_Hypothesis 1: Bilingual Hispanics will value workplace familism more than non-Hispanics and Hispanics who only speak English._
When Hispanics are able to speak Spanish at work, the workplace seem more like a family and less like a workplace to them. In addition, they are more likely to remember their values including familism. Hispanics will see workplace familism, as a resource because they value a workplace where there is support and guidance from coworkers and managers.

**Hypothesis 2:** Speaking Spanish at work is positively related to perceptions of workplace familism for bilingual Hispanics.

Workplace familism will mediate the relationship between speaking Spanish at work and job satisfaction. Similarly, workplace familism will mediate the relationship between Speaking Spanish at work and affective organizational commitment. Because bilingual Hispanics use Spanish in informal settings, when they speak Spanish at work, they will feel more connected to their coworkers and managers and work will feel more like a family. This family-like feeling, in turn, will result in higher levels of job satisfaction and affective organizational commitment.

**Hypothesis 3a:** Workplace familism mediates the positive relationship between speaking Spanish at work and job satisfaction for bilingual Hispanics.

**Hypothesis 3b:** Workplace familism mediates the positive relationship between speaking Spanish at work and affective organizational commitment for bilingual Hispanics.

In addition, workplace familism will mediate the relationship between speaking Spanish at work and burnout. Burnout is characterized by emotional depletion or exhaustion, disregard towards work, and feelings of being not being able to achieve much at work (Cherniss, 1980). Workplace familism is less likely to result in a stressful workplace, but if stress were to occur, supportive coworkers and managers could act as a resource for the worker. The support that is characteristic of workplace familism would reduce the likelihood of experiencing burnout.

**Hypothesis 4:** Workplace familism mediates the negative relationship between speaking Spanish at work and job burnout for bilingual Hispanics.

**METHODS**

We will test the first hypothesis by asking participants whether they are Hispanic and to what extent are they able to speak Spanish and English. We will ask them to complete a measure of workplace familism used in Restubog and Bordia (2006). We will conduct ANOVA analysis to test whether bilingual Hispanics are more likely to value workplace familism. The rest of the hypotheses will be tested using scenarios. For the second hypothesis, those participants who state that they are Hispanics and speak Spanish will be asked to write a short work-related paragraph. We will ask some participants to write the paragraph in Spanish and some in English. Then we will present a workplace scenario involving co-worker cooperation and supportive supervision in Spanish or in English, depending on the respondents’ answers. We will ask respondents to place themselves in that workplace scenario. Then, we will use the workplace familism, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and burnout scales. We will use ANOVA to test whether those who wrote the paragraph in Spanish had higher levels of workplace familism. We will use Partial Least Squares (PLS) to test the rest of the model.

**DISCUSSION**

This study will make a contribution by studying the work outcomes of allowing bilingual Hispanic employees to use Spanish at work. Research on Hispanic workers is sparse (Guerrero & Posthuma, 2014; Knouse, Rosenfeld, & Culbertson, 1992). This is problematic especially because the number of Hispanic workers is large and it is expected to continue to grow.
While there is evidence that restricting or prohibiting Hispanic workers from using Spanish at work can have negative legal and financial outcomes, we focus on work related outcomes in this paper. Our focus is on the benefits that are likely to exist from having a positive work experience for bilingual Hispanics. This study will contribute by conceptualizing familism as a resource for bilingual Hispanic workers.

Future research should consider other positive outcomes of workers using their first language. Although our focus was bilingual Hispanics, studies of other populations of immigrants are also likely to find positive outcomes of allowing or encouraging workers to use their first language. Future research can also explore the impact of the activation of other values held by Hispanics and other immigrants and how these values may impact their work outcomes.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
WORK LIFE BALANCE issues have become increasingly important with an increase of dual career families, single parent families, an aging population, an increasingly diverse workforce, and the sandwich generation. With increasing complications to the work-life balance globally, this has caused researchers to examine the differences between leave policies across borders.

Companies as they recruit new employees have begun to emphasize work-life balance and personal well-being (Burck, 199; Byrne, 2005, De Klerk, 2005; Mattson et. al., 2000); however, policies surrounding the increased employee loyalty still face challenges when examining multiple locations and variances upon acceptable leave policies.

International Leave Policies

The majority of Western countries provide maternity, paternity, parental, family, sabbatical, and/or military leave with or without pay and almost always with a guarantee of returning to the same job after leave (Tarique et. al., 2016). Creating a cohesive, malleable document to meet the needs of a large multinational enterprise can be daunting. As such, corporations tend to lean toward geocentric policies with empowered managers to adapt leave policies to the needs of the local labor force.

A key issue that is often overlooked is the idea that a single country’s perspective toward or against a family-supportive leave policy can greatly impact the needs of the corporate leave policy (Gornick & Meyers, 2003). Further making the case for more robust policies is the key identification of American corporations as falling behind other industrialized countries in providing familial support for the labor force.

The Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM) makes the argument that it is the responsibility of the employer to voluntarily provide paid leave for a wide range of issues and create policies that meet the needs of the organization (SHRM, 2011). From the 300 weeks of total protected job leave available in Switzerland to the 24 weeks of combined protected job leave for a two-parent family in the United States (Ray, Gornick, & Schmitt, 2009), the wide-ranging spectrum of leave legally available to employees creates an increasingly poignant argument for a company to establish a corporate leave policy for its workforce and not the government under which it operates.

Williams (2010) explains, “A growing number of American scholars document the lack of supports for working families and advocate adoption of European style policies” (p. 6). Williams goes on to argue, “Failures of public policy are a key reason that Americans face such acute work–family conflict” (p. 8). Western countries based upon extensive research (Good, Page and Young 1996; Cohen 1997; Maertz 1999; Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley and Luk 2001; Anderson, Coffey and Byerly 2002) experience work-family conflict that leads to a high expatriate turnover. Whereas in Asian countries, work is perceived differently (Hassan 2010). In this way, the manner in which company-wide leave policies are written can be even more difficult to accommodate all employees.
Leave Policies for Multinational Corporations

Countries such as the U.S. leave the responsibility of work-family coordination to the working parents themselves or secondary caregiving organizations (Neal & Hammer, 2007; den Dulk, 2005). Multinational corporations such as Walmart and Starbucks are introducing paid family leave policies. (Miller, 2018). These paid leave policies are said to be aimed at attracting and retaining the highly qualified employees in that unemployment numbers are already so low the qualified employees need to be retained at even high costs.

Even not for profit organizations are weighing in on the need for different leave policies that meet the needs of the company and the needs of the employees. The Bill and Melinda gates foundation acted as one of the first to implement a fully year of paid leave for parents to spend with new children; however, the company has since revised its stance to provide a $20,000 stipend for parents to offset child care costs and get parents back to work after six months (Miller, 2019). Other countries find the same issues present in familial leave policies such as Hungary where previously generous maternity leave policies are now viewed as a liability and causing societal reversion to gender inequality that resonates to the mid 20th century (Fodor & Glass, 2017).

Britton & Logan (2008) provide examples of organizational context that can greatly impact leave policies throughout an organization. Glass & Fodor (2011) further illustrate that differences in the organizational field can temper the enforcement and crafting of leave policies to meet the needs of management, workers, and professional staff. The corporate policy provides organizations the opportunity to develop company culture that can prevent what often is interpreted and negotiated into threatening worker buyer power and potentially limit professional mobility for the familial-minded individuals.

Developments in Leave Policies

Company Expansion

With 145 countries providing paid sick days for short and/or long term illnesses, the United States is the only unpaid leave for serious illness under the Family Medical Leave Act (Heyman et. al., 2007). As countries look internationally to grow their target markets and increase the reach of their enterprises, companywide leave policies provide ease of scaling or market entry for even smaller countries.

Increasing Workforce Diversity

With the rising retirement age and the lengthened working age, employees who have often been viewed at the middle of their career are not at the middle of their life stages caring for elderly parents and children (Swody & Powell, 2007). With these changes, family friendly policies become even more important to employee retention.
Gender Role Implications of Using Leave

Ray, Gornick, & Schmitt (2009) created a Gender Equality Index across the 21 countries they researched to assess countries’ parental leave policies on a fifteen-point scale between full workplace equality and caregiving between genders. Findings for their study illustrate that Sweden has the highest score and the U.S. lagging regarding compensation surrounding parental leave and the actual time awards.

Benefits of Single Company Leave

Paid leave policies are thought to serve as a resource to assist employees in meeting familial needs and obligations amidst maintaining steady employment (Allen et. al., 2014). In the UK and the Netherlands where state mandated policies provide paid leave for women, a 2010 study found that women did not feel national politics had a direct impact on their lives (Yerkes, Standing, Wattis, & Wain, 2010).

Takeaways

Generous, gender-neutral, and flexible policies are shown through the research to provide the most cost-effective and motivating factors for multinational enterprises. Each of these organizations are thusly able to apply policies for dependent care. Despite the increase of leave availability even when mandated by nationwide, fathers still take less parental leave compared to mothers as it is often frowned upon with company attitudes, financial circumstances, and the preference of mothers to remain the primary caregiver (Haas & Hwang, 2009).

Still, corporate leaders have the ability to present the opportunities and competitive benefits opportunities for their employees. Corporations such as Etsy with worldwide presence and employees thusly have the ability to offer their more than 1000 employees’ opportunities for back-up childcare to avoid increased leave needs (Spencer, 2018). According to the 2018 Evolution of Benefits administered by the Society for Human Resource Management, more than 72% of organizations increased their benefits offerings to retain employees in the last 12 months (SHRM, 2018). The increase of corporate offerings indicates a belief in the need for improved options for employees.

Miller (2018) explains companies are working ahead of the government and focusing on options for families due to the fact that family life has been altered at an increased rate to governmental reform. “In families of all income levels, it’s more common for both parents to work or women to be the breadwinners, and the lack of family-friendly benefits has led to declining labor force participation as people struggle to combine work and parenthood.
References:


Miller, C. (2019). With paid leave, gates foundation says there can be too much of a good thing.” The new york times. New York: NY


ABSTRACT  
Faculty senators participate in shared governance and play an important role in higher education’s policy-making. This paper presents a theoretical framework for promoting governance success. It highlights three potential success factors: perspicacity, sagacity, and mentorship. The model was constructed to emphasize the importance of effective faculty senator leadership development in practical terms.

INTRODUCTION  
University and college faculty senators across the country are given the responsibility of shared governance and play an important role in decision-making. As part of their responsibilities, senators are called upon to provide guidance for policy-making in higher education’s institutional matters which can have long term impact on students, faculty, community stakeholders and university systems. In February 2011, in a report entitled Academic Freedom, Shared Governance, and the First Amendment after Garcetti v. Ceballos presented by Rachel B. Levinson, Senior Counsel for the American Association of University Professors at the 31st Annual National Conference on Law and Higher Education, the report addressed several issues associated with shared governance and the roles and responsibilities of faculty committees. It is pointed out in this report that a committee chaired in 2009 by Robert O’Neil, on the subject of academic freedom and First Amendment rights stated:

“Faculty involvement in institutional decision-making helps ensure campus-wide “buy-in,” with respect to both the decision-making process and the decision itself. Decisions reached without faculty input may be insufficiently attentive to core academic values, may not reflect the realities on campus, or may simply be difficult to execute. Moreover, once a decision is made and implementation begun, ongoing faculty involvement and cooperation are essential. Without the freedom to engage deeply in that decision-making and implementation process – including the freedom to voice disagreement over the direction of a policy or the method of execution – the entire academic community will be ill served.”
Although faculty involvement in higher education decision making and policy setting is an important aspect of participation in university systems, there is little research to indicate faculty leadership preparation and governance training is provided to senators in advance of participating in this important leadership role. This paper presents a strategic leadership model for consideration in promoting faculty senator success in the governance process. Given the paucity of research on the predictors of faculty senator leadership success, it is worth the effort to explore the value of lesser known leadership characteristics which could foster faculty senator success.

**Perspicacity and Sagacity**

In 17th century Europe René Descartes devised rules for “clear thinking” in his work entitled “Rules for the Direction of the Mind” (Regulæ ad directionem ingenii) or Rules for the direction of natural intelligence. Descartes suggests intelligence consists of two talents. The first aptitude would be perspicacity, that is, an aptitude which provides an “understanding or intuition of distinct detail” (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perspicacity). Perspicacity is defined as a keenness of mental perception and understanding; having the quality of a penetrating discernment, or keen vision. It is an “acuteness of perception, discernment or understanding” (www.thefreedictionary.com/perspicacity). It is a “clarity of vision or intellect which provides a deep understanding and insight” (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perspicacity).

The second facility is sagacity. Sagacity is defined as a characteristic which enables “reasoning about the details in order to make deductions” (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perspicacity). It is the quality of “acuteness of mental discernment and soundness of judgment” (dictionary.com/sagacity). Several related words identified in the dictionary include enlightenment, knowledge, insight, prudence, understanding, discernment, practicality, experience, judgement, discrimination and comprehension.

By employing these two abilities, perspicacity and sagacity, which embody clarity of vision, practicality, experience, discrimination and comprehension, a sharp-sighted academic will demonstrate a deeper understanding or vision of the issues. Senators collectively engaged in perspicacity, will come to see and recognize the realities of the situational issues. By employing sagacity, thoughtful reasoning for making deductions, senators will begin formulating and implementing fair and equitable solutions and recommendations for action to resolve the problems, the difficulties, and the identified issues. Faculty senators will work together to discover well-founded rulings to be presented to university policy-makers for consideration. This is our ideal faculty senate in action. Successful organizational management encourages courageous academic brothers and sisters to dive deep into the simple details and facts, employing perspicacity and devising proposed solutions to problems that face our university and university colleagues. If leaders on both sides of a contentious issue employ perspicacity, “a keenness of mental perception and understanding; penetrating discernment, or keen vision” and if all parties perform their due diligence in ferreting out the details surrounding the issue, sound judgement and viable recommendations may prevail and proceed forward for review and discussion by administrative decision-makers.
Within the faculty senate it is the job and responsibility of the leadership, the faculty senate executive board and president to guide this process. It is the executive board’s responsibility to provide an environment which nurtures this skill and leadership quality in each of its faculty senate members. Perspicacious faculty senators and leaders make informed decisions and present sound, fully vetted recommendations to university administrators that will be respected. This could be a foundational quality for successful faculty senate actions and is invisibly directed by the faculty senate president and his or her executive board.

**Know Thyself & The Facts**

What perspicacity is not being the quality of obtuseness that is, ignorance. Successful organizational behavior implies knowing yourself and the facts. In order to lead effectively, leaders should know who they are. Successful organizational leaders identify their strengths and weaknesses. Successful leaders may ask themselves important questions such as, “How do I work with others? What is my best leadership quality? Do I effectively communicate and receive information?” Leaders should recognize what personality tools they bring to the senate floor discussion and decision-making process. Importantly they should invite other colleagues to join in the decision-making. There are many personality tests, tools and consulting firms, self-help manuals, available to assist a faculty member in identifying their true self. Profile inventories such as Myers-Briggs (MBTI), Emergenetics, Leadership 360, Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Assessments, John Maxwell Leadership Assessment, DISC profile (dominance, influence, steadiness and compliance, Gallup’s Strengthfinder, etc., are available to prepare senators to understand themselves better. These profiles and assessments may give the faculty member a distinctive look into identifying their individual skills and talents and assist them in honing these skills. Inventories are available to help identify unique roles and contributions which can be made as a member of a team such as a university faculty senate.

There are major issues impacting the state university systems, budgetary concerns, conflicted major players, student concerns, academic concerns, and confounding difficulties that alter the rules of the game and the decision-making playing field. These may permanently alter the landscape of higher education and negatively or positively impact a way of living and perhaps livelihoods. To be effective, a faculty senator should be an informed leader even as the landscape ebbs and flows.

**Mentorship**

Research indicates a growing interest in experienced corporate employees mentoring co-workers in the workplace setting. Successful organizations often employ the practice of mentorship. Following a study conducted by Billett (2003), the author indicated “mentors noted the efficacy of guiding learning in the workplace”. Haines defined mentorship as a deliberate activity whereby mentors perform their obligations and responsibilities with mindful effort in a supportive relationship with the goal of cultivating the protege’s aptitude. Mentors offer support, guidance and exemplary role modeling, informally and formally, to assist the protégé in being able to perform the tasks and acquire the necessary skills to perform the required tasks successfully.
The importance of formal mentorship programs to improve performance has also been recognized. In 2013, Hester and Setzer published an article entitled, *Mentoring: Adding Value to Organizational Culture*. In summary, the characteristics identified by the authors as most often evidenced with being a mentor suggested leaders are “cognizant of their strengths, weaknesses, and limitations; able to articulate and assess their performance; voluntarily work to build the communication and ethical skills of a protégé; encourage protégés to openly discuss problems and take responsibility for the outcomes; communicate a belief in the ability of protégés; consider mentoring as ethical as well an organizational commitment and are willing to invest his/her knowledge and experience in the protégé”.

Leadership training and mentoring have been an integral component of leader preparation for decades. Mentoring and “shadowing” in the corporate world is a routine matter of course. Supervisor training and on-the-job experiential training are an integral part of the business world’s preparation for corporate leaders, project managers and supervisors. The mentor or training approach to shared governance in the academic environment has been underutilized and should be a requirement in the academic world of leadership and university corporate responsibility.

Faculty Leadership Institutes should become a cornerstone of academic senate governance training around the country. These institutes should be being created to assist new faculty senate leaders in navigating the intricacies of shared governance. Veteran faculty senators and faculty senate leaders should come together to share tools and experiences to prepare new leaders to successfully perform their obligations and responsibilities leading the senate. Experienced faculty senators who have provided well thought-out policy advice, proposed initiatives, and recommendations in their university environments should partner with inexperienced, emerging faculty members preparing them to provide the required leadership and guidance.

A leadership institute training program was recently inaugurated by the University of Louisiana System under the leadership and guidance of President Dr. Jim Henderson. This was an important first step forward for the nine-member universities of University of Louisiana System in developing prepared leaders. The Management and Leadership Institute for the Universities of Louisiana is a two-semester program for “mid-career faculty and staff who aspire to academic, professional or administrative leadership roles”.

During the course of the program, institute participants are immersed in “a program designed to maximize their effectiveness in management roles. They will gain a deeper understanding for effective leadership in higher education and learn how to develop diverse, high-performing teams; manage and implement change; analyze financial, student and market data; and identify and seize opportunities in the increasingly competitive market driven environment of higher education.” It includes group projects and job shadowing and mentoring”. The goals of the institute participants as outlined on the University of Louisiana System website are to: “gain familiarity with contemporary challenges facing academic and administrative leaders; deepen understanding of fundamental perspectives and concepts of leadership as they apply in higher education; enhance personal and professional leadership competencies; advance the University of Louisiana System by leading a system-based group project from conception through completion; increase understanding of important dimensions of higher education administration,
including organizational structure and mission, governance, finance and budgeting, legal and regulatory issues, diversity and ethics”. These program principles should also be integral ingredients in any faculty senate leadership training institute or program.

Additionally, a Past Presidents’ Advisory Board is also a relevant body of expertise that is often available to corporate leaders. An effective advisory board often provides informed guidance and functions as a partner or collaborator providing significant experience and offering support in the corporate governance arena. As Reiter (2003) suggests, “Advisory boards provide safe harbours for executives who may be able to test-drive options before they are forced to be more definitive and assertive before a board of directors, which assesses the CEO and establishes his or her compensation. A CEO may feel more comfortable expressing partially defined or tentative views before a group whose sole purpose is to provide advice. For the same reason, an advisory board may also serve as an instrument of change, both as a sounding board for senior executives”.

Conclusion

Leaders are cultivated. Leaders are nurtured and supported. In an effort to successfully analyze governmental and policy operations, budgetary issues and concerns, and deal with the emerging difficult issues of higher education, a management model for strategic leadership success in faculty senate governance should be constructed to include organizational management practices. These management practices should include the regular exercise of perspicacity and sagacity as practical measures of organizational management.

Faculty senators should be actively encouraged to explore organizational behavior as demonstrated in personal-professional behavioral terms. Senators should be supported in identifying and developing individual senators’ leadership personality profiles and skills, emboldened to probe and inquire into their individual and corporate personalities, gifts, and skills as recognized through the use of supported behavioral measurement tools.

And lastly, a management model supporting success in faculty senate governance should consider including advisory board involvement and active participation in mentor leadership training. These structures should be included as a necessary step on the practical path toward success in undertaking the opportunities and responsibilities experienced as members of the university’s faculty senate leadership.
REFERENCES


Dictionary.com/browse/sagacity.


Thefreedictionary.com/perspicacity.

ULSystem.edu/management-and-leadership-institute/.

Wikipedia.org/wiki/Perspicacity.
TOXICOLOGY A PHENOMENOLOGICAL INVESTIGATION: STUDYING DEVIANT AND TOXIC SUBORDINATES IN THE WORKPLACE

Clifford J. Hill
Benedictine University

Introduction

In many organizations the managing of employees is a major responsibility for supervisors. Specifically, organizations who wish to have their employees carry out the tasks, duties, and responsibilities of their positions and who will not engage in actions which will harm the organization, other employees or its clients/customers in any way. Such behavior which causes harm is undesirable and is label deviant/toxic. In this study, “deviant and deviance” will sometimes be referred to as “toxic and toxicity”. However, research has shown that deviant/toxic behavior in the workplace is prevalent in many levels of the work environments.

Over the last decade, divergent behaviors have become violently aggressive in the workplace escalating towards life-threatening amounts of violence affecting employees mentally, emotionally and physically within the United States. Mostly all deviant/toxic behaviors affect not just the management and employees, but the entire organization. Many of these cases are different, then again, most are similar when it comes to the overall outcome. Toxic/deviant behavior comes in many forms and most incidents started out in small amounts then escalate to ponderous numbers. This study will not focus on anything too extreme, such as an active shooter or murdering of employees’.

It is not implied that all employees engage in these kinds of behavior, nevertheless research does suggest that some employees do participate or have knowledge to such behavior. Thus, it is important to pursue this study because many forms of toxicities affect the workplace. However, this study will examine the different characteristics of deviant/toxic behaviors and how supervisors and team leaders identify and cope with these activities from within their companies.

Work Behaviors

The word "deviance" and “toxicity” are defined in a variety of ways with the same, yet parallel consequences. First the researcher had to define the word deviant as it refers to the literature. (Werkman, 2006) “Identified the difficulty inherited in intellectualizing a term as broad as deviance with the following statement” The first problem with theorists was to come to grips with the seeming density of the phenomenon. This undertaking is not easy, since deviance consists of such a considerable scope of phenomena that it is difficult, if not impossible, to describe the boundaries of the field. However, from the 70’s - 90’s there is no widely-accepted definition of deviance and researchers in various fields define deviance in distinct styles. For instance, the field criminology, defines deviance as behavior which violates laws which have been enacted. Sociologists and psychologists consider deviance as behavior which violates the norms which have been established within a social group or organization. (Page 56). Conversely, in the 21th century literature has expanded its ideals and beliefs which made some theorist and scholars update the terminology labeled deviant, to toxic behavior, which usually could lead to toxicity. There is an ongoing battle about the word toxic or toxicity being used to describe a person in the workplace. One may ask, what defines the phrase “toxic” or toxicity? What makes an employee “toxic”? HBR study defines toxic employees as “workers that engage in behavior that is harmful to the jobs property and/or its people: toxicity is behavior that has spread to other
members of the team or business” (Harvard Business School Report, 2018, p. 1). The bottom line, toxic employees can and will, eventually cause long-term emotional damage to other employees and the wreckage from this may last for years, even after the individual has part from the company (Elias, 2013; Samuel, 2010; Durre’, 2010). You the reader, could come up with one or two from your career without concentrating too hard.

**Methodology**

The purpose of this descriptive phenomenological investigation was to delve into managers and supervisors of people who have experienced first-hand accounts of deviant/toxic behavior in their work environment. The study of phenomenology is a philosophical research method designed to explore and understand people’s everyday lived experiences (Giorgi, 2009). This phenomenological examination allows the researcher to encapsulate the real meaning of lived experiences. This research will be done from a macro level standpoint, of supervisors who have experience with some form of toxicity in their organization. The fundamental nature of a phenomenological study is to consolidate an individuals’ experience associated with a lived phenomenon to a description of its universal essence (Creswell, 2013). This study was fact-finding in nature as it had the several objectives offering a network of theoretical constructs that aid in identifying workplace behaviors. This is an advanced proposition for supervisors within organizations.

Therefore, this study seeks to provide an understanding of the organizational toxicity phenomenon by means of Robinson & Bennett and their four quadrants represent four distinctive, yet relatable types of deviance/toxicity in organizations. Within these quadrants provide different levels of deviance pertaining to the work environment they are as follow; Production Deviance, Property Deviance, Political Deviance and Personal Aggression. Snowball sampling was used to obtain participants for this study there were Ten (10) individual’s that contributed to the research, having years of managing employees. The chosen participants were from a variety of professions that had accountable experience with the phenomenon and most importantly, could purposefully understand the research answers to the questions which I seek.

**Data Collection**

This researcher was in search of discovering the conditions of certain organizations deviance and the toxicity which were described in the previous chapter. In their research study of toxic characters and the toxic workplace, Kusy and Holloway (2009) found that interviews allowed study participants to give peripheral expressions of their actual experiences, which offers the researchers an opportunity to record and understand the participant’s encounters. To understand the organizational components that foster or perpetuate a toxic work environment, this researcher interviewed 10 working professionals who avowed that they had live through the effects of working in an environment which encapsulated behaviors not suitable for an organization. Through their stories the researcher was able to extrapolate commonalities that revealed the role of each of the organizational components in creating or perpetuating workplace toxicity. The desired sample was narrowed to no more than 15 and no less than 10 participants. This small sample size is common to a qualitative study and indicative of the nature of qualitative phenomenological research in which insights generated from qualitative inquiry depend more on information richness and analytical capabilities of the researcher rather than on sample size (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). The researcher posted informational invitation to participate in the study using electronic media such as e-mails, Facebook and LinkedIn also the investigator reached out to former classmates and past employers. The researching network
included men, women, and individuals from a variety of ethnic, socio-economic, cultural backgrounds and perspectives. Please keep in mind, this research was not focused on no one’s demographic differences related to toxicity, people of all genders, ethnicities, ages, cultures, or socio-economic backgrounds could potentially be subject to organizational toxicity, therefore no demographic criteria were considered in the selection of participants.

Analysis of Data Collected
Most of the participants’ responses from the interviews focused more on the model of Robinson & Bennett (1995) Typology of Workplace Behaviors. This model was utilized to show the organizational backgrounds of toxicity concerning political system, production deviance, property deviance, and political deviance. Production for most companies are the backbone of the whole business establishment. Production or lack of production is valuable to this research. Conversely, most responses fell into these four categories political system, production deviance, property deviance, politcal deviance. A good number of the participants discussed their relationships with their management teams and staff members. Key information surfaced how supervisors (participants) identified deviant and toxic members amongst their staff members. Using the Nvivo coding system, the codes were divided into these categories these are what surfaced from the conversations captured from the taped interviews. These are the responses related to the typologies chart from the 10 (ten) participants in the study. In the typology of Incivility 60 points was measured, Radical toxicity 42 points, Criticism 41 points, Besieging 10 points, Crudeness 30 points and Covert Behavior came in at 51 points. These elements fit underneath the umbrella of workplace behaviors; Political Deviance; Political deviance is a broad concept, less frequently invoked than the concept of political crime. Production deviance; Actions that disrupt or limit productivity are also a form of workplace deviance. Property Deviance; Workplace deviance is voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and threatens the well-being of the organization and/or its members. Other practitioners have magnified the list to highlight additional workplace behaviors such as dirty looks, sarcastic jokes, chronic cynicism, gossiping, backstabbing, ethical ambivalence, prank playing, rudeness, arguing, incivility, backstabbing, belittling, public criticism, shaming, racial discrimination, bullying, harassment, and physical aggression.

Summary of Findings
The covered by Robinson and Bennett Typology of Workplace Behaviors, which three of the four elements were Production Deviance, Property Deviance, and Political Deviance. The last “Personal Aggression” was not covered, none of the participants expressed having any personal assaults and/or verbal abuse from their subordinates in the workplace. Each frame is comprised of several elements that can cause toxicity and/or deviance for one or more person(s), an entire department, or an entire organization. These elements can work individually or collectively within a frame, and that dysfunctionally can affect other frames.

Conclusion
Although the literature addressed the components individually, the interview data has shown how one frame can and will affect another. Here is one conclusion that could be drawn from this study, even though each of the sections within the four frames can be examined separately, they are inseparably related. The way an organization is designed affects the way people are managed, which ultimately affects their behavior as they maneuver within the
organization. Every part of these three of components culminate to form the organizations unfortunate culture. Conversely, if the work environment becomes toxic it will depend chiefly on each section of the frames. Most expressively, it leans on whether the supervisors and top leaders recognize the toxicity as a significant threat to organizational success and are thus willing to take the necessary steps to remedy the situation.

References
OUT OF TOUCH AND IN THE PRESENT: HOW MINDFULNESS AND MORAL ATTENTIVENESS MAY NOT SHARE THE MOMENT

ALEX HILL
School of Business
Eastern Illinois University
600 Lincoln Ave., Charleston, IL 61920

CHRIS ADAMS
Eastern Illinois University

JOSHUA HARDEN
Eastern Illinois University

UDAY SHINDE
Governor’s State University

INTRODUCTION

In recent decades, business ethics has become a widely researched topic in the academic community, and the importance of understanding ethical decision-making and improving students’ ability to make more ethical decisions is apparent. Many researchers have traditionally treated the ethical decision-making process as a largely cognitive occurrence, leading to an ever increasing and maturing literature body addressing exactly what cognitive factors play a part in one’s perception and action in response to an ethical scenario. Moral attentiveness—the extent to which one perceives and reflects on the ethical content all incoming stimuli (Reynolds, 2008)—offers both a methodological and conceptual solution to measuring and understanding the initial cognitive processes of ethical decision-making. A growing interest in mindfulness—attention and awareness to the present moment—and its place in the ethical decision-making process suggests that further inquiry into this relationship may provide valuable insight into the minds of ethical decision-makers in business. Mindfulness has yet to be measured alongside moral attentiveness. Examining these two variables gives a new perspective on the ever-present question: how do people make ethical decisions and where does the process begin?

As such, this paper serves three distinct purposes: 1) providing a comprehensive review of literature on ethical sensitivity and, more notably, moral attentiveness; 2) developing a new scale for the measurement of moral attentiveness; 3) conducting a study to examine the relationship between mindfulness and moral attentiveness in college business students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Ethical Decision-Making

Ethics research in the past few decades has been comprised mostly of studies based on the cognitive development approach, formulated by Kohlberg (1981) and modified by Rest (1986). Kohlbergian cognitive moral development theory focuses on identifying why “certain actions are perceived as preferred, or morally just” (Pandey, Chandwani, Navare, 2017), and
elucidates the cognitive process that individuals go through to come to these conclusions. Rest proposed that individuals’ ethical decision-making is a four-step process: (1) recognition of a moral issue (ethical sensitivity/awareness); (2) judgement of the moral issue (ethical judgement); (3) formulation of an intention to act; and (4) to carry out an ethical action.

There is a large gap in research on ethical sensitivity. This is partly due to researchers’ inconsistent definitions, but largely due to the difficulty of developing sound, reliable, and valid ways of measuring the variable. Most studies have utilized the qualitative approach of vignettes or ethical scenarios, observing if and how respondents recognize ethical scenarios (Sparks and Hunt, 1998; Gautschi and Jones, 1998; Shaub, 1989; Chan and Leung, 2006; Reynolds, 2006a; Sparks, 2015; Martinov-Bennie & Mladenovic, 2015; Lin and Zhang, 2011). While findings in ethical sensitivity may be fairly consistent, interesting, and valuable for understanding the interrelationships between the four components of Rest’s model, the concept of ethical sensitivity itself still requires some further theoretical development and exploration. Being at the beginning of the ethical decision-making process, this concept is understandably difficult to measure since it is the initial bridge from an individual’s cognition to the development of judgement, intention, and action.

Moral Attentiveness

A promising answer to this gap in literature and lack of sound methodological instruments is Reynolds (2008) relatively new construct, moral attentiveness, which is “the extent to which one chronically perceives and considers morality and moral elements in his or her experiences” (Reynolds, 2008). Moral attentiveness is based in social cognition theory, which takes into account both internal individual factors, external stimuli, and the interactions between the two as determinants of individual behavior. This construct is therefore not dependent on a particular situation, time, place, or moral issue, but can be used as a more general measurement of an individuals’ propensity toward moral thinking and perception. Reynolds theorized two dimensions of moral attentiveness: perceptual moral attentiveness and reflective moral attentiveness. PMA refers to an individual’s tendency to subconsciously color incoming stimuli for ethical content, while RMA is the conscious, internal contemplation and introspection of stimuli. These dimensions were validated through exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis (Reynolds 2008), and have been validated across multiple subsequent studies (Dawson, 2018; Giacolone, Jurkiewicz, and Promislo, 2016; Sturm, 2017; Wurthmann, 2013).

Recent research has shown a growing interest in moral attentiveness with a small, but increasing, literature body exploring the implications of the construct. One study measured the correlations of ethical characteristics (moral attentiveness included) and orientations with multiple measures of well-being (Giacolone, Jurkiewicz, and Promislo, 2016). Results were varied and paradoxical, but most interestingly found perceptual moral attentiveness negatively correlating with well-being while reflective moral attentiveness positively correlating. Other studies have found RMA to have significant correlations with moral awareness (Sturm, 2017) and reports of meaningful work (Dawson, 2018). Moral attentiveness has also been found to be an important factor in the leader/follower relationship. One study found that, when under low ethical leadership, followers with high moral attentiveness were more likely to enact organizational deviance than those with low moral attentiveness (Gils, Quaquebeke, Knippenberg, Dijke, and Cremer, 2015). Another determined that moral attentiveness was an
antecedent to, and outcome of, ethical leadership (Zhu, Trevino, Zheng, 2016), and the followers of ethical leaders tend to have higher moral attentiveness.

**Moral Mindfulness**

We address multiple research gaps experimenting with mindfulness and its correlations with moral attentiveness. Mindfulness is defined as “a state of consciousness in which attention is focused on present-moment phenomena occurring both externally and internally” (Dane, 2011 p. 1000). Studies have found positive correlations between mindfulness and a number of workplace outcomes such as performance (Dane, 2014) and well-being (Good, Lyddy, Glomb, Bono, Brown, Duffy, . . . Lazar, 2016), as well negative correlation with turnover intention (Dane, 2014).

Mindfulness and its relationship with ethics has also received limited attention. Nonetheless, the few studies that have examined the relationship suggest mindfulness is conducive to ethical decision-making (Ruedy and Schweitzer, 2010) and moral reasoning (Shapiro, Jazaieri, and Goldin, 2012; Pandey, Chandwani, Navare, 2018). We seek to contribute to this precocious area of research by exploring the correlations between mindfulness and moral attentiveness.

**HYPOTHESES**

Based on the shared cognitive bases of mindfulness and moral attentiveness, and their positive correlations with outcomes related to well-being and ethics, we give our first hypothesis (H1). Our two variables also have similar underlying dimensions which suggest that the two can be reliably measured and compared. Based on Giocolone et al.’s (2016) findings that RMA had higher correlations with aspects of well-being, we offer our second hypothesis (H2):

*Hypothesis 1 (H1): Mindfulness will positively correlate with moral attentiveness.*

*Hypothesis 2 (H2): Mindfulness will positively correlate with reflective moral attentiveness more than it will correlate with perceptual moral attentiveness.*

Given that mindfulness still shares a great deal in common with the perceptual dimension of moral attentiveness, we do not expect RMA and PMA to have the inverse relationship found in Giocolone et al.’s (2016) study.

**OPERATIONALIZATION OF MORAL ATTENTIVENESS**

A scale that measures moral attentiveness has been successfully developed and implemented in multiple studies. Its development by Reynolds (2008) included a thorough methodology in both item development and scale validation. All subsequent studies have since used Reynolds’ Moral Attentiveness Scale (RMAS) for measuring moral attentiveness.

Given the content of our study and its population, we decided to make minor adjustments to the scale through the deletion and rewording of multiple items. In conceptualizing moral attentiveness, Reynolds established two dimensions to the construct: reflective moral attentiveness and perceptual moral attentiveness. Understandably, these conceptual distinctions
guided the item development for Reynolds’ scale. We decided to further explore the notion of moral attentiveness by removing some items which we considered to have redundancy, and introducing new items that, though consistent with Reynolds’ definition of moral attentiveness, may either reflect his original components or reveal new factors underlying moral attentiveness.

Scale Development

We followed the scale development process suggested by Benson and Clark (1982) and Spector (1992). The newly developed Mindfulness Moral Attentiveness Scale (MMAS) was administered to a sample of 109 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in accounting courses at a Midwestern university. A total of 107 respondents completed the survey. The scale proved to have respectable reliability (Cronbach’s $\alpha$: .767). We then conducted a Principal Components Analysis (PCA) using a Varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization. The PCA revealed three distinct dimensions underlying the constructs, rather than the two found in the RMAS, with five items on Component 1, three on Component 2, and two on Component 3. All items loaded high and clean on their respective components, with no cross-loading.

Exploratory factor analysis revealed an interesting difference in the MMAS—that of 3 underlying dimensions, rather than the two in the RMAS. The five items loading on Component 1 also load on the same component in the RMAS, which is referred at as the perceptual moral attentiveness dimension underlying the construct. The next three items loading on Component 2 are either reworded from the RMAS or new additions altogether. These three items fit into the reflective moral attentiveness dimension of Reynolds’ original construct, as each deals with internal reflection and self-awareness. The last two items load quite highly on Component 3. These items are new additions, and differ from items loading on PMA and RMA in that they involve a more active, inquiring aspect of one’s moral conscience. We find these items to still be consistent with Reynolds’ definition of moral attentiveness as “the extent to which one chronically perceives and considers morality and moral elements in his or her experiences.” Rather than merely *perceiving* or *reflecting*, however, this third component provides something a combination between the two. PMA is considered to be subconscious and passive, while RMA is more intentional and deliberate. We posit that this third component, which we name *contemplative* moral attentiveness, comprises of a *deliberate* perception, whereby an individual intentionally scans incoming stimuli rather than passively receiving them.

METHODOLOGY

A study was done with another college business student sample (n=56) wherein we again administered the MMAS, which retained its original form (n=10) through the development process. Concurrently, we administered the Mindfulness Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS) for the purpose of analyzing correlations between the two variables, given the reliability and content validity of the MMAS.

The discovery of a third underlying dimensions of moral attentiveness prompted us to make a third hypothesis:

*Hypothesis (H3): Mindfulness will positively correlate more with contemplative moral attentiveness than either perceptual moral attentiveness or reflective moral attentiveness.*
Mindfulness, like moral attentiveness, encompasses aspects internal, external, active, and passive (i.e. internal and external awareness and attention). Therefore, we find it plausible that mindfulness, being a unidimensional construct in the MAAS, will correlate more highly with contemplative moral attentiveness, which in itself can be considered a confluence of the PMA and RMA.

RESULTS, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION

A total of 56 complete responses were received from the study. A Pearson correlation analysis found that moral attentiveness and mindfulness have close to absolutely no correlation ($R^2=.015$), with only a slight, statistically insignificant ($p = .368$) negative trend ($r = -.123$). This indicates a high probability that one who is high in mindfulness is equally likely to have either high or low moral attentiveness. Though too insignificant to extrapolate any conclusions, the downward trend suggests it may be possible that increased mindfulness could actually correlated with reduced moral attentiveness. Additionally, we ran a Pearson correlation analysis between the MAAS and the PMA, RMA, CMA dimensions of the MMAS to see if there were any statistically significant relationships. Again, there seem to be no significant correlations between mindfulness and any of the particular moral attentiveness dimensions.

Across one study and scale development, we found that the moral attentiveness construct (Reynolds, 2008) may have an additional, dimension—contemplative moral attentiveness. In implementing the newly developed scale, mindfulness did not significantly correlate with moral attentiveness, nor with any of its underlying components, rendering H1 as unsupported. Statistically, there is not a significant enough relationship between mindfulness and the underlying dimensions, so we cannot take our results as definitive indications of the relationships. Nonetheless, it is notable that out of all the dimensions, RMA had the highest correlation with mindfulness. This would seem to support Giocolone et al.’s (2016) study which found RMA correlating positively with well-being, while PMA correlated negatively. As mindfulness has also been positively correlated with the same and similar aspects of well-being, we can suggest that mindful individuals tend to have high reflective moral attentiveness. While the relationship is not statistically significant, we would still consider H2 as plausible.

Contemplative MA had the lowest correlation with mindfulness. Again, the statistical insignificance only allows us to speculate, but it seems that mindful individuals may tend to have lower contemplative moral attentiveness. It may be that mindfulness, at least as it is measured by the MAAS, has less of an active, intentional aspect (as the correlation with PMA was also negative).

Our findings were significantly different than expected, particularly in that mindfulness seems to have no correlation with moral attentiveness. Despite the fact that the two traits engage the awareness and attentiveness of individuals, the presence of mindfulness does not seem to have much a relationship with ethical awareness or attentiveness. Ruedy and Schweitzer (2010) noted this distinction between mindfulness and moral attentiveness—that mindfulness is even more general, moral attentiveness is oriented toward morally/ethically-related issues. Shapiro et al. (2012) found that participants in an MBSR (Mindfulness-based Stress Reduction) program did not show immediate improvements in their ethical reasoning, despite the participants’ immediate improvement in mindfulness. Additionally, Pandey et al.’s (2018) study established that mindfulness is not directly correlated with moral reasoning, but fully mediated by increased compassion and decreased egotism. Moral attentiveness, as noted earlier, does not involve one’s
ethical orientation, which may explain why mindfulness is not correlative with this aspect of an individual’s moral personality.

Our results, combined with these studies, suggest that mindfulness may correlate with moral attentiveness with the introduction of certain mediating or moderating variables, as was the case with previous studies (Shapiro et al., 2012; Pandey et al., 2018). A direct relationship seems unlikely, given the results of this study. We postulate that this may be because 1) mindfulness does not directly address ethics or morality, being a more general and non-judgmental trait and 2) moral attentiveness does not necessarily imply that one is mindful of the present moment. One could be mindful, for example, but not perceptive of the ethical content around them, and could perhaps be more disposed to reflecting on ideas and observations other than morality. It is also possible that a morally attentive individual does not necessarily use their attention to morality positively, perhaps using their disposition to manipulate and take advantage of situations in more of a Machiavellian manner. While the results of this study have not altogether convinced us that mindfulness and moral attentiveness are unrelated, their relationship might be fleshed out in a more robust study involving certain mediating and moderating variables such as compassion, egocentric bias, ethics education, and so on.

LIMITATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study had several important limitations, some of which may render the results of this study as inconclusive. Despite modeling the scale development methodology after Benson and Clark (1982) and Spector (1992), our study did not test the scale across multiple pools of significant samples. Additionally, the discovery of the potential third dimension, contemplative moral attentiveness, might have been better treated with additional scale changes that could give it a balanced presence in the scale alongside the other two dimensions. Another limitation is the MAAS itself which, though often used and validated across studies, measure mindfulness as a unidimensional construct. It may be more appropriate in the future to use a scale such as the Five Facets Mindfulness Questionnaire (Baer, Smith, Hopkins, Krietemeyer, and Toney, 2006).

As previously mentioned, measuring more variables alongside mindfulness and moral attentiveness would likely yield clearer insights into the relationship, or lack thereof, of these two important constructs. We intend to follow this study with a continued development of the MMAS and a randomized controlled trial measuring the effects of mindfulness training on college business students’ mindfulness, moral attentiveness, and other variables.

CONCLUSION

This study sought to develop a new scale for moral attentiveness and examine its correlation with mindfulness. The resulting lack of correlation between mindfulness and moral attentiveness provides a valuable, yet perturbing, contribution to the literature on ethical decision-making, moral attentiveness, and mindfulness. Previous research indicates that both moral attentiveness and mindfulness positively correlate, and may positively influence, a number of similar positive outcomes such as well-being and ethical decision-making. Though this study has not provided answers (rather, it has brought life to more questions), it is a step toward furthering our understanding of ethical decision-making and its place in the minds and lives of future business professionals.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR(S)
EXPLORING HOW TRAINERS CAN USE HUMOR TO INCREASE SELF-EFFICACY OF EMPLOYEES

CHRISTIAN A. HOMAN
School of Business
Wayland Baptist University
Plainview TX 79072

ANGELICA R. LANDRY
Wayland Baptist University

SHERON LAWSON
Wayland Baptist University

ABSTRACT

Employees with high self-efficacy benefit greater from training and contribute to the overall effectiveness of the organization by creating better products. Humor can be beneficial in training and is thought to be a significant part of individual strength and performance. Affiliative humor supports positive thinking and can influence self-efficacy.

INTRODUCTION

The workforce consists of employees with a multitude of abilities, skillsets, which requires trainers to incorporate a variety of training methods and motivational techniques. In addition to conventional approaches, using certain humor traits and styles could benefit employee learning and retention of training content since certain humor styles foster and cultivate self-efficacy (Yip & Martin, 2006). Training is only as useful as what employees take away and use in roles throughout the organization. While self-efficacy describes individuals’ confidence that they can do something, instrumentality refers to whether they feel it is worth it and if something will result in what individuals want. Those with high self-efficacy tend to have higher expectations for themselves and are thus more motivated to learn and use new skills thus improving performance (Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008; Sun et al., 2016). Both self-efficacy, the can do and instrumentality, will do; aid in learning and motivation of trainees. Smith & Berge (2009) suggested that trainers who incorporate humor maybe able to enhance the self-efficacy of trainees.

Past research shows that affiliative humor and self-enhancing are positively correlated to self-efficacy. Affiliative humor causes no harm, is used to enhance relationships with others, and supports positive thinking (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016). This point encourages others to get involved in creative problem solving as they feel encouraged by their environment and peers. People who use affiliative humor often say amusing things, tell unthreatening jokes, and generally lighten the mood. Such individuals give humor a bonding purpose by laughing at their own faults (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016). Humor is thought to be a significant part of individual strength and performance; workers characterized as humorous maintained more significant effort and persisted at their assigned task, making almost double the number of attempts and spending at least fifty percent longer on average than those in other conditions (Wanzer et al., 2005).
Employees’ expectations and attitudes also influence the level of effectiveness resulting from any training (Tannenbaum et al., 1991). Part of a firm’s strategy to improve learning includes those training the workforce. As professionals and institutions integrate with and depend more on technology, new concepts of social learning are being formed through distance learning and computer-based training. Despite this, there is still a social aspect that is unavoidable and may be enhanced through the use of humor.

**Problem Statement**

Encouraging self-efficacy in organizations may benefit retention and organizational performance. Researching the four styles of humor may offer insights into how they can influence training, and, by extension, self-efficacy. Although most corporations are making better use of advanced programs in their training schedules, employees’ low self-efficacy and self-worth can stymie the training received. If employers do not excel at providing their employees necessary tools, appropriate feedback, and employable skills, then the organization’s performance standards will fail the workforce. Perhaps trainers who incorporate humor can enhance the self-efficacy of trainees (Smith & Berge, 2009).

**Purpose**

This research project hypothesizes that if trainers incorporate humor as training tool, it can enhance the self-efficacy of the trainees. Enhanced self-efficacy can help in the acceptance and retention of training content which correlate with reduced voluntary employee turnover.

The major objective of this paper is to explore the four humor models and propose how their characteristics can influence self-efficacy in the training process to lead to enhanced learning and retention of organizational knowledge. By focusing on humor facets in the workplace, training systems and organizational may be optimized more often (Falanga et al., 2014).

**Propositions**

*Proposition 1:* If trainers incorporate affiliative and self-enhancing humor, they will positively influence self-efficacy.

*Proposition 2:* Increased self-efficacy and self-enhancing can increase employee motivation leading to transfer of training to organizational processes.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**The Relevance of Humor in Organizations**

Humor is thought to be a significant part of individual strength and performance; workers characterized as humorous maintained more significant effort and persisted at their assigned task, making almost double the number of attempts and spending at least fifty percent longer on average than those in other conditions (Wanzer et al., 2005). However, this attribute may vary in
accordance with types of humor and job environments. Scholars generally categorize humor into four distinct styles, two that embody a positive energy (aggressive and affiliative), and two that embody a negative energy (self-defeating and self-enhancing). Aggressive humor is used to enhance the self and cause harm because it focuses on the perceived superiority of the user over others; this style attempts to inflate the self at the expense of others. Another description of aggressive humor is put-down humor, which makes others look bad so the speaker looks and feels better (Zeigler-Hill, V., McGabe, G. A., & Vrabel, J. K., 2016).

Past research shows that affiliative humor causes no harm, is used to enhance relationships with others, and supports positive thinking (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016). This point encourages others to get involved in creative problem solving as they feel encouraged by their environment and peers. People who use affiliative humor often say amusing things, tell unthreatening jokes, and generally lighten the mood. Such individuals give humor a bonding purpose by laughing at their own faults (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016).

Self-defeating humor is considered damaging because it is used to enhance relationships with others and receive attention by making fun of oneself in disparaging or undignified ways. This style of humor is employed by those who want to make themselves prominent, even if it means through negative associations. Self-defeating humorists make themselves the butt of the joke for the amusement of others (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016).

The fourth expression of humor is called self-enhancing humor and is used to enhance the self. This style is used as an upbeat coping strategy to effectively deal with stress by uplifting self-confidence and, as a frequent result, creativity. Self-enhanced humorists often do not take themselves too seriously, help to cope with challenges by taking a broad look at the situation, and laugh at the weirdness of the cosmos and everyday life (Amjed & Tirmzi, 2016).

Humor is a tool that helps in enhancing employee potential, so knowing when and how to best use specific forms of humor in the workplace may help those with difficulty communicating humor (Wanzer et al., 2005). Positive and negative styles of self-directed humor are assumed to have opposing relationships with perceived stress, but the connections are predicted to be mediated through positive personality qualities. One approach, called superiority theory, describes humor as a method to achieve superiority and secure control by laughing at people or objects via mocking, making ethnic comments and jokes, and putting down others. Another approach, incongruity theory, suggests that humor is caused by surprises and exceptional circumstances (inconsistencies), such as when differences between bodies of disparate knowledge are resolved. One more approach, called relief theory, observes that humor causes laughter, which benefits by releasing tension (Romero & Arendt, 2011).

The Role of Self-efficacy

Low self-efficacy prevents employees from benefiting from organizational training and can damage organizational performance and team productivity. Researchers describe self-efficacy in the literature as individuals’ belief that they can accomplish a behavior or task (Chiaburu & Lindsay, 2008; Dar, Ebel-Lam, & Douchet, 2018; Lloyd, Bond, & Flaxman, 2016; Noe, 1986; Sun, Chen, & Song, 2016; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1991; Yoon & Kayes, 2016). This is valuable to an organization because those who believe they can do something are more likely to do it and continue completing tasks. By actively working on new and familiar tasks, the workforce will likely improve as the adage “practice makes perfect” suggests.
Navigating a team through the training process involves, among other stages, painting a compelling picture, effectively communicating, getting rid of obstacles, empowering groups and individuals, and making changes stick (Daft, 2015). Factors that exacerbate or mitigate the challenges of training often lead to pressure, high workload, ineffective management, secrecy, blame culture, uncomfortable or unpleasant physical working environment, job uncertainty, unhealthy work relationships, lack of career development, weak leadership, and insufficient free time (Rich, 2016).

Low self-efficacy encountered in the work environment is linked with decreased work performance, reduced interpersonal skills, lack of focus, poor teamwork, and decreased productivity (Rich, 2016). Organizational leaders stand to benefit by empowering their human resource personnel to be creative and depend on their initiative and creativity. Forward thinking in this context leads to venturing beyond traditional hiring methods to find talent, making the most of social networking, and knowing what kind of qualities and work relationships are needed by the organization. Few changes strike fear into the hearts of employees quite like losing a job they expect to keep.

The way employees express themselves and communicate via humor affects the entire organization. Humorous people access more categories of communication behaviors such as nonverbal techniques, language, expressivity, and impersonation. Those who enacted humor more frequently utilized a variety of communication behaviors in a wider range of situations than those who did not (Wanzer et al., 2005).

**How Humor Influences Self-efficacy**

A leader’s perception stands at the heart of organizational improvement. An effective leader is ready to gain self-awareness from a range of sources. Awareness might be developed through dynamic interaction with others, being open to the signals others give, and sensitivity to humor cues. Self-awareness helps professionals understand who they are and what they want to achieve. Rather than becoming defensive about their fears and inadequacies, they decide to transform themselves and thrive (Showry & Manasa, 2014). Meyer (2000) elucidated that humor has a unifying effect through identification which can bring a speaker symbolically closer to an audience. Identification and clarification functions of humor provide reassurance while also providing humorous divergence from normality of situation. By showing that group members can laugh at situations made them seem relaxed and more in control, potentially boosting group confidence. Meyer (2000) further stated that this leads to feelings of unity as “in-group-ness,” through the sharing of a particular joke or story.

An individual’s self-awareness may correlate with how they employ humor to suit their needs and desires. Individuals with high levels of negative affectivity refrain from using affiliative and self-enhancing forms of humor because of how these attempts at humor will be interpreted by others, while individuals with high levels of detachment usually lack the motivation to enhance themselves or their relationships with others (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016). Scheel and Gockel, (2017) described the social functions of humor as lubricating and that laughter, may create closeness between individuals. Beyond providing amusement, humor can facilitate liking and can bring people together. Scheel and Gockel, (2017) explicated that management humor has influence on group characteristics such as cohesiveness, communications, power, and status. The interpersonal consequences of humor at work encompass attention, immediacy, cohesion, emotional contagion, status and face-saving. For
instance, relying on the face-saving ambiguity of humor may enable groups to resolve conflict without engaging in destructive behavior. Humor, cited Scheel and Gockel, (2017), is very beneficial in the work and in training and can promote health, enhance mental flexibility, and smooth social relations.

**CONCLUSION**

A goal of this project was to examine how different forms of humor influence employees’ learning and retention of training content. Humor is not only an avenue for individuals to explore entertainment, share jokes, and harmlessly deviate from social norms, but forms of humor may even indicate spiritual generosity, mental health, and creativity (Falanga et al., 2014). The finding from the reviewed of literature correlate affiliative and self-enhancing humor to self-efficacy by identifying how the many stresses that face organizations from growing diversity, miscommunication, and misaligned goals between colleagues can be mitigated by creating or maintaining group cohesiveness.

Affiliative humor which enhances relationships with others and supports positive thinking was found to influence teamwork and creative problem solving (Zeigler-Hill et al., 2016). Self-enhancing humor which helps in coping strategy and uplifting self-confidence, was also found to aid in motivation and creativity (Amjed & Tirmzi, 2016).

Humor was found to be a unifying effect and is instrumental in stimulating group characteristics such as cohesiveness, communications, power, and status which enable groups to resolve conflict without engaging in destructive behavior (Meyer, 2000; Scheel and Gockel, 2017). Understanding the way humor styles resonate throughout organizations and affect individuals may help to control employee turnover. Decision-makers and training managers may, through studies of this type, steer their culture in ways to attract specific humor types. Scheel and Gockel, (2017) stated that humor is very beneficial in the work and in training and can promote health, enhance mental flexibility, and smooth social relations.

Individuals engaging in activities that require persistence may benefit from possessing certain humorous traits. Organizations that acknowledge the value of self-enhancing humor might create stronger, more effective organizations through employees’ increased persistence. Assembling the right talent that stands to withstand changes, challenges, and uncertainties in the workplace remain one of the top priorities of employers.

The research findings corroborate the first proposition that if affiliative and self-enhancing humors are incorporating in training, they will positively influence self-efficacy. The results also confirmed the second proposition that increased self-efficacy and self-enhancing can increase employee motivation leading to transfer of training to organizational processes.

**REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS**
THE HUMAN CAPITAL OF BOARDS OF DIRECTORS

STEPHEN HORNER
Kelce College of Business
Pittsburg State University
1701 South Broadway Street
Pittsburg, Kansas 66762

ALIX VALENTI
College of Business
University of Houston - Clear Lake

INTRODUCTION

Human capital refers to an individual’s expertise, experience, knowledge, reputation, and skills (Becker, 1964; Coleman, 1988; Hillman & Dalziel, 2003). Some human capital is generic (general) such as education or general business experience and is deployable across multiple and somewhat varied contexts (Becker, 1964; Dimov & Shepherd, 2005; Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Le, Kroll, & Walters, 2013). Other human capital is specific and limited to less general but still broadly similar contexts such as industry, functional, and general management experience (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993; Kotter, 1982). Other types of human capital are yet more specific and constrained by their more limited contexts such as event specific experience and firm specific procedures, routines, and practices. (Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Le et al., 2013). Firm specific human capital is knowledge applied in a particular firm (Amit & Schoemaker, 1993), and in some cases, firm specific knowledge may be so specific that it is only imperfectly deployable in other firms. For example, human capital acquired from rivals often requires “dynamic adjustment costs” (Hatch & Dyer, 2004, 1156) in the process of adapting the human capital to the new context (Cappelli & Singh, 1992; Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Mahoney & Pandian, 1992; Mahoney, 1995; Penrose, 1959; Prescott & Visscher, 1980; Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). Such firm specific capital that is usable only in a single firm may create “isolating mechanisms” characteristic of both resource heterogeneity and resource immobility (Barney, 1991) that lie at the core of a firm’s competitive advantage (Rumelt, 1984). Thus, the range of human capital includes general knowledge and skills, to context-specific knowledge and skills, to knowledge and skills potentially deployable only within a single firm.

Recently, a paradigm shift has occurred in the field of human capital with increased interest in studying the concept as a macro level construct (Nyberg, Moliterno, Hale, & Lepak, 2014, p. 317). This shift draws primarily from the literature on organizational strategy. Under the resource-based theory of the firm, an organization’s competitive advantage is a function of its collection of unique resources that it both possesses and employs (Barney, 1992). An important consequence from the transition to a more macro level approach to human capital is a focus on the strategic nature of human capital and consideration of the effects of aggregate human capital. This construct has been called human capital resources (HCR) and is defined “as individual- or unit-level capacities based on individual [knowledge, skill, abilities and other characteristics] that are accessible for unit-relevant purposes” (Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly, & Malterich, 2014, p. 374). Thus, a distinction is made between those human capital qualities that have a direct impact on unit-level outcomes from those that do not. Impact on unit level outcomes means that “value is created . . . when the use of human capital increases a firm’s revenues and/or decreases a
firm’s costs compared to what would have been if that human capital had not been used” (Molloy & Barney, 2015, p. 310). The convergence of strategy and human capital research provides a platform through which researchers can examine how “the human element can benefit strategic outcomes” (Nyberg & Wright, 2015, p. 289).

Boards of directors provide to a firm human capital that is singularly focused on the overall direction of the firm suggesting the existence of a type of human capital that is uniquely oriented toward corporate governance. Board human capital is the bundle of skills, knowledge, and perspectives brought to the board by outside directors collectively (Johnson, S., Schnatterly, & Hill, 2013). Experience developed at their home firms, additional experience developed through multiple board appointments, and industry experience developed over the course of their careers constitute potentially valuable human capital that outside directors bring to the firm’s board. Among the outcomes associated with human capital of the board are sales growth (Kor & Sundaramurthy, 2009), post-acquisition performance (Walters, Kroll, & Wright, 2008), changes to top management teams (TMT) (Boeker & Wiltbank, 2005; Bruton, Fried, & Hisrich, 1997), and CEO successions (Tian, Halbelian, & Rajagopalan, 2011).

This study further explores the role of board human capital in corporate governance examining effects of certain types of board human capital on firm innovation. This study also contributes to the extant literature by developing theory regarding cross-level measures of human capital resources and their impact on firm innovation.

BOARD ATTRIBUTES AND FIRM STRATEGY

The role of the board of directors in providing strategic direction and counsel is recognized as a primary function of a corporation’s board. As part of their external organizational role, boards link their focal organizations to critical environmental resources and information lying in a network of interlocking directorates (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Pfeffer, 1972; Price, 1963). Internally, in addition to their monitoring role, boards perform policy roles of advice and counsel and ratification of strategy (Fama & Jensen, 1983; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996). Much of these external and internal roles are informed by certain levels of expertise and skill (Baysinger & Butler, 1985). In their seminal work, Pearce and Zahra (1992) noted the three traditional roles played by board members: service, strategy and control. They proposed a strategic contingency perspective for determining board composition. They argued that an organization’s core strategy should be an important consideration in selecting board members because they can assist in reducing uncertainty, define relevant stakeholders, and determine resource requirements. The authors made several predictions as to the corporate strategy adopted and both board size and the ratio of insiders and outsiders. Specifically, they hypothesized that external growth, diversification, and leveraged capital structure strategies lead to increases in the size of the board and the number of outsiders, while a concentration strategy predicts smaller boards and fewer outsider directors. The authors also anticipated that neither an internal growth strategy nor a retrenchment strategy would have an effect on board size or outsider representation. Their empirical analysis supported most of their hypotheses suggesting that strategy does in fact determine board structure and composition.

Later work continued the theme noting the need to examine the role of the board from a perspective other than agency theory. These studies were basically in agreement that strategic advice, financial contacts, and human capital were all resources that board members could
provide through service on the board (e.g., Hillman, Cannella, & Paetzold, 2000). For example, Hillman and colleagues (2000) relied on resource dependence theory to suggest that outside directors establish a link with the environment to better enable firms to deal with environmental uncertainties. O’Sullivan (2000) posited that board members are in a position to influence the manner in which resources are allocated to strategic projects including investments in innovation.

A dimension of board composition that has been the subject of scholarly inquiry is demographic diversity. Implicit in many of these studies the conclusion that more diverse boards could better serve management in providing strategic advice. Diversity on the board offers a competitive advantage to the firm because members have a broader understanding of markets and can bring differing points of view to solve problems. “Board diversity provides the firm with human and social capital resources that help the board to generate ideas, allocate resources and find opportunities, thereby increasing innovation.” (Galia & Zenou, 2012, p. 631). Thus, studies have examined the effect of board diversity on such outcomes as innovation and reputation (Galia & Zenou, 2012; Miller & Triana, 2009) and generally find a positive relationship among age, gender, and racial diversity and innovation, measured by product, organizational, and marketing innovations, but not process innovations.

Another focus area has relied on the distinction between boards dominated by outsiders and those with a significant number of insiders. The relationship between the percentage of outsiders on the board and firm performance has received extensive scrutiny using an agency theoretical framework, producing mixed results at best (e.g., Agrawal & Knoeber, 1996). Hung and Mondejar (2005) found no significant correlations between any of their variables measuring entrepreneurial innovation and their measure of board composition, although share ownership by directors was found to be positively related to risk-taking. In a study of the antecedents of innovation activities, firms whose boards were dominated by inside directors were more likely to engage in innovation activities (Chouaibi, Affes, & Boujebene, 2010). These authors theorized that insiders were more efficient than outsiders because they had specific information and direct access over critical resources, allowing them to better assess the risks associated with innovative projects. Insiders, it was further theorized, are more likely to focus on internal projects rather than external acquisitions.

**HUMAN CAPITAL OF THE BOARD AND FIRM STRATEGIC OUTCOMES**

Experience in a specific domain tends to impact decisions related to that experience and to subsequent outcomes (Johnson, S. et al., 2013). Outside directors serve as potential sources of experience, expertise, counsel, and alternative viewpoints (Hermalin & Weisbach, 1988). Boards of directors bring to the focal firm a breadth of experience due to the diversity of outsiders’ occupations and a depth of experience as a result of directors’ typically long periods of service within and to organizations. The breadth and depth of this experience has been shown to impact firm outcomes. For example, outside director experience as CEO of an acquiring firm improved acquisition performance of the focal firm dependent on the type of acquisition (Kroll, Walters, & Wright, 2008; McDonald, Westphal, & Graebner, 2008). If the acquisition was related, outside director experience with related acquisitions was associated with higher related acquisition performance. Experience brought to the firm by outside members of the board of directors strengthens the pool of knowledge held by members of management, particularly board
insiders. This experience is often linked to a range of outcomes and these relationships become part of the firm’s knowledge domain or human capital.

Making use of one’s human capital by repeatedly performing certain tasks tends to enhance the level of expertise in that task (Tian et al., 2011). The sum of the skills, knowledge, experience, and expertise of directors on a corporate board comprise the board’s human capital, and research on boards demonstrates an empirical link between specific human capital within a given context and the likelihood of board appointments given the focal firm’s need for such context-specific expertise (Withers, Hillman, & Cannella, 2012). Outsiders bring to the firm information, skills, and knowledge developed through experience that is deemed beneficial to the firm and related to anticipated firm outcomes. Hence, outside directors are recruited to the focal firm’s board, in part, for their human capital that is strategically relevant to the outcomes desired by the board and firm’s management.

Strategic relevance occurs when a director has specific experience reducing uncertainty stemming from the firm’s dependence on external contingencies most problematic to the organization (Pfeffer, 1972a; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Formal connections with organizations in the focal firm’s institutional environment link directors with external information resulting in reduction of uncertainty for the focal firm. For example, Kor and Sundaramurthy (2009) found that service on multiple boards increases access to information which in turn improves the board’s expertise advising management and positively affecting decisions leading to the company’s growth.

The enhancement of the quantity and quality of information available to the focal firm and the ability to manage that information enhances the strategic relevance of the board’s expertise within the context of the focal firm’s strategy. The board’s broad exposure to a variety of external conditions and the board’s experience at addressing these conditions (and seeing them addressed by other firms’ managers on whose boards they serve), affords the learning necessary to convert these general observations into choice-specific information inputs to a decision or strategic process at hand thereby making their expertise relevant to a specific strategic context. This seems the core of the idea of strategic relevance - the capacity to infer information about a specific situation from a variety of generalized experiences and bring this information to bear on specific decision. Hence, the board’s expertise is enhanced by strategic relevance of directors’ individual experiences with the general context of business conditions and through the variety of their exposure and involvement in concurrent conditions.

Scientific knowledge and firm strategic outcomes

Many firms in high-technology environments rely heavily on innovation to fuel their business. Even high-tech firms that tend toward incremental innovation eventually need to radically innovate in order to maintain their competitive position. Such innovation is often focused on a particular technology involving highly specialized knowledge. Industries such as pharmaceuticals, biotechnology, genetic research, and others that grow out of basic research build associations with research centers, especially universities, to improve their absorptive capacity in a particular field. Such associations often bring firm managers into contact with specialists in their field and with those who specialize in technology transfer and in
These relationships can be sources of advice and counsel that develop into governance relationships.

**Proposition 1:** Boards of firms in high-tech environments will show a strong association between board specific human capital and firm innovation.

**Board tenure, founder-directors and firm strategic outcomes**

Tenure is often a proxy for the accumulation of expertise and experience over time, the presence of a founder-director. The longer a director is on a company’s board, the more familiar he or she becomes with the resources and capabilities of the firm and is thus better able to assess the feasibility of R&D proposals presented by management. Huang (2013) noted that the tenure of a firm’s directors is an aggregate measure and is a proxy for both the level of the board’s specific firm knowledge as well as the extent of its independence. The presence of the firm’s founder on the board may signal the board’s acknowledgment of the founder’s importance to the firm’s strategy. The presence of a founder-director is a unit-level characteristic as studies have shown that founder-managers contribute to the entrepreneurial performance of the firm (e.g., Fischer and Pollock, 2004). The founder-director may keep an entrepreneurial spirit alive in the firm and on the board in a way that results in a balance between typical effects of tenure (aversion to risk, maintaining status quo) and entrepreneurial zeal. Therefore, we suggest the importance of a complementarity between board tenure and presence of founder-director.

**Proposition 2:** Board tenure and the existence of a founder on the board are associated with firm innovation

**Financial expertise, scientific knowledge and firm strategic outcomes**

These firms in high-technology environments can also forge relationships with individuals having financial expertise. This is true not only of startups. Large long-established firms rely on connections with financial markets not only because of the direct importance of financial resources but also because of the legitimacy that such connections provide. Furthermore, the expertise of these financial experts may complement the technical expertise brought by other directors in ways that are strategically and competitively relevant. The combination of these individual capabilities creates a unit-level capability (Nyberg, Moliterno, Hale, & Lepak, 2014; Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly, & Malterich, 2014).

**Proposition 3:** Financial expertise complements specialized knowledge among directors on a firm’s board that promote firm innovation.

**CONCLUSION**

The selection of the members of corporate boards is an important decision for managers. Insuring that the human capital of directors contribute to the organization’s strategy should be a paramount consideration in this process. This also includes a consideration of the complementarities among directors that enhance the human capital resources of the board. We propose further research to determine the optimal mix of human capital that will further inform
our understanding of the important role of the board in providing strategic advice and counsel to the focal firm.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
USING HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT (HRD) COMMUNICATION CHANNELS, THE INTEGRATION OF ETHICS AND DIVERSITY, AND DIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE (DQ) TO DEVELOP LEADERS

CLARETHA HUGHES
Professor
Human Resource and Workforce Development
255 GRAD
University of Arkansas
Fayetteville, AR 72701

ELSA CAMARGO
University of Arkansas

ABSTRACT

The combination of ethics, diversity, and diversity intelligence offers an innovative approach to improve workplace leaders’ diversity skills. Using HRD communication channels of diversity training and leadership development initiatives can strengthen leader development strategies. Adding DQ to the diversity and ethics conversation enhances the opportunity to improve communication among employees.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations in the United States continue to struggle to close the gap between what leaders know about diversity and what actions they take to improve diversity in the workplace. Employees are the most important assets in organizations and are expected to perform the tasks needed to help their organizations succeed. The vast majority of employees are in protected class groups or categories. In fact, workplace laws protect the pay of every employee. Understanding protected class groups and categories exemplifies the foundational understanding of diversity intelligence (DQ).

It is a constant learning process to understand the situations encountered when leading protected class people and to devise the proper response/action; often these responses become ethical issues for the respondents. Leaders are supposed to treat all protected class group members the same concerning their protected status. Essentially, no protected class status or category is more important than another.

The purpose of this article is to argue for alternative ways that human resource development communication channels can be used to combine ethics, diversity, and DQ. Would having DQ help leaders make better ethical and diversity decisions and communicate those decisions to others in the workplace? Because ethics and diversity are already considered crucial skills that leaders must display when interacting with others and both have no concrete, right answers to solve continuous problems, we believe the introduction of DQ into this connection is an innovative solution and HRD communication channels are readily available ways to introduce these ideas.

DIVERSITY INTELLIGENCE (DQ) CONCEPTUAL MODEL
Hughes (2016) developed a model entitled Diversity Intelligence (DQ) to equip organizational leaders with an understanding of diversity and skills to effectively lead diverse organizations. Hughes (2018a) described DQ as “the capability of individuals to recognize the value of workplace diversity and to use this information to guide thinking and behavior” (p. 260). DQ must work in connection with other organizational leadership support strategies including intellectual intelligence (IQ), emotional intelligence (EQ), and cultural intelligence to obtain the highest benefit (Hughes, 2016).

The DQ model includes two components: leaders and employees. It has three intersecting variables: intellectual intelligence (IQ), emotional intelligence (EQ), and cultural intelligence (CQ). Together, DQ and these other intersecting variables are key in initiating the process that begins with influencing leaders’ cognitive and behavioral perspectives and ends with the organization gaining protected class group integration, greater attainment of organizational goals, intellectual capital and financial success. In this manner, the organization is the main focus and the global society is a secondary focus (Hughes, 2016).

DQ seeks to help leaders recognize and treat protected class employees the way the law expects them to be treated in the workplace. DQ seeks to help leaders understand how to deal with the bad performance/conduct of a person in a protected class without fear of legal standards and not discriminate against protected class individuals during the hiring process.

Diversity intelligent decisions are sometimes both legal and ethical decisions. DQ can help leaders make ethical decisions. Understanding how each leader’s decisions affect other leaders and the entire organization is critical because one unethical employee can be one too many. The most important knowledge, skills, and competencies required of HRD scholars and professionals to effectively manage legal regulations and standards are administration; treatment of participants; business skills; global mindset; industry knowledge; interpersonal skills; integrated talent management; and change management (Hughes, 2018c).

VALUES, ETHICS, AND ETHICAL DECISION MAKING

Understanding the relationship between ethics and values (Fritzsche, 1991) is needed because of how the two concepts intertwine with each other. Having values is not enough if those values are not transformed into actions that are beneficial to the relationships that are developed amongst employees within organizations. Addison and Haig (1994) defined values as “the principles, standards, or qualities considered worthwhile or desirable in an organization – the beliefs about what is important in the culture” (p. 73) while Maniam and Teetz (2005) expressed that “values make up ethics” (p. 85).

Ardichvili and Jondle (2009) described ethics as representative of “rules or principles that inform behavior within a particular culture exhibited by a particular group or organization” (p. 226). Ethics has also been found to “serve as channeling or shaping mechanisms that help encourage appropriate decisions and behavior at work” (Buckley, Beu, Frink, Howard, Berkson, Mobbs, & Ferris, 2001, p.12). The active nature of ethics cannot be ignored, and it can be developed through appropriate ethics education and training programs designed by HRD scholars and professionals (Moeller, 1994; Vroom, 2003).

Values and associated virtues (Crossan, Mazutis, & Seijts, 2013) contribute to the ethical decision-making process as individuals encounter ethical dilemmas or choices within the workplace (Ardichvili & Jondle, 2009; van Dijk, van Engen, & Paauwe 2012). Buckley et al. (2001) noted that for some organizations, ethics can become “fundamental values … [and]
woven into the very fabric of their operation” (p. 12). Organizations that know that ethics is a core value can focus on extending positive relationships among employees, customers, and others affiliated with the organization.

HRD scholars and professionals, through their education and training services can teach leaders how to create organizations that encourage rather than punish doing the right thing. Hartman (2006) suggested that leaders can be taught to “think critically about their [personal] values and realize them in practice” (p. 69) thereby improving their character.

These findings align with Schein’s (2010) organizational culture theory in which new individuals regardless of personal characteristics become socialized into an organization’s culture. In other words, employees learn what to value and how to behave from other members (especially leaders) of the organization. For employees to value ethical behavior, a strong organizational culture that values it must exist.

Leadership ability is extensively influenced and effectiveness determined based upon ethical decision making skills because leadership directly influences subordinate employee behavior (Mo & Shi, 2017; Selart & Johansen, 2011). Every decision has the potential to cause collateral damage on individuals who are not directly involved in the decision, and if employers want employees to show positive organizational citizenship behavior, they must treat them fairly. Organizational citizenship behavior is defined as “proactive behaviors that are primarily motivated by employees’ willingness to voluntarily contribute to the organization” (Mo & Shi, 2015, p. 151).

Communication of ethical standards has been a hallmark of many organizations through their codes of ethics. The concern is for situations that occur beyond what the codes document as appropriate for ethical interactions in the workplace. Wells and Schminke (2001) noted that “HR managers believe unclear expectations and standards [are] related to illegal behavior among employees” (p. 142) and organizations must clarify their code of ethical conduct as part of any organizational ethics training initiative. Knowing this information, HRD professionals must strive to help HR managers and others with whom they collaborate within the workplace to develop clear expectations and standards. Their technical writing and instructional design expertise should be used to influence appropriate design of materials that document expectations and standards for employees.

**CONNECTING ETHICS AND DIVERSITY**

Diversity became a common term in American workplaces after President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 8802 in 1941 outlawing the segregation policies in hiring new employees and President John F. Kennedy signed Executive Order 10925 establishing the Equal Employment Committee in 1961. President Lyndon B. Johnson signed Executive Order 11246 in 1965 mandating Affirmative Action (AA). White males introduced the term diversity into the workplace so that they could be included in what they perceived to be preferential treatment initiatives and to displace AA (Peterson, 1999).

Achieving diversity in the workplace continues to face resistance. Some organizations have embraced diversity, inclusion, equity, and all that it means to value each employee with inter-personnel diversity (Hughes, 2012) while others have not been as successful or have chosen not to embrace diversity efforts or AA mandates (Bregman, 2012; Hayles, Hayles, & Russell, 1997; Hemphill & Haines, 1997).

Boyer and Webb (1992) suggested that ethics and diversity correlated to each other can
enhance corporate communication. Geva (2006) explained that the first step in the ethical decision-making process is to be morally aware. Being morally aware requires astute awareness and understanding of the ethical implications of the issues. Geva (2006) also provided a typology of ethical problems in business combining the “two dimensions of moral conduct: the judgment dimension - whether or not the guiding precepts involve ethical conflict, and the motivation dimension - whether or not narrow self-interest undermines the motivation to act on moral judgments” (p. 135).

Selart and Johansen (2011) determined that “for a decision maker to act ethically he or she must (a) recognize a moral issue, (b) make a moral judgment, (c) give priority to moral concerns and establish a moral intent, and finally (d) act on the moral concerns” (p.131). Trevino and Brown (2004) explained that recognizing an issue as an ethical issue is being studied under the terms and they refer to it as moral awareness, ethical recognition, or ethical sensitivity. Wells and Schminke (2001) expressed that self-awareness in regard to moral and ethical judgment can be developed through initiatives such as personal reflection and experiential activities. HRD professionals can provide self-awareness training for employees using DQ focused personal reflection, and experiential activities. They can also use DQ case studies as there are ample examples of diversity and protected class group failures in the workplace as noted in Department of Labor settlements, Equal Employment Opportunity Commission filings, and Class Action lawsuits won or settled by plaintiffs.

It is important that HRD scholars and professionals understand that ethics is a complex issue where individual value orientations and moral awareness play a key role in approaches to challenges that may or may not lead to harmful results for employees and/or organizations (Verbos & Miller, 2015). Viewing diversity as an ethical issue may allow better understanding of its complexity. As with most ethical issues, diversity issues do not always present as a clear black and white decision. Organization leaders have to learn to consider their “self-interest (or organizational interest) against the right thing to do” (Verbos & Miller, 2015, p. 149). Sometimes leaders may choose not to take an ethical stance on an issue within the organization, and this diminishes the opportunity to promote an ethical organizational culture. HRD professionals must help leaders move away from the idea of being an ethically neutral (Trevino, Brown, & Hartman, 2003; Trevino, Hartman, & Brown, 2000) leader or indecisive which can be as harmful towards employee development and business performance as a “hypocritical leader who deliberately chooses to act unethically” (Maniam & Teetz, 2005, p. 93). If leaders never voice their values on a regular basis, their employees see them as ethically neutral and employees may never buy-in to the ethical culture the organization seeks to develop.

HRD professionals, specifically trainers, have noted that the number one challenge of their top ten challenges faced at work is lack of management buy-in (Love, 2017). To ensure all employees participate in training to create an ethical culture, buy-in from leaders and employees is needed. Formal and informal systems must be ethical at the macro, meso, and micro levels (Applebaum, Vigneault, Walker, & Shapiro, 2009).

Ethics training programs must “simultaneously consider needs (problems to be solved), inputs (trainee characteristics), process (pedagogy), and outputs (changes in attitudes or behavior or both)” (Wells & Schminke, 2001, p. 153). Therefore, HRD professionals must use their extensive skills and competencies to conduct a thorough needs analysis, ensure participant engagement and buy-in, reduce or eliminate process gaps to the extent possible, and stimulate training transfer to attain measurable results. Hughes (2018b) developed a typology of leaders with high DQ versus those with low DQ. Leaders with high DQ understand, provide equity of
treatment to, and have attained the capability to lead protected class employees in the workplace. Those with low DQ either lack or have a low understanding of protected class employees; may offer inclusion to protected class employees but not treat them equitably; and show an inability to provide diversity leadership to protected class followers. Leaders’ DQ can be developed similar to how their intellectual intelligence (IQ), emotional intelligence (EQ), and cultural intelligence (CQ) can be developed.

**USING COMMUNICATION CHANNELS TO CONNECT ETHICS WITH DIVERSITY**

To connect diversity with ethics through communication, HRD scholars and professionals have many communication channels (Rogers, 2003) that they can use. As stated by Rogers:

> A communication channel is the means by which messages get from one individual to another. Mass media channels are more effective in creating knowledge of innovations, whereas interpersonal channels are more effective in forming and changing attitudes toward a new idea, and thus in influencing the decision to adopt or reject a new idea. (pp. 1-2)

Banks (2006) also found communication to be a way to improve employee training and development. Using Rogers’ (1995; 2003) diffusion of innovation theory, HRD professionals can help leaders develop their DQ. Rogers’ diffusion theory consists of four elements: an innovation, communication channels, time, and social system. These innovation characteristics all align with correlating ethics with diversity and introducing DQ into the diversity training and leadership development process. HRD scholars and professionals would need to consider the innovation characteristics along with the communication element components. The components of the communication element include:

- An innovation;
- An individual or other unit of adoption that has knowledge of the innovation or experience with using it;
- Another individual or other unit that does not yet have experience with the innovation; and
- A communication channel connecting the two units. (Rogers, 1995, p. 18)

Integrating DQ with ethics and diversity for diversity training and leadership development is an innovation that can be diffused through communication channels. The innovation in this case would be using DQ and correlating ethics with diversity through training. The unit(s) with the knowledge and/or experience would include some HRD scholars and professionals and some diversity scholars and professionals. The unit(s) without the knowledge and/or experience include some workplace leaders, some HRD scholars and professionals, and some diversity scholars and professionals. The communication channel would be the content and materials shared during diversity training and leadership development programs. In addition to these elements, HRD professionals and scholars must consider the trainability of their participants. The audience is always the number one component during all training sessions. Wells and Schminke (2001) offer several factors which may affect the ethical trainability of employees to make ethical decisions, which include “cognitive moral development, integrity, assertiveness, general cognitive ability, prior experiences, education, age, and the personality aspects of conscientiousness and self-efficacy” (pp. 140-141). Knowing this information HRD professionals may be equipped to design training that is suitable to improve the DQ of workplace
leaders. These innovation characteristics all align with correlating ethics with diversity and introducing DQ into the diversity training and leadership development process. The integration of diversity and ethics can be added to the already successful endeavors which include the creation of affirmative action plans, diversity committees, and diversity departments and positions (Kalev, Dobbin, & Kelly, 2006).

CONCLUSION

HRD professionals’ essential role with regards to ethical culture development within an organization is to provide exemplary ethics training and leadership development training. Adding the ability to employ the correlation of ethics and diversity using DQ can only strengthen the quality of HRD professionals’ role in helping organizations develop ethical cultures. As noted by Buckley et al. (2001) “human resource systems and ethical corporate cultures should be considered partners in the process of creating competitive advantage for organizations” (p. 11). Wells and Schminke (2001) developed a framework for ethical development using human resources training that envisioned “organizational ethics and HR systems as sharing a natural ‘hand-in-glove’ relationship” (p. 153). Adding DQ and diversity to ethics and HR systems contributes to better ethical decision making and culture management. Woodall and Douglas (1999) suggested culture management as a major role of human resource development within organizations. Being able to align the values of the organization with those of all individuals (protected class groups and others) will contribute to the creation of a strong ethical culture. HRD professionals as guardians of ethical conduct must remain vigilant in developing and maintaining their knowledge of ethical issues that arise within their own organization and other organizations which may indirectly affect their employees.

The addition of DQ to the diversity and ethics conversation only enhances the opportunity to improve communication among different employees regardless of the communication methods used. The channel of communication is more important than the method. HRD professionals can use DQ to help develop organizations’ vision statements to avoid inaccurate branding strategies associated with diversity. The importance of diversity should be on display within all segments of the business representing inclusion, equality, and equity. Inclusion, equality, and equity among employees will promote positive financial impacts on the organization as a result of new ideas and innovations (van Dijk, van Engen, & Paauwe, 2012). Positive diversity interactions promote profitability along with ethical and fair treatment of all employees. If the organization truly values diversity it can present it through its vision statement to show that it seeks to cultivate and promote inclusion, equality and equity for financial gain as well as employee support. If diversity is not more than a profit center as opposed to a fair and respectful way to treat employees, employees will not remain with the organization. Organizations who want to increase their DQ, or the ability to tap into the combined strengths of individual contributors in order to achieve organizational goals, can engage in a variety of effective HRD and HRM professional practices, such as mentorships, promotion of protected class group members into managerial positions, and creation of positive, ethical work.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
A MULTI-DIMENSIONAL MODEL OF MNE REGION LOCALIZATION

RUSTY V. KARST
Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi
College of Business
6300 Ocean Drive
Corpus Christi, Texas 78412

ABSTRACT

Diverse paradigms signal the importance of institutions, resources, and open systems adaptation to a multinational’s (MNE’s) ability to compete in foreign markets. The purpose of this paper is to account for these influences by positioning a multi-dimensional model whose constructs map the reciprocal and recursive process whereby MNEs internationalize through geographic region localization. Constructs are reflective of institutional theory, complexity theory, and resource dependence theory.

INTRODUCTION

It is understood that multinational enterprise (MNE) internationalization decisions are made in accordance with firm-specific mindset and strategy (e.g., Goerzen and Beamish, 2003; Hitt et al., 1997), and strategies stemming from a region-based localization perspective in response to “incomplete cross-border integration” (i.e. semiglobalization) (Ghemawat, 2003; 2007) are garnering increased scholarly attention (e.g., Rugman, 2003; Rugman and Verbeke, 2004; 2005; 2007; 2008; Osegowitsch and Sammartino, 2007; 2008). The contextual importance of regions in MNE research has grown considerably (e.g. Dunning et al., 2007; Rugman and Verbeke, 2007; Osegowitsch and Sammartino, 2008; Rugman and Verbeke, 2008), culminating in a consensus shift of focus beyond whether regions matter, into examination of nuanced aspects of how they matter (Rugman and Oh, 2012). Regions delineated based on geographic scope (e.g. Elango, 2004; Filippaios and Rama, 2008; Oh and Rugman, 2006; Rugman and Oh, 2008; Rugman et al., 2009), demarcated by Flores and associates (2013) as supranational groupings of related and proximately located countries, are increasingly examined in an expanding contextual portfolio of theoretical and empirical studies (e.g. Arregle et al., 2009; Banalieva and Dhanaraj, 2013; Banalieva and Santoro, 2009; Collinson and Rugman, 2008; De la Torre et al., 2011; Flores and Aguilera, 2007; Flores et al., 2013).

From an institutions perspective, the traditional MNE internationalization approach has largely considered effects of country-level institutional environments on country-specific FDI localization. This approach may be additionally informed by considering region-based institutions (i.e., supranational region institutions), in addition to country, on MNE intra-regional FDI localization. For example, region formal institutions (Arregle et al., 2013) and region institutional complexity (Arregle et al., 2016) were found to directly influence MNE internationalization decisions specific to region location choices and internationalization propensity. Even in light of these new region-based insights and findings, what lacks is an understanding of the theory-derived process whereby an MNE subsidiary, located in a cross-border geographic region, may overcome foreign institutional constraints which collectively pose a liability of intraregional foreignness (LRF). This paper intends to move the navigating discrete discontinuities (i.e. Aguilera et al., 2015) intra-region FDI discussion forward by introducing
theory which helps identify and explain processes whereby MNEs contend with cross-region boundary constraints, in addition to those of the national boundary.

THEORY AND PROPOSITIONS

Theories supporting the regional MNE (Rugman and Verbeke, 2005; Verbeke and Kano, 2012) have been used to underpin alternative constructs and paradigms, positioned in diverse contexts, to explain MNE internationalization strategy and conduct on an inter-region basis. Researchers have likewise drawn from institutional theory (e.g. Arregle et al., 2013, 2016; Gaffney et al., 2016; Hoskisson et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2008, 2009), complexity theory (e.g. Chiva et al., 2014; Paarlberg and Bielefeld, 2009), and resource dependence theory (e.g., Gaffney, et al., 2013; Hillman et al., 2009) to enrich theoretical foundations of MNE internationalization. Within a semiglobalization context (i.e. Ghemawat, 2003; 2007), this paper extends a new theoretical prescription of MNE inter-region strategy and conduct - using institutional theory, complexity theory, and resource dependence theory - to underpin specific constructs as antecedents of MNE region localization. Each of the three theories are contended to have individual direct effects, interaction effects, and reciprocal effects, on MNE region localization through specified coordination mechanisms.

When MNEs internationalize through region localization, this paper contends that their strategy and conduct can be additionally informed through the interplay of a multi-dimensional construct model which draws from institutional theory, complexity theory, and resource dependence theory, as well as a reciprocal and recursive region localization process flow. Each of the three antecedent constructs reflect tenets of the underlying theory, and the outcome construct reflects levels of MNE interregional FDI. For example, Region Institutional Alignment (X1) is reflected by institutional theory tenets (e.g. isomorphism, legitimacy, organizational fields) and is formed by the degree to which institutions of the targeted host region – their constraining characteristics – align and fit with the MNE’s semiglobal mindset and region localization strategy. Focus is placed on alignment rather than the nature of institutional characteristics (e.g. emerging, transitional, developed, weak, strong, volatile, etc.). Complex Adaptive Subsidiary System (X2) is reflective of complexity theory tenets (e.g. mutual causality, complexity absorption/reduction, edge of chaos) and is formed by the degree of MNE CASS complexity development within the targeted host region. Region-based Resource Dependence (Z) is reflective of resource dependence theory tenets (e.g. open systems dependent on external environment contingencies) and is formed by the degree of region-based resource dependence relationships internal and external to the MNE CASS. The dependent outcome construct, Region Localization (Y) is reflective of semiglobalization and regional MNE theory tenets (e.g. resource fungibility/coordination, aggregation, arbitration), and is formed by the degree of MNE internationalization into a targeted host region (i.e. inter-region localization).

There are four essential phases and each parallels a forthcoming proposition. This is a spectrum process in that it can be applied to a wide range of region localization contexts and may have both linear and non-linear aspects. Its application is not correlated to particular host markets, but is more focused on process development as a capability, facilitated by region-based components of MNE strategy with market-specific institutional alignment/fit, subsidiary system development, and resource fungibility/coordination. Further, although the nature of a phase-oriented process carries assumptions of linearity or concatenation of constructs/phases, there is a temporal aspect in which relationships, over longer terms, may become increasingly reciprocal,
non-linear, potentially mutually causal, and circular in nature. For example, Phase 1, which parallels Proposition 1, does not consider one particular variable factor over another, or their relationships, such as institutional distance between home/host markets, host market institutional complexity, quality, or degree of development – yet does focus on firm-specific alignment and fit of the MNE’s semiglobal mindset and region localization strategy components with desired characteristics of the host region market, starting with their institutions. In other words, this model and process contends that Phase 1 (Proposition 1) will influence Phase 2 (Proposition 2) directly, but will also influence Phases 3 (Proposition 3) and 4 (Proposition 4), in a reciprocal and recursive manner.

Phase 1 and Proposition 1: \((X1\Rightarrow Y)\) represents the degree of institutional alignment and its influence on MNE internationalization into the region (region localization).
Phase 2 and Proposition 2: \([(X1\Rightarrow Y) \Rightarrow (\overline{X2})]\) represents the degree to which Phase 1 influences development of the MNE complex adaptive subsidiary system within the targeted host region.
Phase 3 and Proposition 3: \{[(X1\Rightarrow Y) \Rightarrow (\overline{X2})] \Rightarrow (\overline{Z})\} represents the degree to which the interaction of Phase 1 and 2 influence the resource dependence relationships internal and external to the MNE CASS within the targeted host region.
Phase 4 and Proposition 4: \{[(X1\Rightarrow Y) \Rightarrow (\overline{X2})] \Rightarrow (\overline{Z})\} \Rightarrow Y represents the cumulative effects of phases 1 – 3 on MNE region localization and is recursive and reciprocal in nature.

MNE Region Localization

Semiglobalization (Ghemawat, 2003; 2007) influenced geographic region localization has emerged as a viable component of MNE internationalization strategy, which has spurred a committed research stream full of opportunity (e.g., Dunning et al., 2007; Osegowitsch & Sammartino, 2007; 2008; Rugman, 2009; Rugman & Verbeke, 2004; 2005; 2007; 2008). Regions, operationalized as supranational groupings of related and proximately located countries (Flores et al., 2013), are an important MNE strategic response to “incomplete cross-border integration” (i.e. semiglobalization) (Ghemawat, 2003; 2007). Targeted inter-region localization helps regional MNEs cope with the countervailing need to globalize (i.e., integrate) versus the need to respond directly to idiosyncratic local markets (i.e., localize) (Arregle et al., 2013; Arregle et al., 2009). Particular interest and focus centers on MNE regional coordination efforts and just how they influence internal abilities to maintain local responsiveness while exploiting region-bound firm-specific advantages (RFSAs) (Ghemawat, 2007; Rugman and Verbeke, 2005). This paper positions three region-oriented coordinated processes which enable a regional MNE to better cope with semiglobalization constraints (distance, national effects, regional effects), as incorporated into components of their region localization strategy: (1) the initial deployment and subsequent redeployment of region bound firm-specific advantages (RFSAs), (2) creating idiosyncratic MNE subsidiary (CASS) region network advantages (RNAs), and (3) identifying knowledge flows which facilitate region-based organizational learning (e.g., Arregle et al., 2013).

The scale and scope of resource redeployability is enhanced with increased fungibility and when occurring across more resources held; potential benefits may be compounded for MNEs through development and deployment of region-bound FSAs (RFSAs). Through the
deployment and redeployment process, a MNE can exploit RFSAs throughout a region, as opposed to the restrictions and limitations associated with being bound to one country (Arregle et al., 2013). When a MNE expands beyond a single country in a particular region, they begin the process of additionally benefitting from deployment and redeployment of their regional fungible capabilities. A key firm-specific MNE capability which expedites this process is found in a MNE’s ability to carry out two opposing strategies simultaneously: (1) regional globalization (i.e., regionally integrate its foreign subsidiaries), and (2) country localization (i.e., sustaining country specific responsiveness). If a MNE develops this capability and successfully carries out this process, their RFSAs can then be optimally directed and redirected across targeted countries in an attractive region and done so in a relatively inexpensive manner. FDIs can be linked within the region at lower relative transaction costs due to targeted country geographic proximity, which further compounds benefits of associated country-specific advantages (CSAs) (Rugman and Verbeke, 2005). In aggregate, these processes are more (or less) effective and efficient as influenced by critical traits of targeted markets – which can be facilitated through region-based network advantages and organizational learning.

Institutional Alignment and MNE Region Localization

The influence of institutions, both formal and informal, on organizational conduct is well established in the literature – whether emanating from an economic or sociological derivation (e.g., Broom and Selznick, 1955; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Meyer and Rowan, 1977; North, 1990; Scott, 2001; Selznick, 1949, 1957; Williamson, 2000). Institutional theory’s development and use has particularly deep roots in underpinning MNE strategy and conduct (e.g., Peng et al. 2008; Hoskisson et al., 2013). For example, the Institution-based View (i.e., Peng, 2002, 2006; Peng et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2008) is one seminal prescription which fills a perceived research gap between the resource-based view (i.e. Barney, 1991) and the industry-based view (i.e. Porter, 2000). North (1990) portrayed institutions as being established by formal constraints such as rules, constitutions, and laws, as well as informal constraints such as customs, traditions, norms of behavior, conventions, taboos, sanctions and self-imposed codes of conduct, and lastly by their individual and collective enforcement characteristics. These constraints, influenced by the manner and degree of their enforcement, contribute directly to the institutional effectiveness of a geographically bound society. Aptly captured by North’s (1990) original abstraction that they are “the rules of the game”, institutions delineate a society’s incentive framework, and by extension, dictate and bind constituent participant behavior (e.g., MNEs).

One specific way scholars and practitioners are beginning to elucidate how regions matter to MNEs is through institutional influences of targeted proximate countries and the general institutional tendency of the region. Although internationalization strategy and conduct may vary greatly across MNEs, as well as effects of constraining institutions from one region to the next, the central institutional focus of this study centers on MNEs selecting institutional environments which align with their strategy (i.e. institutional alignment). For example, a certain MNE’s internationalization strategy may be specifically focused on moving FDI into emerging regions composed of geographically proximate countries whose institutional environments can be characterized as developing or transitional in nature. Whereas another MNE’s strategy may be focused on FDI within developed regional markets whose incumbent countries’ institutions and regional institutional general tendency is more mature, formal, and structured. In both widely
divergent examples, the critical component is aligning strategy with target market institutional characteristics. As such:

Proposition 1: Increased institutional alignment between the targeted host region and the MNE’s firm-specific region localization strategy will be associated with increased internationalization pursued by the MNE in that region.

MNE Region Localization as a Complex Adaptive System

Upon initiation of their regionalization strategy, region localization mechanisms carried out by a MNE CASS will facilitate recursive FDI positioning there. Region-bound firm specific advantages (RFSAs), region network advantages (RNAs), and region organizational learning (ROL), as previously delineated, are primary mechanisms whereby a MNE will expand into a region, and in so doing create real options for region aggregation and arbitrage between proximate countries (Arregle et al., 2013; Rugman and Verbeke, 2005). These recursive processes build upon prior internationalization into the region and have a compounding effect on development of the MNE’s complex adaptive subsidiary system (CASS) – which reciprocally will strengthen the regional mechanisms themselves. When able to take advantage of location-specific geographic proximity within the host region, the MNE subsidiary (CASS) will create greater options, ceteris paribus, relative to more constrained geographic locations (e.g. country), as carried out through the aforementioned region coordination mechanisms. As such:

Proposition 2: Increased region localization, as positively influenced by increased institutional alignment (i.e., P1), will positively influence development of the MNE’s complex adaptive subsidiary system (CASS) within the host region.

MNE Resource Dependence

Hillman and colleagues’ (2009) recent review of RDT highlights how the theory has been used to demonstrate that organizations have options that they can enact to minimize environmental dependence. For example, RDT suggests there are three reasons why a firm would engage in mergers and acquisitions (M&As): (1) to reduce competition by absorbing important competitors (i.e., industry consolidation); (2) to manage interdependence on supplier or buyers (i.e., vertical integration); and/or (3) to diversify operations in order to reduce dependence on its present interorganizational network (i.e., horizontal diversification). By targeting a region whose institutions align with a MNE’s semiglobal orientation and region-specific strategy - and in the establishment of a complex adaptive subsidiary system (CASS) through associated regional coordination mechanisms (RFSAs, RNAs and ROL) - a MNE will better position itself to optimize (i.e., create, abate, and maintain) resource dependence relationships internal and external to the MNE CASS within the targeted host region. Increased resource fungibility (increased capacity for resource variance in deployment and redeployment), and reduced transaction costs (associated with reduced geographic distance) further help the MNE offset the often conflicting dual strategic focus on region globalization and country localization. Increased CASS development within the host region facilitates effective and efficient internal resource use and reuse, while reducing reliance on external organizations for their resources, and increasing reliance by external organizations on the MNE CASS for its resources. As such:
Proposition 3: The positive relationship between increased institutional alignment, increased region localization, and increased development of the MNE’s complex adaptive subsidiary system (i.e., P1, P2) will positively influence optimization of the MNE’s internal/external resource dependence relationships.

MNE Region Localization over Time

Perri and Peruffo (2016) confirm the magnitude which externalities and knowledge spillover can have on MNE learning and development. There are also spatial aspects of knowledge acquisition emanating from geographic region localization, in that information flows are spatially constrained (Arregle et al., 2009; Buckley and Ghauri, 2004), culminating in geographic proximity being a positive transmission mechanism for knowledge flows and organizational practices within the MNE (Chang and Park, 2005; Strang, 2003). As complex adaptive systems, an MNE CASS can adapt to prevailing circumstances, resulting from rapid experiential learning (Anderson, 1999; Houchin and MacLean, 2005). In accordance with Chiva and associates (2014), this paper further contends that the four constructs operationalized here – institutional alignment, complex adaptive subsidiary systems, resource dependence relationships, and level of MNE region localization – operate as a complex system. The complex system process - as reciprocally influenced by these constructs of mutual causality - aggregate to strengthen and perpetuate the region localization effort in a concatenating manner. As such:

Proposition 4: The positive relationship between increased institutional alignment, increased region localization, increased development of the MNE’s complex adaptive subsidiary system, and optimized internal/external resource dependence relationships (i.e., P1, P2, P3), will positively influence a reciprocal and recursive relationship between all constructs, resulting in increased region localization into the targeted region.

DISCUSSION

IB and IM researchers increasingly understand the importance and relevance of context in conceptual and empirical studies. Theoretical prescriptions which are paramount when placed in one context may serve less significant, or even insignificant roles in another. MNE semiglobalization – carried out through strategies and coordination mechanisms centered on region localization - serve as the context within which our multi-dimension theoretical model, and mutually causal process framework is situated. The theories drawn upon in this study, institutional theory, complexity theory, and resource dependence theory, are well-established within the strategy and internationalization research streams, as well as in organization theory.

The paper’s primary purpose - to further examine the nexus of regions and the region MNE, and provide more nuanced logic for why regions matter to MNE internationalization – was achieved by delineating theory-based constructs and interactive processes whereby the regional MNE establishes a competitive interregional subsidiary (CASS). Further, this study helps bridge boundaries of organization theory and strategy – in an IB/IM context – through unique theoretical construct interplay. The direct, interaction, and mutually causal effects of these constructs serve more important and relevant roles due to the timing of their greatest influence within the phase-oriented internationalization process as mapped herein

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR
THE MORAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE ESTONIAN BUSINESS COMMUNITY

MARI KOOSKORA
Estonian Business School
Lauteri 3, Tallinn 10114, Estonia

KATLIN CUNDIFF
Drury University, Springfield, MO

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the developments in corporate morality within the years of transition in Estonia. The article builds on two major studies investigating the phenomena of CMD (Corporate Moral Development) and SCR (Strategic Corporate Responsibility) in Estonia during the years of rapid and radical change, and analyses the more recent developments in the same context. The analysis shows that from an historical viewpoint, there has been a clear progress in corporate morality in the Estonian business community. The changes were mainly caused by the external sources (political and economic), the internal forces (organizational and leadership style) however, had less impact. Moreover, the social impact was relatively low and different stakeholder interests (other than shareholders’) were practically neglected. The importance of leadership and the considerations of different stakeholder interests had grown significantly in more recent years.

INTRODUCTION

Estonia, as a focus of this study, is a fruitful context to study the moral development of a business community in transition. With the fall of the Soviet Union, the country had several avenues to explore in terms of what kind of society it wished to build. Estonia chose the free market path with fast economic integration to the western markets, such as Finland or Sweden.

During the times of rampant change, transitional economies, often exhibit signs of demoralization or moral degradation, a process where moral and ethical structures have weakened (Zheng, 2014). Chances in legislation, political structure, building a rule based society in additional to personal and corporate freedom to earn profits and gain market share, all add to the challenges of establishing moral business conduct, especially when examples of outstanding corporate responsibility are hard to find. The circumstances of a transitional economy along with its social and political chances need to be considered when studying business ethics and moral development.

CMD is a context bound phenomenon which is highly dependent on the changes taking place in the environments in which businesses operate. Times of transition, where changes in the economic, political and social environments are transforming the society, provide an especially fruitful context to study the changes in the prevalent ethical values and norms in the organization.

The aim of this paper is to analyze the development of corporate morality during the transitional periods in Estonia. For that purpose, two research studies, where the authors have been involved, were investigated; one covering the years of 1995 – 2005 and the other 2009 – 2015.
The two studies combined would provide relevant basis to draw conclusion on the development of corporate morality among Estonian businesses.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Reidenbach and Robin (1991), building on the work of Kohlberg (1969; 1984) presented the idea that corporate moral development evolves from strictly self-interest and self-serving to a broader consideration for others and the larger society, and suggested that an organization’s stage of moral development is signaled by corporate behaviors. In their proposed model of corporate moral development five stages of moral development are identified describing the behavior of the corporation as: amoral, legalistic, responsive, emerging ethical, and developed ethical. These stages exhibit the morality/moral maturity of an organization through certain behaviors, attitudes, values, corporate culture, and explicit or implicit artefacts. The CMD model suggests that corporations that give profits higher preference than ethics can be found in the first stages, and corporations that give ethics priority over profitability are found in the higher stages of moral development. It is assumed that ethics and responsibility in business can be analyzed by linking together the concepts of corporate governance, corporate responsibility and ethical leadership - dimensions that are also central in the CMD model. Ethical leadership is determined by personal and organizational morality (incl. ethical norms, use of power and influence, leadership/management style, communication, development of followers) (Kooskora 2008; 2015). The model places strong emphasis on relationships management with important stakeholders (Freeman, 1997; Carroll, 1991).

McElhaney (2007) describes strategic corporate responsibility (SCR) as a business strategy that is integrated into the company's main activities and key competencies in order to create value for the company and which becomes a part of corporate culture and daily business processes. Zadek (2004) argues that most corporations pass through five stages as they move toward CR and called these as defensive (when a company denies CR practices, outcomes or responsibilities); compliance (company adopts policy-based compliance approach as a cost of doing business); managerial (embed the CR issues in the core management practices); strategic advantage (integrate CR into their core management practices) and civil (company promotes broad industry participation in CR, see also corporate citizenship, Matten and Crane, 2005).

METHODOLOGY

This paper draws from the results of the two longitudinal studies. First, Corporate Moral Development study (Kooskora, 2008) focused on a 20-year period from 1985 – 2005. The data was collected using observations and 183 in-depth interviews in addition to 88 web-administrated questionnaires with more than 5,000 respondents, 900 structured written questionnaires, and 3,900 written descriptions of conflict situations in Estonian business organizations and society. Second, the Strategic Corporate Responsibility study (Kooskora, 2015) covered the time period of 2009 – 2015. The research methods were combined including analysis of the Responsible Business / Sustainability Index (RBI) questionnaires of 250 organizations, the company’ websites, annual reports, interviews and personal conversations with organizations’ representatives.
DISCUSSION

Deriving from the above described studies, it is clear that ethics and responsibility in business had definitely gained more attention among Estonian businesses during the years of investigation. When analyzing the factors that contribute to the corporate moral development among Estonian businesses, certain themes emerged, which will be discussed next.

The analysis of the study showed (Kooskora, 2008, 41) that the majority of Estonian business organizations’ moral development took place from the double morality stage of the period of socialist erosion (in 1985 - 1990); ethical vacuum stage – referring to the period of rough entrepreneurial capitalism (1991 – 1994); the instrumental stage corresponding to the commercial boom (1995 - 1999); legalistic stage - a period of catching-up (2000 - 2003); and last to the responsive stage referring to the period of EU convergence and integration by 2005. The higher stages in the Reidenbach and Robin (1991) CMD model (emerging ethical and developed ethical) were not detected in the Estonian business community during the period under analysis. According to Reidenbach and Robin (1991, p. 279), the responsive stage is a pivotal point in CMD since it is a stage where businesses test the efficacy of socially responsive behavior and begin to understand the economic value of moral behavior.

The study results indicated the large role that the 2008 financial and economic crises played in corporations’ ethical development. The crises and recovery from recession in the later years of investigation had increased the importance for ethical and responsible considerations within business activities. The financial crises are often seen either as a threat or an opportunity for corporate social responsibility (Yelkikalan and Köse, 2012) and businesses often find themselves at the crossroads and need to decide how sustainably continue. In case of Estonia, the years of fast economic growth were over by 2008, western export markets decreasing, and companies had to find new ways of operating. The results indicated that the changes and developments in the business world caused by the financial crisis made Estonian organizational leaders understand the importance of ethics and responsibility, and start considering the interests of different stakeholders and expectations of the society. The results confirm the findings of Lins et al. (2017) where companies with high CSR do financially better than low CSR firms and face increased stability due to solid relationships with various stakeholders.

Combining together the results from the two studies, it was possible to classify Estonian organizations based on their corporate moral development. The study results pointed to three different stages of CMD (Legalistic, Responsive and Emerging Ethical) and according to the Zadek’s (2004) CR model the Estonian organizations were operating on the Defensive, Compliance and Strategic stages. Several of the interviewed managers admitted that the changed business environment and the consequences of financial crisis made their organizations to realize the importance of different stakeholders and to re-evaluate the business goals and activities. Increasing number of managerial leaders realized the value of talented, skillful and loyal employees, and good relationships with partners and the local community.

It was also revealed that while there were still companies on the Legalistic level of CMD, whose activities responded to Defensive and Compliance levels in Zadek’s CR model; the majority of the Estonian organizations were operating on the Responsive CMD level, where CR activities
included Compliance and Managerial approach. Although there was definitely room for improvement in our sample organizations, at least the most outstanding ones that could be characterized as Emerging Ethical, had started to see CR as their strategic advantage and contribute to the discussions about CR standards (Civil level in CR model).

The results from the time period of 2009-2015 reveal that stakeholder management and business strategy categories score higher among Estonian companies than measurement, reporting and communication. This shows that the effectiveness of responsible initiatives is not being evaluated enough and the results are not communicated to the main stakeholders. Integrating CR principles to daily work and employee values remains a challenge.

Moreover, there was an increasing number of organizational leaders who had started to approach ethics and responsibility in their organizations more strategically and who regarded these principles as a part of everyday business activities. The analysis showed that majority of studied organizations had their CR principles manifested in core values, mission or vision statements. The more outstanding organizations has their CR principles clearly defined and published in written documents such as code of ethics, corporate policies, annual reports. Top management involvement and support was clearly seen. Furthermore, a closer look at the results of the most outstanding companies, revealed that the activities were planned well and related to their industry-level activities, corporate competences and know-how.

The study results also indicated how advocating and promoting ethics within the community had gained popularity among the leading companies. Often those organizations also belonged to the CSR network (CSR Forum Estonia) and were focused on continuous improvement and enhancing the awareness of ethics and responsibility in business within their industries and every day business. In addition, the representatives of these organizations often took the leadership role and were willing to share their principles and experiences with others, were involved in training activities, and made presentations at conferences and in media. The authors believe that popularizing and promoting ethical behavior holds a lot of power in transforming Estonian business community to become more responsible and sustainable.

The study revealed that the top 10 outstanding companies had also engaged more with different stakeholders and were more active in CR. Their principles were clearly more strategically implemented than in companies who had achieved lower scores. These were also the companies who had benefited more from their CR activities than other studied organizations. The stakeholder engagement grew substantially after the economic and financial crises as a strategy to deepen business relationships with various stakeholders.

Regarding decision making, in just few companies the CR principles and activities were discussed at the senior management or board meetings, neither were ethical issues discussed at shareholder annual meetings. Only at the top 10 organizations were these issues discussed and decisions made at the highest level, similarly to all strategically important decisions.

Additionally, considering ethical behavior and leadership as critical for establishing and maintaining ethical culture in the organization and as primary keys for organizational sustainability, the analyzed studies included the study of organizational leaders’ perceptions of
ethics and responsibility, based on the interviews and personal conversations with Estonian managerial leaders. The personal conversations and information acquired from public media lead to the understanding that the majority of Estonian companies regarded CR as a useful marketing and PR tool. Their activities were mainly reactive in nature. The study by Hildebrand and Bhattacharya (2011) points to the numerous business benefits organizations can gain from linking brand marketing to CSR marketing and promoting. In our study, the data suggests that majority of the Estonian companies are yet to fully leverage on those opportunities.

Last, there were just a few organizations and managers whose activities totally neglected considerations of ethics and responsibility in business. These companies could be mainly found from catering and construction industries and among small scale SMEs. The number of such organizations was rapidly decreasing by 2015.

**CONCLUDING REMARKS**

It can be argued that several changes and developments in the business world, including the financial and economic crisis that hit Estonia rather hard, made the organizational leaders to understand the importance of ethics and responsibility, and add considerations of different stakeholders and expectations of the society in their business activities. Moreover, the increasing number of organizational leaders had started to approach ethics and responsibility in their organizations more strategically and regard these principles as a part of everyday and normal business activities.

The picture of corporate morality in the Estonian business community has become more diversified since the year 2005 depending to a large extent on the organizational leaders’ readiness and willingness to understand the organization as a part of the society and wider environment, and consider the expectations of different stakeholders. From study results of the years 2009 to 2015 indicated at least three different stages of Corporate Moral Development (CMD) - Legalistic, Responsive and Emerging Ethical; and according to the Zadek (2004) Corporate Responsibility (CR) model the Estonian organizations were operating on the Defensive, Compliance and Strategic stages.

Thus, it can be concluded that while in 2005 the Estonian business community did not reach to the higher levels of CMD model, then by 2015 there was an increasing number of organizations who could be described as being ethically advancing and for whom expectations of the society and different stakeholders as well as good relations, cooperation, trustworthiness and capability to act as a trusted partner on the international business arena were regarded as most important values that shaped their business activities. The trend was more towards connecting responsibility strategically to the core activities, products and services, corporate competence and know-how. Although this cannot be generalized to majority of Estonian organizations, however, according to the perceptions of managerial leaders, revealed in the personal interviews, the overall situation in the business community had improved. Many of those companies had close partnerships with Nordic and Scandinavian companies and this had led to realize that in order to do better in business, their behavior needed to be ethical and they had to take responsibility of their impact to the society and environment, otherwise they were not able to be sustainable in their business.
Additionally, those organizations who belonged to the CSR network (CSR Forum Estonia) and took part in the RBI study were taking steps to promote ethics and enhancing the awareness of ethics and responsibility in business within their industries and activity fields. The representatives of these organizations often took the leadership role and were willing to share their principles and experiences with others, and were involved in training activities and made presentations at conferences and in media.

Last, the above mentioned study results cannot be generalized to all Estonian companies, as the participating companies were already familiar with ethics and responsibility issues, and were interested in further improvement. What the study did show were some specific trends that have taken place among Estonian business community that might be useful for better understanding the meaning of ethics and responsible business in transitional economies and for doing further research in this field.

The authors’ aim in conducting ethics research in Estonia has partly been an attempt to open discussion to involve more interested parties and companies who want to develop their BE and CR activities further and are willing to share their experiences with others. For future researches, we suggest that multiple research methods be used, for example a quantitative study involving much wider range of participants could give more generalizable data and show existing correlations between different CR attributions. In-depth interviews with corporate respondents could give more information about why and how the organizations are involved in CR activities and what their ideas and expectations for further development are. Conducting case studies based on some specific companies or industries can contribute to the more holistic understanding of CR and aid preparing students, especially the ones in Estonia, for future entry into workplaces.

REFERENCES


Faculty collegiality in business schools and departments of management has emerged as an important issue in recent years, from the implementation of the 'no asshole rule' to the development of departmental anti-bullying policies. Sadly, non-collegiality among management professors appears to be both pervasive and widespread. Apparently, the professor's behavior may be contagious in this regard, as our class exercise discussions demonstrate that narcissism and antisocial behavior is a common expectation of 'ideal managers' and workplace groups, according to students. Unfortunately, most efforts at constructing a 'universal approach to ethics making' such as the so-called 'golden rule, have been met with criticism, which perhaps contributes to the inability of ethics codes to be able to contain, control and minimize non-collegial faculty behavior; furthermore, there has not been sufficient emphasis on impressing Ph.D. students with the importance of collegiality, as the apprenticeship model of PhD student development no longer appears to be implemented or effective in many programs, as the issue is largely absent from AACSB assessment standards and program learning objectives, for example. We propose a new model for the implementation of a universal approach to ethics, through the three most critical Hawaiian cultural norms of Aloha, Pono, and Kuleana. Together, these concepts define a system of thoughtful, careful, responsible, and respectful behavior. The system of values has the advantage of being perceived as a largely cultural rather than a religious system. In this paper, we describe this values system, apply it to the faculty environment, and make recommendations on how a business school might modify its statements, such as mission, values and learning objectives, and assessment, to incorporate this values system. Potential drawbacks and implications for future research in collegiality generally and the A-P-K system specifically are discussed.
Introduction

Consider the totalitarian chair of a business administration department. During an email exchange, the tenure-track professor points out an untruth in a communication, and asks the department chair not to communicate untruths. In response, the next time the tenure-track professor is up for review, the dept. chair ignores the faculty handbook review procedure, and with further untruths convinces the college dean to not renew the tenure-track professor’s contract. Hopefully the reader will agree that this behavior by the dept. chair is clearly unfair, malicious retaliation that resulted in wrongful termination, but because the employment was at-will during a probationary period, this retaliation is perfectly legal. The effect in department, of course, was that every single remaining tenure-track professor became a yes-person overnight, terrified that they might be next. More and more throughout academia, and society in general, it seems that noncollegial behavior is taking over the workplace, as evidenced by surveys (Bruce, 2015), and a growing body of literature (Kilik, Alarcon & Salimath, 2016; Padilla, Hogan & Kaiser, 2006; Williams, 2018) and books (Kohut, 2008; Namie & Namie, 2011; Sutton, 2007). To resist this growing toxicity, Williams (2018:10) notes that “the company needs to make it clear that it values not only what people accomplish but how they accomplish it,” and according to Bruce (2015), that set of values should be designed to help “employees have a sense of purpose, feel that they are recognized for their contributions, are connected to the mission and … have high social support.”

In this paper, we propose that the Hawaiian set of values of Aloha, Kuleana, and Pono are a useful framework for reinventing a corporate values framework, as they richly and meaningfully address Bruce’s (2015) workplace values without the imposition of potentially prejudicial and less-inclusive religious standards, as with religious standards, one must choose a religion at the exclusion of others. We essentially build on Marlow, Kyed & Connors’ (2005) proposal of Kuleana with a more comprehensive structure of three Hawaiian values, and applied to the emerging issue of curtailing toxicity in the workplace. While we admit that there are at least 19 Hawaiian values (Say, 2004) and that our meager set of 3 values fall far short of a comprehensive philosophy, we hope that our framework establishes the beginning of a social values structure – and the basis for a company’s values statement reinvention – as well as inspire discussion on the subject.

Aloha: Reverence in Relationships

Aloha is the core of Hawaiian values; the foundation upon which pre-contact Hawaiian culture was built. Aloha is more than a code of conduct or a set of rules. It is a lived experience, consisting of the relationship each individual has with others, with the physical environment, and with the spiritual realm. These relationships require each party to places the needs of others ahead of individual desires. When the entire community practices aloha, the effect is a kind of gestalt that results in mutual assistance for each individual in every instance. Those with many resources but few needs practice contentment with what they have and share their excess with those who have less. Those who cannot meet their own needs contribute as they are able but may make up their deficits through the generosity of others. In this way, those who are able to provide aid experience aloha in the satisfaction of giving; those in need experience through showing gratitude for the generosity of others.

The reciprocity aspect of aloha is similarly practiced in the way the community husbands land, water, and other natural resources. The community partakes of the earth’s bounty as needed, without deprivation or gluttony. In exchange, the community cares for the natural environment.
with the same affection as they would a child or elder—respectfully, tenderly, and with the full knowledge that the resources devoted to maintaining nature’s health and beauty will ensure sufficient yields to support the community. Aloha demands that individuals practice reverence for all forms of life, showing appropriate gratitude for nature’s bounty and beauty.

Aloha is not only demonstrated in the ways individuals treat one another and the environment. The value of aloha is also habituated in Hawaiian spiritual practice. In pre-contact Hawaiian culture, there was no separation between religion and the rest of daily life; on the contrary, spiritual practice was a way of life. Hawaiians gave thanks to the spirit world for successful, healthy births, healing from illness or injury, and peaceful deaths; for abundant harvests, weather that supported work, recreation, and rest; safe travel and success in peacemaking and warfare; and access to the necessary tools and materials for building, maintaining, and utilizing infrastructure. One’s food, water, and even the air one breathed were gifts from the gods, for which those gods were to be praised with body, mind, and spirit.

Pono: A Standard of Fairness

The value of pono is usually translated as righteousness or justice. Pono is so important within Hawaiian culture that it is immortalized in the motto of the Kingdom of Hawai’i, which has been adopted by the State of Hawai’i.  

**Ua mau ke ia o ka aina I ke pono**, “the life of the land is perpetuated in righteousness”—through this motto, the Hawaiian monarchs proclaimed the importance of practicing equality, equity, and fairness in daily life as a way to build a healthy, successful realm. Pono is practiced in the roles one plays in daily life—as a parent, child, worker, leader, and in every other role. Each role has its own set of unique behaviors, but generally, one can distinguish appropriate behaviors from inappropriate behaviors using the following criteria:

- Pono accepts all living creatures as they are and allows each creature to self-actualize without criticism, censure, or judgment.
- Pono differentiates between justice\(^1\) and charity\(^2\), requiring the former and honoring the latter.
- Pono honors life in all its myriad forms. Likewise, pono honors others’ choices
- Pono keeps promises. If unforeseen circumstances keep the individual from keeping his or her word, forgiveness is sought from the affected parties.
- Pono intends to do right in every circumstance, even when inconvenient, uncomfortable, or expensive to do so.
- Pono sets boundaries and honors the boundaries of others. Self-protection is pono; so is protecting others who may be unable to do so. Children, the elderly and those who are injured or ill, animals, and the physical environment are entitled to the protection of the entire community.
- Pono takes responsibility. The individual must fulfill the duties of his or her respective roles, and accept the consequences of those actions or failures to act.
- Pono values others’ needs as much as, if not more than, one’s own needs.

Kuleana: Responsibility and Accountability

---

\(^1\) Justice: meeting the needs of others out of one’s excess resources.

\(^2\) Charity: meeting the needs of others by sacrificing one’s own scarce resources.
Kuleana inures the individual to both responsibility and accountability for one’s actions and failures to act. Generally, every member of the community has the kuleana to care for and support every other community member as individual resources allow. Failure to act as one is able is as major an infraction as acting inappropriately. Like aloha and pono, kuleana requires the individual to prioritize the needs of others and of the group in ahead of his or her individual needs. Similarly, needs supersede desires in the allocation of resources, and all members of the group are expected to devote all their resources to the group’s success, and have the right to expect that their own needs will be met. In the event that resources are insufficient to meet every individual’s needs, the needs of children, the elderly, and those who are ill or injured are met before the needs of the young and able-bodied.

Apart from responsibility and accountability, a kuleana mindset requires each individual to express gratitude in thought, word, and action. Each person should demonstrate appropriate gratitude not only for being able to meet their own needs, but also that he or she can help those who are less able. Likewise, those who receive justice and charity have the kuleana to express appropriate gratitude for what others provide for them, complaining neither about the quality nor quantity of those gifts. There is an aspect of trust within the value of kuleana, particularly as it applies to those who are less able. In order for kuleana not to devolve into taking advantage of the strong, those perceived as weak have the responsibility to provide for themselves to the degree that they are able.

References
EMPLOYING THE INTERNAL MARKETING THEORY TO EXPLAIN HOW KNOWLEDGE DISSEMINATION CAN BE ENHANCED IN ORGANIZATIONS

SHERON LAWSON
Associate Professor
Wayland Baptist University
1900 W. 7th Street
Plainview TX 79072
lawsons@wbu.edu

ABSTRACT

Knowledge dissemination has been found to contribute positively to a firm’s performance. The internal marketing theory was employed to investigate how knowledge can be effectively disseminated in organizations to enhance organizational performance and innovation. The results indicated that a social learning environment is imperative to the knowledge dissemination process.

INTRODUCTION

Many researchers now agree that knowledge management is more than just the storage and manipulation of information, but a process that requires the commitment to create and disseminate knowledge through the organization (Parikh, 2001; Marshall et al., 1996). Lawson (2013) in utilizing the Knowledge Management Assessment Instrument (KMAI) that assesses the six dimensions of knowledge management found that the dissemination and application dimensions had the most significant influence on organizational performance and innovation.

Van der Bij, Song, & Weggeman (2003) described knowledge dissemination as a process of technological information exchange which can occur formally and informally and both horizontally and vertically. They further stated that knowledge dissemination is of crucial importance to new product development because it offers a clear overview of market needs, technology developments and competitors’ actions. They also stated that it leads to quick awareness of the external and internal activities therefore, leading to a high quality of improvisation.

Ramirez, Morales & Rojas (2011) empirical evidence indicated a positive and direct relationship between organizational learning and performance and the four modes of knowledge conversion. Nawaz, Hassan, & Shaukat (2014) empirical findings also showed direct and significant relationship between knowledge management practices and firm performance and innovation.

Problem Statement

Knowledge dissemination has been found to contribute positively to a firm’s innovative performance (Lawson, 2013; Lofsten, 2014; Jafari et al, 2014; Ramirez et al, 2011; Nawaz et al 2014; & Shankar & Gupta, 2005). The dissemination of can be a complex process so there is still the need to gain greater understanding of how knowledge can be effectively disseminated.
throughout the organization. Ramirez et al. (2011) posited that it is important that organizations have knowledge management systems that equip the company with greater ability to anticipate and to be more flexible to increasing changes taking place in the competitive environment. Bergquist & Ljungberg (2001) purported that for the effective dissemination of knowledge, attention must be given to the interactive process of communication, negotiation and reviewing. They further stated that it is a social process and that there must be an understanding of the organizational context and quality group support.

Some communication researchers have asserted sociological implications in the communication process. Communicationtheory.org (n.d) highlighted two such models, the Schramm model of communication and the Rileys’ model of communication. The premise of these models is that for successful communication, the sender and the receiver must have something in common. The expectation is that the social characteristics and backgrounds of the sender will be reflected in the message sent and likewise, the receiver will receive the message as a member of the sociological group.

Internal marketing theory corroborates the social implications of the communication process and how effective flows can impact organizational effectiveness and innovation. Őorić & Vokic (2009) & Spitzer & Swidler (2003) described internal marketing as a manager-employee relationship where the employee is an internal customer. For information to be effectively disseminated there must be an atmosphere of trust and support and the employees must be esteemed as valuable stakeholders and granted autonomy and respect to perform their duties (DeBussy, Ewing, & Pitt 2003)

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this research is to employ the internal marketing theory as a theoretical framework to investigate how knowledge can be effectively disseminated in organizations to enhance and increase organizational performance and innovation. It is proposed that a social learning environment with effective communication flows can influence the effective dissemination of knowledge.

A competitive marketplace dictates that organizations must be innovative to stay in business. The effective dissemination of organizational knowledge can help in the competitive advantage of organizations. Therefore, organizations must search for innovative ways to ensure that internal mechanisms are in place to allow for effective flow of information and knowledge (Lofsten, 2014; Jafari et al, 2014; Ramirez et al, 2011; Nawaz et al 2014; & Shankar & Gupta, 2005).

The research employed a qualitative method to garner greater information and insight on the knowledge dissemination process. Empirical findings from peer-reviewed journal articles were reviewed, and a theoretical framework was constructed to reveal the findings. The internal marketing concepts and communication elements were correlated to findings on elements that contributed to effective knowledge dissemination. The integrative framework that was devised highlighted a composition of elements that influence effective disseminate and flow of knowledge that could translate to improved performance and innovation.

**Propositions**
**Proposition 1:** Internal Marketing helps to cultivate a social learning environment that will lead to improved communication flow – In an environment where there is a positive collaborative relationship between managers and employees, a social learning environment will be cultivated. In such an ethical and trusting organizational climate, where the employees are treated as valued stakeholders and esteemed customers, they will develop positive attitudes and efficacious behaviors.

**Proposition 2:** Social Learning environment leads to good communication flow - An environment that is engendered with trust, cooperation, autonomy, flexibility, incentives and mutual support will lead to enhanced internal dialogue and boost participation.

**Proposition 3:** Social learning environment with good communication flow can influence effective dissemination of knowledge - Effective dissemination of knowledge requires a social learning environment that is based on trust, shared understanding and commitment.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Internal Marketing and Communication**

Internal marketing concept is a management philosophy that is the convergence of a number of previously separate business areas and techniques, such as strategic management, quality management, human resource management, corporate communications and customer relationship marketing that is based on the idea of employees as internal customers. (Óorié & Vokic 2009). DeBussy, Ewing, & Pitt (2003) purported that internal marketing requires employees be treated as internal customers and as such creating an ethical organizational climate and a concomitant atmosphere of mutual trust. They posited the recognition of the employees as key stakeholders offers the potential for greatly enhanced organizational effectiveness.

Óorié & Vokic (2009) stated internal marketing philosophy implementation should be a collaborative effort led by top management where employees are made aware of their contribution to serving external customers. They further stated that particular employees’ attitudes and behaviors are required to convey the appropriate message to customers. Fleming & Artis (2013) emphasized that the managers’ role is very important in the communication process and influences the signal that the employees are receiving and the messages that eventually pass to the customers. They stated that managers must be cognizant of their own feelings toward the message and the employees’ attitudes when they are sharing information. Managers, Fleming and Artis (2013) stated, may need to spend more time communicating the message to those whose personal attitudes are not in line with the message that the firm is trying to convey to customers.

Spitzer & Swidler (2003) posited that internal communication represents the core of management-employee relationship. It encompasses a multidimensional set of elements and has three basic objectives. The first objective is that the employees understand and accept the content, intent, relevance, and merit of the message that is communicated to them. The second objective is
that the employees achieve the goals of the communications with regard to motivating, directing, informing, or gaining their participation. The last objective is that the end result of an improved internal dialogue is achieving improvement in one or more of the core success components such as product quality, sales, profitability, workforce performance and satisfaction, and, ultimately, customer satisfaction. Škare & Kostelić (2015) suggested that from the internal marketing perspective, the productivity of an individual can increase due to lifelong learning and training. They further stated that internal marketing serves as a synonym for training and motivation of employees, which represents sets of efforts in finding, keeping and developing of the employee.

Roșca’s (2017) study suggested that internal communication that is efficacious, clear and focused on the mission upgrades leadership style, boosts participation and increase commitment, which translates to a highly esteemed work ethic and faith towards the manager. Roșca (2017) further stated that when managers communicate a culture of winning and enter a close relationship of collaboration in which they become coaches, mentors and leaders, they have high impact on the performances of athletes.

DeBussy, Ewing, & Pitt (2003) purported that a dialogic or two-way communication environment where trustworthiness and cooperativeness exist between management and employees offers a potential framework for empowering employees to enhance organizational performance.

Knowledge Dissemination

Wang, Chiang & Tung (2012) stated that knowledge dissemination is when members in an organization receive and share information with each other. These interactions, they stated, will lead to creation of new knowledge which will eventually form a system that leads to routine activities. A company’s routine practices, along with documentation and commercial secrets are the primary sources for competitive advantage. Organizational learning and Human Resource Management (HRM) principles are used to strengthen the employees’ ability to acquire knowledge, therefore, the integration of HRM and knowledge management is one of the important imitative in business operations (Wang, Chiang & Tung, 2012). Simonin and Ozsosomer’s (2009) research findings verified the link between knowledge dissemination and human resources practices. Sustained training of managers created an environment of shared understanding and encouraged managers to act as coaches and mentors. This learning environment enhanced knowledge processing capacity. They highlighted that rewards also played a role in knowledge transfer. In the global organizations, when expatriates’ presence is limited, rewards play a higher role in knowledge activities. In expatriates’ presence there is a greater propensity to share market knowledge.

Janz & Prasarnphanich (2003) stated that effective flow of knowledge is based upon trust at both the individual and organizational levels. Organizations, they stated, provide a climate of trust built on a culture that embraces and rewards knowledge-sharing in all its manifestations such as learning, mentoring, collaboration, and ideas sharing. Janz & Prasarnphanich (2003) concluded that cooperative learning and autonomy facilitated knowledge creation and dissemination. Allowing knowledge workers to have the freedom to exercise authority and elevate a supporting work climate leads to strong work satisfaction and ultimately organizational performance.
Bergquist & Ljungberg (2001) concluded for optimal dissemination of information, a peer review process is most constructive because it ensures that relevant new knowledge is disseminated to the different and pertinent parties.

Shankar and Gupta (2005) created an integrated knowledge management model that advocates cycles of knowledge processes at the individual, group, collaborators levels. The framework highlighted how unstructured, semi-structured and structured knowledge can be captured across the organization. Unstructured knowledge is application learning through individual and group. This type of knowledge is captured through communication between teams. For optimal capture of knowledge, incentives should be in place for individuals and teams to document their experiences. They further stated that the cyclic approach of knowledge capture and sharing can facilitate access for employees, customers and collaborators. Gupta & Roche (1997) identified models of knowledge acquisition and dissemination. They discussed how groups such as Communities of Practice and Share Groups are transforming knowledge acquisition, creation, packaging and dissemination. The characteristics for these groups are that knowledge is integrated in the life of the communities and learning is fundamentally social phenomenon. The process of learning and membership are inseparable and the ability to contribute to the community creates the potential for learning.

Kelliher, Harrington, & Galavan (2010) proposed a participatory leader knowledge dissemination model in which the leader involvement promotes skills development and stimulates a dynamic collaborative with evolution of knowledge transfer among the students. Moore & Birkinshaw (1998) highlighted how Centers of Excellence were used to leverage knowledge and represent the best practice of knowledge development and dissemination. New knowledge was built through the interaction of professional employees. They concluded that the Center of Excellence model is attractive because it provides the focal points for knowledge development and dissemination. The characteristics of the centers are top management has a strategic role which is less intrusive, and incentive and motivation issues were central to making the model effective. The day-to-day and high-profile nature of the work resulted in high peer recognition.

**DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

Internal marketing with social communication is described to be a positive collaborative relationship between managers and employees that is cultivated in a social learning environment. A social learning environment is an atmosphere that is engendered with trust, cooperation, autonomy, flexibility, incentives and mutual support. In such an ethical and trusting organizational climate, where the employees are treated as valued stakeholders and esteemed customers, they will develop positive attitudes and efficacious behaviors that will lead to superior performance.

The results from knowledge dissemination research corroborates with internal marketing theory that effective communication strategies enhance the dissemination of information and hence the improvement in organizational performance. The empirical evidence indicated that effective dissemination of knowledge requires a social learning environment that is based on trust, shared understanding. Employees having autonomy and freedom to exercise authority in the sharing of information jolt the diffusion of knowledge. The role of top management is very important and should be a collaborative, participatory partnership between managers and the subordinates. The flow of knowledge will be more effective if managers act as coaches and mentors (Kelliher et al 2010; Shankar and Gupta 2005; Bergquist & Ljungberg (2001; & Janz & Prasarnphanich, 2003).
There is a verified link between HRM practices and knowledge management. The involvement is beneficial at all levels of the organization including the individual, group and organizational context. Communities of practice and centers of excellence that convey an organizational climate of cooperative learning, employee interaction and peer recognition play integral roles in the transfer and dissemination of knowledge. Centralized dissemination centers and knowledge disseminators were also cited as being integral in the knowledge dissemination process (Moore & Birkinshaw, 1998; Kvedaravicius et al., 2005; & Gupta & Roche, 1997).

The results were combined to devise an integrative framework that includes the elements of internal marketing, communication process, and knowledge dissemination. The framework elucidates that a social learning environment is imperative to the knowledge dissemination process. The following elements must be established in an organization for effective dissemination of knowledge, life-long learning, supportive top management, an environment with shared understanding that instills positive attitudes and winning culture to the employees, employees’ incentives and reward system, managers that are mentors and coaches and communication flow that is clear and focused on the firm’s mission.

Figure 1: Integrative framework for effective knowledge dissemination, highlights the findings from the literature that if the listed elements are in place, organizations will see marked improvement in employee receiving and applying knowledge that will lead to improvement in performance and innovation that can boost competitive edge.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM AUTHOR
AMBIGUOUS LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT

Phillip V. Lewis
Oklahoma Christian University

ABSTRACT

When leaders display ambiguity, their organizations may suffer from inaction, could begin to flounder, or even fail. This paper investigates a process for assessing the characteristics of ambiguous leaders as measured by two Tolerance for Ambiguity Scales (TAS). The theoretical goals are to (1) provide an overview and background of ambiguity and ambiguous leadership; (2) provide the comparison results of individuals tested via the two TAS scales; (3) note whether any measurable differences exist among the individuals tested on the dimensions of ambiguity tolerance.

AMBIGUITY TOLERANCE AND LEADERSHIP

Management, leadership, and organizational scholars “repeatedly assert that tolerance for ambiguity positively influences performance” (Herman, et al., 2010, p. 58). Leadership is neither an easy nor a straightforward concept because of ambiguous definitions and measurements. A definition of leadership ambiguity is “an overdependence on consensus and conflict sensitivity which yields a sense of ambiguity within stakeholders as to the direction, priorities and expectations of an organization” (Meyer, 2009, p. 1). Another definition of dealing with leadership ambiguity consists of effectively coping with change, shifting gears comfortably, deciding and acting without having the total picture, and comfortably handling risk and uncertainty (Oelwein, 2010, p. 1).

The tolerance of ambiguity in leadership may be viewed as having positive and/or negative features. Ambiguous leadership is closely linked to role ambiguity because when the leader has little direction, or is vague in instructions, employees will have fewer concrete ideas on what they are supposed to be doing. Intolerance of ambiguity is often referred to as uncertainty avoidance or “managing the grey.”

Ambiguous leadership shows itself through negativity and discontent from employees, ignorance, poor performance from leadership, higher turnover, waste of resources, a syndrome of not-my-problem, silo builders, and lack of cohesion (Browne, 2014, pp. 1-2). Ambiguity tolerance may also be seen as embracing uncertainty and demonstrating characteristics of entrepreneurship, adaptability, and innovation (Hallinger & Snidvongs, 2008; Lane & Klenke, 2004).

On the other hand, there are a few positive aspects that ambiguous leadership brings. For example, “ambiguous communication is a rational method that can orient people toward multiple goals (Eisenberg, 1984, p. 18). In addition, “under ambiguity, radical transformations tend to occur in a cyclical pattern in which periods of substantive change alternate with periods of
political realignment” (Denis, Langley, & Cazale, 1996, p. 695). It may even do more good than harm in various outcomes and be an excellent resource when attempting to reach new goals.

Dealing with ambiguity among leaders, employees, and the workplace is a top priority in any organization. To lead through ambiguity, a leader must increase self-awareness, keep a broad and open perspective, be flexible, communicate often and effectively, and be resilient (White, 2010, pp. 1-2). Similar aids recommend leaders understand self-tolerance and reactions, be crystal clear on what is happening, know more than you think, don’t waffle when making decisions, encourage risk taking, envision alternative scenarios, and engage others (Hurt, 2014, pp. 1-2).

THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

When leaders display ambiguity, their organizations may suffer from inaction, could begin to flounder, or even fail. This paper investigates a process for assessing the characteristics of ambiguous leaders as measured by two Tolerance for Ambiguity Scales (TAS). The theoretical goals are to (1) provide an overview and background of ambiguity and ambiguous leadership; (2) provide the comparison results of individuals tested via the two TAS scales; (3) note whether any measurable differences exist among the individuals tested on the dimensions of ambiguity tolerance—(a) valuing diverse others, change, challenging perspectives, and conflicting perspectives, and (b) novelty, complexity, and insolubility; and (4) suggest possible future research possibilities.

A LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT OF TOLERANCE FOR AMBIGUITY

The theoretical goal to provide an overview and background of ambiguity tolerance of ambiguous situations has been met. Will a comparison TAS results administered to seven purposive samples of undergraduate students reveal any significant relationships? Several scales have been created over time to attempt a measure of ambiguity tolerance; the O’Connor scale (1952), the Budner scale (1962), the Rydell and Rosen (1966) scale, later revised by MacDonald (1970), and the Norton scale (1975). The Budner scale for international management research was revised by Herman, Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, & Oddou (2010). Several other scales also have been created; according to Furnham and Marks, at least eight self-report measures exist (2013, p. 719).

In this study, two different TASs were administered—the Budner scale (1962) and the Herman, Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, and Oddou’s revision of the Budner scale (2010) for comparison purposes. First, the Herman, et al. TAS tested 61 people (Spring 2016), and 36 individuals (Spring 2017), for a total of 97. Four dimensions were tested within the TAS via a 7-point Likert scale—1 = strongly disagree; 4 = neither agree or disagree; and 7 = strongly agree. First, valuing diverse others is a dominant interpersonal dimension of tolerance of ambiguity (TA); it suggests that TA may be more interpersonally oriented than TA in other situations.

Second, coping with change reflects the dynamic nature of TA; people high in TA may use more problem-focused coping strategies, and those low in TA may use more emotion-
focused strategies, with positive and negative implications for adjustment, respectively. Third, dealing with unfamiliar situations is not only fundamental to the ambiguity inherent in many experiences, it is central to the developmental benefit of many “stretch” (i.e., novel) experiences; high TA may enhance development from these experiences by enabling an individual to engage in more intense unfreezing phases. Fourth, managing conflicting perspectives is central to ambiguous encounters; it reflects experiences that challenge perspectives in ways not limited to environmental complexity.

After completion of the TAS, the higher the score, the more intolerant of ambiguity a person is. The lower the score, the more tolerant of ambiguity a person is. If we assume perfect scores for strongly agree to be 12 (1 point x 12 questions or 84 (7 points x 12 questions) for strongly disagree, based on the 7-point Likert scale, there were no individuals in either a strongly tolerant or strongly intolerant category. From some viewpoints, that could be disappointing if one of the purposes of a B-school is to overcome ambiguity tolerance and encourage more inclusion. For example, in this study, there were 39 out of 97 (40.206%) who rated themselves as neither tolerant or intolerant. What does that foreshadow for the workplace in the future?

On the other hand, there were seven people (7.216%) in a moderately tolerant, and only two (2.062%) in the moderately intolerant category. On the surface, that is more encouraging. There were 31 (31.959%) in a slightly tolerant and 18 (18.557%) in a slightly intolerant category. In some respects, that also is more positive. Overall, we could say there were 38 (39.175%) who could be classified as tolerant; 20 (20.619%), intolerant. Although that still leaves a sizable percentage of individuals in the neither category, there appears to be no significant difference among those taking the TAS.

The Budner TAS was then administered to a total of 155 individuals. Scores on the Tolerance of Ambiguity Scale quiz indicate a lesser-to-greater (in)tolerance of ambiguity. Situational ambiguity results from three major sources. To illustrate: Novelty indicates the extent to which a person is (in)tolerant of new, unfamiliar information or situations and no familiar signs exist. Complexity indicates the extent to which a person is (in)tolerant of multiple cues, distinctive or unrelated information that needs to be taken into consideration. Insolubility indicates the extent to which a person is (in)tolerant of problems that are very difficult to solve because situational cues are contradictory in nature, alternative solutions are not evident, information is not available, or the problem components seem unrelated to each other.

The test scores on the tolerance of ambiguity quiz were essentially the same. Overall: t = 0.741, df = 58, and p-value – 0.4619. There was no difference between the group comparisons. The three subscores (novelty, complexity, and insolubility) on the tolerance of ambiguity quiz were tested, and they also showed no essential difference. The Chi-square values between group comparisons ranged between 1.01 and 2.537, and the p-values ranged between 0.281 and 0.604. The various scores were independent.

Based on the above test results: One could conclude that ambiguous leaders, at least as measured by the TAS, demonstrate characteristics that can be malleable and easily influenced.
toward positive leadership. Tolerance for ambiguity could stretch the minds of ambiguous leaders’ capacities “to perceive, interpret and act on environment information” (Herman, et al., 2010, p. 61).

NEED FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Concerning the need for further research, it could be recommended that subjects from other populations than college students be used. “Individuals attending institutions of higher education may provide a homogeneous sample lacking extreme tolerant or extreme intolerant individuals” (Mostul, 1977, p. 18). However, campus leaders can have a major impact on campus climate and community and understanding leadership ambiguity tolerance may improve the connections between self-efficacy and tolerance for ambiguity.

Another area where ambiguity tolerance research might be helpful would be in the areas of sense-making, decision making, career choice, business planning and strategy as well as nearly all areas of social and psychological science. It might serve well as “a moderator of relationships between situation information and cognitive and behavioral reactions” (McLain, Kefallonitis, & Armani, (2015, p. 350). Marketing researchers may find its use helpful in marketing methods and instruments, consumer responses, new product development, and brand positioning. In general, more research is needed on how people respond to the complexity and ambiguity of their environments that include human, cultural, and political elements to understand consequential behavior of leaders and followers.

REFERENCES


A MODEL OF THE DIMENSIONS OF SPIRITUALITY AND THEIR POSSIBLE INFLUENCE ON CORPORATE CULTURE

Phillip V. Lewis
Oklahoma Christian University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine how spirituality influences corporate culture. The first step was to review research on the meaning of spirituality and the relationship between spirituality and corporate culture. The intent was to advance the academic conversation on spirituality in organizational life by offering a description of how spirituality interacts with and influences corporate culture. The second step was to construct a model of the types of organizational spirituality culture. The discussion of these characteristics or dimensions could provide a means for better understanding the relationship between spirituality and corporate culture.

SPIRITUALITY AND CORPORATE CULTURE

The topic of spirituality continues to gain traction in academic literature. Spirituality is viewed as benefiting business at the societal, organizational, and the individual or employee levels (Moore & Casper, 2006, p. 109). One report has shown that 85 percent of Americans replied “yes” to the question of whether a leader’s spirituality influenced their organization (Carroll, 2013, p. 1).

A spirituality perspective—the “metaphysics of management”—extends traditional reflections on corporate purpose and focuses on an organizational-existential search for meaning, identity, and success (Mitroff, 1998, pp. 146-148). A key feature of spirituality is that “all people should seek to reach their full potential and empowering employees is the only way individuals can attain their fullest sense of growth and contribution” (Neck & Milliman, 1994, p. 11).

WHAT IS SPIRITUALITY?

Generically, spirituality seems to emphasize how one’s day-to-day beliefs are applied on the job (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 2). Spirituality “can be most characteristically described as the inner experience of the individual when he senses a Beyond, especially as evidenced by the effect of this experience on his behavior when he actively attempts to harmonize his life with the Beyond” (Clark, 1958, p. 22).

There are at least three popular views of spirituality: (a) the intrinsic-origin view—spirituality originates from the inside of a person, (b) the religious view—spiritual views about work that are specific to particular religions, and (c) the existentialist views—the search for meaning in what we are doing at work (Krishnakumar & Neck, 2002, pp. 154-156).
Developments in management theory and practice recommend “management can be better understood and integrated into personal and organizational behavior via reference to spirituality as the context for purposeful behavior” (Pruzan, 2004, p. 1). “Spirituality can help business leaders to arrive at solutions which serve the community, the planet and life itself” (Zsolnai, 2004, p. 7).

Five dimensions of spirituality include beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions; transcendental experiences; sense of meaning for existence; belief in the paranormal; and religious behavior and practice (MacDonald, 2000, p. 192). Four conclusions entail a sense of meaning, purpose, significance, and fulfillment: (a) spirituality is the higher awareness that drives human beings to do well, (b) interconnectedness exists among all living beings, (c) respect and recognition are invaluable for a workplace that focuses on enhancing workers’ performance, and (d) the existential dimension of work (Marques, et al., 2005, p. 86).

Three other approaches to characterizing spirituality include connectedness, spiritual traditions, and valence (Sass, 2000, p. 196). Finally, spirituality has been linked to positive outcomes associated with sense of community (Cavanagh, et al., 2001) and serving a need for connecting with others (Khanna & Srinivas, 2000).

CORPORATE CULTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL SPIRITUALITY

Corporate culture is “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005, p. 28). It is the collection of internal shared values and beliefs that an organization learns as management and employees work together to solve problems. It is often a framework of unwritten rules; however, the internal culture must fit the external environment.

One model of corporate culture is based on four cultural traits of organizational life: involvement, consistency, adaptability, and mission (Denison & Neale, 1996). A different model presents four types of corporate culture based on (a) the extent to which the external environment requires flexibility or stability and (b) the extent to which a company’s strategic focus is internal or external; and the four categories of corporate culture are adaptability, achievement, involvement, and consistency (Daft, 2018, p. 92).

Others have identified basic frameworks to justify corporate culture practice: improve operational efficiency, reduce risk management costs, reduce costs of capital, increase market demand, improve strategic direction, and improve HRM (Hoffman, 2010, p. 163). Six characteristics of a spiritual workplace include: emphasizes sustainability, values contribution, prizes creativity, cultivates inclusion, develops principles, and promotes vocation (Rhodes, 2006). The four principal issues of ethical and spiritual well-being that should be considered equally are transcendence, connectedness, completeness, and joy (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2008, p. 592).

Research also suggests that spiritual organizations have a strong sense of purpose, focus on individual development, encourage trust and openness, promote employee empowerment, and
Encourage employee expression (Rama, 2010). Others advocate how people thrive in a spiritual work environment: leaders take a personal interest in team development and success, encourage people to be all they can be, appreciate people, are excited by opportunities provided, promote trust and empowerment, participate in collaborative dialog, support and coach employees, place a positive emphasis on relationships, and notice and celebrate successes (Howard, 2003).

Extensive reviews of literature about organizational spirituality have resulted in a list of 19 themes: ethics, truth, belief in God or a higher power, respect, understanding, openness, honesty, being self-motivated, encouraging creativity, giving to others, trust, kindness, team orientation, few organizational barriers, a sense of peace and harmony, aesthetically pleasing workplace, interconnectedness, encouraging diversity, and acceptance (Marques, Dhiman, & King, 2003, p. 86).

Finally, a study that explored the philosophical foundations of workplace spirituality concluded spirituality should not be confined to high performance or profitability but “should be extended to matters of increased physical and mental health, advanced and undistorted personal growth and a higher level of self-esteem, worth and overall life-satisfaction” (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2008, p. 592).

One research project suggests that encouragement of spirituality in the workplace leads to benefits in the following areas: creativity, honesty and trust, personal fulfillment, and commitment; all lead to increased organizational performance (Krishnakumar & Neck, 2002, p. 156). Another list of perceived benefits include feeling at ease, self-confidence, in a positive mood, being open-minded, and feeling valued (Fawcett, et al., 2008, p. 430).

**AN EXPLORATORY MODEL OF SPIRITUALITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL**

An exploratory model is illustrated in Exhibit 1.1. The model is based on the following elements: (a) the extent to which life purpose and involvement requires meaningful work, sense of community, and organizational values; and (b) the extent to which organizational spirituality is a component of corporate culture. The six categories associated with these two dimensions are wellbeing, interconnectedness, achievement, affirmation, shared values and beliefs, and balance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exhibit 1.1</th>
<th>Types of Organizational Spirituality Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life Purpose</td>
<td>Wellbeing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

152
Wellbeing includes a personal sense of meaning, contentment, feeling at ease, a positive mood, feeling of worthiness, self-confidence, self-motivation, meeting aspirations and goals, fulfillment of values, completeness, feeling valued, sense of wholeness, life satisfaction, mental health, joy, affective attachment to an organization, and possibly experiencing a divine presence in the workplace. Interconnectedness embraces belonging to a group or organization, having good colleagues, positive emphasis on relationships, empowerment, openness, inclusiveness, and diversity. Achievement refers to performance, productivity, profitability, efficiency, quality work, creativity and innovation, imagination and intuition, mental growth, realization of full potential as a person, engaging in reflective practice, flexibility, and celebration of successes.

Affirmation is a feeling of self-esteem, self-confidence, encouragement to be all one can be, support and coaching of others, being competent, trust, honesty, responsive listening, ethics and integrity, and respect. Shared values and beliefs involve vision, mission, clarity, purposeful action, initiative, HRM practice, team orientation, underlying assumptions and expectations, consistency, adaptability, responsibility, encouraged employee expression, receptivity, steadiness, grounded change, working together to solve problems, justice, open-mindedness, understanding, and improvement of strategic direction. Balance refers to harmony, being even-keeled, peace, compassion, kindness, selfless service, benevolence, loyalty, obligation, socially responsible to the community, serving humankind and future generations, caring for the environment, creating a better world, and sustainability.

Each of these six categories of organizational spirituality can be successful within corporate culture and can influence it dramatically. These dimensions can help leaders be successful by instilling the organizational spiritual values in which management and employees wish to engage.

References

Cavanagh, G., Hanson, B., Hanson, K., & Hinojoso, J. (2001). Toward a spirituality for the contemporary organization: Implications for work, family and society.


THE SALIENCE OF INTRINSIC SPIRITUALITY AS A MOTIVATIONAL CONSTRUCT IN THE WORKPLACE

Phillip V. Lewis
College of Business Administration

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine how spirituality impacts the lives of people who currently have or have had (now retired) full-time work experience. The first step was to review research on the effects of spirituality on organizations, managers, and the workplace. The study methods employed include the results of interviews conducted by undergraduate students after having administered a one-page modified six-item intrinsic spirituality scale. Possible variances between males and females on the questionnaire were tested, potential differences between people of different races were reviewed, and possible distinctions between people of different religions were computed. The findings suggest that the prominence of intrinsic spirituality in the workplace does indeed function as a person’s master motive.

SPIRITUALITY, MANAGERS, AND THE WORKPLACE

Workplace spirituality continues to gain traction in academic literature. Two reports show that 78 percent of Americans feel a need to experience spiritual growth and one-half of those claimed to openly talk about spiritual needs at work; 85 percent replied yes to the question of whether a leader’s spirituality influenced their organization (Carroll, 2013, p. 1).

The integration of spirituality into the workplace by management offers employees meaning in a turbulent world. Managers who are committed to spirituality, regardless of their religious affiliations, share similar concerns and different but common paths (McCormick, 1994, p. 5).

SPIRITUALITY DEFINED

What is “spirituality”? A number of broadly and divergently interpretable phenomena have been presented (Marques, 2005, p. 27). It is estimated that there are more than 70 definitions but no universally accepted definition of spirituality (Markow & Klenke, 2005). Some suggest that spirituality embodies personal values of honesty, integrity, and good quality work; others say it’s creating co-workers and employees responsibly; and others propose that spirituality helps make business socially responsible by how a business impacts the environment, serves the community, or helps create a better world (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 1).

SPIRITUALITY AND MANAGEMENT

Developments in management theory and practice propose that “management can be better understood and integrated into personal and organizational behavior via reference to
spirituality as the context for purposeful behavior” (Pruzan, 2004, p. 1). Some of the relevant topics that appear in the multicultural workplace and global marketplace include compassion, right livelihood, selfless service, meditative work, and the problem of pluralism (McCormick, 1994, p. 6). As Zsolnai has written, “Spirituality can help business leaders to arrive at solutions which serve the community, the planet and life itself” (2004, p. 7).

*Qualitative* research suggests that spiritual organizations have a strong sense of purpose, focus on individual development, encourage trust and openness, promote employee empowerment, and encourage employee expression (Rama, 2010). Other writings suggest people thrive in a spiritual work environment because leaders take a personal interest in team development and success, encourage people to be all they can be, appreciate people and are excited by opportunities provided, promote trust and empowerment, participate in collaborative dialog, support and coach employees, place a positive emphasis on relationships, and notice and celebrate successes (Howard, 2003).

*Quantitative* research into workplace spirituality affirms that a majority of people want to find meaning in their work (Schrage, 2000, p. 306). There are at least three popular views of spirituality: (a) the intrinsic-origin view—spirituality originates from the inside of a person, (b) the religious view—spiritual views about work that are specific to particular religions, and (c) the existentialist views—the search for meaning in what we are doing at work (Krishnakumar & Neck, 2002, pp. 154-156). Three other dimensions of workplace spirituality are (a) self-work immersion—the ability to bring one’s whole self to the workplace, (b) interconnectedness—the feeling of being part of something bigger than the self, and (c) self-actualization—the experience of spiritual and mental growth through work (Moore & Casper, 2006, pp.110-112).

A review of over 150 studies of spiritual values and practices related to leadership effectiveness found the following skills to be crucial: showing respect for others, demonstrating fair treatment, expressing caring and concern, listening responsively, recognizing the contributions of others, and engaging in reflective practice (Reave, L., 2005, p. 655).

Research has discovered that when people experience spirituality in the workplace, “they feel more affectively attached to their organizations, experience a sense of obligation/loyalty towards them, and feel less instrumentally committed” (Rego & Cunha, 2008, p. 53). Still another has positioned spirituality as a construct that positively affects work intentions, organizational success, and employee well-being (Soder, 2016, p. vi). A study that explored the philosophical foundations of workplace spirituality concluded that spirituality should not be confined to high performance or profitability but “should be extended to matters of increased physical and mental health, advanced and undistorted personal growth and a higher level of self-esteem, worth and overall life-satisfaction” (Gotsis & Kortezi, 2008, p. 592).

*Motivation* is a most important psychological concept in organizational life is motivation (Vallerand, et al., 1992, p. 1003). Intrinsic motivation usually denotes doing an activity for itself and deriving pleasure and satisfaction from involvement (Deci, 1975; Deci and Ryan, 1985). Thus there are many good reasons to study the impact of spirituality on intrinsic motivation and
management: “the influence which it has on managerial behavior is one and the prospect of more spiritually meaningful work is another” (McCormick, 1994, p. 7).

QUESTIONNAIRE AND INTERVIEW TECHNIQUE USED

The questionnaire chosen for this study was the Intrinsic Spirituality Scale—a one-page modified six-question scale that measures various attributes associated with spirituality (Hodge, 2003, p. 48). as follows: unstandardized validity (2.11), measurement error (1.21), and reliability (.80). The six-item scale used provided incomplete sentence fragments followed by phrases that are linked to a scale ranging from 0 to 10. The phrase completes the sentence fragment and anchors each end of the scale. The 0 to 10 range provides a continuum on which to replay; 0 corresponds to absence or zero amount of the attribute, while 10 corresponds to the maximum amount of the attribute. Any number on the scale could be chosen that best reflects the subject’s initial feeling. Spirituality is defined as one’s relationship to God.

The interviewees’ level of intrinsic spirituality is indicated by taking the sum of their scores on the six items and dividing by six. A score of 0 indicates spirituality is not operative in that person’s life as a motivating factor. At the opposite extreme, a score of 10 indicates a person who is motivated by their spirituality to the highest degree possible.

The fall semester 2017 undergraduate students in Principles of Management were instructed to interview a minimum of five people and were provided with suggested questions to use in their interview with people of their own choosing. They could use other questions as the moment presented itself. Their guidelines were to select someone who was currently employed full-time or at one time had been employed full-time but were now retired; the age range was to be 21+. The intent was to discover how the interviewee viewed spirituality as a motivating factor in their life and thereby their career (i.e., the workplace).

Demographics were collected on age, sex, race, marital status, education, employment, religion, and religious affiliation.

FINDINGS

The modified six-item intrinsic spirituality scale was distributed to and returned from 69 males and 31 females, for a total of 100 individuals. Interviews were also conducted with each person who completed a questionnaire. The range of ages was from 21-82 years. The races involved in the study were African-Americans, American Indians, Asians, Hispanics, and whites. Educational levels ranged from high school graduation to completion of Ph.D. degrees. The types of religions mentioned were predominantly Christians, but some did identify themselves as Rastafarians, agnostics, atheists, and Muslims. Those who did identify their religious affiliation were Baptists, Catholics, Church of Christ, Life Church, Lutherans, and Methodists. However, 83 people (37%) did not identify a religious affiliation.

3 A second study was completed during the spring semester 2018 which yielded 120+ responses, but any statistical results available have not been calculated at the time of due date for paper submission.
Based on the above samples of face-to-face interview results, the prominence of intrinsic, workplace spirituality as a motivational construct reveals that spirituality does indeed function as a person’s master motive. A Chi-Square test of significance was computed comparing whites to Asians, whites to American Indians, whites to Hispanics, and whites to African Americans. No significant difference was detected. A Chi-Square test was also calculated comparing Hispanics to American Indians, Asians to American Indians, Hispanics to African Americans, and Asians to African Americans. No significant difference was detected. A Chi-Square test was likewise computed comparing Christians to other religious designations. No significant difference was detected.

However, when a Chi-Square test of significance was calculated comparing all males to all females, an interesting level of significance was discovered ($p = .001257$). Although the females in the study were outnumbered by the males, the females exhibited a much higher level of spirituality (based on the questionnaire findings) than males did. For the females in this study, their spirituality (more than the males) answered more questions about life, was more important than anything else in life, was an overriding consideration in decision making, was a directing motive of life, was the most important factor in growth and maturity, and affected every aspect of life.

Thus, the prominence of intrinsic, workplace spirituality as a motivational construct, using the modified six-item intrinsic spirituality scale questionnaire, reveals that spirituality does indeed function as a person’s master motive.

Based on the interview results, there appears to be clear consistency between the ideals in both arenas. In this study, the questionnaire’s continuum components demonstrated how spirituality functions as a motivational construct in the workplace. Thus it could be helpful if future research focused on how the components of the intrinsic spirituality scale could be diagramed as a two-dimensional spiritual values-based model and how it impacts corporate culture.

References


A TALE OF TWO LEADERS: EXPLORING SOURCES OF RESISTANCE TO NEW LEADER INTEGRATION

DAN M. LICHTER
Goodwin School of Business
Benedictine University
Lisle IL 60532

ERICA A. SOKOL
Goodwin School of Business, Benedictine University

ABSTRACT
The authors endeavor to better understand observed and experienced phenomena by highlighting individual meaning-making and highlight the commonalities in their parallel experiences using a personal phenomenological narrative approach and a review of current organization development literature. Some implications and recommendations for practice are presented along with suggestions for research areas worth a deeper look moving forward.

INTRODUCTION
The conceptual theme of integration as “the dissolution of interfaces, with all the ensuing benefits, consequences, and issues” and its related questions appeal to this pair of authors on several levels. By collaborating on this paper we moved beyond interacting via an interface and demonstrated explicitly that “people with different backgrounds might work together to find common solutions to shared problems” (Southwest Academy of Management, 2018). Having combined experience in the fields of non-profit management, behavioral health, higher education, and IT management, we now enter the field of organization development seeking to find common solutions to our shared question—what are the sources of resistance for someone entering a new organization in a leadership role, and how can these sources be mitigated?

Throughout this proceedings summary paper, the reader will find vignettes narrated in first-person that describe the experiences of the authors during their stories as leaders venturing to establish themselves in new organizations. Let us begin with this one—the second author’s interview experience in a nonprofit serving the developmental disabilities population:

*Interviewing for this new position, I was at the top of my game: professionally dressed with well-rehearsed lines and prepared responses to anticipated interview questions. My future boss began the interview with “Relax! You look too serious.” I moved in my chair; I did not relax.*

Do What Needs Doing - But Please Don’t Touch
New leadership is typically brought in either to fill a vacated job, to achieve new organizational goals, or bridge a strategic gap (Zhao, Seibert, Taylor, Lee, & Wing Lam, 2018). In any, organizational change ensues. While declaring that change is wanted or needed, the organization then fights tooth and nail to keep everything the same. When new leadership is introduced the change puts stress on the system which may result in resistance to new leadership. The new leader must manage their own emotions while adjusting to the new position, new environment, and must also manage the ambiguity of these stresses. According to Lewin (1951) “the question of planned change or any social engineering is identical with the question: what conditions have to be changed to bring about a given result and how can we change these conditions with the means at hand?” (Lewin, 1951, p. 171).
Changes to tasks were enough to drive out members of the team, as they could not adapt to the updated processes. Much like a pressure cooker leaving relieving tension from the individuals. I oversaw a team of millenial staff and consultants who used a system from the early 1990s. Resistance to technological change was sufficient to evoke voluntary turnover. The first staff member left within two months; the second in six, giving me the opportunity to build my own team.

As a leader, recognizing who will work best on your team and fit well with you is crucial to the success of the organization. Building a team that will share and trust in their leader’s vision develops the team’s strength to navigate and overcome the inevitable challenges they will face together. The research also suggests that, because of the personality factor, executives should hire based on personality fit to create the ideal team (Peterson, R. S., Smith, D. B., Martorana, P. V., & Owens, P. D., 2003).

**Recommended Daily Dose of Lewin**

Lewin’s force-field formula, the behavior is a result of a person and the environment. He suggested resistance stems from the tension of the environment on our values (Weisbord, 2012). Lewin showed internal and external factors impacted “people’s feelings, perceptions of reality, sense of self-worth, motivation, and commitment” (Weisbord, 2012, p.81). Force-field analysis leads the way to the study of the leader’s behavior and beliefs and the impact on culture. From there Lewin and Lippitt developed the term group dynamics. Lewin learned that individuals develop rules for their behavior rather than his belief of people as part of the system. Weisbord (2012) notes that “[a] group’s behavior changes with the conditions operating in and upon it” (p.92). Adding to group dynamics, Lewin presses upon the importance of a leader knowing and understanding herself and how she may impact others in the group. Leaders can assess themselves via a great many instruments to shed light upon such traits as leadership style, personality, communication style, and conflict style. Once a leader gains this information they become aware of how these traits may impact others and, ideally, may choose to adjust their style based on the matter at hand.

During this time I began to give clinical feedback and suggestions. At one point a peer asked what experience I had to make the recommendations. I had to remind her my clinical training and experience was working directly with the population and competitor. Her response was “oh, that's right.” Gaining the trust of peers was difficult. I remember an insistence when I apologized publicly in a team meeting for an assumption I had made. The boss praised me for admitting the mistake. However, the look on the peers’ faces appeared less than pleased.

One might predict that most of the resistance would stem primarily from below and comparably from above. We will consider both, but that does leave questions regarding how those factors become increasingly complex as variables such as peer relationships and even internal cognition of the new leader come into play.

**Prescient Precedent**

Recent findings discuss the integration of a new leader is heavily influenced by traits and behaviors of the predecessor (Zhao et al., 2018; Stewart, Astrove, Reeves, Crawford, & Solimeo, 2017, 2017). The mechanisms at work have been, at least cursorily, exposed. It would be well worth further investigation regarding the directionality of these processes, along with associated antecedents and consequences. Not only is the new leader impacted by the predecessor leadership, but the attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors of all stakeholders, such as clients,
volunteers, vendors, partners, and customers are also influenced by the memory of the predecessor. To understand this, we can turn to the theoretical underpinnings stemming from contrast effect theory: Markman and McMullen (2003) posit that “contrast effects occur when judgments are displaced away from a comparison standard.” For example, the contrast effect suggests individuals will compare the two leaders against each other, possibly making the new leader appear inferior to the predecessor. The individuals will not have gathered enough data or facts on the new leader yet but will continue to compare the two leaders causing system resistance. Therefore, new leaders may want to quickly gain transformational leadership skills to begin to build their leadership presence within the system. Transformational leadership is a participative leadership style in which the leader and followers work together to achieve the shared vision” (Mohammadpour et al., 2017). “According to Bass (1990), ‘there are four components that form a transformational leadership style, which can be described as follows: (1) idealized/charismatic influence, the leader has a vision and missions that in line with organization, commitment, and consistency in every decision thus the followers follow the leader voluntarily; (2) inspirational motivation: the leader sets high standard and encourages the achievement; (3) intellectual stimulation: the leader pushes the followers to have a learning culture and facilitating them to develop it; and (4) individualized consideration: the leader’s ability to understand the differences between each follower and facilitate their development’” (Mohammadpour, S. et al., 2017). Additionally, the new leader will want to be mindful to develop relationships with individuals in the system, to be a leader that motivates their followers and also exercises the capacity to be agile in every circumstance.

**Paradigm shift**

Barker’s (1993) watered down approach to Kuhn’s (1996) revolution of paradigms suggests that the new perspective, i.e. in this context, new management capability, arrives before it is actually needed, but is frequently suppressed by the normative status quo.

> In my case, as a new leader, I was not cognizant of “the way we do things” and, in an effort to establish myself and justify my selection, proceeded to grate with every aspect of the established power structure. There was absolutely sincere intention to serve the common good on the part of all parties involved. I was not trying, at least consciously, to make any proverbial waves. I simply saw opportunities for improvement and wanted to make my contribution as quickly as possible. I brought unique expertise to the table and, by nature of the confidence put in me by the mere act of hiring me, felt obligated to act decisively and immediately.

New leaders eager to apply technical or industry expertise will begin to make changes too quickly. The system will often not tolerate the changes as noted above. These leaders will find they are being forced to act as transactional leaders and “use reward and punishment to motivate followers. In contrast to transactional leadership, the motivational sources of followers in transformational leadership do not come from external reward and punishment but from self-inspiration given by leaders to encourage followers to transform with their internal motivation” (Mohammadpour, S. et al., 2017, p.213).

> My boss, a leader of the executive team, contended to be about “teaching and coaching” staff. A former social worker, he would use some therapeutic techniques in supervision. However, once I began to call out concerns of the team and issues in the organization, our relationship changed quickly from a mentor to what felt like a competitive peer. As a
leader, I believe in delivering quality services to the client, job satisfaction for the team members, and fiscal responsibility. My goals and position fit me well; yet my supervisor, unfortunately, did not. The more I began to speak up about organizational weaknesses, issues and propose ways to address these challenges, the more supervisory sessions turned the focus solely on my weaknesses, and then also became emotionally abusive—asking questions such as “If you had to pick a personality disorder which one would you pick for yourself?” I was shocked, and also began to question his ability to lead.”

Still standing

High-status executives above the new leader may obstruct the integration in a manner similar to that recently explored by Stewart et al. (2017) who confirmed that the success of team empowerment was put at risk when a high-status leader perceived that empowering subordinates posed a threat to their status. Their sense of self was tightly bound to a sense of uniqueness, depth of expertise in a narrow but necessary area of subject matter, and long-term incumbency in a role. We might reasonably project that this same dynamic applies during the onboarding of a new middle manager. Leader identity work and leader delegation emerged as two themes that explain this reluctance to empower subordinates. “[E]mpowerment creates a status threat for high-status leaders who then struggle to protect their old identity as someone with distinct professional capabilities, which in turn leads to improper delegation behavior. Therefore, in order for team-based empowerment to succeed, leaders may need to change their perceptions of who they are before they will change what they do.” (Stewart et al., 2017, p.2266)

Work to do

The likelihood that some fraction status and thus a chunk of identity are “left behind” at the prior organization—presuming of course that there was one—of the now new leader must not be overlooked. Especially the underlying assumptions. There will already be incongruences and contradictions that the individual may attempt to reconcile or self-edit by way of a job change. There will likely be a boost in ego and an increase, validation, or in the least reinforcement to identity attributable to the successful navigation of the employment courtship ritual and the ensuing consummation. But perhaps, even more, the conscious desire to leave certain identity baggage behind. And perhaps quite a bit more that is unconscious. So, lest we let the newcomer off the hook, it is apparent that they too will have some Stewertian “identity work” so as to avoid being an agent of resistance to their own integration. Leaders entering a new organization must rely on leadership best practice versus applying previous experiences from former positions. The new position will not be a replica of the previous organization, the new organization will require the leader to develop a new construct while applying leaderships models customized to suit the new environment.

From a Land Down Under

Resistance to new leader integration may arrive from below by way of incumbent staff. Subordinates often inherit some critical duties upon the departure of their now former supervisor but perceive these additional responsibilities will be temporary in nature. But when the new manager arrives, he may presume that those inherited duties were already the status quo and it does not occur to him to claim or—more importantly from the subordinates’ point of view—reclaim those responsibilities. If the subordinate neither recognizes nor communicates this disparity in expectations, they may ever after building resentment for “doing their boss’s job!” Recognizing these risks, a variation on Cogan’s (2018) New Team Startup (NTS) intervention
may help to mitigate them. NTS accelerates the growth of team trust and reduce group development time via discussions around (1) the need for establishing mutual trust, streamlining group development, and avoiding frustration; (2) the role of employee sessions; and (3) the importance of encouraging transparency to establish employees' trust with their leader and the leader's trust in the employees (Cogan, 2018). In preparation, the facilitator develops a set of question formulated in a way that allows all parties to align expectations and shed light on assumptions. A level of trust and, more importantly, a precedent will have been established so that moving forward assumptive expectations can be safely addressed.

**Impact of the former leader to successful new leader integration.**

The effects of the precursory leader have been shown to influence the transition to new leadership. Recent research found that a more transformational former leader constrains the potential effectiveness of and the ability for the new leader to affect change on employee behaviors.

The previous leader was well loved and transformational and had gained the support of the masses. Not an hour went by without this new leader hearing about the “big shoes” she needed to fill. The tasks were not only to develop rapport but also to manage her discomfort of hearing constantly about the previous leader. Integrating as a new leader in this system proved to be a slow process of building trust and allowing the system to adjust to the new personality and style.

Due to the contrast effect, a less transformative former leader reduces potential resistance to change and increases the potential effectiveness of the newcomer (Zhao et al., 2018). In the case of leadership integration, entering a new system after a less transformational leader may provide an easier and smoother process largely because staff members were not comparing or mourning the loss of the leader, suggesting the change created less resistance. In the second author’s experience in a not-for-profit animal welfare organization:

Moving to the chief executive role of a non-profit granted a new perspective from which to see the organization from a bird’s eye view. This new point of view changes the mindset of a leader in a role entailing different responsibilities and tasks. No longer is the leader responsible for a single business unit or even a number of units; rather the responsibility is now the entire organization.

**IT’S COMPLICATED**

Now let us come back to the complicating factors that one might encounter in combination with a popular precursory leader. Consider an illustrative scenario:

My predecessor in leadership was considered highly effective, not merely well-respected but also well-liked, even revered. The recipient of the institution’s highest service award, he had the ear of the CEO and the board of directors. Let us extend our thought experiment with another strange twist: let us prescribe now that organization, in order to retain unique capabilities and singular institutional knowledge, offered this idyllic leader a different role, which was graciously accepted. Thus he maintains formal and informal relationships built over 10-15 years. Then, at the time of the successor’s arrival, the predecessor continues to be a resource in both formal and informal capacities to many individuals and groups.

In light of the evidence presented by Zhao et al. (2018) for the contrast effect of former leadership, extending that theory in other directions is certainly worth exploring. Furthermore, the effects of the predecessor transitioning to occupy a different but comparably influential role
might certainly serve as a major source of resistance to the integration of the successor. A qualitative investigation into this area to further explore how and why this occurs is in order. Furthermore, the development of interventions surrounding new leader integration that leverages the influence of the predecessors might be of great use to the OD practitioner engaged in succession planning.

The executive leader continues to face the pressures of the board president who is the supervisor of the executive however the two should act as co-pilots rather than hierarchy. Most times the board president and I are aligned. Should I not have his support or future presidents support the organization will no longer be a fit for me. A leader must be aware of their personality, traits, strengths, and weakness. Fast Forward: three months later and the leader resigns, concluding the influence of both internal and external forces has led the board to buyer’s remorse; the leader gracefully exists the arena taking with her lessons from the experience, a better understanding of self, skills, and gratitude for recognizing what is no longer of value.

Burke notes that most leaders only last a few years and attributes that to misalignment between the leader “personality and demeanor” and the organization’s culture (Burke, 2004). A contribution to the field and recommendations of strategies may help leaders, both middle and executives face the challenges of leader integration.

**Just the Tips**

The following are digested recommendations for a new leader: (1) Ask strategic questions during the hiring and onboarding process. (2) Critically evaluate the mutual fit between you and the prospective new organization and confirm compatible values, culture, and leadership. (3) Consider the predecessor in this role (e.g. traits, style, legacy, reputation) and identify potential implied challenges that may ensue. (4) Reflect on prior successes and failures to identify and predict potential triggers that may derail success, and plan tactics in advance to respond to those triggers. (5) Collaboratively develop (and insist upon, if necessary) an explicit transition plan. (6) Once in, survey and assess the landscape before trying to make an impact. Recruit a coach or mentor, and adopt the mindset of an explorer and recognize the need for endurance, a plan and willingness to get to the highest view and observe the organization’s workings. (7) Document what you intend to achieve in this next phase and refer back to that documentation during a difficult moment. (8) Prepare for the suboptimal scenario—make the best of the situation and learn as much as possible from the experience?

Based on our aspiration to identify some sources of resistance for someone entering a new organization in a leadership role, and our goal to mitigate them we found that the new leader should have an awareness (1) of self and of how that self impacts the system; (2) of predecessor legacy; and (3) of how stresses of new leadership force systemic changes in unexpected ways; and finally (4) especially that the new leader must reach and maintain the highest viewpoint in order to successfully integrate your best self in your new organization.

**REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS**
REDEFINING LEADERSHIP ROLES AND STRUCTURE IN SPECIAL EDUCATION: APPLYING ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM

JULIANA LILLY
Sam Houston State University
Box 2056, Huntsville, TX 77341-2056

WILLIAM BLACKWELL
Sam Houston State University

KAMPOL WIPAWAYANGKOOL
Sam Houston State University

ABSTRACT

Leaders in the public school system (K-12) are often pulled in multiple directions trying to satisfy many constituencies who have a vested interest in quality education. Students qualifying for special education and their parents create one constituency that is often frustrated with the educational process, and educational leaders may struggle to resolve their concerns. This paper proposes that the organizational structure currently used on the typical school campus may need to be modified to better fit the needs of special education. Specifically, we suggest that the traditional vertical structure used in schools be modified to include a matrix structure for the special education component which will redefine the leadership roles and the leadership structure to better fit the unique requirements of special education.

INTRODUCTION

Studies have demonstrated that essentially all parties involved in special education programming experience levels of dissatisfaction with the Individualized Education Process or IEP process (Gaffney & Ruppar, 2011). The IEP process is the process in which school personnel and parents meet to develop an Individual Education Plan for students who qualify for special education services. By law, parents have the right to be active participants in the process, but studies show that parents are particularly marginalized members of the special education process, reporting having less active participation, fewer opportunities to participate, and limited influence on the process and outcomes of special education programming (Zeitlin & Curic, 2013). Although principals have considerable influence on the quality and oversight of the school’s special education programming (Sage & Burello, 1994; Sirotkin & Kimball, 1994), they historically receive little training and support to carry out these functions (Wakeman, Browder, Flowers, & Ahlgrim-Delzell, 2006).

The premise of this paper is to utilize the lens of organizational theory as a means of helping superintendents and secondary school principals analyze and rethink special education workflow. By analyzing the typical workflow in high schools for both general and special education, principals can use organizational theory to determine if existing organizational
structures are impeding the work performance of special education personnel. Addressing such impediments may help alleviate barriers related to service delivery, communication, and overall satisfaction with the special education process for all involved parties.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

**Organizational Theory and the High School**

Organizational theory refers to the study of how organizations work by examining the structure of work, workflow within and between departments, and organizational design (Daft, 2010). When organizational structures do not fit the work being performed, productivity often suffers. Symptoms of structural deficiency include slow or ineffective decision-making, conflict, poor coordination between departments, and reduced innovation in responding to the needs of stakeholders (Child, 1984). Organizations with these symptoms should analyze the work processes that may be interfering with the fulfillment of the mission. This analysis should include examining the specific tasks being performed, accountability and reporting relationships among workers responsible for carrying out those tasks, and the interaction between departmental units which may have competing goals. To analyze these work processes and how they may contribute to structural deficiencies, we use three factors in organizational theory: core technology, departmental technology, and workflow interdependence.

**Core technology.** The core technology of an organization (technical core) refers to work that is directly related to the primary mission of the organization, while non-core technology refers to work that is not directly related to its primary mission (Daft, 2010). A broad example of this within the high school setting is that the core technology of a high school is teaching while non-core technology could refer to cafeteria or accounting functions. However, as it relates to the sometimes competing roles of general and special education, the relationship of the work performed in each area may vary considerably. First, each function has a different reporting structure, and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) provides considerable levels of structure and demands on special educators that are not experienced by general educators (Colarusso, O’Rourke, & Leontovich, 2013).

Because of the above differences and the fact that students receiving special education services only comprise approximately 13% of the student population (USDOE, 2015), we suggest that an organizational theory framework would consider special education as a non-core technology. The primary focus (i.e., core technology) is on the 87% of students in the general education system, with special education functioning as a separate entity that is not within the technical core. Although both are focused on teaching and student learning, general educators and special educators have different types of work activities that can be evaluated by the varied and complex nature of the tasks performed, referred to as departmental technology.

**Departmental technology.** The departmental technology of an organization refers to the type of work performed in various departments. Charles Perrow (1967) identified two dimensions of departmental activity that are relevant to organizational structure: task variety and work analyzability. Task variety is the extent to which the work is routine while work
analyzability is the extent to which the work can be reduced to standard procedures using objective, standardized processes.

Task variety is somewhat high for general education teachers, but is much higher for special educators. General education teachers draw on common texts and learning assessment instruments. Special educators, however, are responsible for designing instruction and adaptations for students based on individualized needs. They typically work with a wide range of student ability levels, often including marked differences in communication, cognition, academic skills, and emotional-behavioral competencies (Colarusso, O’Rourke, & Leontovich, 2013). As compared to general educators, their work is considerably less consistent and routine, and the expectations and responsibilities may vary widely from student to student and subject to subject.

A high level of work analyzability would suggest the work of a general educator would consist of clearly known steps or established practices which can be used to produce consistent student learning. Obviously, this is not the case because all students are different, although many students will respond to traditional teaching strategies in a similar way. At the same time, however, the communication process for student progress monitoring and reporting does consist of clearly known steps and established practices, giving this part of the job a higher level of work analyzability. These two components combined suggest the work analyzability of a general educator is somewhat mixed between a higher level and a lower level that we designate as a medium level. However, we consider work analyzability of a special educator to be low in comparison to the general educator due to the increased variation in student abilities and more complex communication responsibilities. If the tasks for general educators and special educators are truly different, knowledge of how the different departments perform work through workflow interdependence is necessary to designing an effective organization.

Workflow interdependence. Workflow interdependence is the extent to which departments depend upon other departments to carry out work activities. James Thompson (1967) defined three types of workflow interdependence: pooled, sequential, and reciprocal. In pooled workflow interdependence, work does not flow between departments, and each department works independently. This model of workflow interdependence does not apply to high schools when analyzing the workflow of general and special education.

Sequential workflow interdependence occurs when something produced in one department becomes the input for another department. The workflow interdependence for general education tends to be sequential in nature. From an organizational theory perspective, the K-12 public education system is essentially an assembly line in which a student’s education is built in unique stages at each grade level, creating a one-way flow of educational services. The system depends upon each grade level appropriately preparing students for the next level.

Reciprocal workflow interdependence is the highest level of interdependence between departments because it requires all departments to depend upon other departments for both input and output. The workflow interdependence for special education is reciprocal. Although curriculum standards may imply that students progress sequentially through grade and content levels, the reality of special education is that students with disabilities have wide-ranging
developmental and learning differences across domains such as communication, cognition, academic skills, and emotional-behavioral competencies (Colarusso, O’Rourke, & Leontovich, 2013). The reciprocal workflow interdependence of special education is apparent in the need for an extensive, multi-channeled process required by IDEA (2004) for carrying out individualized educational programming. These requirements result in a complex web of communication and decision-making between and among district-level and school-level administrators, general and special educators, diagnosticians and psychologists, related service providers, and parents.

Because of the differences in technology and workflow for general and special education that are discussed above, organizational theory suggests the most efficient organizational structure for each should be different. The difference between general education and special education is similar to the difference between mass production and flexible manufacturing, such that mass production (general education) refers to producing a product (general education knowledge) with low differentiation while flexible manufacturing (special education) refers to producing a product (special education knowledge) with high differentiation that is constantly changing and complex. As such, the most efficient organizational structure for mass production with sequential workflow is a vertical structure that requires a vertical communication/reporting system, many rules, and centralized decision-making, while the most efficient organizational structure for flexible manufacturing with reciprocal workflow is a horizontal structure that requires horizontal communication, many teams, and decentralized decision-making (Nemetz & Fry, 1988).

Since general education is the core technology in school districts, it is appropriate that the organizational structure in place is efficient for the 87% of students served in general education. However, the vertical and somewhat formalized organizational structure which allows general education to be efficient creates an impedance to efficiency for the 13% of students served in special education, and it may be beneficial to consider alternate organizational structures that might allow both educational functions to foster efficiency. One such structure is the matrix organizational structure.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Recommendations for Rethinking Special Education Workflow

A matrix structure is often used in organizations to help manage complex projects that must be completed within a specified time frame. One benefit of a matrix structure is that it allows an administrator to manage individuals across several functional areas. Researchers have argued that when the organizational environment is unpredictable and complex, internal department silos in organizations can become an obstacle to effectiveness, and a matrix structure may enhance coordination by increasing knowledge sharing and collaboration between departments (Burton, Obel & Hakonsson, 2015; Mabey & Zhao, 2017). As viewed through the lens of organizational theory, special education is situated as non-core technology, has high task variety and low work analyzability, and has reciprocal workflow interdependence. Given these characteristics, a matrix structure may allow school districts to reduce the impact of department silos and encourage individuals across the district to collaborate more effectively.
Proposed matrix structure for a high school

A matrix structure represents one possible design that a school district could use to structure special education case management and workflow. Project managers would be responsible for 15-20 students receiving special education services. Potential project managers could include general education teachers, special education teachers, counselors and psychologists, related service providers, and assistant principals and school-level special education coordinators. The project managers report directly to the high school principal and district-level special education administrator. They would also need the authority to assign and evaluate work for the project team members (i.e., all those involved in a particular student’s special education programming); otherwise, the project manager has no power to carry out the responsibility of the team. The matrix structure would recognize special education services as a non-core technology in the school district by giving authority to project teams to manage the education of students receiving special education services rather than using the traditional site-based authority tasked with managing the core technology of educating general education students. The matrix structure also enhances the ability of the high school and the school district to develop the reciprocal workflow interdependence needed for special education service coordination by requiring all project team members to report to a project manager.

The project manager should evaluate the team based on each team member’s level of participation as part of their full-time work. For example, if the project manager is responsible for managing the education services for ten students taught primarily by one special education teacher, the project manager may evaluate as much as 80-90% of the special education teacher’s performance, with the high school principal evaluating the other 10-20%. If a science teacher is part of a project team for two students taking a biology course, the project manager may evaluate 1-2% of the science teacher’s performance, depending upon the level of participation required by the science teacher. Any related service providers hired by the school district should be evaluated proportionally as well. For example, if an occupational therapist works with 35 students in the school district, the percentage of their performance evaluation by the project manager should be at least 2.5-3% for each student client, adjusted as needed for special circumstances. Even an assistant principal who may be required to implement part of a behavioral plan should have a percentage of their performance evaluated by the project manager. Only by empowering the project manager to assign tasks and evaluate performance will each team member be held accountable for their part.

Parents will be encouraged to utilize one contact (the project manager) for any concerns about the educational process, reducing the need to speak with several different people, and perhaps, reducing miscommunication issues. In fact, including formal peer and parent evaluations of individual matrix team members’ performance along with the project manager’s evaluation score would provide a more well-rounded appraisal of the project team performance since multi-rater systems appear to be an effective method of performance evaluation in matrix organizations (Appelbaum, Nadeau & Cyr, 2008).
Problems with matrix structures

The purpose of the matrix structure is to improve collaboration within an organization, particularly between functional departments and special interest groups defined by the organization. Although matrix structures have been in use for over 40 years, there are some potential problems in the matrix design, most of which are directly related to mismanagement of the matrix itself such as: 1) uncertainty and ambiguity about roles, responsibilities and authority (Davis & Lawrence, 1978; Sy & D’Annunzio, 2005); 2) misaligned goals (Burton, et al., 2015; Sy & D’Annunzio, 2005); and 3) employees and managers focused on functional/department silos at the expense of the overall organization (Burton, et al., 2015; Davis & Lawrence, 1978; Sy & D’Annunzio, 2005).

Matrix managers (superintendents) must be clear in assigning roles, responsibilities, and authority to people. If there is uncertainty, there is a risk of creating an “informal” or “latent” matrix in which the project manager has no explicit or formal agreements about the nature of the project manager’s relationship with the functional managers (Davis & Lawrence, 1978). This situation could easily lead to power struggles and dysfunctional conflict that destroys the collaborative design of the matrix.

Key contingencies must be aligned with the purpose of the matrix (Burton, et al., 2015). The purpose is to increase collaboration across functional departments to deal with unpredictable and complex issues; thus, reward systems must be designed to reward effective collaboration with others. Allowing individual managers to opt-out of knowledge-sharing or attending necessary meetings reduces the effectiveness of the matrix. In fact, Galbraith (2013) states that people who want control or autonomy will not perform well in a matrix, but when people have responsibility in both a matrix and a functional role, they tend to behave better in a matrix setting. This would suggest that matrix managers (superintendents) should fill temporary project manager positions with functional employees/managers to demonstrate that everyone in the organization is expected to share the responsibilities for educating students with disabilities.

A strong overall matrix manager (superintendent) must demonstrate by his or her actions that the overall organization’s goals take precedence over individual or department goals. Some matrix managers may focus more on internal relationships rather than on the student because the matrix structure forces people to be interdependent upon each other (Davis & Lawrence, 1978). Thus, there could be a tendency for school district personnel to unintentionally collaborate against the student’s best interests for the sake of “getting along” in the work environment. Another potential problem would be conflict between the project manager and the functional manager, such that the functional manager (i.e., the principal) acts in a way that is most efficient for the school, but undermines the project manager’s efforts to improve the educational environment for the student.

CONCLUSION

In this article, we argue that the core purpose of a school district is to educate, but the practical reality of combining general education and special education under one vertical,
formalized organizational structure is not the most efficient way to provide an excellent education to all students. If schools truly value the education of all students, even those with learning disabilities, district managers will consider workflow and management structures to address any impediments to the effective delivery of education.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
DIGITAL AFFORDANCES, TRADITIONAL ENABLERS, AND DEFINING THE RURAL ENTREPRENEURIAL ECOSYSTEM

ROBERT LLOYD
Fort Hays State University

EDWARD VENGROUSKIE
Fort Hays State University

ABSTRACT

Rural entrepreneurs have employed traditional marketing strategies to access markets, depended on news media, print literature, and word of mouth to gather information, utilized more traditional telecommunication modes to procure services not offered rurally, and relied on travel to expand their social network. These traditional enablers for rural entrepreneurs can now be circumvented vis-à-vis the digital affordances offered by new technologies. The developing literature on digital entrepreneurship reveals that digitization at the most rudimentary level is connecting entrepreneurial ecosystems and social networks (Autio, Nambisan, Llewellyn, & Wright, 2017). Yet, the theoretical foundations of these connections remains under-researched and the competitive relevance of rural entrepreneurs needs to be re-examined in light of the enabling affordances of digital technologies. The purpose of this paper is to explore the literature on how digital technologies are enabling rural entrepreneurs as their own unique subset of the global entrepreneurial ecosystem.

INTRODUCTION

Recent literature has portrayed digital technologies as disruptive innovation for the field of entrepreneurship and has characterized these technologies as a global equalizer because of low entry barriers and high accessibility as an entrepreneurial platform (Dy, Marlow, & Martin, 2017; Nambisan, Lyytinen, Majchrzak, & Song, 2017). Davidson and Vaast (2010) identified this phenomenon as digital entrepreneurship and defined the construct as “the pursuit of opportunities based on the use of digital media and other information and communication technologies” (p. 2). Digital entrepreneurship has led to an expanded entrepreneurial infrastructure resulting in the democratization of a greater number and more diverse constitution of entrepreneurs worldwide (Aldridge, 2014). Nambisan (2016) even suggests that our entire academic understanding of entrepreneurship needs to be re-thought, re-framed, and reconsidered in light of the transformative nature of digital technologies on entrepreneurship.

Supporting these assumptions is the premise that diffusion of digitization has made entrepreneurial opportunities universally available (Mole & Mole, 2010). Haraway (1989) concluded that the ubiquity of digitization should diminish social marginalization because it conceals the characteristics and identity of disadvantaged groups of entrepreneurs, resulting in a de facto meritocracy. A study conducted by Dy, Marlow, and Martin (2017) refuted this assumption and found that in spite of the disembodiment of entrepreneurs online, social marginalization still occurred. Given the only-recent emergence of digital entrepreneurship
literature, the conclusion that disadvantaged groups now have equal access to opportunities needs to be explored.

Rural entrepreneurs have been characterized as geographically disadvantaged because they physically reside on the “periphery” (Rae, 2017), and this remoteness precludes them access to new-venture capital, professional networking, start-up accelerators, consumer markets, business incubators, and co-working spaces that urban areas offer (Acs & Armington, 2006; Liang, 2014; Yu, Zhou, Wang, & Xi, 2013; Korsgaard, Müller, & Tanvig, 2015). Notwithstanding these significant economic disadvantages, rural populations have higher rates of entrepreneurship per 1,000 residents than metropolitan areas (U.S. BEA, 2017) and rural startups have a five year survival rate that is 10 percent higher than metropolitan startups (Thiede, Greiman, Weiler, Beda, & Conroy, 2017). Digitization has mobilized entrepreneurs within this rural arena as an awakened collection of new competitors by diminishing or eliminating many of the traditional disadvantages bounded by geographic or physical factors. Nambisan (2016) offers that “digitization has led to less predefinition in the locus of entrepreneurial agency as it increasingly involves a broader, more diverse, and often continuously evolving set of actors – a shift from a predefined, focal agent to a dynamic collection of agents with varied goals, motives, and capabilities” (p. 2). We offer that the characteristics and behaviors of rural entrepreneurs as a traditionally marginalized group need better definition and contextualization within this shift from our previously defined understandings of entrepreneurship. Given their entrepreneurial proclivities and uniqueness as a subset of digital actors, the depth of their relevance to both research and practice needs to be understood in the digital milieu.

Rural Ecosystem

Geographically, the United States is eighty percent rural and home to one in four Americans (U.S. Census Bureau, 2016), and is often studied in the context of its own economic and political characteristics (Lewis, 1979). The U.S. Census bureau makes a clear delineation between rural and urban for the purposes of their demographic reporting: population centers with fewer than 50,000 residents are considered rural areas. Autio, et al., (2017) defined an entrepreneurial ecosystem as a “digital economy phenomenon that harnesses technological affordances to facilitate entrepreneurial opportunity pursuit by new ventures through radical business model innovation” (p. 74). For the purposes of this study, we offer a contextualization of rural entrepreneurship within this definition of entrepreneurial ecosystem. Given their size, considerations for their unique characteristics, and access to the digital infrastructure, we argue that rural entrepreneurship would constitute a unique entrepreneurial ecosystem. We term this the “rural ecosystem” and to operationalize its use in our study, we define it as the collection of individuals residing in population centers of 50,000 or fewer residents that leverage technological resources to pursue or operate entrepreneurial enterprises.

Empirical studies have characterized rural communities as disadvantaged in terms of digital accessibility and telecommunications infrastructure, leading some scholars include rural communities in the have-nots of the digital divide (Malecki, 2003; Townsend, Wallace, Fairhurst, & Anderson, 2017; Hodge, Carson, Carson, Newman, & Garrett, 2017). However, to our knowledge, no previous studies have investigated the impact of digitization on rural entrepreneurship. Many questions need to be answered in this regard. How will the rural ecosystem compete in the digital environment? How will rural entrepreneurs utilize and
consume digital resources? *Where* will the rural ecosystem establish its presence in both supplier and consumer markets? Answering these questions is relevant not only to the global community of entrepreneurs who now have to contend with a recently-endowed group of competitors but also to major corporations who are being challenged by competition that is operating in “increasingly porous and fluid boundaries” (Nambisan, 2016, p. 2). For example, Hilton now competes for room occupancy with micro-entrepreneurs offering their home for the weekend, made possible only through digital platforms such as Airbnb or Vacation Rentals by Owner. Start-up entrepreneurs in Silicon Valley and East Coast metropolises are competing with rural entrepreneurs for venture capital. Companies like Live, Give, Save, Inc. (Red Wing, MN population 16,000), Attently, Inc. (Fairbanks, AK population 32,000), and Windcall Manufacturing (Venando, NE, population 139) are vying for public investment on crowdfunding platforms like Kickstarter and Indiegogo. What is clear in this emerging digital economy is that the rural ecosystem is affecting the market in new ways. These phenomena need to be better understood.

Entrepreneurship has been conceptualized as a connection between the endogenous collection of individual entrepreneurs and the series of external networks and forces that influence them (Shane, 2003). As previously noted, the rural community has faced challenges in connecting to the urban economy. Limiting factors include access to markets, information, capital, services, and social networks (Liang, 2014; Yu, et al., 2013; Acs & Armington, 2006; Liang, 2014; Korsgaard, et al., 2015). To be sure, the geographic peripherality of the rural entrepreneurs has inhibited this connection but does not eliminate it. Rural entrepreneurs have employed traditional marketing strategies to access markets, depended on news media, print literature, and word of mouth to gather information, utilized more traditional telecommunication modes to procure services not offered rurally, and relied on travel to expand their social network (Beeton, 2002; Schmid, 2004; Deakins, 2006; Mayer, Habersetzer, & Meili, 2016; Witt, 2004; Muhyiddin & Miskiyah, 2017; Neuwirth, 2012). These traditional enablers to accessibility are costly and require additional time and tacit knowledge to execute (Deakins, 2006). In this way, geographic isolation serves as a permeating barrier to accessibility.

Digital technologies have largely transformed this dynamic by allowing rural entrepreneurs to overcome many of these limitations. We term this *digital circumvention* and define it as the enabling effect of digital technologies on isolated entrepreneurs that allow them to bypass the permeating barrier of physical or geographic limitations. Nambisan (2016) proposes that digital technologies in the entrepreneurial environment are manifested in three particular modalities – digital infrastructure, digital platforms, and digital artifacts. He defined digital infrastructure as “digital technology tools and systems that offer communication, collaboration, and/or computing capabilities to support innovation and entrepreneurship” (p. 4). Within digital infrastructure, he includes examples such as cloud computing, data analytics, online communities, and social media. Digital platforms was defined as “a shared, common set of services and architecture that serves to host complementary offerings” (p. 4). Within digital platforms he includes examples such as Apple’s IOS and Google’s Android platforms that enable users to run software on their smartphones. A digital artifact was defined as “a digital component, application, or media content that is part of a new product (or service) and offers a specific functionality or value to the end-user” (p. 3). Examples include apps on a smartwatch and technology-enabled products such as Amazon’s *Dash* button or the Nike+ *Sensor*. Each of these digital technology modes are allowing rural entrepreneurs to connect to the urban
ecosystem in ways not possible vis-a-vis traditional enablers. Digital technologies diminish the permeating barrier of geographic peripherality. Figure 1 illustrates this relationship.

Figure 1: Traditional enablers and digital technologies connecting rural and urban ecosystems

We have established thus far that rural entrepreneurship constitutes a unique ecosystem, and that digital technologies allow that ecosystem to connect with the urban ecosystem via digital circumvention. In the following section, we elucidate the theoretical framework we use to analyze how the rural ecosystem is using digital technologies to access the urban ecosystem.

As previously mentioned, digitization in the rural entrepreneurial ecosystem needs to be explored. Given the recent nascence of digital entrepreneurship literature, we find that addressing the rural component of digitization particularly relevant and timely. We begin this uncovering of digital entrepreneurship in rural communities by exploring how rural entrepreneurs learn in a digital environment. This locus is the most appropriate starting point because the concomitant outcomes associated with entrepreneurial learning can transform the distal nature of the rural ecosystem into competitive relevance. Across various samples and empirical settings, studies consistently report that learning has a positive influence on entrepreneurial outcomes. These include enhancement of the search and discovery process, progression of competencies to secure venture capital, lower mortality rates, increased operational efficiency, improved financial performance, and avoidance of previous mistakes (Venkataraman, 1997; Harrison & Leitch, 2005; Reynolds & White 1993; Anzai & Simon, 1979; Chandler & Jansen, 1992; Davidsson & Honig 2003; Petkova, 2009). Furthermore, the positive cycle between learning and outcomes has an impact on the self-efficacy of entrepreneurs. Learning leads to positive outcomes, these outcomes lead to self-efficacy, and this self efficacy leads to higher aspirations and future performance improvements (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994).

Corollary to the focus on learning as an antecedent to self-efficacy, research also suggests that entrepreneurial self-efficacy is ensconced in social identity. An empirical study conducted by Brändle, Berger, Golla, and Kuckertz (2018), for example, discovered a link between social
identity and the determinants of self-efficacy such as enactive mastery, role modeling, social persuasion, physical, and emotional state (Bandura, 1986). In short, learning has an incontrovertible social element that impacts self-efficacy. The positive outcomes, self-efficacy, and consequent higher aspirations associated with learning will make the rural ecosystem relevant, and the environment in which they pursue this end draw our attention to the social identity. The link between learning and social context lead us to employ the theory of social cognition (Bandura, 1997; Wood & Bandura, 1989; Bandura, 1986) as the theoretical founding for this study.

To achieve their transition to competitive relevance, the rural ecosystem is utilizing the ubiquitous affordances of digital technologies. Rural entrepreneurs are now afforded the opportunity to utilize digital platforms and digital infrastructure to learn from fellow entrepreneurs, industry experts, technical specialists, and practitioners in their field. For this reason, we find digitization and social cognition theory as especially compatible. In this section, establish the link between digitization and social cognition, and then contextualize the axioms of social cognition in order to establish our research questions.

Social Cognition

Bandura (1986) conceptualized social cognition as the “knowledge structures formed from the styles of thinking and behavior that are modeled from the outcomes of exploratory activities, verbal instruction, and innovative cognitive syntheses of acquired knowledge” (p. 24). Social cognition thus explains the mechanisms by which learning takes place when observing others and repeating their behaviors. Badura’s (1997) foundational work on social cognition emphasizes the role that self-efficacy plays in this interchange inasmuch as successful integration of observed behaviors leads to higher levels of self-perceived confidence. Boyd and Vozikis (1994) posited that this self-efficacy derives from the gradual acquisition of complex cognitive, social, linguistic, and physical abilities obtained through direct experience of imitating others. Within this framework, three primary drivers contribute to self-efficacy - vicarious experience, social experience, and mastery experience (Wood & Badura, 1989). Erickson (2003) appropriately concluded that these components of social cognition not only contribute to entrepreneurial competence, but that a covariance between these variables intensifies entrepreneurial outcomes. That is, the most impactful learning takes place through the combined effect of observing and interacting with others. We focus on these elements of social cognition theory because rural entrepreneurs are afforded observational (vicarious), interactional (social), and practical (mastery) experiences with a collection of actors previously unavailable to them in the boundless environment described by Nambisan (2016).

Wood and Badura (1989) characterize vicarious experience as an observational learning model. This includes observation of peers and role models. Observing role models, for example can lead to high levels of reinforced self-efficacy as the learner makes social comparisons to aspirant behaviors. Boyd and Vozikis (1994) posit that entrepreneurial role models positively impact self-efficacy and this self-efficacy translates into higher levels of entrepreneurial intentions. Erickson (2002) connected this self-efficacy within vicarious experience to entrepreneurial competence which is to say that role models improve self-efficacy which lead to higher levels of actual entrepreneurial capabilities. Kolb, Osland, and Rubin (1995) impart the significance of self-reflection as a moderating variable in this relationship. Throughout each
stage of observational learning, the learner reflects on their own behavior in light of their role model.

Communal influence on entrepreneurs characterizes the second element of social cognition (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Social experience is the interaction with the realm of peers of the entrepreneur. Three fundamental drivers of social experience are imitation of behaviors, persuasion, and encouragement given to the entrepreneur from peers. These elements can lead entrepreneurs to elevate their perceptions of self-abilities and capabilities. Positive encouragement leads to improved efforts towards entrepreneurial goals. Boyd and Vozikis (1994) noted that social experience thus has a direct impact on self-efficacy, leading to higher levels of competence.

Mastery experience has the strongest influence on entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Wood & Bandura, 1989). This is the “doing” component to learning as entrepreneurs gain valuable knowledge about processes and practical understandings of previous mistakes and successes. Lent and Hackett (1987) argue that mastery experience is impactful because they are confirmatory experiences that lead to estimations of future performances. Therefore, mastery experience directly influences self-efficacy. Wood and Bandura (1989) contend that increased self-efficacy leads to increased perseverance in future entrepreneurial challenges. MacGrath (1999) concluded that entrepreneurs with high self-efficacy associate failure with poor effort and entrepreneurs with low self-efficacy associate failure with poor ability. Because perceptions of success and failure are guided by cultural influences, mastery experience constitutes an element of social cognition (Erickson, 2002). Based on this understanding of vicarious, social, and mastery experience, more research needs to be done in this field. More specifically, the question needs to be answered: How do rural entrepreneurs use digital technologies to engage in vicarious, social, and mastery experience? The three elements of social cognition (vicarious, social, and mastery experiences) serve as the theoretical underpinnings for this research focus. Future research should draw upon these pillars, as the research explores their use in the digital context.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
NONMARKET STRATEGIES TO CHANGE INSTITUTIONS AROUND DIGITAL IP RIGHTS: FIRMS’ RESPONSE TO DIGITAL PIRACY

AARON T MCDONALD
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON
1208 UNIVERSITY OF OREGON, EUGENE, OR 97403

INTRODUCTION

Many firms have made intellectual property (IP) the crux of their competitive advantage. As such, it is pertinent for firms to protect their IP from unintended access or use (Arora & Ceccagnoli, 2006; Conti, Gambardella, & Novelli, 2013; Gans, Hsu, & Stern, 2008). To protect their IP, firms engage in a variety of tactics involving patents, trademarks, or copyrights (Conti et al., 2013; Ziedonis, 2004). However, the success of these actions are largely based on the firm operating in a strong institutional context that supports IP rights (Conti et al., 2013; Marquis & Raynard, 2015).

IP rights protection is one manifestation of a strong institutional context. Institutions are “humanly devised constraints that structure political, economic, and social interaction” (North, 1990, p. 97). Strong institutions create formal rights by creating legally defined IP ownership and fair use rules which reduce uncertainty for firms (Arora & Ceccagnoli, 2006; Gans et al., 2008). While firms in different industries engage in formal IP rights at varying levels (Cohen, Nelson, & Walsh, 2000; Levin et al., 1987), the general consensus is that stronger institutions allow for stronger IP protection (Conti et al., 2013). Yet, strong institutions do not always stay strong.

When strong institutions experience an exogenous jolt, such as a technological innovation, the institution can radically weaken (A. D. Meyer, 1982; Micelotta, Lounsbury, & Greenwood, 2017; Romanelli & Tushman, 1994). Firms experiencing this institutional transformation face unique challenges in protecting their IP rights. First, firms strategies based upon the assumption the institution will uphold their IP rights may no longer be valid. Also, firms will face increased transaction costs attempting to monitor and enforce their IP rights (Arora & Ceccagnoli, 2006). The increased transaction costs paired with increased uncertainty motivate firms to transform the institution (North & Thomas, 1970) to better protect their IP rights.

Due to digitization and the commonality of digital piracy, many firms in various industries are now facing uncertainty on how to protect their IP. Firms in industries such as music, movies, television, personal computer software, news, and book publishers have experienced major shifts in their ability to effectively protect and enforce their digital IP rights. As digital piracy is largely committed by individual users, as opposed to other firms, digital IP holders can no longer rely on the same legal enforcement mechanisms in the pre-digitalization era (Guo & Meng, 2014). Further, technical attempts at protecting digital IP, such as digital rights management and versioning, have not been effective at preventing digital piracy (Cho & Ahn, 2010; Vernik, Purohit, & Desai, 2011).

The failures of the legal and technical attempts to prevent digital piracy have left firms with little choice but to pursue institutional change. As expected, a large effort from firms was placed on the public policy realm to create new laws that better protect digital IP rights. The results of these efforts was the Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA) passed in 1998 (Congress, 1998). While the DMCA held the promise to better protect digital IP it has been considered...
ineffective by industry, academics, and policy makers (Council, 2000; Varian, 2005). This has left firms with little choice but to change the institutions around digital IP rights.

How do firms change the institutions around digital IP rights in the wake of ineffective policy? In this conceptual paper, I develop theory on how firms change institutions affecting digital IP rights to combat digital piracy. Specifically, I focus on firms’ use of nonmarket strategies, which have been shown to transform institutions and reduce firm uncertainty (Dorobantu, Kaul, & Zelner, 2017). Building from industry self-regulation (Gupta & Lad, 1983; King & Lenox, 2000), I develop a new concept of cross-industry regulation where firms experiencing increased transaction costs due to digital piracy regulate firms in industries that enable access to illegally shared digital IP.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Nonmarket Strategies use in Institutional Change

Nonmarket strategies are actions firms take to manage their institutional or societal environment in order to improve their performance and are outside the traditional market environment (Baron, 1995; Mellahi, Frynas, Sun, & Siegel, 2016). Firm action in the nonmarket strategy category include corporate political activity (Bonardi, Hillman, & Keim, 2005), corporate social responsibility (Aguilera, Rupp, Williams, & Ganapathi, 2007), industry self-regulation (King & Lenox, 2000), alliances with firms (Lee, Struben, & Bingham, 2018) and nonmarket stakeholders (Hillman & Keim, 2001) (Dorobantu et al., 2017). Nonmarket strategy research has been largely disparate with individual strategies resulting in their own line of research (Dorobantu et al., 2017; Mellahi et al., 2016). However, recent research from Dorobantu, Kaul, and Zelner (2017) has reframed nonmarket strategies in new institutional economics as a means of reducing transaction costs.

New institutional economics views weak institutions as a source of uncertainty for firms (North, 1990). In weak institutions, the rules of the game are less clear. Therefore, firms’ strategic choices are faced with inherently higher level of uncertainty compared to firms’ strategic choices in a stronger institution (North, 1986, 1990). Hence, firms face increased transaction costs when operating in weak institutional environments (Foss, 2003; K. E. Meyer, 2001). Dorobantu et al. (2017) draw on this premise to bring attention to firms use of nonmarket strategies to change institutions and reduce uncertainty and transaction costs.

Firms experiencing severe threats to their digital IP rights are undoubtedly facing higher uncertainty and increased transaction costs. Therefore, it is likely that these firms will use nonmarket strategies to attempt and change the institutions affecting digital IP rights. Given digital IP rights and digital piracy inherently contain a legal element, it is likely that firms will continue to influence public policy to improve legal protections for their digital IP. Hence, corporate political activity, firms efforts to influence policy makers and political institutions in attempt to change policy and regulations and improve their competitive advantage (Bonardi et al., 2005; Hillman, Keim, & Schuler, 2004), is a likely nonmarket strategy firms aiming to improve digital IP rights will take.

Additionally, due to the high transaction costs brought on by digital piracy, firms are likely to pursue multiple nonmarket strategies simultaneously. While firms are likely to pursue CPA as a nonmarket strategy to attempt policy change, public policy is often a slow process and
may not provide an effective solution despite CPA efforts. Therefore, firms may take a more
direct approach to influencing regulation around digital IP rights by engaging in industry self-
regulation. Industry self-regulation is the voluntary actions firms take to govern firms in their
own industry through collective action without mandates from governments often through
implementing new standards (King & Lenox, 2000; King, Lenox, & Terlaak, 2005).

THEORY

The combination of digitization and the internet has created an incredible environmental
jolt. Pre-jolt firms could rely on a combination of government regulations and a legal system that
protected their IP rights. In general, copyrights were protected and major copyright violations
were stopped and legally prosecuted. However, since the jolt, firms with digital IP are in a
completely different situation as digital piracy has upended their IP protection strategies.

Digital piracy has left firms reeling how to protect their digital IP. Technical solutions
that attempt to better protect digital IP from illegal access such as digital copy rights
management and versioning have not proven effective. Similarly, firms’ legal strategies to stop
peer-to-peer file sharing and individuals engaging in digital piracy have ultimately not been
successful. Therefore, firms have been reliant on legal and regulatory institutions to protect their
digital IP. However, these institutions have become ineffective in the digital era and firms can no
longer rely on them for digital IP protection. Thus, it is likely these firms will engage in actions
to change the institutions around digital IP rights.

Cross-Industry Regulation

Firms seeking to change institutions to better protect their digital IP rights are likely to
engage in nonmarket strategies. Specifically, firms will likely start with CPA in order to
persuade policy makers to create new regulations and legal statutes that better protect digital IP.
However, policy makers can be slow to respond to externalities brought on by technological
change and when they do respond their action may not be effective (Moses, 2007, 2013). This
ineffectiveness has been shown in a variety of contexts but most importantly is digital piracy
itself. In the United States, the DMCA passed in 1998 to better protect digital IP rights but has
generally been deemed ineffective (Boyden, 2013). Similarly, analysis on other countries notes
either a lack of policy or the presence of ineffective policies on digital IP rights (Hargreaves,
2011; Varian, 2005). Therefore, firms can no longer expect the policy and legal institutions they
previously relied on to now protect their digital IP.

Similarly, legal actions against digital IP rights have mainly proven to be ineffective
(Groennings, 2005). This is due primarily to the dispersed nature of digital piracy. Digital piracy
is mostly committed by individuals through partial internet anonymity. Therefore, legal action
against individual users is costly and difficult to prove making any large scale digital piracy legal
strategy not feasible.

Therefore, firms facing digital piracy cannot fully rely on policy and legal mechanisms to
enforce their digital IP rights. Instead, firms may turn to their own enforcement mechanisms to
regulate digital piracy. However, industry self-regulation is not an option as digital IP rights
violations are not occurring by the firms who own the digital IP. Instead, digital IP firms may
seek to regulate firms in industries that enable access to digital IP such as online media hosts,
web search engines, and internet service providers. These firms that enable access to digital IP I
dee
enabling firms and their associated industries as enabling industries. I define digital IP
firms regulating firms in enabling industries as cross-industry regulation.

Cross-industry regulation is similar to industry self-regulation as it represents voluntary
actions firms take to govern other firms. However, unlike industry self-regulation, cross-industry
regulation is not imposed on firms within their own industry. Instead, these regulations are
imposed on firms in a different industry. In the case of digital piracy, the firms receiving the
cross-industry regulation are firms that provide access to digital IP content. Therefore, I predict
firms experiencing high transaction costs and uncertainty due to digital piracy will engage in
cross-industry regulation of firms in enabling industries.

Proposition 1: Firms highly affected by digital IP rights violations will engage in cross-industry
regulation of firms in industries that enable digital IP rights violations.

Firms will engage in cross-industry regulation to reduce uncertainty created by digital
piracy. However, cross-industry regulation is likely not a complete solution for digital piracy.
One reason for the supposed ineffectiveness is resistance from firms who receive the cross-
industry regulation. Firms often resist regulatory efforts from government agencies and policy
makers to avoid potential conflicts with their strategic actions (Meznar & Nigh, 1995). Firms
experiencing cross-industry regulation will likely resist as well, especially given the lack of
formal authority and the non-traditional nature of cross-industry regulation.

Enabling firms’ resistance to cross-industry regulation will contribute to digital IP firms
pursuing other forms of nonmarket strategy. As such, firms experiencing digital piracy will
pursue CPA to influence policy strengthening digital IP rights. Even though policy makers often
struggle creating effective policy in response to technological change, firms will still influence
policy makers to enact policy change. Therefore, firms will engage in CPA, even in the presence
of cross-industry regulation, in order to influence improved legal protection and enforcement of
IP rights.

Firms must commit significant resources to participate in CPA (Hillman & Hitt, 1999;
Hillman & Keim, 2001). This resource allocation may result in fewer resources available for
cross-industry regulation. Additionally, a commitment to CPA may signal a belief that policy is a
more effective mechanism to increase digital IP rights protection. Therefore, a commitment to
CPA will attenuate the level a firm participates in cross-industry regulation.

Proposition 2: Firms that engage in higher levels of CPA will engage in cross-industry
regulation less when compared to firms that engage in lower levels of CPA.

CONCLUSION

Digital piracy’s rise has changed the rules of the game for firms in many industries.
Digital IP firms have experienced increased uncertainty and transaction costs brought on by not
being able to protect their digital IP. As such, these firms will act to strengthen institutions
around digital IP rights. This paper expands theory from nonmarket strategy and industry self-
regulation to explore how firms attempt to enact institutional change in this context. In this
process, new theory on cross-industry regulation was created that explains how firms with digital
IP will regulate firms that enable access to their digital IP. This theory provides an initial exploration to an important phenomenon that affects a large part of the digital economy and users of digital services.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION

The Bureau of Labor Statistics identified a distinct change in labor’s employment patterns and career-decision making noting that the average job tenure of labor is declining from 10.1 years to 2.8 years (BLS, 2018). This is a considerable shift in employment patterns. Recent research attributes part of this shift to flatter organizational structures with less opportunity for upward mobility (Drucker-Godard, Fouque, Gollety, and Le Flanchec, 2014). This employment trend of frequent job changes suggests labor is moving toward increased self-directed career decision-making behaviors where low-skilled low-waged labor’s outcomes are uncertain.

Protean and Boundaryless Careers

A hallmark of the protean career pattern is the self-directedness of talent in career decision-making where the individual’s behaviors result in frequent job changes, with increased autonomy and are driven from the individual’s values (Briscoe, Hall, and DeMuth, 2006; and Gunz and Peiperl, 2007). A boundaryless perspective is one where the individual holds a psychological willingness to work across organizational departments, and may pursue employment across organizations and, in some cases, industries (Briscoe, Henagan, Burton, and Murphy, 2012). Therefore, the protean-boundaryless career attitude may be the catalyst for willingness, adaptability, and autonomy toward successful multidirectional job mobility- upward, lateral, downward, or diagonal (Clarke and Patrickson, 2008). However, previous research suggests that low-qualified talent may have difficulty obtaining job mobility when employing a protein-boundaryless career pattern (Clarke and Patrickson, 2008; Loacker and Śliwa, 2016; Rodrigues, Guest, and Budjanovcanin, 2016; and McPherson, 2018), and that individual’s cultural, social, or economic background, as well as attributes, may impact successful job mobility (Loacker & Śliwa, 2016; and Rodrigues, Guest, and Budjanovcanin, 2016). More recently the future of work and the protean-boundaryless career pattern is anticipated to increase the need for flexibility and individuals’ roles in self-managing career trajectories and career development. Also, while younger job seekers are increasingly leaving organizations more frequently, values driving their career decisions are anticipated to reflect employment security versus employment stability and income mobility rather than upward job mobility (Hirschi, 2018).

Previous research primarily focused on job mobility for individuals in the primary job market; however, it is unclear to what extent low-qualified talent is successful in boundary crossing (Rodrigues, Guest, and Budjanovcanin, 2016). Recent research investigating HR professionals’ perceptions found that low-qualified labors’ unsuccessful job mobility was attributed to poor work ethic, mismatched expectations, and poor communication skills; whereas,
SWAM 2019 Proceedings

Successful job mobility was associated with the pursuit of informal and non-formal learning in low education dense industries, and attainment of formal education in high education dense industries (McPherson, 2018).

When describing unsuccessful boundary crossing, previous research suggested lack of success may be attributed to low-qualified talent being unable to perceive the relationship between employers’ desired attributes and individual’s pursuit of needed competencies, and the subsequent impact on applicant selection (Ashford and Taylor, 1990; and Clarke and Patrickson, 2008). In addition, boundary crossing was negatively impacted by accepting lateral job mobility when failing to adequately develop needed skills and holding uninformed expectations about potential career progression (McPherson, 2018). Previous research also suggested that, in particular, low-qualified talent seeking job mobility in career paths not incurring a labor shortage are in danger of ineffective career decision making due to “inaccurate, limited, or irrelevant” information (McPherson, 2018, p. 127). Berntson, Sverke, and Muklund (2006) delineated employability from job mobility. Employability is a perception the applicant or decision-maker holds of the applicant’s ability to gain a job offer within the organization or across organizations. Job mobility is the objective ability to receive the job offer regardless of direction. This is an important distinction when considering decision-makers perceptions of applicant’s employability versus job mobility.

The first stage of this study explored human resources (HR) professionals’ perspectives, as insiders and decision makers, of low-qualified talent’s successful and unsuccessful objective job mobility. This second study seeks to add an insider perspective of low-qualified talent’s decision making from the role of a workforce advocate assisting with obtaining increased perceptions of employability and resulting in job mobility. Therefore, the purpose of this second stage was to explore further the question of why some labor in the secondary labor market was more successful in obtaining increased perceptions of employability versus increased job mobility.

**METHODOLOGY AND METHOD**

This study utilized a qualitative methodology to investigate perceptions of low-qualified labor’ experiences in the secondary labor market. Staffing professionals as workforce advocates were anticipated to have unique perspectives of why individuals were more or less successful in job mobility between organizations and industries. Participants included P1-Medical, P2-Military, and P3-Low-Skill with descriptive pseudonyms reflecting their respective labor market clientele. Because this study seeks to understand the shared perspectives of staffing professionals’ experiences, a phenomenological methodology was utilized. Data were collected through one 60 to 75-minute semi-structured in-person interview. Follow-up emails were conducted when needed. The interviews were audio recorded, transcribed verbatim, and edited for accuracy. Audio recordings were identified with participant numbers, with no data linked to participant names.

**FINDINGS**

Findings suggest staffing professionals’ perspectives are uniquely different from HR professionals’ perspective of labors’ job mobility experiences. Staffing professionals viewed
labor from a perspective of success factors and bridgeable deficits presented in the findings as foundational requirements and bridgeable deficits.

**Foundational Requirements**

Staffing professionals suggested several concepts were identified as being required for successful employability and when absent prevented job mobility. These concepts included adaptability, communication skills, attitude, employer loyalty, soft skills, and work ethic. Adaptability was closely related to increased employability and trainability. P1-Medical described adaptability, “If somebody has similar types of duties, we can bridge the gap. So, they may be able to do the type of work even though they haven’t actually done it.” P2-Military linked increased employability to trainability, “If I need you to do production line work or operate pieces of equipment, you are pretty trainable. If you’ve been in the Army for three, four, five years, you are very trainable, you’re flexible, you’ll do whatever we need you to do.” Communication skills were related to applicant’s increased employability. P2-Military said, “I would say most of them are probably good listeners, they are good communicators certainly, they know how to communicate with different groups.” P2-Military added, “The ones that are successful, they’re willing to listen, they’re willing to learn, their good communicators.” Attitude was strongly related to being collaborative, having a strong work ethic, and ability to learn. P2-Military said, “If you have got a great attitude, I can work wonders with you. Because you probably want to learn. You are willing, you are eager, you are energetic, you are personal, your team members love you.” P3-Low-Skill expanded, “What I have found over the years is what it takes to succeed for any position, but especially for low skilled is four things: education knowledge, talent and/or skill, the ability to learn, and the willingness to work hard. If someone with little talent or skill with little education or knowledge, if they’ve got the ability to learn, which the vast majority of us do, [success] just depends on whether or not they decide they want to apply it, and just the willingness to work hard. Sometimes that’s just as easy as showing up every day and doing the bare minimum. That mobility is pretty easy for them. That mobility stops when they hit that plateau without any sort of higher-level education or talent or skill.” Employer loyalty was related to work ethic, demonstrating competence, and ability to learn. P2-Military said, “People that like their job, and even if they don’t like their job, they are good at their job. They are loyal to the company.” P2-Military elaborated on the link between tenure and competence, “Honestly, you find me someone who’s got a good work history. Who has shown from their work history that they have been able to move up even just a little bit? Whether it’s from a cashier to a line manager or a line supervisor. Even from a cashier to food prep. Show me some progression, no matter how small or how big. Some fairly stable job history. That just shows me that, one they’re going to be here and two they can pick up what we train them on. I will train them on the rest.” Finally, “They [the successful employees] are going to do the best they can for the time that they are there.” Soft skills were related to job mobility after demonstrating competence and in conjunction with leadership skills. P2-Military said, “There is some easy mobility for some entry-level or lower skilled wage workers to get that middle section. But then to jump up from there, that is where some of those other more soft skills, even some hard skills can come into play, that they may not necessarily have, which means they would have to either show that they have those cognitive abilities or take advantage of whatever programs there might be within the organization from a tuition reimbursement perspective or
training opportunities. That is where it starts becoming a little more difficult for that level of employee to move up.” Elaborating, P2-Military continued “If you are going to move up, you are really going to have to have some more of those leadership capabilities. You're going to have to have more of the soft skills.” Work ethic was strongly related to attitude, being collaborative, ability to learn, and demonstrating competence. P2-Military said, “If someone has the ability and willingness to learn, and the capability to be at work every single day, and they just show enthusiasm about their job, and they are engaged, then those are the ones who are the most successful.”

In addition to these foundational requirements for job mobility, job mobility was further enhanced by demonstrating the ability to collaborate with others, critical thinking, and leadership. P2-Military described this group of attributes, “You don't need the ones to get into an argument with you, you need the ones that solve the problems and stand their ground. Good leaders, good listeners, and good communicators.” And, “They're inherently that person that's got the personality that they get it. They are not the ones that want to buck every decision you give them.” Finally, “So, those ones that are successful, they are good leaders inherently where they can diffuse those problems. They're good problem solvers, problem resolution folks. Typically, that's what you need.”

Bridgeable Deficits

Job mobility deficits can be categorized as unbridgeable or bridgeable. Unbridgeable deficits included controllable-potentially-unresolvable deficits such as failing to follow directions, poor motivation, an attitude of entitlement, poor employment background; while uncontrollable- potentially-unresolvable deficits included geographic proximity, situational /family issues with negative impacts, and lacking the ability to learn. Bridgeable deficits were deficits that could be controlled or resolved, while unbridgeable deficits were deficits that were uncontrollable or unresolvable.

Bridgeable deficits, those that were perceived by staffing professionals as controllable-resolvable deficits, included lack of continuing education, lack of skill, and lack of experience. Lack of continuing education was the most frequently identified resolvable deficit. Lack of continuing education was related to truncated career tracks, nontransferable qualifications, lack of understanding, negative perceptions of being able to demonstrate competence, lacking work ethic, and lacking the ability to learn. P1-Medical described the truncated career track stating, “The CMA could move into an office management position, but would need additional education to move into a higher position that is not a CMA.” P2-Military elaborated on nontransferable qualifications, “If a service member gets out and wants to be a radiology technician, federal law probably does not even allow them to test out for the certification until they have been out of the service for three years…You can test as a new student, but cannot necessarily test other than that, even if you have been in the industry for years.” P3-Low-Skill suggested that while employees may take advantage of employer training, they do not understand the need for formal education. He stated, “They mostly rely on whatever they are able to get from their employer. A lot of them have a high school diploma, and we can work with that. However, they will plateau right there, and they will be there forever unless they decide to take some more proactive steps. For the vast majority, I do not think entering a junior college or trade school is on their radar”. Lack of skill was the next most described resolvable deficit. Lack of skill was related to small skill gaps,
employers’ buying points, and networking. P1-Medical described advocating for applicants with small skill gaps, “If I have an employer that has certain requirements and an applicant may be somewhat close to meeting those requirements, I would let them know.” P3 described difficulties with advocating for applicants with larger skill gaps. He said, “A lot of times its people trying to break into the administrative office clerical type field. That is difficult for us because we want to be seen as an avenue for people to be able to expand their skill sets and provide them with some opportunities that they might not otherwise qualify for.” P1-Medical described the bridge networking provides, “If you are almost qualified and you need that stretch assignment, you are not going to get that job through traditional means. You have to go back through the network, through the people, networking, someone to give you that break that you are not going to get through the computer screen.” Lack of experience was also noted but was most typically related to individuals who had continued their education but did not plan for gaining related experience. P3-Low-Skill explained this segment, “The majority are new graduates, and I think it has to do with trying to break in. In a sense that is where staffing agencies play an important role. We can place them on short-term assignments so that they can build up their work history.”

Staffing professionals in this study provided a unique perspective delineating low skilled laborers’ employability from job mobility. This was described as foundational requirements or success factors for increased employability and bridgeable deficits enabling increased employability and job mobility.

**DISCUSSION**

The purpose of this study was to investigate staffing professionals’ perspectives of applicant’s perceived employability and job mobility across organizations and industries. This study was intended to build upon HR professionals’ perspectives delineated in a previous study (McPherson, 2018).

Outcomes from this study were somewhat different yet overlapping with the previous participant group of HR professionals. In this study, staffing professionals identified foundational requirements for increased employability as adaptability, communication skills, attitude, employee loyalty, work ethic, and soft skills. Soft skills were not identified by the HR professional participant group. Adaptability was previously recognized as an attribute that would signal the risk of losing the employee through job mobility to another organization-boundary crossing, rather than a fundamental element of employability as described by the staffing professionals. Previous research identified attitude, work ethic, and communication skills including soft skills as highly desirable by employers (Hood, Robles, and Hopkins, 2014; and Jones, Baldi, Phillips, and Walker, 2017). In addition, prior research found that participating in internal training and task flexibility had no impact on external employability (Sanders and Grip, 2004). Therefore, extending and contrasting with previous research this study found that adaptability was a critical element of foundational perceived employability.

In working across organizations and industries, staffing professionals suggested perceived employability and increased job mobility was substantially enhanced by demonstrating collaboration, critical thinking skills, and leadership. Staffing professionals were unique in their perspective, as they were in a partnership with the client/applicant in helping them locate potential job opportunities. Therefore, this outcome suggests HR professionals may unknowingly prefer these critical elements in low-skilled, low-qualified applicants. Previous research
identified these elements as valued elements for recruiters and Fortune 500 companies (Hood, Robles, and Hopkins, 2014; and Jones, Baldi, Phillips, and Walker, 2017). However, previous research has not yet identified the relationship of these elements to the applicant’s perceived increased employability or their impact on objective job mobility. Further, it is unclear how these attributes are being described and assessed as applied to the low-skilled low-wage labor in the secondary labor market as compared to applicants in the primary labor market. In addition, it is unclear how attributes impact employability and job mobility with the shift toward prioritizing organizational fit when assessing low skilled low-wage labor. This is particularly notable since previous research identified organizational fit as creative, curious, friendly, stable, initiative, personal responsibility, common sense, good judgment, self-aware, and competence (Berkelarr, Scacco, and Bridsell, 2014).

Bridgeable deficits included lack of continuing education and lack of experience or skill. Previous research identified lack of continuing education as a deficit to continued job mobility (De Vos, De Hauw, and Van der Heijden, 2011; and Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman, 2005). Gaining experience or developing additional skills was related to informal and non-formal continuing education and experiential learning. In the previous study, HR professionals noted that risk-taking and motivation were linked to employees’ initiative to pursue informal and non-formal learning opportunities. Previous literature highlighted the concern that low-skilled low-wage labor would have adverse employment outcomes from lack of relevant feedback related to needed skills and experiences (Loacker and Śliwa, 2016; McPherson, 2018; and Rodrigues, Guest, and Budjanovcanin, 2016). Extending current literature, staffing professionals viewed their role as providing low-skilled low-wage labor insight and feedback on skill deficiencies as well as access to career-enhancing opportunities that were not available through other avenues.

Conclusion

This study found that perceptions of HR professionals and staffing professionals were similar; however, staffing professionals were able to add an additional layer of clarity to the job mobility phenomenon. The most attributes described by HR professionals as foundational requirements for employability were identified by staffing professionals as unbridgeable deficits except for continuing education. This means that individuals with unbridgeable deficits are unlikely to be successful in job mobility without continuing their education and completing a certification in a job category incurring a steep labor shortage. In addition, staffing professionals identified soft skills, ability to be collaborative, demonstrating critical thinking skills, and leadership skills as attributes and skills that HR professionals did not identify. Since staffing professionals are aware of what is more likely to make an individual successful across organizations and industries, these are attributes and skills that may signal increased employability and job mobility in the external job market. HR professionals identified continued education, risk-taking to gain experience, and demonstrating adaptability as signals suggesting an employee is more employable and at risk of leaving the organization through increased job mobility opportunities. These are the areas where staffing professionals indicated they were best able to bridge attribute and skill gaps increasing employability as well as the potential success for job mobility.

This study drew on a unique perspective of the job mobility process where participants mediated between large volumes of applicants and hiring managers. While the outcomes may be
transferable to similar situations, the limited number of participants prevents findings from being generalizable.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR
EL LADO OSCURO DE LA EMPRESA FAMILIAR: UNA PERSPECTIVA EXPLORATORIA
OSCAR MONTIEL
Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez
Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, México

RESUMEN:
El documento tiene como objetivo identificar la relación entre los diferentes elementos dentro de lo que se propone ser conocido como el lado oscuro de la empresa familiar, y cuyo proceso puede ser productivo o destructivo. La relación entre Emprendimiento y Empresa Familiar (EF) está bien establecida en la literatura, junto con la relevancia y los resultados positivos de ambas en las economías nacionales, provenientes de diversas corrientes y posiciones de investigación. En el primero algunos académicos, a partir de su "lado brillante", han explorado los resultados negativos que pueden aparecer en el proceso y los efectos que tienen dentro de la empresa y emprendedores, lo que se considera el lado oscuro del Emprendimiento. Pero hacia la EF no ha sido abordado. Partiendo de esta posición, y aunque la investigación en EF ha evaluado los efectos negativos que aparecen en su dinámica, una revisión en la literatura sugiere que hay una falta de conceptualización que agrupe estas diferentes posiciones. Al proponer una revisión y agruparlos bajo un lado oscuro de la EF, una visión novedosa dentro de la literatura, los resultados sugieren que se pueden establecer vínculos futuros con otras corrientes de investigación, como los estudios críticos de la administración orientados a la EF y explorar una multidimensionalidad crítica de la misma.
Palabras clave: empresa familiar, lado oscuro del emprendimiento, estudios críticos de la administración

THE BLACK SIDE IN THE FAMILY BUSINESS: AN EXPLORATORY PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT:
The paper aims to identify the relationship between different elements within what is proposing to be known as the dark side of family businesses (DSFB). The process of a family business can be productive or destructive. The relationship between Entrepreneurship and FB is well established in the literature, along with the relevance and positive outcomes of both on national economies, coming that from diverse research streams and positions. On the former, some scholars, departing from its “bright side”, have explored negative outcomes that can appear in the process and the effects they have within the venture and stakeholders, what it is considered the dark side of entrepreneurship. But has not been approached towards FB. Departing from this position, and while research in FB has evaluated negative effects that appear on its dynamic, a review in the literature suggests that there is a lack of conceptualization that group together these different positions. By proposing review and group them under a dark side of FB, a novel view within FB literature, the results suggest future links can be established to another research streams, like critical management studies oriented towards FB and explore critical multidimensionality of it.
Keywords: Family business, dark side of entrepreneurship, critical management studies
INTRODUCTION

Different positions have been investigated and one of the least explored is the dark side of FB; its destructive outputs and outcomes, so a conceptual model is proposed. An extensive literature review was made through databases and search engines, academic journals, repositories, archives, or other collections. Studies on the black side of entrepreneurship have been approached from different perspectives, almost always as an attribute of a construct and not as a dimension of it. The term “dark side” was coined from the seminal work of Kets de Vries (de Vries, 1985). A dark side that has been imported (or exported?) to other branches, such as creativity (McLaren, 1993; Akinola & Mendes, 2008; Cropley, Cropley, Kaufman & Runco, 2010; Gino & Ariely, 2012), the contribution from the Critical Management Studies on challenge business practice through the uses of cases to reflect and understand the complexities of organizational life (Sauerbronn, Diochon, Mills & Raufflet, 2017), and in innovation, for example, at the individual and group level (Janssen, van de Vliert & West, 2004), the supplier-customer relationship and efforts between them for innovation tasks (Noordhoff, Kyriakopoulos, Moorman, Pauwels & Dellaert, 2011), technological innovation (Ran, 2012), knowledge leaks (Frishammar, Ericsson & Patel, 2015), and recently on innovation as a research stream (Townsend, 2017) and on an effort to propose the dark side of entrepreneurship as a construct (Montiel & Clark, 2018).

Various positions have been put forth (Jones & Spicer, 2009) to address or explain behaviors that, under certain contexts, entrepreneurs (founders), may commit and, without proper control or management, may be detrimental both to the entrepreneurial project (the nascent or established company) and for himself or his interest groups or stakeholders (workers, family or community). FB literature considers two vertices or two sides of the coin. The white or glossy side has been studied by several authors and highlights the wealth of elements required or suggested to achieve FB success or effectiveness; the production of measurable innovation (Baumol, 1990, 2010). It can be inferred that FB like entrepreneurship, contribute to development, job creation, innovation, and knowledge transfer, as well as growth in economies (Casson, 2003).

Entrepreneurship is seen as an indispensable agent nexus in which is based the virtuous circle of the development and management of sustainable innovative territories, generating knowledge (Feldman & Avnimelech, 2011), thus increasing the "entrepreneurial capital" of a region (Audretech & Keilbach, 2004). So, does FB. Given these benefits, and because of the close relationship with entrepreneurship, it might be inferred that FB also has reached almost mythical, a heroic position viewed as a quasi-redeemer of economies (Sorensen, 2008), FB, following (Steyaert, 2007), might be perceived as heroic and creator of value. So, in line with Tedmanson, Verduyn, Essers & Gartner (2012) it might be feasible to propose "a drastic rethinking of the unquestionable idealization of the entrepreneur" (founder) (p.531), since FB can require a large toll on personal lives (in line with Schjoedt, 2013; Ufuk & Ozgen, 2001) and that might have a dysfunctional effects (Wright & Zahra, 2011). Montiel & Clark (2018), making a broad review of the literature on "dark" attributes focused on entrepreneurship, offered the first approach to conceptualize this and explore it as a dimension of it. However, a literature review suggests that it has never been approached by FB and their dynamics. This is the modest exploration and contribution of the present paper.

EFFECTS ON FB ENVIRONMENT

Aldrich & Cliff (2003) argue that traditional families and businesses have been treated as naturally separate institutions, but they are inextricably intertwined.
A. On succession

Handler & Kram, and Boxx (2012) states that FB has difficulties in passing control to the next generation, being this so complex that most family businesses do not survive the transition.

B. Ownership & Control

Aguilera & Vadera (2008) focus on organizational corruption in FB, described as the abuse of authority for personal benefit, drawing on Weber’s three ideal-types of legitimate authority, they examine the types of business misconduct that organizational leaders are likely to engage in, contingent on their legitimate authority, motives, and justifications.

C. Generations (family processes)

Kidwell, Kellermanns & Eddleston (2012) explore the Fredo effect, where a family member’s incompetence, opportunistic behaviors, and/or ethically dubious actions might impede the firm’s success, that could lead to the firm’s demise and negative economic impact on employees, customers, and stakeholders. Parents are faced with a “Samaritan’s dilemma” (Buchanan, 1975) and Altruism (Schulze, Lubatkin & Dino, 2003) that compels parents to care for their children, encourages family members to be considerate of one another, fosters loyalty and commitment to the family and firm, but has a dark side, since it can give both incentive to take actions that can threaten the welfare of the family and firm alike.

D. Governance

Lubatkin, Schulze, Ling, & Dino (2005) states the effects of family on the governance of family firms is theoretically distinct from those of public and private non-family firms. Parental altruism, when combined with private ownership and owner-management, influences the ability of the firm's owner-manager to exercise self-control, which can expose some family firms to conflicts rooted in the agency threats of moral hazard, hold-up, and adverse selection, some are able to minimize these dark side threats. That is why Audretsch, Hülsbeck & Lehmann (2013) suggest monitoring by family members as an efficient device of management control, being a robust indicator of firm performance. Also, Anderson & Reeb (2004), establish that families often seek to minimize the presence of independent directors, while outside shareholders seek that representation.

E. Family and Business Values

Strong family ties may sometimes impede economic development (Bertrand & Schoar, 2006). Hauck, Suess-Reyes, Beck, Prügl & Frank (2016) argue that socioemotional wealth (SEW) is a key concept in family business research. High levels of it might produce inefficiencies that might affect the transmission of the family firm’s Entrepreneurial Orientation into positive performance effects. Aldrich & Cliff (2003) recognize little attention has been paid to the family dynamics effect on entrepreneurial processes, suggesting a family embeddedness perspective, linked to the processes of two fundamental entrepreneurial facts—the emergence of new business opportunities and the exploitation of them by means of the emergence of a new business. So, it is proposed that DSFB might be defined as a process under the entrepreneurial activity carried out by a family through an organized enterprise, or new venture, that has a negative impact on the element for which it has been implemented, and causes a decrease in the personal, organizational or innovation-based value that jeopardizes the viability of the original objective, goal or mission of on both the entrepreneurial project and family.
DIMENSIONS OF THE DSFB: FROM THE ENTREPRENEUR

Since the entrepreneur it is the genesis of FB, Figure 1 it's proposed, displaying the dynamic on the dimensions and elements of the dark side of FB. *From the entrepreneur/founder* dimension is composed of 5 elements: Entrepreneurial personality (Dark triad), Egoism, Greed & hubris, Addiction, Bad behaviors, and Organizational & Entrepreneurship Processes. The second dimension, *From the FB*, is composed also of 5 elements, based on what is suggested by Diéguez-Soto, López-Delgado & Rojo-Ramírez, as the main criteria of FB definitions (2015). Both elements are affected by the context, following Welter & Gardner (2017).

Figure 1. Dimensions and elements of the DSFB

CONCLUSIONS

Findings suggest there are many perspectives remaining for research, starting with clarification and a more precise definition not only of the construct itself, but also of the factors or forces that drive this dark side, both from the founder, the FB itself and the context. Our approach considers a systemic position, where the context plays a significant and decisive role, to begin mapping it. Researchers are encouraged to test the conceptual model further. The paper has implications for the development of public policies. Business incubation entities, federal, state and local entrepreneurship / SME’s programs, educational institutions, entrepreneurial families and its founders can become more aware. This paper fulfills an identified need to propose an initial point to conceptualize the logic behind the dark side of FB so a deeper understanding of it can be obtained for future research.

REFERENCES


OPERATION INTEGRATION: MODELING INNOVATIVE CROSS DISCIPLINARY COLLABORATION

JONNA MYERS
Southwestern Oklahoma State University

AMANDA F. EVERT
Southwestern Oklahoma State University

EXTENDED ABSTRACT

Creativity and innovation are key to the future success of society and are important skills for business students to learn (Wall, 2017; Gregory, 2016; Morales & Toledano, 2013). However, modeling creativity and innovation in a traditional classroom can be a challenge (Kunnari & Ilomaki, 2016). How can we inspire students to think outside the box as they sit in rows huddled around a PowerPoint for 750 minutes a week?

Myers and Evert posit that one possible solution is to knock down the artificial walls around our courses. In this innovative project, marketed as the iBulldogs Task Force, we encourage collaboration across five business classes with the end goal of producing real-world innovations and lasting connections.

The iBulldogs Task Force consists of students enrolled in Intro to Business (I2B), Business Communication (BComm), Principles of Marketing (PoM), and Business Plan Development (BPD) courses. The students were given a shared objective to add real value for real stakeholders by implementing business principles, processes, and procedures in the development of an innovations proposal.

The structure of the iBulldogs Task Force follows this format

1. BComm students (primarily sophomores and juniors) create instructional videos about the different elements of a business proposal (identifying a need, naming a target audience, managing the project, etc.).

2. I2B students (primarily freshmen and sophomores) use the instructional videos to develop project proposals aimed at addressing needs on campus.

3. PoM students (primarily juniors) develop marketing analysis tools based on the project proposals submitted from I2B students.

4. BPD students (seniors) critique the project proposals and marketing plans. Then, feedback is returned to all.

5. I2B Students incorporate feedback into their project proposals, then pitch their revised project proposals to the university’s Vice President for Student Affairs (VPSA) with the understanding that the VPSA will fund and execute project proposals that effectively meet the
needs of students on campus.

In this interactive session, Myers and Evert will describe the process of creating the iBulldogs Task Force and discuss the challenges and outcomes. Additionally, they will show how this cross-curricular activity equips students with 21st century collaboration skills and business competencies. Finally, Myers and Evert will empower attendees to brainstorm the development of innovation initiatives on their campus through a series of hands-on activities designed to promote creativity and innovation.

REFERENCES


CONSEQUENCES AND PREDICTORS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL DETACHMENT: IS PERSONALITY A MODERATOR?

SAMANTHA R. MURRAY, Ph.D.
Wayland Baptist University
College of Business Administration
1900 West 7th, Plainview, Texas 79072
murrays@wbu.edu

M. SUZANNE CLINTON, DBA, SPHR
University of Central Oklahoma

ABSTRACT
Psychological detachment from work includes not thinking of one’s job responsibilities and not engaging in job-related activities after work hours. There are many job stressors that discourage psychological detachment including workload, time pressure, work conflict, spatial boundaries, and technological boundaries. This conceptual study develops relationships between personality, job stressors, and psychological detachment, and introduces personality as a possible moderating variable to psychological detachment.

INTRODUCTION
Although most individuals physically transition between work and home each day, they do not always detach from work responsibilities once the work day has ended. Organizational environments are increasingly operating on an accelerated 24/7 pace with blurred boundaries between work and personal time. In the current economic system, such separation could be an impossible task, but failure to separate from work responsibilities and continuing to be consumed with job-related issues after work hours can have negative consequences (Sonnentag, 2012). For example, empirical evidence supports the fact that the failure to rest and recover from work might have severe negative effects on individual health and well-being (Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002), as well as job performance (Sonnentag, 2012).

Extending his work on rest and recovery, Eden (2001) coined the term psychological detachment from work, which is not thinking of or engaging in one’s job responsibilities after traditional work hours. Recent empirical research has found that an increase in job stressors leads to a decrease in psychological detachment. The literature has defined job stressors as workload, time pressure, work conflict, and blurred spatial and technological boundaries (Meier & Cho, 2018). One possible moderating variable of psychological detachment that has not been studied is personality. It is reasonable to assume that certain personality traits would be more amenable to detach (or not detach) from work-related responsibilities after working hours. Therefore, the purpose of this conceptual research is to review the literature on psychological detachment, consequences and predictors of psychological detachment and to introduce personality as a moderator of psychological detachment.
Psychological Detachment

In a 2007 study, it was noted that over 18% of the American workforce worked more than 40 hours per week (Lee, McCann, & Messenger, 2007). Borrowing from the field of Psychology, the idea of psychological detachment draws attention to the fact that distancing oneself from work can help organizational members be more healthy, happy and productive employees (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005, 2006). Lack of psychological detachment is conceptualized as a cognitive-emotional state (Fritz, Yanelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010) that refers to work-related activities after working hours (Sonnentag, Binnewies, & Mojza, 2008). Psychological detachment allows for necessary resources to be replenished (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Detmerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). The inability to disconnect from work impedes the recovery process that is necessary to be refreshed for next day’s work (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007).

Consequences of Psychological Detachment

Two consequences of psychological detachment are well-being and job performance. Individuals who successfully detach from work during non-working hours often are more satisfied with their lives, have fewer sleeping issues (Fritz, Yankelevich, Zarubin, & Barger, 2010), and are less likely to experience overall exhaustion (Sonnentag, Arbeus, Mahn, & Fritz, 2014) and burnout (Davidson, Eden, Westman, Charash, Hammer, Kluger & Spector, 2010). Additional effects of psychological detachment from work include being less fatigued and more cheerful (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005), and less irritable the next morning (Sonnentag et al., 2008). Psychological detachment has been shown empirically to improve job performance (Sonnentag, 2012). Lack of psychological detachment can be harmful for organizations since employees who do not detach from work during non-working hours come back to work in a physical and affective state that does not allow them to perform as well (Sonnentag, 2012).

Predictors of Psychological Detachment

The positive effects of engaging in Psychological detachment has been well documented. However, it is uncertain which variables support or prevent psychological detachment from work (Sonnentag & Bayer, 2005). Recent research has found that an increase in job stressors (i.e., workload, time pressure, work conflict, and blurred spatial and technological boundaries) leads to a decrease in psychological detachment (Meier & Cho, 2018).

Increased workload influences the ability to detach from work after traditional working hours (Sonnenag & Fritz, 2007; Sonnentag, Kuttler, & Fritz, 2010). Employees often deal with excessive workload by working longer hours (Major, Klein & Ehrhart, 2002) which affects the ability to unwind in the evenings (Meijman, Mulder, Van Dornmolen & Cremer, 1992). Recent research has categorized workload dichotomously, as being either chronic workload or day-specific workload (Sonnentag and Bayer, 2005). Chronic workload defines the increased workload as being a normal occurrence that occurs every day. Day-specific workload refers to the occasional increase in workload that is unusual. Regardless of the type of workload, a higher workload that might require more work at home would, by definition, create a barrier to psychological detachment. Day-specific workload would only hinder detachment on the days
that extra working hours are required. However, chronic workload might lead to habitually
staying engaged with work-related responsibilities after working hours.

Time pressures at work also negatively affect work detachment after working hours
(Sonnentag et al., 2010). Paired together, workload and time pressures create an environment
that might prohibit psychological detachment from work after working hours. With high
workloads and unfinished work at the end of the workday, employees may find detaching from
work-related activities difficult (Smit, 2016).

Workplace conflict is another antecedent of poor psychological detachment (Meier &
Cho, 2018). Previous empirical evidence shows that employees who experienced workplace
conflict or incivility tended to dwell on the experience after working hours (Pearson, Andersson,
& Porath, 2000), which could decrease psychological detachment.

Creating boundaries (spatial or technological) between work and home is necessary for
successful psychological detachment (Sonnentag et al., 2010). By building “mental fences”
(Zerubavel, 1991, p.2), employees can compartmentalize different parts of their lives (Rothbard,
Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). Spatial boundaries are becoming more ambiguous as individuals are
bringing work home each night. Working only at a specific physical location outside of the home
would be considered a strong spatial boundary, whereas working from a home office would be
defined as a weak spatial boundary (Sonnentag et al., 2010). As organizations move toward
virtual offices, spatial boundaries are becoming more blurred, and therefore, work more difficult
to detach from after working hours because individuals are never physically “leaving” work.

Due to advances in communication technology in recent years, employees are assumed to
be available 24/7 (Middleton, 2007). Smart phones and Internet access increase availability,
which often leads to an expectation of immediate responses, which might increase the amount of
time spent working during and after working hours (Towers, Duxbury, Higgins, & Thomas,
2006). Employees who engage in work via technology after hours often have more job worries
and job distractions when they are at home (Chelsey, 2005). Employees demonstrating strong
technological boundaries were less likely to participate in work-related activities outside working
hours by screening out work-related calls and messages (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009).
Employees with weak technological boundaries might find themselves “always on” which can
seriously decrease the likelihood of successful psychological detachment (Park et al., 2011).

Personality

Given that psychological detachment allows for employee recovery (Sonnentag & Fritz,
2007), increases employee well-being being (Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002), as well as job
performance (Sonnentag, 2012), it is important to further study the variables that influence the
ability to successfully detach from work. One moderating variable of psychological detachment
that has not been studied is personality. Personality refers to cognitive and behavioral patterns
that show stability over time and across situations (Cattell, 1965). The Five Factor Model of
Personality (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) has
been accepted in the literature as a comprehensive description of personality (Digman, 1990).
The following sections will introduce each of the Big Five Factors of personality and merge each
trait with the theory on psychological detachment, developing research propositions as to the
influence personality has on job stressors and the ability to detach from work after work hours.
Neuroticism. Neuroticism is associated with instability, stress, and insecurity (Judge, Higgins, Thoreson, & Barrick, 1999). People with neuroticism tend to have depressed moods and suffer from feelings of guilt, anger, and anxiety. They can be particularly sensitive to stress and perceive a situation that would be trivial to others as problematic. Studies revealed that people who react more strongly to negative events are less likely to be able to detach from work (Kuhnel et al., 2009) because such individuals have a more difficult time separating themselves from the events of the day. Because individuals who score high on neuroticism typically react more negatively toward life events, have less confidence and feel more anxious, it follows that they would spend more time worrying about work issues after work hours and would have a more difficult time separating work and personal time. Their lack of detachment would be because they ruminate about the work day after hours as opposed to feeling the need to complete additional work. Therefore, job stressors (i.e., workload, time pressures, work conflict, spatial and technological barriers) will not affect the ability to detach from work for those scoring high in neuroticism. Thus, the higher the neuroticism score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychological detach from work-related issues after working hours because of worry.

Proposition 1a: The higher the neuroticism score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work-related issues after working hours.
Proposition 1b: The higher the neuroticism score, the more likely the employee will worry about work-related issues.

Extraversion. Extraversion is associated with traits such as being sociable, assertive, talkative and active, and has been linked to having positive emotions, having more friends, and taking on leadership roles (Judge et al., 1999). Extroverts are known to exhibit opportunistic traits (Goldberg, 1990) and typically have a need to be assertive. Because extroverts tend to take leadership roles, it is likely that they would stay focused on work-related issues after the work day. Extroverts tend to have a need to be in the center of the action and typically have high job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002), which could be attributed to the social aspect of a work environment. Specifically, those scoring high in extraversion would more than likely find it difficult to separate from work conflict and would struggle with creating both spatial and technological barriers after work hours since these work stressors are more “socially” related. Conversely, introverts would have a need to retreat and replenish drained resources at the end of a day’s work, and therefore would find it easier to detach from work-related issues at home.

Proposition 2a: The higher the extroversion score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work-related issues after working hours.
Proposition 2b: The higher the extroversion score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work conflict issues after working hours.
Proposition 2c: The higher the extroversion score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong spatial barriers.
Proposition 2d: The higher the extroversion score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong technological barriers.

Openness to Experience. A person who scores high on open to experience typically is intelligent, curious and non-conforming (Digman, 1990), is more likely to enjoy new experiences
(Burke, Matthiesen, & Pallesen, 2006). Employees with open to experience could be able to detach from work-related issues after work hours because their minds and attention would be pulled in other places. Conversely, a person who scores low on openness to experience tends to be more comfortable with the status quo. Given the fact that those who score low on openness are predicted to have more focused behavior, it is reasonable to assume that such an individual would have difficulty detaching from daily work. Specifically, people who score low in openness to experience would find it difficult to detach due to work load, time pressure, and have difficulty creating spatial and technological barriers.

Proposition 3a: The lower the openness to experience score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work-related issues after working hours.
Proposition 3b: The lower the openness to experience score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from workload after working hours.
Proposition 3c: The lower the openness to experience score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach due to time pressures after working hours.
Proposition 3d: The lower the openness to experience score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong spatial barriers.
Proposition 3e: The lower the openness to experience score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong technological barriers.

Agreeableness. Traits associated with agreeableness include being likable, courteous, flexible, forgiving, generous, and highly tolerant (Judge et al., 1999). People who score high in agreeableness tend to want to be helpful and successful in teamwork projects (Judge et al., 1999). Such individuals tend to be willing to take on additional work--sometimes more work than can be handled--if it makes others happy. Such an individual would be willing to increase the workload, work under time pressures, and blur the spatial and technological boundaries if his/her contribution would be beneficial to someone else. Additionally, this person might be more willing to work after hours if s/he thought it would avoid conflict at work.

Conversely, a low score in agreeableness is associated with antagonism, impression management and selfishness. Such a person would be attached to the work because of their self-seeking nature, which might project them toward advancement at work, thereby increasing self-esteem (Judge et al., 1999). Those with low scores in agreeableness might also find it difficult to detach from work because of the individual gain that would come from positive impression management. Such an individual would be willing to increase the workload, work under pressure, and blur the spatial and technological boundaries if his contribution would be beneficial to him. Therefore, both high and low scores in agreeableness might result in the inability to detach from work, but for very different reasons. Medium scores in agreeableness might lead to the ability to detach from work since this person neither desires to please others or self.

Proposition 4a: The higher or lower the agreeableness score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work-related issues after working hours.
Proposition 4b: The higher or lower the agreeableness score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from workload issues after working hours.
Proposition 4c: The higher or lower the agreeableness score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach due to time pressures after working hours.
Proposition 4d: The higher or lower the agreeableness score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work conflict issues after working hours.
Proposition 4e: The higher or lower the agreeableness score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong spatial barriers.
Proposition 4f: The higher or lower the agreeableness score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong technological barriers.
Proposition 4g: The more medium the scores in agreeableness, the more likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work.

Conscientiousness. Conscientiousness is linked with being achievement oriented, dependable, and orderly (Judge et al., 1999). Such people are generally rule followers, dependable, focused with respect to work-related tasks (Witt, Burke, Barrick, & Mount, 2002) and are committed to their career (Arora & Rangnekar, 2014). Additionally, conscientiousness is a strong predictor of job performance due (Barrick & Mount, 1991). People who score high on conscientiousness might have a difficult time detaching from job responsibilities after work hours because of their strong sense of responsibility and duty to a given task and outcome. Perhaps time constraints would not be an issue because this type of person tends to be organized and plan for upcoming deadlines. However, technological boundaries would be difficult to construct given the idea that conscientious people seem to always be “on call” in order to complete work assignments due to their character traits of dependability and hardworking.

Proposition 5a: The higher the conscientious score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from work-related issues after working hours.
Proposition 5b: The higher the conscientious score, the less likely the employee will be able to psychologically detach from workload after working hours.
Proposition 5c: The higher the conscientious score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong spatial barriers.
Proposition 5d: The higher the conscientious score, the less likely the employee will be able to create strong technological barriers.

CONCLUSION

Western organizations continue to see a trend in an increase in working hours and experts believe this upward swing will continue (Miller, 2018), which becomes problematic when the opportunities for employees to “escape” the work environment decrease. Psychological detachment refers to not thinking of or engaging in job responsibilities after traditional working hours (Eden, 2001). The literature stream on psychological detachment provides empirical evidence that distancing oneself from work can help organizational members increase individual well-being (Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002) and job performance (Sonnentag, 2012). However, there are significant work stressors that sometimes impede sufficient psychological detachment--workload, time pressures, work conflict, spatial barriers, and technological barriers. One moderator of the degree of psychological detachment that has not been addressed is personality.
The contribution of this conceptual study was to introduce personality as a variable that affects psychological detachment with regard to job stressors.

References Available Upon Request
ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY: IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCHING ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN MONTENEGRO

IFEOLUWA TOBI POPOOLA, PH.D.
Walter F. and Virginia Johnson School of Business
McMurry University
Abilene TX 79697

RAJKO NOVICEVIC, PH.D.
University of Adriatik, Montenegro

STUART E. SCHAFER J.D.
University of Mississippi, Oxford

ABSTRACT
The purpose of this paper is to propose a novel conceptualization of entrepreneurial accountability and to outline its relevant implications for researching entrepreneurship in Montenegro. We also examine the salience of individual stakeholders’ matters to propose a classification of Montenegrin entrepreneurs taking into account their human capital specificity.

INTRODUCTION
Increasing stakeholder pressures have contributed to the need to recognize the importance of accountability that entrepreneurs feel toward their internal and external stakeholders in their quest to create economic and social value (Frink & Klimoski, 2004). Entrepreneurial accountability reflects the entrepreneur’s expectations to be held answerable to the internal and external stakeholders (XXX, 2016). The stakeholder expectations are important for the entrepreneur’s engagement in “creative destruction” (Schumpeter, 1942) that creates and recreates services and products either through personal efforts (Fritsch, Kritikos & Rusakova, 2012), or through acquisition (Hartog, Van Praag, & Van Der Sluis, 2010), or by engaging in intrapreneurship (Parker, 2011; Hellman, 2007). In this process, entrepreneurial accountability is crucial to connecting the entrepreneur’s expectations (Huse, 2005: S65, S74) with those of the stakeholders, and bridging the potential gap between them. This gap may be particularly salient in globalization affected transition economies such as Montenegro.

Globalization of entrepreneurship is sensitive to the context of transition economies (Bruton, Ahlstrom, & Obloj, 2008). In this context, constraints and enablers of entrepreneurship are specific due to specific factors such as local institutional voids, rampant corruption, poorly designed policies, scarce sources of capital and inadequate taxation mechanisms (Smallbone, Welter, & Ateljevic, 2014). These factors are particularly salient in the context of Montenegro, which is one of the most under-researched Balkan countries in the area of entrepreneurship. This is a consequence not only of its small size (population of about 600,000 and GDP of about USD 7 billion) but also of its late transition and a modest record of innovativeness (expenditure in R&D of about .4% of GDP) (Sirec & Mocnik, 2017). Moreover, Montenegro is virtually a virgin market for venture capital (Veselinovic et al., 2011; Simic, 2015; Saric, 2017).
NATURE OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY

The nature of entrepreneurial accountability is multifaceted because accountability “in a broad sense... can be seen as a personal or organizational virtue, and in a narrow sense... as a social mechanism” (Salminen & Lehto, 2012: 148-149). In both cases, entrepreneurial accountability should be characterized by transparency, trustworthiness and controllability of the performance and conduct of the entrepreneurial organization (Koppell 2005). As a social mechanism (Kast & Rosenzweig, 1972), it reflects varying expectations of stakeholders (Frink & Klimoski, 2004), that form a web of accountabilities (Hall, Frink, & Buckley, 2015) that entrepreneurs face (Katz & Kahn, 1966). These webs of accountabilities or “social structures are essentially contrived systems... made of men and are imperfect systems” psychologically anchored together “in the attitudes, perceptions, beliefs, motivations, habits, and expectations of human beings” (Katz & Kahn, 1966: 33).

Entrepreneurial accountability as a web, is an “adhesive that binds social systems together” ensuring that entrepreneurs are held accountable for their actions to their stakeholders. This web is ubiquitous (Frink & Klimoski, 1998), ambiguous (Dubnick, 2005) and chameleon-like (Sinclair, 1995), and therefore it can be interpreted in different ways by different stakeholders (Dubnick, 2014). Those characteristics may influence positive outcomes, such as improved performance and conduct, as well as negative outcomes, such as stereotyping of entrepreneurs (Gordon, Rozelle, and Baxter, 1988) and increased use of impression management by entrepreneurs (Ferris, et al., 2009).

DEVELOPING A CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY

Entrepreneurial accountability can be conceptualized as the evaluation of the entrepreneur’s decisions or actions by internal or external stakeholder audience that has rewards or sanction power (Ferris et al., 2009). These rewards and punishment systems need to be aligned with the desired conduct and performance of the entrepreneurial organization for accountability to be effective (Frink & Klimoski, 1998). As a result, an entrepreneur that feels accountable has a perceived need to be answerable for his or her decisions or actions to stakeholders whose rewards and sanctions are contingent on the accountability assessment (Ammeter, Douglas, Ferris & Goka, 2004).

Entrepreneurial accountability can also be conceptualized in functional terms. Functional conceptualizations of entrepreneurial accountability underscore the importance of the stakeholder assessment of the entrepreneur’s conduct and performance relative to the appropriate criteria used to assess either them (Day & Klein, 1987) and/or the entrepreneur’s response to manage stakeholders’ expectations (Busuioc & Lodge, 2017; Dubnick & Justice, 2014). In functional terms, entrepreneurial accountability is “a form of governance that depends on the dynamic social interactions and mechanisms” (Dubnick, 2002: 7) that involve formal and informal systems of objective and subjective evaluations of the entrepreneur’s performance and behaviors (Frink & Klimoski, 2004). These accountability system mechanisms that contribute to the emergence of felt entrepreneurial accountability reflects the extent to which the entrepreneur feels the need to justify his or her actions to stakeholders. This felt sense of entrepreneurial accountability entails an expectation that the entrepreneur will be required to give account to primary powerful stakeholders possessing legitimacy to give rewards and impose significant sanctions.
The accountability system is designed to influence how the entrepreneur will feel answerable to justify his or her behavior and performance that are subject to the stakeholder’s punishments or rewards (Brees & Martinke, 2015). Specifically, the norms and formal criteria of the accountability system play a vital role in engendering the entrepreneur’s felt accountability and guiding the entrepreneurial organization’s interactions and interdependencies with internal and external stakeholders. Such norms and criteria serve to create stakeholder expectations about when and how activities need to be performed, who is responsible for performing those activities, and what should be done (McGrath & Whitty, 2015).

**ANTECEDENTS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL FELT ACCOUNTABILITY AND RELATED CONCEPTS**

Entrepreneurial felt accountability as a phenomenon has been primarily examined from an individual psychological standpoint of an entrepreneur that is influenced by environmental factors, the social context, external and internal events, objective and subjective factors, and formal and informal mechanisms (Hall et al., 2015). Past studies indicate that “Type A” personality (Yarnold, Mueser, & Lyons, 1988), conscientiousness (Frink & Klimoski, 2004), reputation (Tsui, 1984), and other dimensions of personality (Tetlock, 1992) are important individual antecedents of entrepreneurial felt accountability. However, Bergsteiner (2012) posits that a sense of responsibility is the most important individual antecedent of entrepreneurial felt accountability, and it varies with environmental factors such as the legal environment, industry standards and practices, and professional and certifying organizations. Entrepreneurial felt accountability is associated with, yet distinct from some other concepts describing how the entrepreneur’s is embedded in the social environment (Hall, et al., 2015;). Specifically, Frink & Klimoski (1998) argue that accountability is distinct from social facilitation (Zajonc, 1965), evaluation apprehension (Carver & Scheier, 1981), responsibility (Schlenker Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994), and trust (Ammeter et al., 2004).

**POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE OUTCOMES OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY**

Establishment of an entrepreneurial accountability system is intended to mitigate tensions and conflicts between the entrepreneurial organizational and its stakeholders (Dubnick, Justice, 2014). When an entrepreneurial organization is held accountable, it is characterized by better accuracy of rater ratings (Mero, Guidice, & Brownlee, 2007), motivation of employees (Enzele & Anderson, 1993), increased task performance (Davis & Gardner, 2007), and higher attention levels to stakeholder needs (Fandt, 1991). A major challenge, however, is assessing the right level of entrepreneurial accountability as too little accountability is not effective (Hochwater et al., 2005), and too much accountability may engender rule-bending behaviors of the entrepreneurial organization (Dubinick, 2005). These behaviors are likely to lead to negative outcomes, such as decreased job satisfaction due to stress, in the entrepreneurial organization (Danna & Griffin, 1999).

A typical entrepreneur is commonly stereotyped either as a misfit who prefers to work alone, or as a sycophant who distrusts everyone around him, or as a “control freak” that is striving to control everything in order to receive applause from others that would suppress his or her feelings of emotional or psychological inadequacy (Ket de Vries, 1985). When entrepreneurs exhibit these behaviors, they tend to deny their accountability for personal failures by blaming...
others. The assignment of blame is grounded in the concept of fairness that is engendered by the lack of information that led to their blaming others (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Li, Cropanzano, & Molina, 2015). The fairness view of entrepreneurial actions emphasizing a fair information exchange between the entrepreneur and stakeholders is important in terms of the consequences of entrepreneurial actions. Whether these actions are fair or not affects stakeholders’ welfare (i.e. their state of well-being), ethical standards and norms used to assess the ethics of some actions (i.e. ethical principles), and execution of discretionary acts by the entrepreneur.

ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY SYSTEM

Dubnick (2006) developed a framework of accountability system with four levels of interactions or orders: performative accountability, regulatory accountability, managerial accountability, and embedded accountability. The first order accountability, performative accountability, refers to direct acts of account giving where an action is carried out by the account giver (i.e. the entrepreneur) toward the account receiver (i.e. the stakeholders). The second order accountability, regulatory accountability, involves the use of the marketplace codes and laws to create the context in which performative entrepreneurial accountability occurs, with the appropriate norms followed. Managerial accountability, the third order accountability, involves the use of incentives and sanctions by managers in the entrepreneurial organization to elicit accountable behavior. The fourth order of accountability, embedded accountability, reflects the codes and values of the account giver (the entrepreneur) displaying a sense of professionalism and integrity toward stakeholders.

These four orders of entrepreneurial accountability system are aimed at balancing the perspectives and needs of the entrepreneurial organization’s internal stakeholders (e.g. top management team members, employees, and family members) and the external stakeholders (e.g. suppliers, customers, community (members), venture capitalist, and angel investors) (Vanacker, Collewaert, & Paeleman, 2013). The power balance among these stakeholders depends on the level of their significance (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997) and on the level of information asymmetry among them (Tashman, & Raelin, 2013). Entrepreneurial accountability system can therefore be viewed as a balancing resource adopted by the entrepreneur to signal its commitment to complying with the system and to tap resources from its external stakeholders (Huse, 2005) because of the reduced need of stakeholders to monitor the activities of the entrepreneur Specifically, when the four accountability orders are integrated into a system they signal to stakeholders that the entrepreneur is upheld to the highest standards.

POWER AND TRUST AS SOURCES OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY

Specific external factors may be either restricting (Hambrick and Finkelstein, 1987) or promoting (Vanacker et al., 2013) the entrepreneur’s discretion within the accountability system of his or her organization. Entrepreneurial discretion is a function of not only individual, organizational and environmental factors, but also of the resources provided to the entrepreneurs by external stakeholders (Vanacker et al., 2013). Some powerful external stakeholders (e.g. venture capitalists) may exert influence over the discretion of the entrepreneur’s use of these resources by imposing contingencies within the manner in which they are providing resources. Venture capitalists are particularly crucial for the entrepreneur because they provide critical resources necessary to the entrepreneurial organization to achieve its performance goal, as well
as they closely monitor the organization’s performance (Sapienza Manigart, & Vermeir, 1996). With this power, they can determine the type of accountability system that should be instituted in the entrepreneurial organization.

Besides the power possessed by these stakeholders, mutual trust is a necessary source enabling an accountability system to strengthen the relationship between the entrepreneurial organization and its stakeholders (Robert et al., 2005; Huse, 1996). Mutual trust is crucial because entrepreneurs sometimes do not feel accountable to stakeholders (Ranft, Ferris, & Perryman, 2007). For example, under a low level of mutual trust, opportunistic entrepreneurs tend to disregard the stakeholders’ interests (Barnejee, 2000). In contrast, when trust between the entrepreneur and the stakeholders is high, stakeholders tend to respect the entrepreneur’s desire for independence (Ket de Vries (1985), and are likely to align their expectations with the entrepreneur’s discretionary actions. Therefore, the appropriate accountability system and communication channels should be designed to foster a sense of mutual trust between the entrepreneur and the stakeholders.

**INTENSITY OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY**

Entrepreneurs passionately take risks trying to improve performance of their entrepreneurial organizations are facing various threats due to intense stakeholder pressure (Ranft & O’Neil, 2001). However, the intensity of their risk-focused vision and their passion may inhibit their ability to respond in an accountable manner to environmental changes engendering threats (Ranft, Ferris & Perryman, 2007). In this situation, an important antidote is felt entrepreneurial accountability, which is both an objective state necessary to assess environmental change, and the subjective state necessary to perceive a change in the environment. In this regard, the entrepreneur’s perceptions of control play a significant role in the effectiveness of felt accountability (Breaux, Perrewe, Hall, Frink, & Hochwater, 2008; Ranft et al., 2007).

Entrepreneurs enmeshed in a web of accountability (Frink & Klimoski, 2004) may feel sometimes compelled to respond to multiple stakeholders’ demands simultaneously (Hall et al., 2015). This level of accountability intensity (Hall et al., 2005; 2015) creates role overload (Ranft et al., 2007) for the entrepreneur. The overload potentially engenders subsequent role stress (Ferris et al., 2009) and tension (Ferris & Mitchell, 1987) which further lead to maladaptive behaviors of the entrepreneurial organization (Gangster & Schaubroeck, 1991). The influence of, the intensity level of the entrepreneurial felt accountability on the role overload is however non-linear, and therefore there exists a point when it ceases to be functional. Specifically, “the key point here is that the intensity of accountability can be functional up to a point, but increases in accountability beyond that point lead to decreases in positive outcomes and increases in negative consequences.” (Ranft, et al., 2007: 679).

**ENTREPRENEURIAL ACCOUNTABILITY AND STAKEHOLDER SALIENCE**

Entrepreneurs perceive a varying salience of their individual stakeholders because these stakeholders possess a varying extent of power and legitimacy. Only an appropriate perception of power and legitimacy of various stakeholders facilitates the interaction between the entrepreneurial organization and its stakeholders (Tashman & Raelin, 2011). Stakeholder salience depends upon the extent to which each stakeholder possesses control of resources that are important to the entrepreneur, as well as upon urgencies with which the entrepreneur is
expected to meet each stakeholder’s claims (Mitchell, Agle & Wood, 1997). Some entrepreneurs may however sometimes ignore the stakeholder salience (Tashman & Raelin, 2011). This occurs due to various factors, such as conflicting stakeholder interests (Hills & Jones, 1992), entrepreneur’s bounded rationality (Simon, 1955), and the entrepreneur’s opportunistic intent (Williamson, 1985). Bounded rationality arises when the entrepreneur has limited cultural and institutional knowledge (Tashman & Raelin, 2011), and thus possesses limited cognitive capacity to store, process, and analyze information about stakeholders’ interest (Asher, Mahoney & Mahoney, 2005). When the interests of stakeholders are in conflict, an opportunistic entrepreneur becomes aware of the fact that there is an inadequate accountability system in place to protect the stakeholder’s interests. Only an adequate accountability implemented for an entrepreneurial organization could ensure that the entrepreneur discloses information about the conflicting interest to the stakeholder and attempts to reconcile the various stakeholders’ needs.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCHING ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN MONTENEGRO**

Transition economics have been moving from planning to market systems with the expectation that the growth of entrepreneurship with new wealth and jobs creation would become one of the primary mechanisms of this transition process (Chilosi, 2001). Montenegro is a transition economy undergoing a transformational change that has created some unique opportunities for entrepreneurship (Lekovic, Maric, Djurovic, & Berber, 2013). Although the transition in Montenegro has been slow and characterized by poor development of supporting institutions, different groups of local entrepreneurs (e.g. returning Montenegrin diaspora, the old-system cadres) have been exploring and exploiting many of these new opportunities (Melovic & Mitrovic, 2013).

Our proposed classification of Montenegrin entrepreneurs is shown in Figure 1. This grouping is developed as a function of their human capital specificity (i.e. their level of education and specialized framing) and felt accountability toward their stakeholders. Most of these entrepreneurs are middle aged men focused on engaging in entrepreneurial activities on the side as the core business from which they sometimes at a later stage diversify into specialized manufacturing and agriculture (Karadzic, Drobnjak, & Reyhani, 2015).

Sequential entrepreneurs (Cell 1) switch from one opportunity to another because they feel insecure and are uncertain which entrepreneurial venture is the right one. In Montenegro, they typically explore sequentially multiple low-risk opportunities. Intermediary entrepreneurs (Cell 2) commonly focus on (re)selling products of large firms to individual customers. In other words, Montenegrin intermediary entrepreneurs act as brokers. Hidden entrepreneurs (Cell 3) are commonly employed in large, typically government based firms, while performing their entrepreneurial activity on the side. In a latent manner, they may sometimes compete against their employer. Finally, expert entrepreneurs (Cell 4) are either experts themselves or hire experts possessing some specific knowledge needed for specialized manufacturing or services delivery. In the context of Montenegro, they usually engage in delivering financial and real estate services or in manufacturing for construction industry.

For each classified cell or group of entrepreneurs, researchers should examine factors that could engender their felt accountability in the context of Montenegro. First, it is necessary to assess construct clarity of entrepreneurial accountability in the Montenegrin context. In
particular, its local meaning may be ambiguous and difficult to differentiate from the constructs of responsibility and reporting. Second, researchers should conduct stakeholder analysis to identify and evaluate stakeholders’ salience in the eyes of Montenegrin entrepreneurs, as well as to clarify stakeholder expectations, particularly those related to emerging initiatives for sustainability and social responsibility. In addition, the power of local stakeholders should be assessed and analyzed as it is perceived by local entrepreneurs. Third, key antecedents and outcomes of entrepreneurial accountability in Montenegro should be identified at individual, organizational and contextual levels. Fourth, a particular attention should be paid to the dark side of entrepreneurship in Montenegro to uncover how institutional imperfections that might entice opportunistic or corruptive behavior of Montenegrin entrepreneurs.

CONCLUSION

Entrepreneurs are enmeshed in webs of accountabilities involving their internal and external stakeholders that impact their decisions by holding them accountable for the conduct and performance of their entrepreneurial organization. This study has highlighted how accountable entrepreneurs and powerful stakeholders need to establish and nurture an accountability system as a social mechanism enabling them to collaborate effectively. Specifically, we have developed the concept of entrepreneurial accountability and contextualized it within the transition context of Montenegro. We also identified four groups of Montenegrin entrepreneurs possessing different human capital levels and accountability senses toward their stakeholders for the successful implementation of an effective accountability system.

“REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS”

Figure 1: Classification of Montenegrin Entrepreneurs

Entrepreneur’s Accountability toward Stakeholders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cell 1: Sequential Entrepreneurs</td>
<td>Cell 2: Intermediary Entrepreneurs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell 3: Hidden Entrepreneurs</td>
<td>Cell 4: Expert Entrepreneurs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Low

High
HOW SIGNALS INFLUENCE CITATION PATTERNS

Francee M. Preston
Fogelman College of Business and Economics
University of Memphis
3675 Central Avenue
Memphis, TN 38152

Ronei Leonel, University of Memphis

ABSTRACT

As a preliminary research stage in our dissertations, we searched for popular theories in management academic journals. Our search produced citation pattern results resembling a power law distribution. Using signal detection theory, we assess different attributes of articles to understand the citation pattern. Through a mixed methods approach, we found an author’s name recognition and the abstract structure contribute to the citation pattern. Authors with a highly cited management journal article benefit from the name recognition and receive more citations overall. Abstracts that specify a problem coupled with an explicit purpose for the article receive more citations than abstracts that identify a gap in the literature and focus on the empirical results. Finally, we provide researchers an overview of the theories from the top ten highest cited management academic journal articles.

INTRODUCTION

In Writing for Scholarly Publications, Huff (1999) recommends scholars identify existing conversations and “conversants” (p. 45). Conversations refer to scholarly discussion about a topic. Conversants refer to key researchers discussing a topic. Huff urges researchers to know the conversations and conversants as a preliminary research step.

When searching for existing theories to find existing conversation, we found a power law distribution of management academic journal articles. Those receiving over 1,000 citations represent 4% of all management academic journal articles. Management academic journal articles receiving less than 500 citations represent 89% of all management academic journal articles.

The purpose of our paper is to assess what factors contribute to why published and cited academic journal articles follow a power law distribution. Clauset, Shalizi and Newman (2009) note that power law distributions may help researchers determine if the data indicate a “large, but rare event” (p. 661) and may be “some of the most interesting of all scientific observation” (p. 662). We use signal detection theory (SDT) to assess possible contributing factors. SDT explains decisions during uncertain or unclear circumstances (Wickens, 2002). Researchers have limited resources (i.e. time) to evaluate the usefulness of an academic journal article. Using SDT, this paper assesses whether an author’s name, the journal name or an article’s abstract characteristics provides positive signals to researchers. Positive signals would decrease a researcher’s uncertainty about the usefulness of the article and indicate the researcher should invest additional time to read the article. Additionally, we provide a table that lists each of the highest cited management academic journal articles, lists the theories from each article and offers a brief
overview of the theories and key terms. We provide this for other researchers interested in existing conversations and the key conversants.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Costco offers its members a variety of food samples throughout the grocery section. To reduce member uncertainty about food products, Costco markets to members through a ‘try before you buy.’ For Costco members, this marketing approach reduces uncertainty with no additional investment in time or money. When preforming a literature review, researchers also experience a degree of uncertainty with each new academic journal article. This uncertainty stems from whether the time invested in reading the article will result in the reward of relevant information for the literature review.

To assess how researchers overcome the uncertainty each new journal article presents, we used signal detection theory (SDT) as the theoretical foundation to explore what captures researchers’ attention in academic journal articles.

SDT explains decision making “in uncertain or ambiguous situations” (Wickens, 2002, p. 3). Wickens (2002) outlines several constructs relating to SDT including signal, miss and hit. A signal refers to a stimulus received by an observer. A hit signifies an observer detects a signal while a miss signifies an observer does not detect a signal. For the purposes of this article, we define a hit as a researcher detecting stimuli that indicate the usefulness of an academic journal article prior to investing resources to read the article.

Our assessment relies on four assumptions. First, researchers have limited time to filter useful articles. Second, the similar structure of academic journal articles, regardless of publisher, establishes signals that researchers rely on to filter potentially useful articles. Third, as doctoral students, researchers learn to filter academic journal articles from their professors and advisors. With time limitations, similar structuring of academic journal articles and a learned filtration method, we propose management researchers share specific signals to reduce uncertainty. Finally, we suggest the number of citations and the growth rate of citations indicate researchers overcame initial uncertainty about the academic journal article. Researchers detected certain signals based on the authors, journal and abstract; these signals resulted in the researcher investing time to glean relevant information for their own research and citing the academic journal article.

Based on our assumptions, we identify three items that serve as hits to reduce a researcher’s uncertainty when approaching a new academic journal. First, the authors of the academic journal article. Second, the journal publishing the article. Third, the article’s abstract. Based on SDT, we propose a hit occurs when a researcher detects a signal from these three items. In our study, a hit refers to researchers determining the article merits further time investment to read the article.

Journal Article Signals

Authors. Over time, researchers develop a reputation for producing academic journal articles useful to other researchers. For example, Organ’s research on organizational citizenship behavior or Ferris’ research on workplace ostracism. In these examples, an academic journal article authored by Organ would signal to researchers the article contains useful information about organizational citizenship behavior. We hypothesize an author’s reputation serves as a signal to reduce a researcher’s uncertainty when approaching an academic journal article.
Hypothesis 1: An author’s reputation will reduce researcher uncertainty and will be positively related to an increased number of citations.

Hypothesis 2: An author’s reputation will reduce researcher uncertainty and will be positively related to a positive growth rate of citations.

Results: Our results support our first hypothesis which predicted an author’s reputation is positively related to an increased number of citations. Our results did not support our second hypothesis which predicted an author’s reputation is positively related to a positive growth rate of citations.

Journals. The SCImago Journal & Country Rank website provides researchers a valuation of the prestige of academic journals. The website determines a journal’s prestige based on a weighted calculation that considers the number of citations received by the journal and the number of articles produced by the journal in a given year. Journals with higher impact ratings would signal that other researchers found useful articles in the journal. We propose an inverse relation between a journal’s ranking and a researcher’s degree of uncertainty about the usefulness of the article.

Hypothesis 3: A high journal ranking will reduce researcher uncertainty and will be positively related to the number of citations received by an academic journal article.

Results: Our results do not support Hypothesis 3 which predicted a high journal ranking will be positively related to the number of citations received by an academic journal article. The LIWC software program provides four summarizing variables in standardized form to compare text. A higher value for the analytical variable represents “formal, logical, and hierarchical thinking” (LIWC, p. 23); a lower value represents “more informal, personal, here-- and-- now, and narrative thinking” (LIWC, p. 23). A higher value for the clout variable represents a confident and expert author; a lower value represents a “tentative, humble, even anxious” author (LIWC, p. 24). A higher value for the authentic variable represents “honest, personal, and disclosing text” (LIWC, p. 24); a lower value represents “more guarded, distance” text (LIWC, p. 24). A higher value for the emotional tone variable represents a “positive, upbeat tone” (LIWC, p. 24); a lower value represents a tone with “greater anxiety, sadness, or hostility” (LIWC, p. 24). An emotional tone variable with a value near 50 “suggests either a lack of emotionality or different levels of ambivalence” (LIWC, p. 24).

To assess the existence of different signals in an academic journal article’s abstract, we conjecture a statistically significant difference exists between the four summarizing variables of highest cited academic journal articles and the four summarizing variables of lower cited academic journal articles. For a qualitative analysis, we coded each line of the abstracts using the in vivo method (Saldana, 2016). Our first round of coding resulted in 140 different codes. We assessed each code to create broad categories. Our second round of coding resulted in 11 categories. Figure 3 presents a graph frequency results of the categories by groups (highest cited, positively only growth rate and lowest cited). Table 1 provides each category with a sample quote representative of the coding.

Hypothesis 4: There will be a difference between the four summarizing variable scores of highly cited academic journal articles and lower cited academic journal articles.

Results: To assess Hypothesis 4 quantitatively, we compared the results of the LIWC analysis for Analytic, Clout, Authentic and Tone for the three different groups, highest cited, positive only growth rate and lowest cited. The Kruskal-Wallis test indicated no
significant difference between the highest cited, positive only growth rate and lowest cited groups. The Kruskal-Wallis test results did not support Hypothesis 4. SEE DISCUSSION SECTION FOR RESULTS OF CODING.

**DISCUSSION**

First, we found an author’s name serves as a signal to researchers. As predicted, authors develop reputations for producing useful academic journal articles. For each area of focus within the management discipline, researchers learn which authors produce useful journal articles. To maximize a researcher’s time, the researcher relies on an author’s reputation to signal a hit. Second, predicted a journal’s ranking would serve as a signal to researchers as producing useful academic journal articles. We found no support for journal ranking serving as a hit. Third, we found no support that analytical, clout, authentic or tone as calculated by LIWC’s summarizing variables signals a hit to researchers. Fourth, we found authors who focused on addressing a problem in the literature and clarified the purpose of the article in the abstract received more citations.

To produce interesting papers, Davis recommended researchers challenge a reader’s assumptions. Alvesson and Sandberg (2011) also provide recommendations to researchers on how to craft interesting papers by avoid “gap-spotting” (p. 247). The authors suggest searching for gaps “reinforces rather than challenges already influential theories” (p.247). For authors searching for a topic, the authors recommend “problematization, in the sense of identifying and challenging the assumptions underlying existing theories” (p. 247). Our coding results found the highest cited journal articles indicated in the abstract a problematization process and the lowest cited journal articles indicated in the abstract a gap-spotting process. Our coding results support the assertion of interesting papers resulting from challenging assumptions and problematization rather than gap-spotting. Our results indicate researchers detect an article’s potential for interesting based on the composition of the abstract. Namely, abstracts composed of the problem identified by the author(s) in the article. Our coding results also indicated the importance of clearly expressing the purpose of the article in the abstract. While this may seem obvious, not all abstracts clearly express the purpose of the study. Many of the lower cited journal articles focused on the study and the empirical results in the abstract rather than on the purpose for the empirical studies.

**REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM AUTHORS**
BOARD CHARACTERISTICS AND THE ACQUISITION OF NEWLY PUBLIC FIRMS

CHRISTOPHER R. REUTZEL
College of Business Administration
Sam Houston State University
Huntsville, TX 77340

CARRIE A. BELSITO
Sam Houston State University

Abstract
This study examines the relationship between newly public firm board characteristics and the likelihood that newly public firms will be acquired. Drawing upon signaling and agency theory, this study considers the influence of various board characteristics in addressing the information asymmetry and agency issues faced by potential acquirers of newly public firms. Study results provide moderate support for study hypotheses. First, no support was found for a relationship between the percentage of outside directors and the likelihood of newly public firms being acquired. Second, CEO duality was found to be negatively related to the likelihood of a newly public firms being acquired. Third, opposite the hypothesized effect, study results suggest that the presence of women directors is negatively related to the likelihood that newly public firms are acquired. Finally, study results suggest a weak positive relationship between board size and the likelihood of newly public firms being acquired.

Introduction
Scholarly attention to the acquisition of firms that have completed their initial public offerings (IPOs), sometimes referred to as public dual-tracking, represents a growing area of interest to scholars in finance, management, and entrepreneurship (Brau et al., 2010, Ragozzino and Reuer, 2007b). This attention is due, at least in part, to the relative frequency with which newly public firms (Arend et al., 2014, Garg et al., 2018) are acquired by other firms upon completion of their IPOs (Brau et al., 2003, Pagano et al., 1998) as well as the potential for such acquisitions to create wealth for newly public firm owners (Reuer et al., 2012). While the acquisition of a newly public firm provides founders and shareholders with an opportunity to create financial wealth (Brau et al., 2010), substantial challenges to the realization of such gains exist. For example, the relatively short track records of newly public firms serve to increase uncertainty surrounding their long-term viability (Certo, 2003, Fischer and Pollock, 2004). Difficulties associated with the valuation of newly public firm resources and growth prospects serve to further exacerbate the uncertainty faced by potential acquirers of newly public firms (Cooper et al., 1988, Heeley et al., 2007).

Relatively little is known about what factors lead firms to be acquired after their IPOs. For example, relatively little is known about the role played by boards of directors in shaping the likelihood that newly public firms will be acquired. We find the lack of studies considering the role of boards of directors in shaping the acquisition prospects of newly public firms surprising for at least two reasons. First, boards play a central role in shaping internal agency conditions within the firm. Such agency conditions are suggested by prior research to shape external
stakeholder perceptions of firm legitimacy and long term viability, particularly during the IPO stage of firm development (Certo et al., 2001a). Second, research suggests that board characteristics shape external stakeholder perceptions of IPO firm legitimacy (Certo et al., 2001b, Filatotchev and Bishop, 2002).

The central proposition of this study is that board characteristics convey information regarding the agency conditions within newly public firms, and as such provide insight into how managers are likely to respond to the prospect of being acquired and in doing so shape prospective acquirer perceptions of newly public firm suitability as an acquisition target. Our focus on boards of directors allows us to examine the potential role played by board characteristics in addressing two main problems faced by prospective newly public firm acquirers; acquisition target valuation and acquisition deal execution. Towards this end, we integrate agency theory (Eisenhardt, 1989, Jensen and Meckling, 1976) with signaling theory (Arrow, 1973, Spence, 1981) to highlight the role played by boards of directors in indicating the nature of internal agency conditions to potential acquirers, thereby reducing two potential sources of uncertainty, namely target firm managerial opportunism and adverse selection. As a consequence, this study provides insight into the question of whether boards of directors influence the screening process engaged in by prospective acquirers of newly public firms.

Literature Review

Drawing upon agency theory, finance scholars consider the potential private benefits that owners and managers may extract through the enactment or prevention of post-IPO acquisitions. Studies in this vein argue that the acquisition of newly public firms represents a potential threat to the private wealth of newly public firm managers, whose earnings prospects and job tenures are potentially reduced upon completion of such an acquisition (e.g. Brau et al., 2003, Field and Karpoff, 2002). Viewed in this way, the acquisition of newly public firms is thought to create potential conflicts of interest between newly public firm managers and shareholders, which may lead to managerial opportunism (Brennan and Franks, 1997). While empirical tests of this logic remains limited, some support for this view that internal agency conditions influence the likelihood of newly public firm acquisition can be seen in the research of Field and Karpoff (2002), who found that the presence of anti-takeover defenses in newly public firms reduces the likelihood of such takeovers.

In contrast to the field of Finance’s focus on the role of internal agency conditions shaping post-IPO acquisition outcomes, research within the field of Management has largely focused on the influence of external affiliations and endorsements in shaping the likelihood that a newly public firm will be acquired. These studies emphasize the fact that prospective acquirers of newly public firms are motivated by the potential to gain access to innovative technological resources and/or opportunities for growth (Ragozzino and Reuer, 2007; Reuer and Ragozzino, 2008). Although such opportunities do exist in the market for newly public firm acquisitions (Reuer et al., 2012), the acquisition market for newly public firms is also rife with uncertainty due to the often limited operating histories of newly public firms (Pollock et al., 2002, Stuart et al., 1999). Given the high degree of uncertainty surrounding newly public firms, there exists a high potential for adverse selection on the part of prospective acquirers of newly public firms arising from the high degree of information asymmetry between newly public firms and prospective acquirers (Ragozzino and Reuer, 2011).
These disparities in information create at least two difficulties for prospective acquirers of newly public firms. First, would-be acquirers of newly public firms face difficulty in determining which newly public firms represent viable acquisition targets with respect to the resources that the newly public firms possess (Heeley et al., 2007, Reuer and Ragozzino, 2008). This is due in part to the fact that information about newly public firm human resources, production technologies, brand capital, growth opportunities, and social capital with other firms and customers is often unknown by both buyers and sellers given their relatively short track records (Ragozzino and Reuer, 2011). Second, newly public firm managers and owners have incentives to inflate the value of the firm in order to achieve private gains upon completion of the acquisition (Gilson and Schwartz, 2005). As a consequence, newly public firms often suffer from a liability of market newness when disclosing information about their value, even if they are completely forthcoming and abstain from opportunistic behavior during the deal making process (Certo, 2003, Ravenscraft and Scherer, 1987).

As a consequence of these difficulties, management scholars typically argue that prospective acquirers of newly public firms are exposed to the risks of paying too much for the newly public firms they target for acquisition (Reuer et al., 2012) as well as acquiring newly public firms that do not make strategic sense (Ragozzino and Reuer, 2011). This, in turn, results in prospective acquirers of newly public firms discounting their offer prices, thereby reducing the likelihood that the parties to a potential acquisition transaction agree upon terms of a deal (Ragozzino and Reuer, 2007a, Ragozzino and Reuer, 2007b). In effect, the risks of adverse selection due to the information asymmetries between acquirers and newly public acquisition targets increases the transaction costs associated with post-IPO acquisitions, and in turn, reduces the attractiveness of acquisition targets to potential acquirers (Milgrom and Stokey, 1982, Puranam et al., 2006).

While prior research from the fields of both Finance and Management has enhanced our understanding of the factors which shape the likelihood of newly public firm acquisition, scholars have paid little attention to the role played by boards of directors in newly public firms. We find the paucity of research in linking boards to the acquisition prospects of newly public firms surprising for two reasons. First, research on IPO performance suggests that board characteristics play a key role in shaping external stakeholder perceptions of newly public firms both during (Bruton et al., 2010, Chahine and Filatotchev, 2008, Reutzel and Belsito, 2012) and after IPOs (Chancharat et al., 2012, Kroll et al., 2007). As rather visible indicators of the nature of agency conditions within a given firm, board characteristics have been found to signal firm quality (Certo et al., 2001b, Chahine and Filatotchev, 2008). Second, extant research suggests that the nature of agency conditions within a firm may shape that firm’s acquisition prospects (Boone and Mulherin, 2017, Field and Karpoff, 2002). Given the prominent role boards play in both shaping agency conditions within a firm (Eisenhardt, 1989, Jensen and Meckling, 1976), as well as signaling the nature of agency conditions within newly public firms (Certo et al., 2001b, Filatotchev and Bishop, 2002), an investigation of how newly public firm board characteristics influence the likelihood of being acquired represents a natural extension of extant research. In doing so, this study also heeds calls for greater research on the acquisition patterns of firms undergoing the IPO transition (Certo et al., 2009).

**Signaling Managerial Monitoring To potential Acquirers**
Drawing upon the insights of prior research on boards of directors, IPOs, and acquisition markets, we identify four board characteristics which we argue may influence potential acquirer perceptions of newly public firm agency conditions and attractiveness as an acquisition target. These board characteristics are the ratio of outside to inside directors serving on the board, CEO duality, board size, and female presence on the board. We focus on each of these board characteristics as a result of their potential to provide insight into board ability to monitor firm managers (Campbell and Minguez-Vera, 2008, Certo et al., 2001b, Chahine and Filatotchev, 2008, Dalton et al., 1998, Dalton et al., 1999, Filatotchev and Bishop, 2002, Reutzel and Belsito, 2015).

**Percentage Outside Directors**

Outside directors serving on a firm’s board shape that board’s ability to monitor management (Jensen and Meckling, 1976, Walsh and Seward, 1990). Consistent with this view, research suggests that the percentage of outside directors serving on a given board represents an indicator of board ability to monitor management to external stakeholders. For example, research suggests that the percentage of outside directors increases the capital received by IPO firms (Chahine and Filatotchev, 2008, Sanders and Boivie, 2004). Studies in this vein argue that the percentage of outside directors serves as a proxy for the quality of managerial monitoring conducted by the boards. Extending this logic to the market for post-IPO acquisitions suggests that the percentage of outside directors serving on a given firm’s board may convey information regarding the quality of managerial monitoring taking place within a newly public firm to prospective acquirers. Such an indicator of effective managerial monitoring may reduce prospective acquirer concerns regarding target firm managerial opportunism which give rise to the adverse selection problem that prospective acquirers face. As such, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 1: The percentage of outside directors serving on a newly public firm’s board is positively related to the likelihood that a newly public firm will be acquired.*

Research also suggests that CEO duality, instances in which one individual holds both the CEO and chairperson of the board titles, weakens managerial monitoring by the board of directors (Krause et al., 2014). Studies suggest that CEO duality provides managers with influence over the board’s attention and ability to monitor managers, resulting in lower levels of managerial monitoring behaviors engaged in by boards (Tuggle et al., 2010). Consistent with this view, research also finds that CEO duality signals a lack of managerial monitoring to external stakeholders. For example research suggests that investors react negatively to the combination of the CEO and board chair titles (Dahya et al., 1996, Worrell et al., 1997). Extending this logic to post-IPO acquisition markets suggests that CEO duality may convey a lack of managerial monitoring to prospective acquirers of newly public firms. Such a signal of managerial monitoring issues may increase prospective acquirer concerns regarding target firm managerial opportunism and adverse selection. As such, we hypothesize the following:

*Hypothesis 2: CEO duality is negatively related to the likelihood that a newly public firm will be acquired.*

**Women on the Board**

Research also suggests that women serving as directors may increase the quality of managerial monitoring conducted by boards of directors. Support for this view can be found in
research which suggests that gender diversity increases the amount of effort that boards allocate to monitoring management (Adams and Ferreira, 2009). Further support for this notion can be found in research suggesting that the presence of women directors in the boardroom reduces the likelihood of rubber-stamping managerial decision making by boards of directors (Huse and Solberg, 2006). Additional support for the notion that women on the board enhance the ability of boards to monitor managers is provided by research suggesting that boards with women directors exhibit greater degrees of strategic control, more collaboration within the board room, and engage in greater amounts of development activities than those without women directors (Nielsen and Huse, 2010). Finally, research suggests that boards with at least one women serving as a director exhibit a lower likelihood of restating their financial statements than those without women directors (Abbott et al., 2012). Research also suggests that the presence of women on the board provides insights to external stakeholder regarding the quality of managerial monitoring taking place within a given firm. For example, the popular press in the U.S. increasingly calls for greater gender diversity in the boardroom (Hillman et al. 2007). Research also suggests that investors react positively to the appointment of women directors (Kang et al., 2010) and that investor reactions to women directors in IPO firms are increasingly positive over time (Reutzel and Belsito, 2015). Drawing upon these findings, we suggest that the presence or absence of women on the board may be interpreted as an indicator of managerial monitoring quality by prospective acquirers of newly public firms. As a consequence, we hypothesize the following:

**Hypothesis 3:** The presence of women directors serving on a newly public firm’s board is positively related to the likelihood that a newly public firm will be acquired.

**Board Size**

Board size may also shape the quality of managerial monitoring conducted by boards of directors. Research on this topic often argues that larger boards possess greater capability to monitor firm managers (Alexander et al., 1993), particularly when managerial monitoring is taking place within small and medium sized enterprises, such as those undertaking their IPOs (Dalton et al., 1999). While research does suggest that excessively large boards can result in director free-riding issues (Pearce and Zahra, 1992, Raheja, 2005), newly public firm boards generally do not approach such extremes given their relative youth and small size (Certo et al., 2001b, Daily and Dalton, 1993). The effect of board size on managerial monitoring in such firms is thought to arise from the fact that as boards increase in size they typically add outside directors, who possess greater motivation and ability to monitor managers (Shleifer and Vishny, 1997, Walsh and Seward, 1990). Drawing upon this logic, research argues that board size may serve as an indicator of managerial monitoring quality to post-IPO external stakeholders. Support for this notion can be found in research by Certo and colleagues (2001b) which finds that board size is negatively related to IPO underpricing. Extending this logic to the market for post-IPO acquisitions suggests that board size may serve as a signal of board monitoring quality to prospective acquirers of newly public firms. As such, board size may reduce prospective acquirer’s concerns regarding target firm managerial opportunism and adverse selection. As a result, we hypothesize the following:

**Hypothesis 4:** Board size is positively related to the likelihood that a newly public firm will be acquired.
Methods

We tested our hypotheses on a sample of U.S. firms that made initial public offerings during the calendar year of 2007. Consistent with prior research examining post-IPO firm level outcomes (Aruğaslan et al., 2004, Cyr et al., 2000, Field and Karpoff, 2002), and due to the cross-sectional and dichotomous nature of our dependent variable (Long and Freese, 2003), we utilized logistic regression to test the hypotheses developed in this study. The absence of multicollinearity represents a key assumption of logistic regression. In order to ensure that sample data met this assumption, we examined the variance inflation factors (VIFs) for study variables independently and jointly. All VIFs were within acceptable ranges (Cohen et al., 2003), suggesting that multicollinearity assumptions were met for our sample data.

Study results provide no support for Hypothesis 1 regarding the influence of the percentage of the board occupied by outside directors on the likelihood of newly public firms being acquired. Study results were supportive of Hypothesis 2 regarding the negative influence (p<.05) of CEO duality on the likelihood of a newly public firm being acquired. Hypothesis 3, which suggested a positive relationship between the number of women on the board of directors and the likelihood of newly public firm acquisition, was not supported. In contrast to Hypothesis 3 study results suggest a negative and statistically significant (p<.05) relationship between the coefficient for the number of women directors on the board and the likelihood of a newly public firm being acquired. Finally, study results provided weak support (p<.1) for Hypothesis 4 regarding the influence of the number of directors serving on a newly public firm’s board and the likelihood it will be acquired.

Discussion

This study highlights the role played by the board of directors in ameliorating potential acquirer concerns regarding agency conditions within newly public acquisition targets. Prior research has largely focused on the role of external endorsements in addressing the adverse selection problem faced by prospective acquirers of newly public firms. This study represents the first to focus primarily on the characteristics of newly public firm boards in shaping their prospects in acquisition markets. This study examines the influence of board characteristics on the likelihood that newly public firms are acquired. In doing so, this study also heeds calls for greater research on the acquisition of firms undergoing the IPO transition (Certo et al., 2009) filling an empirical gap in extant research on the acquisitions of newly public firms and providing insight into how newly public firms should staff their boards of directors if their desire is to be acquired. The results of this study provide insights into the question of whether board characteristics of newly public firms influence the screening process engaged in by prospective acquirers of newly public firms. In this study, we integrate the logic from both signaling and agency theories to highlight the signaling role played by boards of directors in newly public firms. In doing so, this study demonstrates the benefits of integrating multiple theoretical perspectives to examine the acquisition of newly public firms.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR(S)
THE USE OF FOURTH PARTY REFERENCES IN THE SELECTION PROCESS

KATHERINE J. ROBERTO
Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi
6300 Ocean Drive
Corpus Christi, TX 78412

ANDREW F. JOHNSON
Texas A&M University – Corpus Christi

ABSTRACT

Information from various sources is used by managers to access job applicants throughout the selection process. Among the most common means is through a recommendation or reference. Seeking to better explain the phenomena of managers seeking information outside of the formal hiring process, the concept of fourth party references is introduced. Passive and active sources for fourth party references may be used in the selection process, each with potential different ramifications. The study examined logistical use of references both given by the applicant and fourth party, as well as the value placed upon each. About half of the sample indicated they had used a fourth party reference, and that they value the information from that reference more than the information received from references given by applicants. Further, there were differences in ethical concerns with using fourth party references based on demographic characteristics. Specific results and implications are further discussed.

INTRODUCTION

References are a staple of the selection process that are typically collected during the early stages to provide valuable information about potential employees (Furnham, 2017). As there may be inherent issues with the validity of information obtained from references, the need to seek more valid and honest information may lead employers to find references beyond those provided during the application process. In this manuscript, we define fourth party references and expand on the legal ramifications related to this source of information in selection decisions.

Background Checks and References

Background checks are an integral part of the selection process (Levashina & Campion, 2009). Well over 90% of U.S. employers include this method in the hiring process, and at least some information obtained from background checks is applicable to almost every job (Furnham, 2017). Background checks are broadly defined to encompass both objective measures (e.g., information on criminal, credit, and educational backgrounds) and subjective measures (e.g., references). Reference checks are a common type of background check, as they provide valuable insight about the applicant’s work habits and character. Failure to perform adequate background checks could leave the employer liable for negligent hiring. This is when an employee commits a
crime or harms a coworker, customer, or third-party person during the course of their job, and had the employer engaged in due diligence during the background checks – would have been alerted to the potential problem beforehand (Levashina & Campion, 2009).

The types of reference check(s) used will vary among organizations as well as individual hiring managers. References may be used at varying points in the hiring process including the final stages prior to a job offer. References can provide professional or personal information about the applicant often based on years’ worth of interactions. They may provide information on past employment/academic performance, confirm details in the applicant’s résumé or application, or offer additional information not readily obtainable at other stages in the selection process (Aamodt et al., 1998).

Corporations are expected to perform background checks as part of the selection process in order to avoid negligent hiring (Levashina & Campion, 2009). In order to understand the use and value of references by those who conduct them, the study looks to examine several general research questions. First, what is the practical experience of using references: when in the selection process do managers contact references? How often do they actually contract references given, and is it a company requirement? Second, what value do these managers actually place on the information given to them?

Fourth Party References

If a hiring manager questions the value of applicant-supplied references, they may look to other sources for information. Four relationships may be formed during the hiring process for exchanging information. The first and second degrees of the selection relationship exist between the employer and the applicant: this is the relationship between the applicant and the hiring manager. A third-party (e.g., staffing agency or references) may be utilized to provide another assessment or collection of information (Reicher, 2013). This is the second relationship between the hiring manager, the applicant, and the provided third-party reference.

Hiring managers may be innately aware of the shortfalls of information provided by the applicant and his or her selected references. Managers may look to their own network, social networking sites, friends, or others with whom they may share a connection to the applicant. In doing so, the manager may seek out references that are not provided by the job applicant as part of the formal job search. Fourth party references are defined as an individual identified by the employer as a potential source of information about an applicant by someone other than the applicant and without their direct prior consent or knowledge. These sources fall outside of the traditional relationships formed during the hiring process, and are idiosyncratic for each case.

In addition to the need for more information in the decision making process, managers may have a number of other factors that influence their use of fourth party references including a desire to lessen turnover costs that stem from a poor selection decision. A manager may be expected to work with the new hire on a close or daily basis and accordingly does not want someone who is not a good employee or has traits undesirable to the manager.

Managers may engage in active or passive fourth party references. Passive sources may include social networking sites, databases (e.g., customer lists), or search engines (Reicher, 2013). Research has shown a third relationship exists between the hiring manager and passive fourth party references to be a method for screening applications (Elzweig & Peeples, 2009).
While this relationship is not part of the formal selection process, applicants should be aware that hiring managers look to sources in the public domain for information to assist in hiring decisions.

Active fourth party sources may include outside parties that may have knowledge about the applicant but have not been formally included in the process by consent of the applicant. Employers may seek out network ties who may have knowledge of the applicant in this final relationship. Passive sources may work to inform employers of active sources. For instance, a search of an applicant’s social network site might reveal that a mutual connection exists between the employer and the applicant. Thus information gained from the passive connection might be followed up by contacting an active connection (e.g., social networking message, phone call).

Both passive and active sources may reveal information that the applicant does not want disclosed. The use of active sources may be particularly troubling. Hiring managers inquiring about an applicant with active sources could inadvertently alert others whom the applicant wishes their job search to be kept from (e.g., current boss, co-workers). Further, the relationship between the hiring manager and an active fourth party that may impact the hiring decision and is usually hidden from the applicant (though the applicant is a passive party to the relationship).

Fourth party reference reaches beyond the established relationships within the selection process and information included in the process by the applicant (e.g., the applicant-supplied list of references). As the employer may obtain information from the second (applicant), third (formal peripheral), and fourth (informal peripheral) parties, the employer must determine the value of the information to the selection decision. Obtaining information from the fourth party is tangential to the formal selection process and if the information obtained leads to adverse consequences for the applicant, a host of ethical and legal considerations may apply. As such, the authors propose several research questions. First, as with references given by the applicant – what is the practical experience of using fourth party references: do managers use fourth party references, and if so how often? Who will managers seek as a fourth party reference? How will they reach out to those references? When will they seek out the information from the fourth party references? As before, what is the value placed on the information gained from a fourth party reference? Is it more valuable than information given by a provided reference?

DISCUSSION

While many of the results were in line with expectations, some were a bit surprising, as well as concerning. The first set of questions asked about formal references given by applicants. Unsurprisingly, the results showed that almost all participants will contact most of the references given by an applicant – usually later in the selection process – and that they value the information received from those references.

Many participants were quick to point out they only used them rarely, over half said they had used them. More so, they intentionally sought the person out to specifically ask about an applicant. Participants placed a greater value on the information received from these references than the value of information received from references given by the applicant. Nearly all participants indicated that the information received from those fourth party references would affect their decision to continue with the particular applicant in the selection process.

There is a host of practitioner research that gives advice on how to “properly” conduct a fourth party reference. Once camp tells what steps to take – how to best utilize social media for this purpose – and how to avoid potential legal issues – never contact current employers unless
given permission by the applicant, getting blanket permission from applicants to contact anyone the practitioner sees fit (Slezak, 2016; Boice, 2018; Reddy, 2018). The other camp reminds practitioners what things to remember to avoid biases, such as not taking the fourth party reference’s word as “gospel”, recognizing what relationship the two people have, and whether the information is relevant or outdated. (Slezak, 2015; Weiss, 2016; Huntington, 2018).

Even utilizing these “proper guidelines”, what is the most concerning about the study’s findings, is that participants were likely to seek out the fourth party references earlier in the process than references given by the applicant. This means that if the coveted information is negative it could impact the applicant’s progression without the applicant knowing why and/or getting to explain oneself against the accusations of the fourth party reference. If a manager received a negative review from a fourth party reference after reviewing the applicant’s résumé, the applicant may never be given the opportunity to explain a situation, relationship, or provide missing/incomplete information that could favor the applicant. While practitioners are warned of potential biases to look out for, they may not necessarily recognize them when present.

In regards to ethical concerns from both the applicant and organization’s perspective, the largest number of people indicated they were unsure if there were ethical concerns with utilizing a fourth party reference. While laws do not directly forbid the use of fourth party references, applicants may perceive the process as unfair if they have knowledge that a fourth party reference was used. Several procedural justice violations could be evident – lack of honesty, lack of consistency, invasion of privacy, and potential lack of job related information that is exchanged (Gilliland, 1993). When outsiders develop a negative perception of organizational justice, they are less likely to be satisfied with the firm, engage with the firm, and spread more negative information by word of mouth (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2003). Practically speaking, if applicants’ perceive a company that engages in fourth party references as unfair, they may be less inclined to accept an offer from the company or warn others not to apply, which could reduce the number of highly quality applicants the firm receives.

In considering the organization’s perspective, more than one quarter of participants felt there were no issues. Potential issues could arise based on each state’s definition of qualified privilege. While former employers are covered under qualified privilege, others may not be. While the majority of participants said they would most likely use one of their current employees or former coworkers to get information on the applicant – there is not a guarantee that the reference was an employer. They may have worked in the same group/department, or the reference may have just generally worked for the company at the same time or knew them in a non-professional manner. The latter could raise legal concerns if the applicant finds out a decision was made based on malicious or false statements.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
THE FEDERAL SENTENCING GUIDELINES FOR ORGANIZATIONS (FSGO) AND PROACTIVE SMALL BUSINESS ETHICS PROGRAMS

LAWRENCE S. RUDDELL
School of Business
Belhaven University – Houston Campus
Houston, TX  77084

ABSTRACT

The United States Sentencing Commission, Guidelines Manual (FSGO, 2018) has been seen as a standard for establishing elements (seven) that limit judicial risk. This paper examines the FSGO and explores how four of its elements can be applied in small businesses and its ramifications for reduction of criminal loss.

THE FSGO – BACKGROUND

Bressler and Bressler (2006) point out a key starting point for the bare minimum for business ethics which is "doing good" for the purpose of risk management (reducing potential of monies lost because of ethical problems) but the FSGO update of 2001 suggests that we must go further. According to the FSGO, this bare minimum was not effective in curbing gross ethics abuse that was found in the 1990s.

The Federal Sentencing Guidelines for Organizations (FSGO) was born out of problems in the 1980s where companies were not punished due to crimes. Also, individuals were able to hide behind corporate status so punishment was lessened. The FSGO gave guidelines for punishment of companies based on size and culpability. But with the punishment came some opportunity. If a company could show that they were making a good faith effort to reduce criminal activity within their organization through programs, the company would be less liable should an investigation be needed. This was implemented through a FSGO Culpability Score (starting with 5) which determined the amount of the fine and other sanctions leveled on the organization that broke the law. The culpability (or specifically the culpability score) could be reduced by showing that the company had been trying to do the right thing. For example, if an organization had over 5000 employees and if the offense occurred despite an effective program to prevent and detect violations of law, then 3 points were subtracted from the 5-point total, thus reducing the punishment issued.

THE FSGO – 2001 UPDATE

In 2001, there was a meeting to evaluate the 10-year effectiveness of the guidelines and to consider improving the guidelines. In that meeting, several changes were recommended; the biggest being to change the emphasis from companies only avoiding liability to having a proactive business ethics program. Specifically, it was suggested that companies move beyond just a compliance program to a compliance and ethics program; which entailed not only avoiding criminal liability but also keeping all laws; as well as self-reporting (FSGO, 2018: 509). Specific guidelines where distributed as to what constituted an effective ethics program which have
become important to large businesses. The spirit of these additional guidelines should be interpreted as an effort to encourage companies to do the right thing rather than just as a way to establish a loophole for getting around an ethical problem. The seven guidelines (established in 2004) for ethics initiatives include (paraphrased):

1. Establish standards and procedures to detect and prevent criminal conduct.
2. The organization's governing authority shall know about the ethics program and provide oversight for implementation and effectiveness of program. Key leaders shall also have responsibility and they shall identify specific key leader(s) who are responsible to make sure people follow standards and procedures.
3. Make sure that the company is aware of and monitors organizational members who have a background of carrying out illegal activities and not put them in situations of authority.
4. Communicate standards and procedures to all employees (including key leaders and, when needed, the governing board) and others associated with the organization through training, publications and other means.
5. Set up a way to identify criminal conduct and give members of the organization a way to report criminal conduct without fear of retribution and otherwise evaluate the effectiveness of the program.
6. Carry out discipline against those who commit an offense and those who do not report the offense and provide appropriate incentives to perform in accordance with the compliance and ethics program.
7. Respond appropriately to problems that do occur and learn from problems that do occur and make changes to that the problems do not happen again. (FSGO, 2018: 517-519)

The FSGO (2018: 309) went on to specify that the precise application of the above principles depended on other factors including the type of business (dangerous businesses like handling toxic substances require more detail) and the prior history of the organization (previous problems should be addressed in present practices). A third factor is the size of the organization. Specifically, the larger the organization, the more formal the program needs to be.

**FSGO AND SMALL BUSINESS ETHICS**

One of the FSGO (2018) initiatives called for integration of FSGO provisions into small organizations. It stated that "As appropriate, a large organization should encourage small organizations (especially those that have, or seek to have, a business relationship with the large organization) to implement effective compliance and ethics programs." (520) The idea is that if a large company is doing business with a smaller company (i.e. as a sub-contractor), that the larger company should encourage and insist upon an ethics program in the smaller company. The FSGO (2018) continues:

Small Organizations. —In meeting the requirements of this guideline, small organizations shall demonstrate the same degree of commitment to ethical conduct and compliance with the law as large organizations. However, a small organization may meet the requirements of this guideline with less formality and fewer resources than would be expected of large organizations. In appropriate circumstances, reliance on existing
resources and simple systems can demonstrate a degree of commitment that, for a large organization, would only be demonstrated through more formally planned and implemented systems. (520)

Examples of the informality and use of fewer resources with which a small organization may meet the requirements of this guideline include the following:

1. The governing authority’s discharge of its responsibility for oversight of the compliance and ethics program by directly managing the organization’s compliance and ethics efforts;
2. Training employees through informal staff meetings, and monitoring through regular “walk-arounds” or continuous observation while managing the organization;
3. Using available personnel, rather than employing separate staff, to carry out the compliance and ethics program; and
4. Modeling its own compliance and ethics program on existing, well-regarded compliance and ethics programs and best practices of other similar organizations. (FSGO, 2018: 520)

Also, more emphasis was placed on upper level leadership which would be true for small companies as well. The Commission recognized the particular constraints of small organizations, thus allowing them to gain credit for having an ethics program, though less formal and possibly having high level leadership involved in the program (which normally is avoided for larger companies due to conflict of interest concerns). Even though the FSGO encourages ethics in small organizations, there may be a hesitancy to comply. Altizer (2003) suggests that small organizations do not feel pressure to comply for four reasons: 1) lack of pressure from public, 2) Fewer resources, 3) Informal culture does not respond to formal program, 4) Not enough employees to merit a program; for example, is there a need for a hotline for reporting problems with only 20 employees?

**LITERATURE SUMMARY**

The literature suggests a number of qualities that indicate an ethical environment for stakeholders. Mark Pastin (1986) provides four principles for highly ethical organizations: the good of stakeholders is part of the organization's good, fairness is paramount for all, individual responsibility is stressed, there is a purpose for all that is done that includes the surrounding environment as well as the organization. Wallace (n.d.) lists the following characteristics of a high integrity organization: a clear vision and picture of integrity, top management owns and demonstrates the vision, the reward system reinforces the vision of integrity, policies and practices of the organization are aligned with the vision; no mixed messages, ethics is considered in every decision.

However, the literature does not provide a clear-cut, agreed upon approach for determining that a small business has an "effective ethics program.” In light of this lack, it makes sense to turn to accepted standards that have guided larger companies for over 25 years, the FSGO. Here are the guidelines that can be drawn from the FSGO (2018) for measuring ethics programs:

1. Work hard to prevent and detect criminal activity;
2. Core beliefs need to include a commitment to compliance with the letter and spirit of the law and ethical conduct, as it defines it;
3. Understand the strengths and weaknesses of its own culture and organizational capacities;
3. Scan its business environment, presumably on an enterprise-wide basis, to determine what pressures the organization faces, especially the risk of criminal conduct and violating other applicable laws, and, more broadly, benchmarking data of industry standards and best practices;
4. Determine, relative to its goals and objectives and baseline data of its prior performance, what outcomes should be expected of the program;
5. Identify targets and measurable indicators of expected program outcomes;
6. Design, implement, and enforce its program to meet all seven of the hallmark minimum requirements; and
7. Regularly evaluate its program to determine if it was effective and capture what the organization learned along the way.

The Ethics Resource Center (ERC) has condensed these FSGO standards down to four for their assessment purposes: written ethics standards, ethics training, a dedicated ethics office/advice line, and a means to report misconduct anonymously. A 2003 ERC survey (Johnson, 2005) reported that:

- 58% of Smaller organizations had written codes
- 35% had ethics training
- 26% had ethics office or telephone advice line
- 47% had a method for reporting problems
- 12% of smaller companies had all 4 programs

They concluded that in general, the more of these four qualities that were present in an organization, the better the outcomes (i.e. less criminal activity).

FOR FUTURE STUDY

A future study would apply these criteria to small businesses. In other words, do small businesses who have more of these four program items present tend to have a reduction in criminal activity (and resulting loss) than those who have fewer of these four elements?

REFERENCES


https://managementhelp.org/businessethics/ethics-guide.htm

https://www.ussc.gov/guidelines (brackets added)
RETENTION WHEN RECRUITING IS DIFFICULT; MEDICAL TECHNICIANS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Michelle L. Ruiz, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Saint Mary-of-the-Woods College
1 St Mary of Woods Coll
Saint Mary of the Woods, IN 47876
Phone: (812)535-5112
Email: Michelle.Ruiz@smwc.edu

Lori T. Peterson, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Missouri State University
901 S. National Avenue
Springfield, MO 65897
Phone: 417-836-7681
Email: LTPeterson@MissouriState.edu

Corresponding Author: Michelle Ruiz

Abstract: Staffing strains for professional positions in rural healthcare communities is a constant topic of discussion for administration teams. Medical recruitment for smaller, more rural, communities becomes more difficult each year. Some types positions, like medical doctors, nurses, and pharmacists, have higher levels of auxiliary funding, which can be used for recruitment and retention activity. Other support professional positions are not afforded the same level of development support. One of the positions that has been at the heart of this rural recruitment difficulty is the medical technician. This study examines the positive role that Idiosyncratic deals play on turnover. Additionally, the impact of employee trust in their leader, self-efficacy, and use of voice are all explored as variables that strengthen the reduction in turnover.

INTRODUCTION

Staffing strains for professional positions in rural healthcare communities is a constant topic of discussion for administration teams. Medical recruitment for smaller, more rural, communities becomes more difficult each year. With a decrease in population comes a decrease in retail, food and service, and entertainment options. One of the positions that has been at the heart of this rural recruitment difficulty is the medical technician. These are the employees who assist physicians in the diagnosis and treatment of diseases, through testing of blood, tissue, and other bodily fluids. These employees are often the unknown support system for clinical decisions made by the providers, often advising these same providers on best courses of action for patient treatment. This study examines the positive role that Idiosyncratic deals (I-deals) play on turnover. Additionally, the impact of employee trust in their leader, self-efficacy, and use of voice are all explored as variables that strengthen the reduction in turnover.
When an organization is faced with great hiring constraints, coupled with an industry facing tremendous regulatory challenges, employee retention will be a strong resource for the internal and external stakeholders. The use of I-deals, which are a voluntary, personalized agreement of a nonstandard nature that is negotiated between an employee and his or her supervisor (Rousseau, 2005). Employees who negotiate an I-deal are more likely to view work as positive, including increased complexity of job role and lower reported job stressors (Hornung, Rousseau, Glaser, Angerer, and Weigl, 2010). Since the implementation of I-deals has been positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior (Anand, Vidyarthi, Linden, and Rousseau, 2010), positive relationship building (Rousseau, Hornung, and Kim, 2009), and positive work outcomes (Hornung, et al., 2010), the use of I-deals to predict an employee’s intention to turnover is a reasonable extension supported by current theory.

**Hypothesis 1:** Employees who have developed an I-deal with their managers are less likely to leave their position.

The definition of workplace trust includes dependency (Li, 2007), mental and physical safety (Gambetta, 1988), and the willingness of the leader to take part in group risks with the employees (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Encouraging an effective working environment between employees and leaders can increase the perception of trust held by the employee and can lead to a number of positive actions for the work environment and work group. The perception of trust by the employees has shown an increase in cooperation (Lau & Liden, 2008), increased group and organizational performance (McAllister, 1995), and a reduction in the need for monitoring (Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000).

These social contracts need to be further pushed to take into account the situation surrounding the people involved in developing the contract, to better understand issues of fairness and trust (Guest, 2004). This paper posits that if there is an established I-deal, but the employee does not believe the manager will fulfill the deal, he or she will be more likely to leave their job. Likewise, if an employee trusts that their manager will fulfill the I-deal that was negotiated, they will be less likely to leave their position.

**Hypothesis 2:** Manager trust mediates the relationship between I-deals and employee decreased intention to turnover.

The mediated relationship is moderated by two constructs, self-efficacy and voice. This relationship between trust and job will change when an employee engages in various forms of employee expression in terms of job performance. The first moderating variable this paper investigates is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the belief in an employee’s ability to perform his or her job (Bandura, 1982). This paper contends that employees with lower self-efficacy will be less likely to engage in turnover behavior if they have negotiated an I-deal, than employees who report a higher level of self-efficacy. Employees with higher self-efficacy might feel more empowered to expect an I-deal and hold a higher belief in their abilities to look for work elsewhere.
Hypothesis 3: The employee’s level of self-efficacy moderates the positive relationship between trust and the decreased intention to turnover in such a way that the relationship is stronger when self-efficacy is low than when it is high.

The second moderating variable of employee expression on the job in this model is the employee’s ability to engage in voice expression. Voice expression, or when an employee takes the opportunity to express concerns about policies in the workplace and offer solutions for improvements, is correlated with an increase in employee retention (Spencer, 1986). Many of the outcomes that are correlated with voice expression, job satisfaction (Spencer, 1986), high performance ratings, (Whiting, Podsakoff, and Pierce, 2008), and increased engagement (Fynes, 2017) are also correlated to I-deals. This paper supports the belief that an employee who feels confident in their ability to use their voice expression, will be likely to feel confident to negotiate an I-deal.

Hypothesis 4: The employee’s level of voice expression moderates the positive relationship between trust and an employee’s decreased intention to turnover, in such a way that the relationship is stronger when voice expression is high than when it is low.

METHODS

Sample and Procedure

Working with a number of rural communities, this paper seeks to fill the gap of understanding of how to retain specialized staff when geographic location and educational opportunities are at odds with staffing goals. The data for this paper were gathered from medical technicians in multiple hospitals, blood banks, and labs in southeastern Texas. 300 surveys were distributed with access through online and in person sessions. 175 surveys were returned or submitted, but 56 of those were removed from the sample when the surveys were found to be incomplete. This left a final response rate of 119 or a 39% response rate. Of the respondents, 44% identified as male and 56% as female. The average age of the surveyed medical technicians was 29, with a range of 22 to 54. 42% or respondents identified their ethnicity as Hispanic, 48% as white, 6% as African American, and 4% as Asian American. 88% noted their highest level of education as a Bachelor’s Degree and have been in their current position an average of 5 years.

Measures

Idiosyncratic Deals. Establishment of I-deals was measured using the 16 question tool from Rosen, Slater, Chang, and Johnson (2011) on a seven point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. (α = 0.916)

Leader Trust. Leader trust was divided into two separate survey sections: cognitive and affective. The question sets come from Hansen, Morrow, and Batista (2002) and have a total of eight questions. The respondents utilized a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree for their answers (α = 0.989)

Voice. Employee use of voice was measured using the six question survey from Van Dyne and LePine (1998). Using a seven point Likert scale, with response options from ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. (α = 0.944)
Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy was assessed using the measure developed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Pretence-Dunn, Jacobs, and Rogers (1982) using a seven point Likert scale. ($\alpha = 0.814$)

Intentions of Turnover. The final section of the survey utilized four questions from Tett and Meyer (1993) assessing the desire of an employee to leave their current position. The respondents utilized a 7 point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree for their answers ($\alpha = 0.922$).

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all of the individual variables in this study. I-deals was significantly related to trust, voice, self-efficacy, and intention to turnover. Trust was significantly related to voice, self-efficacy, and intention to turnover. Finally, use of voice was significantly related to self-efficacy. Intention to turnover is significantly related to I-deals and trust.

Tests of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 holds that employees who have developed an I-deal with their managers have positive correlation to a decrease in an employee’s intention to turnover. Table 2 shows that turnover intention is negatively related to an employee’s I-deal ($p \leq .10$). As hypothesized, when an employee has developed an I-deal with their supervisor the employee’s intention to turnover decreases, Hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2 holds that trust in leadership mediates the relationship between I-deals and an employee’s decreased intention to turnover. Using the methodology as described by Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt’s (2005) to determine mediation. By verifying the significance of the outcome variable, the treatment effect of the mediating variable, the effect of the mediator on the outcome variable, and finally comparing the direct effects from the treatment variable to the overall treatment to see if the treatment variable effects were smaller, it was determined that trust is significant as a mediator for intention to turnover at the $p \leq .05$ level. The negative directionality of this outcome shows that as an employee’s trust in the supervisor increases the employee’s intention to turnover decreases, so that Hypothesis 2 is supported through analysis as seen in Table 3.

Hypothesis 3 holds that an employee’s level of self-efficacy moderates the positive relationship between trust and the decreased intention to turnover in such a way that the relationship is stronger when self-efficacy is low than when it is high. Self-efficacy is significantly and positively related to the relationship between supervisor trust and intention to
turnover at the $p \leq .000$ level. This outcome shows that as an employee’s trust in leadership increases there will be a decrease in the likelihood of an employee’s intention to leave, therefore, Hypothesis 3 is supported.

The final hypothesis states that an employee’s use of voice expression also moderates the positive relationship between trust and an employee’s decreased intention to turnover, in such a way that the relationship is stronger when voice expression is high than when it is low. Voice expression is also significantly and positively related to the relationship between trust in leadership and intention to turnover at the $p \leq .000$ level. This outcome shows that as an employee’s trust in leadership increases there will be a decrease in the likelihood of an employee’s intention to leave, therefore, Hypothesis 4 is supported.

Discussion and Managerial Implications

Answering the question, “How can we retain employees who are becoming harder to recruit?” this study deepened the understanding of how to increase the likelihood of staying in a job for medical technicians. These results can be used to potentially retain a large number of midlevel hospital employees. Through the use of I-deals, increased emphasis on trust in leadership, boosting self-efficacy, and encouraging the use of an employee’s voice, this paper further adds to the understanding healthcare managers have in decreasing employee turnover. This study demonstrated that an employee’s intention to leave a position was negatively correlated to an established I-deal (Hypothesis 1), which lends support to previous studies (Rousseau, 2005).

Secondly, trust in the leader was a strong mediator between the nurse’s intention to turnover and I-deals (Hypothesis 2). When an employee has a higher level of trust in their leader, there is a decreased likelihood in the employee engaging in turnover behavior. Management in a healthcare organization might be able to decrease employee turnover with difficult to recruit staff by working to increase the trust those employees have for their leadership.

Thirdly, the application of self-efficacy and voice as moderators between trust in leadership and intention to turnover relationship showed strong results. The use of self-efficacy as a moderator was supported by the results (Hypothesis 3) as was the use of voice by the employee (Hypothesis 4). Since the trust an employee has in the leader can have an effect on an intention to turnover, it is important to also understand what can influence this individual relationship. The data shows that the when an employee has a low level of self-efficacy, there is a correlated increase in the likelihood that the employee will have an intention to turnover. This same finding was true for the use of voice as a moderator. A healthcare organization that is unable to recruit new employees for mid-level positions might fortify their current staff through
these methods to decrease potential turnover staff, taking steps to increase the level of trust, self-efficacy, and the use of voice.

**Conclusion**

This study examined a group in healthcare not often seen, medical technicians. These employees are among the growing number of positions difficult to recruit in more rural settings, where there are no established educational programs producing new graduates to replace outgoing staff.

As changes in the healthcare sectors show no signs of slowing down, organizations must implement initiatives to help management deal with transformations in the work environment. By examining these employee’s intention to leave, in part as influenced by organization connections and job search activity, organizational leadership can work to build a positive and supportive organizational culture. Ultimately, as organizations work to help improve relationships in an effort to keep employees in their positions.

References are available upon request form corresponding author, Michelle Ruiz.

**Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idiosyncratic Deals</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.530***</td>
<td>.450***</td>
<td>.529***</td>
<td>-.196*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.530***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.398***</td>
<td>.381***</td>
<td>-.304**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.450***</td>
<td>.398***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.361***</td>
<td>-1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>.530***</td>
<td>.398***</td>
<td>.631***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Turnover</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>-.196*</td>
<td>-3.04**</td>
<td>-.105</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N=119  ***p≤.000 One-tailed tests ** p≤.005 One-tailed tests * p≤.05 One-tailed tests

**Table 2. Effects of Idiosyncratic Deals**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Trust</th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>Intention to Turnover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idiosyncratic Deals</td>
<td>2.66**</td>
<td>1.13*</td>
<td>2.69***</td>
<td>-1.28*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=119  *p≤.10 One-tailed tests **p≤.05 One-tailed tests ***p≤.005 One-tailed tests

**Table 3. Mediating effects of trust on intention to turnover**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Intention to turnover</th>
<th>Trust</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intention to turnover</td>
<td>-1.28*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>5.47***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust Mediator for</td>
<td>-2.74**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Turnover</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=119  *p≤.10 One-tailed tests **p≤.05 One-tailed tests ***p≤.005 One-tailed tests

**Table 4. Moderating effects of Self-Efficacy on Intention to Turnover**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Intention to Turnover</th>
<th>Trust x Self-Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>5.09***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Turnover</td>
<td>-1.89**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust x Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>22.18***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=119  **p≤.05 One-tailed tests ***p≤.000 One-tailed tests
Table 5. Moderating effects of Voice on the Intention to Turnover

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>3.90***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intention to Turnover</td>
<td>-1.89**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust x Voice</td>
<td>24.66***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=119  **p<.05 One-tailed tests  ***p<.000 One-tailed tests
EXAMINING POWER-DISTANCE AS A MODERATOR TO THE EMPOWERMENT-PERFORMANCE RELATIONSHIP

SATVIR SINGH  
Department of Management and Marketing  
Norris-Vincent College of Business  
Angelo State University

PRAJYA R. Vidyarthi  
Department of Marketing and Management  
College of Business Administration  
University of Texas at El Paso

The relationship between empowerment and job performance is well established in the OB/HR literature. Empowerment involves delegation of authority and decision making to lower levels in the organization. Empirical evidence suggests that participative decision-making and self-management have positive effects on work-related outcomes. Scholars have argued that the management practice of empowerment enhances intrinsic motivation among the focal employees, thus enhancing their job performance. However, the assumption that empowerment increases motivation level of all individuals may not be true. In this paper, we suggest that cultural orientation moderates the relationship between empowerment and performance. Specifically, we contend that the dimension of power-distance may moderate the empowerment-performance relationship.

The notion that culture moderates the relationships among management practices and organizationally relevant outcomes has been supported in empirical literature. One of the limitations of the existing empowerment literatures, however, is that most studies have been conducted in North American settings. National culture may have systematic effects on the relationship between management practices and individual/organizational level outcomes. Recent studies in the area of leader-member exchange theory provide support to the notion that the outcomes are contingent upon the cultural orientation of the individuals (Erdogan & Liden, 2006).

Culture can be defined as values and norms shared by members of a social unit. Culture specifies behaviors that are desirable for members of the culture (norms) and individuals in the social structure (roles), and goals and principles that are important in one’s life (values). Researchers have suggested that individuals and societies can be described along different dimensions of a cultural framework. Hofstede’s framework is one of the most widely used frameworks. This framework is theoretically developed, and empirically tested, besides being well established. Hofstede identified five dimensions of culture - (1) Power distance (2) Individualism-Collectivism (3) Masculinity-Femininity (4) Uncertainty avoidance, and (5) Long-term vs. short-term orientation. As a starting point, examination of the moderating effects of power-distance seems to have important implications for the empowerment-performance relationship.
relationships. Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow and Lawler (2000) found that empowerment was negatively related to work satisfaction in a high power distance culture. Their study involved a cross-national sample from the United States, Mexico, Poland and India. Empowerment and work satisfaction were found to be negatively related in India – a high-power distance society. Therefore, there is a need to examine empowerment-performance relationship in nations that differ on the dimension of power distance. The empirical findings in the United States – a low power-distance society - may not hold in other national cultures.

Power distance can be defined as the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally (Hofstede 1980). Culture acts as a social control mechanism, and deviations from cultural norms are noticed and corrected. Power-distance as a cultural trait may influence employee characteristics and behaviors associated with the management practice of empowerment.

For example, employees in a high power-distance culture may seek security and directions from supervisors rather than autonomy and independence. When empowerment is imposed on the lower level employees in a high power distance culture, they may feel insecure and question the competency of their supervisors. Some cross-culture researchers have found that high power-distance causes employees to seek security and economic relationships rather than self-development. Therefore, the societal culture may interact with the management practice of empowerment and weaken its relationship with performance (see Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1: The positive relationship between empowerment and performance is moderated by societal culture such that the relationship is weaker in high power distance culture than in low power distance culture.

While the power-distance climate at the organizational level may influence the empowerment-performance relationship, considerable variations may exist at the individual level. In other words, individually held values may motivate employees to behave in ways that have not been fully accounted for at the societal level. Cultural values vary among individuals in an organization or society or nation. Therefore, it is important that the cultural dimensions are measured at the individual level before drawing any conclusions. Relying on the organizational or the national culture would not be sufficient because of intra-unit heterogeneity on the power-distance dimension. Scholars have suggested that when theories regarding culture are tested within a social unit, researchers should determine the extent to which intra-unit variance exists on the cultural dimension. Measurement of individual level cultural orientation is advisable in pinpointing the exact cause of variation observed at the unit or organization level.

Therefore, when testing the moderating effects of cultural dimensions on the relationship between management practices and outcomes, it is important to directly measure the cultural variables of interest. An Employee’s cultural orientation can be conceptualized as a schema that influences perceptions regarding how the world operates.
Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship between empowerment and performance is moderated by cultural orientation of individual such that the relationship is weaker for individuals with high-power distance orientation.

An interaction effect between members’ cultural orientations and the organizational values and norms is expected.

Hypothesis 3: The positive relationship between empowerment and performance is moderated by the interaction of individual cultural orientation and organizational level cultural orientation.
References


Figure 1: Power-distance as a moderator to empowerment-performance relationship
INTRODUCTION

Organizational supervisors are a primary influence on the employee experience (Myers, Seibold, and Park, 2011). Indeed, research has demonstrated that supervisors can influence employee attitudes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions (e.g. Bliss and Fallon, 2003; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Epitropaki and Martin, 2005; Fleishman, 1998; Jaskyte, 2003; McColl-Kennedy and Anderson, 2005; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003). In understanding the relationship between supervisors and employees, servant leadership has emerged as a prominent leadership theory (Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke, 2010). Importantly, effective leadership is enacted through communication (Bass, 1990). In the current study, we explore how servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977) and relational communication messages (Burgoon and Hale, 1984) lead to specific employee outcomes.

The purpose of this paper is to examine supervisors’ servant leadership behaviors as they are enacted through the relational communication messages of intimacy and dominance. In this study, we test a path analytic model in which perceptions of servant leadership is hypothesized to mediate the relationship between relational communication messages and employee outcomes like job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Since relational messages of intimacy and dominance (Burgoon and Hale, 1984, 1987) are behavioral, these messages can be used to signal a supervisor’s servant leadership orientation.

Relational Communication

Relational communication includes verbal and nonverbal messages that allow individuals to understand communicative exchanges within specific relationships and/or contexts (Burgoon et al., 1984). Intimacy and dominance are the two primary relational communication messages along which people communicate (Burgoon and Hale, 1987). Dominance is the ability to influence others (Burgoon and Dunbar, 2000; Dillard, Soloman, and Palmer, 1999), whereas intimacy signals liking, trust, and inclusion (Burgoon and Hale, 1987). Intimacy and dominance are both primary dimensions supervisors and employees use to define their relationships (Kelly & Westerman, 2014; McWorthy and Henningsen, 2014; Porter, Wrench, and Hoskinson, 2007; Richmond and McCroskey, 2000, Teven, 2007).

Servant Leadership

According to Greenleaf (1977), servant leadership is different from other leadership philosophies in that it places greater importance on follower well-being. A servant leader is primarily motivated by the need to serve others (Luthans and Avolio, 2003). Spears (2005) developed ten characteristics of servant leaders based on Greenleaf’s writings. Specifically, servant leaders focus on listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community.

Employee Outcomes
Job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention are employee outcomes with important connections to organizational outcomes (Katzell, Thompson, and Guzzo, 1992; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Parker, Blates, Young, Huff, Altmann, LaCost, Roberts, 2003; Ton and Huckman, 2008). Job satisfaction refers to a positive or negative evaluation about one’s job (Russell et al., 2004). Organization commitment indicates the degree of identification and involvement in an organization (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). Turnover intention is the employee’s intent to stay in or leave an organization (Bothma and Roodt, 2013).

Servant Leadership, Relational Communication and Employee Outcomes

Successful supervisors manage their employees to help achieve specific organizational goals. Employee perceptions of specific servant leadership characteristics are important because of their direct connection to employee outcomes. Thus, supervisors need to be conscious of the how they communicate to employees, as those communication messages can influence the perceptions of servant leadership. We hypothesize that employee perceptions of supervisors’ servant leadership mediates the relationship between supervisor messages of intimacy and dominance and the employee outcomes of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

Hypothesis. Perceptions of servant leadership mediates the relationship between relational communication (intimacy and dominance) and employee outcome variables (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions).

METHOD

Participants

The participants (N = 240) were 137 (57.1%) male and 103 (42.9%) female employees from a range of organizations. Participants were 19 to 74 years in age (M = 34.00 years, SD = 10.25). The length of the participants’ current employment ranged from two month to 30 years (M = 5.44 years, SD = 4.70). Participants worked in a number of industries and came from a variety of educational backgrounds. The majority (73.4%) was Caucasian, 9.2% were Asian/Pacific Islander, 7.9% were Hispanic, 11.7% were Black/African-American, 1.3% were Native American, and 1.7% were of other ethnic origins. These percentages add up to more than 100% because participants were instructed to check all applicable ethnicities.

Procedure

The participants were registered users of Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk) website, specifically from the United States. Participation in the study consisted of a brief Qualtrics questionnaire. Questions were designed to assess perceptions of supervisor servant leadership and communication in the supervisor/employee relationship. Dominance was measured using Burgoon, Joshton, and Koch’s (1998) 31-item Interpersonal Dominance Instrument. Intimacy was measured using Burgoon and Hale’s (1987) Relational Communication Scale. Perceptions of servant leadership was measured using the Servant Leadership Survey, developed by van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). Organizational commitment was measured using Meyer and Allen’s (2004) TCM Organizational Commitment Survey. Job satisfaction was measured using a single item from the Job Satisfaction Scale (Warr, Cook, and Wall, 1979). Turnover intention was measured using Grawitch, Trares, and Kohler’s (2007) the single item measurement. The questionnaire contained close-ended, Likert-type questions along with demographic information. Participants were given a small monetary award, deposited into their MTurk account, after completing the questionnaire.
RESULTS

A path analysis was utilized to test a structural equation model in AMOS. There was a positive relationship between dominance and perceptions of servant leadership \( (\beta = .32, p < .01) \), as well as between intimacy and perceptions of servant leadership \( (\beta = .63, p < .01) \). Further, perceptions of servant leadership showed significant relationships \( (p < .01) \) with organizational commitment \( (\beta = .47) \), job satisfaction \( (\beta = .60) \), and with turnover intention \( (\beta = -.44) \). Perceptions of servant leadership fully mediated \( (p < .01) \) the relationship between dominance and employee outcomes of job satisfaction \( (\beta = .19) \), organizational commitment \( (\beta = .15) \), and turnover intention \( (\beta = -.14) \). Perceptions of servant leadership also fully mediated \( (p < .01) \) the relationships between intimacy and the employee outcomes of job satisfaction \( (\beta = .38) \) and turnover intention \( (\beta = -.28) \). Findings showed perceptions of servant leadership partially mediated \( (p < .01) \) the relationship between intimacy and organizational commitment \( (\beta = .30) \). Thus, a direct effect \( (p < .05) \) still existed between intimacy and organization commitment \( (\beta = .18) \).

DISCUSSION

The results of this study indicate that a supervisor’s communication of intimacy and dominance messages act as key indicators of servant leadership attributes. Specifically, when supervisors communicate messages of influence (dominance), inclusion and warmth (intimacy), employees will perceive that the supervisor is oriented toward fostering follower well-being. Further, Servant leadership related positively with organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and was negatively related to turnover intentions. Parris and Peachey (2013) found similar results and argued that supervisors who want committed and satisfied employees should focus more attention on listening, empathy, and employee empowerment.

Importantly, the relationship between relational communication messages and employee outcomes was primarily mediated by perceptions of servant leadership. Only the relationship between intimacy and organizational commitment was partially mediated by servant leadership, as the other relationships were fully mediated. Thus, the findings indicate that supervisors who use the relational communicate messages of intimacy and dominance leads to perceptions of servant leadership from employees. Perceptions of servant leadership then relate directly to employees’ increased organizational commitment, increased job satisfaction, and decreased turnover intentions. These outcomes are meaningful in that employees with strong organizational commitment and job satisfaction contribute to their organization with higher quality work, better performance, and increased productivity (Katzell, Thompson, & Guzzo, 1992; Parker, Blates, Young, Huff, Altmann, LaCost, Roberts, 2003).

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
ABSTRACT
Schools of business have increased attention on teaching ethics. However, no indications exist that ethics education is working, i.e. that graduates are entering the workforce equipped to act ethically. This working paper will address concerns about business ethics education as part of the 2019 SWAM Teaching and Learning Conference.

INTRODUCTION
Collegiate schools of business have placed increased attention on ethics training for nearly three decades (Davis, 2014; Schoenfeldt, McDonald, & Youngblood, 1991). The two prominent business school accrediting bodies in the U.S., AACSB and ACBSP, both require ethics education as part of an undergraduate business curriculum (Franks & Spalding, 2013). On the other hand, practitioners of higher education have debated if business school approaches to teaching ethics are effective (Pamental, 1989; Park, 1998), while the press continues to highlight a seemingly non-stop carnival of high-level business ethics violations (Henning 2017; McGregor, 2017). Clearly, a disconnect exists between ethics education and the ethical conduct of businesspeople.

PROBLEMS WITH BUSINESS ETHICS IN THE CURRICULUM
About one-third of AACSB accredited business schools require a stand-alone business ethics course, while the remaining schools claim that ethics are covered in a variety of foundational and functional courses across the curriculum (Swanson & Fisher, 2008). Current business ethics education is viewed as ineffective by students (Reynolds & Dang, 2017), ethics experts (Floyd, Xu, Atkins, & Caldwell, 2013), and hiring managers (NACE, 2018). Two problems might be to blame for the quality of business ethics education, one structural and one methodological.

First, teaching ethics to business students is typically left to one of two faculty members. One is the philosophy instructor, who generally focuses on learning philosophical lenses through which to examine business situations (Pamental, 1989). In many cases, business schools “farm out” the teaching of lower-order skills, for example business communication is often taught in the English or communication departments and quantitative skills are taught in the math departments. When taught by academic experts in philosophy, making the ethical decision often serves as a check-on-learning to ensure that students adequately understand an ethical lens. That is, students are asked to apply an ethical lens to justify a decision, rather than walking the student through making an ethical business decision. This is wholly inappropriate for business students, who must consider a multitude of factors and stakeholders when making ethical decisions. The “most ethical” decision may not always be feasible from a business perspective, any more than the most profitable decision would be from an ethical perspective. Some expertise in business
functions and considerations is essential to guide students through these dilemmas, so that they can be both ethically oriented and business savvy.

Another common instructor of the stand-alone business ethics course comes from the business law faculty. Ironically, lawyers are taught to ignore ethical issues, to some extent, and to advise clients purely on what can and cannot be done legally. Indeed, in business contexts, ethical decisions are the purview of managers and not of lawyers. This was my experience as an undergraduate business student. I remember the instructor, on the first day of class, noting that he was a lawyer and that he really had no interest in ethics. Many times throughout the semester he pointed out that he chose law so that he wouldn’t have to deal with the “squishy, grey decisions.” As you might imagine, most of the semester was spent discussing the merits of various pending litigation and the “ethical implications” of recently convicted executives. This hand-off of ethical teaching to lawyers is even more problematic when there is no stand-alone business ethics course. Often, in these cases, a lion’s share of the assessment of ethics education occurs within a business law course. Indeed, a search for a business ethics textbook will uncover a heavy intermingling of law, ethics, and social responsibility. It is no surprise that students entering upper-level courses from these foundational business ethics courses are often unable to distinguish between an ethical dilemma and a legal issue. Indeed, many of the “ethical scandals” reported by the press are in fact blatant violations of the law and many examples of ethical violations in business cases are actually illegal (e.g. insider trading; McCabe, Dukerich, & Dutton, 1991).

As a result of the above-mentioned structural issues, I propose that stand-alone business ethics courses serve primarily to introduce ethical concepts in the business curriculum. It is both inappropriate and ineffective to assess mastery of business ethics as a competence prior to exposure to a wide array of business functions and an understanding of the interaction of those functions with relevant business stakeholders. The very essence of ethical decision making in business is about the claims of these various stakeholders against the organization and the organization’s need and ability to satisfy those competing claims through the operations of various business functions.

Second, multiple problems arise when integrating ethical decision-making into functional business courses. Business cases are the most effective way to present students with ethical dilemmas and to teach and reinforce ethical decision making (Callahan, 1980; Report of the Committee for Education in Business Ethics, 1980). However, the use of business cases to teach business ethics presents two problems. One problem is that students are oft ill-prepared for the complexity of popular business cases (Pamental, 1989). Stand-alone business ethics courses are frequently offered concurrently or before principles courses, meaning that students likely lack the core business concepts necessary to fully grasp the interplay of business and ethical considerations. Even for more senior students, business cases are frequently too abstract for undergraduate students as the protagonists are members of the top-management team and the dilemmas faced were designed for MBA students (Sweet, 2018).

The other option, presenting business ethics dilemmas in functional business course, presents a differing issue. Business cases are time intensive and have highly-targeted learning outcomes. Adding ethical considerations to these educational objectives is likely to be ignored, brushed over, or treated as an afterthought. Add in the fact that few faculty are trained in business ethics and ethics pedagogy, and the challenges of highlighting ethical decision-making through problem-based learning in functional courses becomes even more apparent.
PROBLEM-SOLVING AND BUSINESS ETHICS

While most of the functional business courses already include an ethical component, many of them skip the two most essential aspects of ethics education: the philosophy of ethics and solving business ethics problems. It is my view that business ethics can best be taught in the functional business courses using these two complementary approaches in a systematic and repetitive way. When repeatedly intertwined, these two approaches should reinforce ethical frameworks and teach students to be ethical decision makers. First, each functional course should reinforce the philosophical foundation of ethics. Students must have a foundation for understanding ethics as a philosophy, not as a set of rules, and it must be reiterated throughout the curriculum to have a lasting impact. In many colleges the same approach is taken with other foundational skills, including quantitative literacy, critical thinking, and written and oral communication. Indeed, no one would scoff at labelling courses “writing intensive” or dictating that a certain number of courses in a curriculum focus on reinforcing quantitative skills. The same approach should be used for business ethics education.

Second, and the purpose of this conference presentation, is to develop a pool of simple-to-understand, entry career level, functional business ethical cases using the “mini-case” format (Sweet, 2018). The goal of business ethics training is for students to make ethical decisions. Decision making is often relatively ignored in business school ethics training, with the focus more on regulatory requirements and rules of thumb. My approach uses decision-making tools to teach ethical decision making. In each case, student teams are given an ethical dilemma and must choose the best option from a set of decisions. Cases are structured such that one answer is generally the “easy” option, while the tradeoffs in other choices are more complex. In experience at two universities, most of the student teams choose the “easy” answer. Then a decision tool, such as a decision matrix or a stakeholder analysis, is applied to the situation and the class walks through the scenario as a group. During this process of structured decision making, a different conclusion is generally reached. Afterwards a Socratic dialogue enables students to discuss how/why they came to the original conclusion and how analysis enabled them to reach a more acceptable solution.

The purpose of this conference talk is to grow this collection of mini-cases in preparation for publication in a pedagogy journal. The intent is to provide an example of using problem-based learning to reinforce business ethics training across a curriculum in a targeted and coherent way.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHOR
A MODEL OF WORKPLACE HAZING
Kenneth M. Sweet
College of Business
Texas A&M University - San Antonio
One University Way
San Antonio, TX 78224

Sean Edmund Rogers
University of Rhode Island

Marcus Valenzuela
California State University, Bakersfield

Mortaza Zare
The University of Texas of the Permian Basin

Carma M. Claw
New Mexico State University

ABSTRACT
Hazing in the workplace is both pervasive and consequential. However, there is a surprising dearth of hazing research in the organizational sciences. In this manuscript we define workplace hazing, delineate it from other conceptually similar behaviors, and propose a model of workplace hazing. We conclude with a research agenda.

INTRODUCTION
The ritualistic abuse of newcomers, or hazing, has been observed for thousands of years. Recent egregious examples have brought increased academic and practitioner attention to hazing, resulting in widespread adoption of anti-hazing policies in sports, educational, fraternal, and business organizations. Most of the increased academic attention has focused on adolescent and young adult populations, primarily in collegiate, sport, fraternal, and military settings. Problems with extant research are twofold. First, and most concerning, existing research is generally atheoretical. This research typically defines hazing in terms of outcomes rather than examining outcomes empirically (c.f. Hoover, 1999). In this line of research the purpose is to examine mechanisms for reducing or eliminating the practice of hazing, i.e. hazing is “bad” by definition and the goal of research is to figure out how to stop it. In order to understand hazing scientifically, it is essential that a theoretical model of the hazing process be put forward, including antecedent conditions and outcomes, which can then be examined empirically. Currently, we are aware of no such model, in any academic discipline.

Second, hazing research in the organizational sciences is essentially non-existent. For example, a 2019 search for “hazing” in any field of EBSCO’s Business Source Ultimate returned just 19 results for scholarly articles. Of those, only four were related to business contexts (the rest were fraternity/collegiate) and only one was theoretical or empirical (the other three were
legal in nature). Further, a search of the Academy of Management Conference Proceedings online for the keyword hazing yields only 3 results. The effects of hazing rituals on employee outcomes such as morale, identity, and cohesion, as well as the role of managers, organizational culture, and employees in hazing rituals are currently unknown. The purpose of this paper is to launch research into workplace hazing by providing some initial theorizing, developing a construct definition of workplace hazing, and proposing a working model of the hazing process.

HAZING AND HAZING RESEARCH

A Brief History of Hazing

Accounts of hazing rituals as rites of passage date back more than 2,400 years, starting with Plato’s academy as early as 387 B.C.E. (Nuwer, 2004). Hazing-like events initially carried the name ‘pennalism’, and by the Middle Ages, cases were increasingly documented in educational institutions. As early as 1340, ritualistic hazing was being punished at The University of Paris, where students caught hazing were expelled. One-hundred years later, anti-hazing groups, such as the Fraternity of St. Sebastian at Avignon, began to appear.

In the US, hazing-like actions were recorded as early 1657 at distinguished institutions such as Harvard University (Nuwer, 1999). These hazing rituals generally focused on servitude, emphasizing the inferiority of freshman students while establishing obedience towards upperclassmen. By the nineteenth century, such practices flourished in social fraternities as a way to establish close relationships and camaraderie (Nuwer, 1999). Fraternity hazing practices began to receive popular attention mostly due to their dire consequences. For instance, the 1873 death of Mortimer N. Leggett, a freshman at Cornell, was the first hazing-related death to gain widespread newspaper coverage (Nuwer, 1990).

After World War II, veterans returning to college led to increases in extreme physical exercises in fraternity hazing practices and rituals, which continues today (Nuwer, 1990). A 2002 survey of 2000 college students found that 6.7% admitted to hazing other students, while 12.4% reported being hazed (Campo, Poulos, & Sipple, 2005). According to stophazing.org, forty-four states have current anti-hazing legislation. Nearly every university campus in the country has anti-hazing rules, often requiring students to sign “no hazing” agreements to participate in extracurricular activities. However, these laws and rules are often considered ambiguous in defining hazing and establishing punishments for violation (Hollmann, 2002). As evidence of the inefficacy of these rules, 55% of college students who participate in extracurricular activities still report being hazed (Allan & Madden, 2008).

Today hazing is seen as an extensive and serious problem in the United States. However, the vast majority of the literature is focused on educational institutions. There is a great body of evidence suggesting hazing frequently occurs in the workplace. Drawing on research from education, sports, and military psychology, anti-hazing activists are calling for workplace hazing policies. Action of this type, without scientific inquiry, could actually cause more harm than good. It is possible that zero-tolerance rules, much like any prohibition, simply push behaviors out of the view of institutional management, which could lead to more catastrophic results. As seen in educational settings, zero-tolerance policies have had little effect on the prevalence of hazing practices, while a slight uptick in the most extreme hazing cases can be seen (Nuwer, retrieved from www.hanknuwer.com/hazing-deaths on January 21, 2019).
**Hazing Research**

Literature on hazing typically focuses on three areas. None of these areas has made significant advancements in establishing a theoretic model of the hazing process, and each is primarily descriptive in nature. The most scientifically valuable of the three areas is on the psychology of hazing. Research in this area includes motivations for hazing (c.f. Cimino, 2011), outcomes of hazing (c.f. Linder, 2007), and hazing consent (Parks & Southerland, 2013). While research in this area often uses student organizations as research participants, it remains distinct from the second area of research, hazing in educational environments, due to the focus on the psychological mechanisms and outcomes of hazing processes.

Research on hazing in educational environments is by far the most prolific, and the least theory driven. In essence, much of this research is focused on stopping the “problem” of hazing. As an example, in the *National Study of Student Hazing* it is noted that “Documented problems related to student hazing include physical and psychological harm and even death” (Allan & Madden, 2008, pp.2). The study goes on to define hazing as “…any activity expected of someone joining or participating in a group that humiliates, degrades, abases, or endangers them regardless of a person’s willingness to participate” (pp. 14). This definition is representative of most hazing definitions in the disciplines of education, sports, and military psychology, where this research is generally conducted. Humiliation, degradation, and abuse are perceptual outcomes, and defining behavior as the outcomes of that behavior is atheoretical. The outcomes of hazing are an empirical question and likely vary drastically due to a number of important variables.

The third area of hazing research focuses on workplace hazing, commonly focusing on the negative outcomes of hazing to specific populations including police (de Albuquerque & Paes-Machado, 2004), nurses (Brown & Middaugh, 2009), professional athletes (Crow & Rosner, 2002), and military members (Ostvik & Rudmin, 2001; Evans, 2013). Most of this research is published in journals targeting practitioners of the specific profession. Both definitions of hazing and the outcomes of interest vary dramatically. Quite frankly, there is not currently a systematic study of workplace hazing nor a common definition and theory around which to organize research. A search of EBSCO’s Business Source Ultimate for the phrase *workplace hazing* in the title or abstract of a peer reviewed journal yields zero results, while searching for *hazing* and either *work* or *organization* in the title or abstract yielded just one peer-reviewed article. A search for *hazing* in the Academy of Management Proceedings directory yields just three studies. It is fair to say, after an extensive search, that almost no scientific literature exists on hazing in work settings.

**Why does Hazing Occur**

Numerous motivations for hazing have been proposed in a wide variety of literatures and at multiple levels of analysis. At the individual level, hazing research has primarily focused on the effects of hazing on the hazed. Research has proposed and provided modest support for the notions that ritualistic hazing increases loyalty (Lewis, 1992), transforms newcomer identity (Hallier & James, 1999), and forces uncommitted or poorly fitting prospective members to quit (Josefowitz & Gordon, 1989). Groups have been proposed to use hazing practices to increase team cohesion (Van Raalte, Cornelius, Linder, & Brewer, 2007), to protect automatic group rites and prevent freeloaders, and as a mechanism for veterans to assert their dominance over newcomers (Cimino, 2013). Hazing rituals at the organization level, which have been
documented in professional, military, sports, and educational settings, have been proposed to occur due to an intent to accelerate and reinforce the socialization process of newcomers, to reinforce organizational culture and norms, and to transform newcomers such that their identity becomes reflective of an organizational member.

Cimino (2011) provides a thorough review of the motivations for hazing practices, noting that motivations for hazing probably vary by level of analysis and by the nature of the group. These variations in motivation may explain why hazing views and mechanisms (behaviors) vary by type of organization and level of analysis (Ellsworth, 2006). Currently, there is insufficient theory or research describing the antecedent conditions of hazing processes or how the motivations of hazers, groups, organizations, or the hazed affect the nature or outcomes of the hazing process.

**THE NOMOLOGICAL NETWORK OF WORKPLACE HAZING**

**Definition of Workplace Hazing**

We define *workplace hazing* as a group sanctioned initial entry process designed to evaluate, indoctrinate, and socialize new members of a workgroup through ritualistic psychological trials not associated with learning formal organizational requirements. This definition has several key characteristics that delineate it from other conceptually similar workplace behaviors.

Most importantly, hazing is normative behavior sanctioned by the workgroup. Hazing is most often described as the ritualistic abuse of newcomers and/or as a rite of passage for organizational newcomers (c.f. Cimono, 2011, 2013). Organizational rites and rituals are symbolic social actions designed to demonstrate and reinforce core values (Islam & Zyphur, 2009). Rites and rituals serve to publicly endorse and reinforce organizational culture, which represents a system of shared values, beliefs, and norms for the organization (Trice & Beyer, 1984). Hazing rituals exist both as an artifact of organizational culture and as a mechanism for socializing newcomers into the organization’s culture.

This distinction as normative and sanctioned behavior delineates hazing from other forms of interpersonal mistreatment which are deviant in nature as described by Robinson and Bennett (1995). Examples of similar deviant behaviors include bullying (Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen, 2010), workplace incivility (Anderson & Pearson, 1999), and workplace aggression (Neuman & Barron, 1998). Though the physical manifestation and psychological outcomes of these behaviors may be similar to those of workplace hazing, all of these behaviors are defined as violating organizational norms, while hazing is both normative and norm reinforcing.

The most consistent feature of existing definitions of hazing is that it specifically targets newcomers. Workplace hazing is unique from other forms of interpersonal mistreatment because it is systematically delineated by a formal standing in the organization, i.e. standing members haze newcomers. Similar behaviors, including bullying, harassment, and incivility are typically dyadic in nature and based on power differentials within the dyad. The distinction of newcomers as a class is especially important to the further study of workplace hazing for two reasons. First, hazing only occurs because of power differentials between standing members and newcomers, and it likely designed to reinforce those power differentials (Cimono, 2011). Second, hazing rituals open the door for unsanctioned abuses (e.g. bullying) by overzealous standing group members. As an example, the highly publicized report on the “hazing” of Miami Dolphin
Jonathan Martin by teammate Ritchie Incognito notes that Martin generally accepted what he viewed as rookie hazing (Well, 2014). The report goes on to document harassment and bullying that Martin endured at the hands of Incognito after his rookie year, including Incognito telling him that he was “still a rookie” as a mechanism for using hazing as a guise for other forms of interpersonal mistreatment. These distinctions are even more important as the positive benefits of hazing are relatively uninvestigated and oftentimes the negative outcomes are confounded with reports of behaviors that are more likely another form of mistreatment.

The final important distinction in our definition of workplace hazing is that it primarily involves psychological trials. While hazing acts may be physically or emotionally demanding, the process and intent revolve around psychological outcomes (e.g. identity, acceptance, and testing) that enable the group to evaluate and socialize new members (Cimono, 2011, 2013). These trials are not part of formal group orientation, socialization, or training processes and are not intended to impart long-term organizational task, role, or other learning onto the new member. Instead, they are designed to reinforce organizational culture and norms, to test the commitment and trustworthiness of new members, and to protect group rites from exploitation by the unworthy. This distinction is especially important in delineating workplace hazing from other forms of interpersonal mistreatment for two reasons. First, the behaviors are likely to be indistinguishable. In that sense, it is the intent of the behavior that matters more. We believe that as research further informs theory on workplace hazing, the roles of intent and perceptions of intent in determining hazing outcomes will be of significant importance.

Second, the psychological processes hazing intends to reinforce are likely a major factor in within-group variance in hazing behaviors. For example, acceptable types of hazing behavior and the severity of hazing rituals likely vary dramatically by group type (e.g. military, sports, fraternal; Ellsworth, 2006), group exclusivity (e.g. a military special operations unit vs. an administrative unit), and by group homogeneity (e.g. a female entering an all-male group). For example, Ridley Scott (G.I. Jane, 1997) provides a strong fictitious demonstration of the extreme formalized hazing process experienced by the first female to attend the prestigious BUD/S training required to become a Navy SEAL. While all SEAL candidates undergo a hazing ritual that might be considered extreme for any other organization, the presence of an outsider (i.e. a female) in a highly homogenous group led to both the practice and acceptance of more extreme hazing behaviors. The relationships between individual and group characteristics, hazing processes, and the positive and negative outcomes for the hazed, the hazers, and the group are important questions that must be answered empirically.

A Model of the Workplace Hazing Process

Central to our theory is an explication of hazing as a group-level process. Hazing manifests itself primarily as interpersonal mistreatment behaviors carried out by the standing members and directed at group newcomers. We view it as both naïve and dangerous to conceptualize workplace hazing as the actual behaviors, or even as the set of ritualistic behaviors. Rather, workplace hazing should be viewed as a process carried out through ritualistic behaviors. If we return to the definition of hazing provided above, a group sanctioned initial entry process designed to evaluate, indoctrinate, and socialize new members of a workgroup through ritualistic psychological trials not associated with learning formal organizational requirements, the distinction as a process becomes increasingly clear.
The workplace hazing process can be described as either pro-social or destructive based on two central characteristics. First, pro-social workplace hazing is systematic. Drawing on equity theory (Adams, 1963; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987), we propose that pro-social workplace hazing processes have features that enable both the hazed and the hazers to view the process as fair, even in the face of blatant individual mistreatment. To be systematic, workplace hazing processes must be universally applied to all newcomers, must have a defined end point (i.e. when the “rookie season” is over), and must be performed on a public stage (Josefowitz & Gadon, 1989; Hallier & James, 1999). Anyone who has experienced basic combat training in any branch of military service can no doubt recount numerous tales of hazing rituals to which they were exposed. The important feature here is that everyone, regardless of race, sex, nationality, religion, or any other individual characteristic, went through similar experiences. In another example, even superstar rookies in the NFL describe receiving intentionally awful haircuts at the hands of veteran players, being duct taped to goalposts, and being stuck with huge dinner bills when their teammates walked out of the restaurant (Blackburn, 2018). The consistent feature in these anecdotes is that no one is immune, and everyone pays their dues to join the group.

Of exceptional importance when discussing systematic hazing processes, hazing rituals are an avenue for demonstrating commitment and loyalty through sacrifice by the hazed. When other members are unable to witness that demonstration, the hazing behavior is significantly more likely to be destructive in nature. Further, when hazing rituals are allowed to occur outside of the view of the workgroup, the likelihood of abuses of the hazing process increase and it is more likely that harassment and bullying will occur.

Second, pro-social workplace hazing must be consistent with organizational norms and values. While hazing is typically managed and conducted at the workgroup level, it is essential that groups not deviate too far from the acceptable norms of the organization in which they are embedded. When considering “how far is too far,” we draw on social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979). Social identity theory proposes that our individual identities are drawn heavily from the groups to which we belong. The more exclusive the group, the more important it is to our identity. This likely effects prosocial workplace hazing processes in two ways. Highly-exclusive workgroups within an organization may therefore have latitude to deviate further from the values and culture of the rest of the organization. As a result, the hazing rituals of highly-exclusive workgroups can vary more without being viewed as asynchronous, dysfunctional, or destructive to the organization. It is important to note that this explanation is not intended to grant carte blanche for egregious behavior in exclusive groups. Clearly, any organizational subgroup is expected to adhere to the core values of, and to positively represent, the organization in which they are embedded.

Additionally, prospective members of highly-selective and exclusive workgroups are likely more willing to voluntarily subject themselves to more intense hazing rituals (Cimino, 2011) and groups with more prestige are likely to require more intense hazing processes to protect automatic groups rights (e.g. status; Cimono, 2013). Therefore, the answer to the question “How far is too far?” lies within group characteristics that affect both the workgroup’s need or desire to haze newcomers and the prospective members’ willingness to be hazed. In a future version of this paper, we plan to expound on the specific organizational and individual variables that affect pro-social and destructive workplace hazing processes, as well as the individual characteristics that moderate the relationship between hazing processes and individual and group outcomes.
REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
PRÁCTICAS Y LÍMITES DE LA PUBLICIDAD: UNA PROPUESTA EXPLORATIVA DE INDAGACIÓN CRÍTICA HACIA LAS CAMPAÑAS POLÍTICAS
NILTON VALENCIA
Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez
Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, México
OSCAR MONTIEL
Universidad Autónoma de Ciudad Juárez

RESUMEN
El interés por estudiar las campañas publicitarias políticas ha crecido en años recientes, principalmente en Estados Unidos (Daignault, Soroka y Giasson, 2013). Asimismo, el abordar a la publicidad desde una arista crítica ha cobrado suma relevancia (Hamilton, Bodle y Korin, 2017). La presente, bajo una revisión de literatura, hace una propuesta para abordar cuáles serían las herramientas y mecanismos de empatía y de experiencia bajo los cuales la campaña publicitaria de un candidato presidencial en México se comunicó con su público objetivo y qué efectos causó en sus grupos de interés. Los resultados arrojan que es un tema muy poco abordado internacionalmente y más aún en nuestro país y por ello, propone una metodología compuesta de diversas técnicas y bajo un análisis crítico, poder reflexionar sobre ciertas campañas políticas.

Palabras clave: estudios críticos, publicidad, campañas publicitarias

ABSTRACT
Interest in studying political advertising campaigns has grown in recent years, mainly in the United States (Daignault, Soroka and Giasson, 2013). Likewise, approaching advertising from a critical angle has become very important (Hamilton, Bodle and Korin, 2017). The present paper, under a review of literature, makes a proposal and suggest tools and mechanisms of empathy and experience under the advertising campaign of a presidential candidate in Mexico tried to communicate with its target audience and what effects it caused in their groups of interest. The results show that it is a topic that is not widely addressed internationally not to mention Mexico itself, and therefore proposes a methodology composed of various techniques and under a critical analysis, to critically approach political campaigns.

Keywords: critical studies, advertising, advertising campaigns

ANTECEDENTES
La publicidad se ha convertido en un mecanismo indispensable para el funcionamiento y desarrollo de nuestra sociedad. De acuerdo con Gómez (2017), debido a los grandes avances y procesos evolutivos, los procedimientos de ésta se han modificado en su práctica en el mundo comercial, y comprenden mucho más que el hecho de vender un producto por su utilidad. Lo cual conlleva a otras áreas de interés en los que la publicidad se desenvuelve actualmente, desde aspectos psicológicos y sociales como la percepción, hasta la estrecha relación con el consumismo y el capitalismo de las naciones. Se entiende que para que un producto sea exitoso o logre sobresalir rápidamente del resto, debe de ser percibido de la mejor manera, es indispensable esta cualidad para que tenga mayores probabilidades de ser comprado. Casi todos los elementos de interacción humana conllevan un grado de persuasión en su proceso de comunicación, en particular aquellos de venta, negociación, redacción promocional, la propia publicidad y la relación con los medios de comunicación (Lakhani, 2005). “La publicidad es el
elemento más prominente del proceso de marketing. En consecuencia, recibe más de lo que le corresponde en cuanto al escrutinio por parte de una serie de organizaciones gubernamentales, legislativas y de política pública, [...] debido a que es tan persuasiva, la publicidad tiene una responsabilidad especial para adherirse a altos y honestos estándares éticos y de negocios, al servir para crear crecimiento económico” (Russell, et al. 2005, p. 705).

PUBLICIDAD Y PROPAGANDA

El estudio de un fenómeno como el de la comunicación política y su expresión más conocida, la publicidad, implica como en cualquier ciencia social, verlo de manera interdisciplinaria. Una campaña publicitaria es la totalidad de los mensajes que resultan de una estrategia creativa; dicho de otra manera, es la suma de todos los esfuerzos publicitarios que una empresa hace en una situación determinada de la vida de un producto (Guzmán, 2003). Por otra parte, Fernández (2011) menciona que la propaganda consiste en el lanzamiento de una serie de mensajes que busca influir en el sistema de valores del ciudadano y en su conducta, por tanto, en la política, adquiere una importancia decisiva en los procesos electorales. Se trata de una actividad lícita que influye decisivamente en la selección de los gobernantes, como lo demuestra el monto excesivo que los partidos políticos dedican a ese rubro en las campañas (Fernández, 2011). Para el común de la gente, los conceptos de publicidad y propaganda tienden a confundirse hasta una casi total indiferenciación.

PROBLEMÁTICAS DE LA PUBLICIDAD

Las posiciones críticas hacia la publicidad han surgido desde tiempo atrás. Se ha abordado desde la economía, la psicología, la semiótica, la política, estudios culturales. Todo esto evaluando hasta qué punto, o cuáles son los parámetros que dictaminan una relación sana entre empresa-consumidor. Si es que existen, cuáles son las barreras que se cruzan o las líneas que se infringen en cuanto a términos como privacidad o seguridad personal. En todos los países hay leyes que prohíben los mensajes de marketing engañosos, una forma de fraude. Se han establecido normas que regulen el abuso de manipulación de la información que se muestra en los mensajes publicitarios, así como la información propia de los consumidores tal es el caso en México del Instituto Nacional de Transparencia, Acceso a la Información y Protección de Datos Personales (INAI). Hamilton, Bodle y Korin (2017), desde la Escuela de Frankfurt y otras corrientes afines, ofrecen una amplia exploración de los enfoques del estudio crítico de la publicidad, presentando nuevos hallazgos.

PUBLICIDAD Y CAMPAÑAS POLÍTICAS

Para efectos de una propuesta para analizar críticamente la dinámica publicitaria de las campañas políticas4, se propone un análisis de diferentes elementos para determinar las herramientas y mecanismos de empatía y de generación de experiencias, elementos clave de toda campaña, y cómo se comunican éstas hacia su público objetivo con el fin de generar un estudio crítico desde la perspectiva de grupos de interés, consumidores (Daignault, Soroka y Giasson,

---

hasta especialistas en la materia. Para este caso, se propondría abordar el análisis de la pasada campaña de un candidato, de una campaña publicitaria de un producto y bajo estudios críticos, ambos se sugieren no abordados previamente en algún estudio, y que marcó una era de cuestionamientos, según diversos autores, donde los medios de comunicación tuvieron un importante papel. Según Solís y Acosta (2015), un aspecto particular de la elección presidencial mexicana del 2012 fue que la televisión, en su carácter de medio de comunicación hegemónico, alcanzó un protagonismo indiscutible que se vio reflejado en la opinión pública a tal grado de considerar que desde ella se construyó la figura presidencial. Partiendo desde esta perspectiva, el hecho de que una figura importante y representativa de un país se haya respaldado a su favor de las herramientas que los medios de comunicación tienen y el control inconsciente que imparten sobre las masas para obtener un puesto, representa un suceso histórico y crea serias preocupaciones. Así, ¿Cuáles son las herramientas y mecanismos de empatía y de experiencia bajo los cuales la campaña publicitaria se comunicó con su público objetivo y qué efectos causó en sus grupos de interés? Entonces, desde los estudios críticos de la publicidad, se sugiere vital el elegir una campaña publicitaria de carácter político que haya sido de gran impacto, a fin de determinar cuáles herramientas empáticas y de experiencia para comunicarse con su público objetivo, grupos de interés, expertos, y que opiniones merece en ellos respecto a su privacidad y seguridad, campaña publicitaria que presentó polémica y, fundamentalmente, mediática (Solís y Acosta, 2015), debido a que la imagen de dicho candidato se manejó como una figura en la que se resaltaban sus características físicas, juventud y atractivo físico más que las políticas, y que atacaba fuertemente a su principal contrincante. Según Del Mazo (2015), dicha campaña publicitaria utilizó en materia de comunicación política, la fórmula que tan buenos resultados le dio en 2005, en que fue electo gobernador.

MÉTODO
Se propone el método de estudio de caso. La técnica propuesta para esta investigación es un análisis de contenido. Se tomaron 3 muestras de acuerdo con el estudio de caso de esta investigación, que es la campaña política del 2012. Se realizó un estudio de la campaña publicitaria en medios audiovisuales. La selección de los spots televisivos fue obtenida después de analizar 85 spots que pertenecieron a la campaña política con un periodo (30 de marzo al 27 de junio del mismo año). Las categorías que se tomaron en cuenta para hacer la selección final fueron la temática del spot y el público objetivo al que estaba dirigido (Adultos / Padres de familia / Jóvenes / Tercera edad / Empresarios / Trabajadores).

RESULTADOS PRELIMINARES
Este análisis de contenido está basado principalmente en la teoría de framing, la cual según Guzmán (2015) este modelo, cuya evolución epistemológica y metodológica ha redefinido las hipótesis de la investigación sobre los efectos de los medios en la opinión pública, busca analizar los marcos (frames) establecidos por los medios de comunicación y la influencia que

---
6 A pesar de la amplia literatura que señala ello tiene impacto negativo en la campaña del atacante (Malloy y Pearson-Merkowitz, 2016). Tal y como el presente demostró.
estos ejercen sobre el proceso cognitivo de las audiencias. En otras palabras, el framing investiga la forma en que los medios de comunicación proyectan los temas de interés público y la interpretación que les dan a esos temas. La concepción del framing puede trasladarse a los distintos niveles del proceso informativo, de modo que cualquiera de los elementos que intervienen en el mismo puede enfocar o encuadrar la información (Giménez, 2006).

**Spot No. 1:**
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lDAHY85GbrY&list=PLFE43D1CC99A1FC05&index=84

**Título:** "Visita Familia". **Duración:** 30 segundos. **Fecha:** 6 de junio de 2012. **Segmento de mercado:** Mujeres. **Temática:** Economía / Compromiso social. **Fase de campaña:** Final

**Interpretación:** La escena con la que comienza este spot es, una reunión en donde unos padres de familia están teniendo una conversación con el candidato, sobre la economía de su hogar, sus ingresos y gastos mensuales. Este spot pertenece al framing de propuesta, ya que en lo que más se hace hincapié es en que las propuestas de campaña de...como candidato a la presidencia, mejorará la calidad de vida de los ciudadanos, específicamente a las familias y sus ingresos mensuales. Además, el framing de imagen también se hace presente en este material propagandístico, debido a que al candidato se le destacan sus habilidades de comunicación y empatía hacia las problemáticas ajenas, y por supuesto el compromiso que éste tiene con la población. Es por ello, que se le ve visitando personalmente a la familia en su hogar. Finalmente, el spot finaliza con la frase "¿Sabes cómo voy a saber que estoy haciendo bien las cosas?, cuando mañana regrese a ver a Jesús y a Margely y me digan que las cosas han cambiado", esto ocurre mientras se proyecta una imagen del candidato y su esposa tomándose una fotografía con toda la familia.

Para el análisis que se implementa para esta investigación consiste en la elaboración de una serie de categorías que ayuden a la evaluación de los spots y sus partes (encuadres). En estas categorías se observan; detalles de imagen, tanto del candidato como del spot, así como también la estructura del discurso y elementos textuales que lo componen, para poder definir si el spot pertenece a una categoría de carácter emocional, discursiva, de imagen o de propuestas.

**Tabla 1.** Categorías de Framing utilizadas en el análisis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORÍAS</th>
<th>NÚMERO DE FRAMING</th>
<th>PORCENTAJE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Propuestas</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imagen o candidato</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Los resultados arrojados después de este análisis dictan como las herramientas de los medios de comunicación ayudan en la construcción, tanto de la imagen como del discurso del candidato. Y de cómo estos aspectos, se enfocan en objetivos específicos para que los televidentes o votantes, crean o reciban el mensaje que exacto que ellos quieren transmitir por medio del framing. Esta tabla permite observar la proporción de las categorías de framing usadas en el contenido de los spots de la campaña. Los resultados del análisis de contenido reflejan diferentes aspectos relevantes de los spots de la campaña política. Comenzando con el hecho de que se emplean diferentes tipos de framing en un mismo spot. Esto se refleja en la tabla IV dónde se puede ver que las categorías de framing de imagen y framing emocional, ambas con un 31.25%, son las que más se repiten, o están presentes en la mayoría de estos. Ya que, con gran medida, en el contenido de estos spots publicitarios se resaltaban demasiado las características físicas del candidato, su forma de expresarse y su manera de narrar sus argumentos y propuestas. Además, también eran muy destacadas sus actitudes y cualidades, al ser tan empático con las personas en todo momento, en cualquier situación, y con personas de cualquier edad. De esta forma se mostraba como un ser humano muy respetuoso, simpático, comprensible y compasivo. Es por esto, por lo que se puede interpretar que esta categoría de imagen se implementó como una estrategia de comunicación para la construcción de la imagen del candidato, donde el carisma y sus acciones, ayudaban a reforzar los mensajes en los spots. Ya que, de cierta forma, encuadraban la información, por medio del framing, en cada mensaje para tocar puntos específicos de acuerdo con el público objetivo al que se dirigían. De esta manera, se puede observar que la estrategia publicitaria aplicada en el contenido de estos spots, ayudó a crear una imagen particular del candidato, tanto en su imagen como en el discurso que impartía en cada video promocional, posicionándolo frente a temas específicos, principalmente a temas que interesaban a la sociedad, pero sobre todo a aquellas problemáticas que impactaban de forma directa a la comunidad a la que se dirigía. Problemáticas como la “inseguridad”, “violencia”, “pobreza”, etc., fueron manejadas de forma en que el candidato siempre tenía la solución a eso que afectaba a la sociedad mexicana y no dejaba progresar al país. Lemas de campaña como “Ese es mi compromiso, y sabes que lo voy a cumplir”, se enfatizaron en cada uno de los spots, e incluso al final de la campaña política se modificó con una ligera variación, para hacer más personalizado el mensaje con, “Ese es mi compromiso, y TÚ sabes que lo voy a cumplir”. Los cuales no sólo invitaban a los televidentes a votar por él, sino que además creaban una conexión de compromiso y confianza, que servía de incentivo para el votante para hacerlo sentir que su decisión era la acertada.

CONCLUSIONES

Explorar desde una perspectiva crítica las campañas publicitarias políticas, no solo es un tema escasamente abordado en la literatura en general, pero aún lo es más para el contexto mexicano. Puntualizar los diversos elementos propios de dichas campañas bajo los cuales los diversos grupos de interés han sido expuestos, permitiría advertir los términos en los que posibles excesos y/o violaciones a la privacidad y seguridad de los electores podrían ocurrir, promoviendo un debate puntual entre los diversos actores sociales y así elaborar las políticas públicas adecuadas que salvaguarden, tal y como la constitución política de nuestro país así
como diversas instancias defensoras de los derechos humanos lo promueven, no solo la intimidad sino el propio desarrollo democrático de la nación y por ende de su sociedad. En resumen, se puede decir que la imagen del político se manejó de cierta forma, para que fuera todo aquello que agradara a la sociedad. Los medios de comunicación impulsan esta estrategia, en donde al candidato ya no se debe exponer ante los teledificentos como una persona a la que se le evalúa por sus fundamentos, sus propuestas perfectamente planteadas, los planes a futuro desarrollados correctamente sino, sobre todo, por sus personalidades naturales y reales. En la actualidad, se evalúa a estos aspirantes por su imagen física, sus discursos políticos aplicados con slogans y lemas de campaña, en donde se refleja lo que el público quiere escuchar, y no lo que realmente se necesita en la sociedad, de manera real y objetiva.

REFERENCIAS


The act of hiring an individual can have considerable ethical and legal implications for an organization. To better identify the concepts that influence hiring and employment selection ethics, a review of the recent literature found several areas of importance for both academics and hiring managers alike. Past researchers claim hiring managers are influenced by the concepts of moral obligation, diversity, anti-discrimination, integrity, and employment fairness whenever they embark on hiring new personnel. The literature presents a dichotomy of understanding that when organizations use a defined ethical hiring standard, employers are more likely to recruit and hire ethical candidates. This understanding creates the assumptions that managers are obligated with the responsibility of being ethical gatekeepers for their respective organization.

INTRODUCTION

The selection and hiring of new employees seems to be a never-ending cycle for managers in all industries. Hiring managers may be looking for an applicant with experience, education, or just a great personality. Hiring managers should be aware of the ethical implications of hiring the right person, as ethics is a primary responsibility of management (Paine, 1994). Hiring managers have the difficult task of finding individuals who can fulfill the organizations needs with proper credentials, while adhering to both regulatory and internal employment operations. Beyond the legal framework involved in employment practice, a manager should be aware of the ethical responsibilities associated with hiring practices. If an organization is only as effective as its employees, then it is the hiring manager who must understand that recruiting an ethical employee is of the utmost importance for the organization (York, 2014). The actions of just a few compromised individuals who purposefully act in an unethical fashion can ruin an entire organization’s reputation (Ashkanasy, Windsor, & Treviño, 2006). To prevent, or at least mitigate unethical behavior, the role of all hiring managers should include the responsibility of being an ethical gatekeeper for their respective organizations. Companies that choose to operate according to an internal ethical standard, should also pursue ethical hiring procedures and guiding principles (Alder & Gilbert, 2006) to assist managers in the promoting ethical employees.
The employment laws in the United States are clear that any applicant or employee should be shielded from discrimination based on the overarching protected classes of race, gender, color, creed, religion, national origin, disability, age, or genetic information (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2009). These laws have been the default standard for many managers during the hiring process. Adherence to this anti-discrimination regulation does not necessarily result in ethical hiring practices or the selection of ethical individuals. Additional regulatory requirements set forth through the Sarbanes-Oxley Act requires organizations to create and disclosure their corporate code of ethics in a public fashion to promote standards that require honest and ethical conduct, transparency in full financial reporting, and adherence to all governmental regulations (SEC, 2002). In an environment where federal regulations are setting the minimum standard of ethical practice in business administration, the role of a manager is being further directed to not only operate in a profitable manner, but also to hire ethical employees in an ethical fashion. Even as the law has set the legal employment standards for domestic companies, ethical fairness permeates these regulations with a call to go beyond the minimum (Alder & Gilbert, 2006, York, 2014).

Importance

Hiring ethics, much like many business research topics, is of both theoretical and practical importance. Research into this topic results in a visible framework for understanding the specific character traits exhibited by candidates for open positions, while providing an ethical foundation for organizational leaders responsible for hiring. The more that is known about the subject of hiring ethics, the greater opportunity that theory has to influence practice. Many theoretical/philosophical elements influence the body of knowledge relating to this subject including human resource development (HRD), organizational diversity, descriptive leadership ethics, normative philosophies, etc. As the ethical aspects of hiring and employee selection are further researched, the body of knowledge of each of these areas will benefit. The findings of this literature review will also allow for greater guidance in creating ethical practices and procedures for hiring managers. The benefits of understanding the ethics that guide hiring practices are two-fold. By forcing ethical awareness in organizational hiring procedures, a firm can first help themselves by implementing safeguards to minimize any harmful action or inaction that can negatively impact either the organization or applicant through the employment process (Roberts, 2016). Secondly, as the ethical gatekeeper for an organization, hiring managers can put theoretical frameworks into action through the selection of ethical candidates who can complement the ethical climate of an organization. As postulated by past research, “The success and reputation of your company is determined in large part by the ethical values of your employees. Therefore, determining a candidate's personal values—not just their technical skills and education, is paramount” (York, 2014, p. 26). For the ethical longevity of an organization, it is of utmost importance to staff the organization with individuals who are also ethically minded. A review of current academic literature will uncover some of the ethical issues, trends, developments, and pertinent situations surrounding recruitment and hiring of new employees.

Moral Obligation

The decision to hire the right person for any vacant position is an action that should not be taken lightly. Managers have an obligation to set the ethical climate of a company that can
result in strengthening relationships, forging reputations, and creating the ultimate success of the firm, all of which are dependent on managerial acknowledgment of their ethical responsibility (Paine, 1994). Additionally, past researchers have argued that not only do hiring managers have the positional power to choose one candidate and reject other applicants, but more so, managers have a moral obligation to exercise their decision in a responsible fashion (Alder & Gilbert, 2006). A manager who disregards their obligation to be ethical in their hiring decisions, and fails to choose the best candidates, is increasing the chance of allowing bad apples to infiltrate their organization. As postulated by Ashkanasy et al. (2006), bad apples are morally flawed individuals who are predisposed to behave in an unethical manner, and when given the opportunity will do so. Every organization is susceptible to the shortcomings of employees who act in unethical or immoral ways. To be sure, ethical hiring practices and managerial safeguards may not completely prevent poor employees from gaining employment. However, a manager who acts according to a moral obligation has a potential of mitigating the threat of hiring someone that could negatively affect the organization and its stakeholders.

In response to the ethical discourse on employment practices, Lantos (1999) argues, “moral behavior builds trust, which attracts customers, employees, suppliers, and distributors, not to mention earning the public's goodwill. Conversely, immoral behavior chases these various groups away” (p. 225). Even if short-term gains created through immoral business activity are sacrificed due to ethical principles, the long-term result of operating in a moral fashion could be highly beneficial for the organization. As other researchers have also proposed, hiring managers are responsible for ensuring that ethics are a significant priority when selecting new employees. A three-step process is suggested as a guide to assist managers in fulfilling their duty for ethical employment and hiring. First, in any hiring decision, ethical character should be identified through behavioral interview questions to better identify a candidate’s individual character traits such as openness, self-discipline, and personal virtues. Second, existing business leaders and managers must demonstrate ethical activity in their mannerisms and deeds. Third, managers need to cultivate their own personal sensitivity to be able to identify and become aware of ethical situations. (Lantos, 1999).

As also defined in Rest’s model of moral behavior (Johnson, 2015), there is a gap between knowing what to do and taking the actions necessary for implementation. According to Lantos (1999), if managers intentionally focus on creating ethical motivation paired with action, both for themselves and while carefully hiring employees, perhaps future press on business ethics will appear less criminal than it does today.

Diversity

The business case for organizational diversity has clearly been defined in past research. Benefits of a diverse workplace include greater innovation, higher retention, better decision making, higher quality employees, an improved public image, etc. (Johnson, 2015). Diversity in employees can mean differences based on race, nationality, sex, religion, disability, and even genetic makeup (Roberts, 2016). Additionally differences in education, experience, and values could potentially fall under the umbrella term of diversity. Notwithstanding the business case for diversity, diversity also makes sense to employers for philosophical ethical reasons. For example, hiring people of different backgrounds creates more good than it does harm (utilitarianism), respecting differences acknowledges the dignity of each person (deontology),
promoting social justice, and reflects love of our neighbors in maximizing their unique potential (altruism) (Johnson, 2015). In terms of hiring diversity, the ethical nature of the process should not be evaluated on overall patterns, but rather on the affect that the process has on the individual being selected for the position (Alder & Gilbert, 2006).

Regardless of the strong moral and business reasons for seeking diversity in hiring practices, the strategy to achieve diversity must be intentional. Even with the legal precedent that protected class status should not be a contributing factor to hiring decisions, for diversity in hiring to occur, some type of affirmative action policy must be implemented (Alder & Gilbert, 2006). As defined by past research, affirmative action is “a class of public policies focused on achieving equality of opportunity, especially in the realms of tertiary education and employment, for certain historically oppressed groups” (Taylor, 2009, p. 478). As a framework for managing diversity in hiring practice, Alder & Gilbert (2006), propose a four-part action plan to increase the diversity of an organization that consists of. He proposes that diversity begins by eradicating a hiring manager’s personal bias towards job applicants by requiring diversity training. Second, he suggests removing barriers that may be limiting under-represented groups of job seekers from applying for open positions. Barriers include using only online applications that require internet access or placing help wanted ads in newspapers that are not widely read. Next, he proposes that necessary steps need to be taken to increase a diverse mix of applicants by broadening recruitment efforts such as engaging applicants from several different schools or areas of town. Finally, he concludes that diversity should place an emphasis on favoring protected classes in the job selection process.

For diversity to take hold and change the demographic makeup of an organization, the idea of embracing difference is important for hiring managers to understand. In an environment composed of culturally diverse groups, as compared to culturally homogenous groups, a climate of inclusion can help to create a sense of comfort, that encourages all employees to apply their personal differences to specific work processes, necessary tasks, and organizational strategies (Boekhorst, 2015). Creating a diverse climate should a distinct hiring priority based on the ethical, business, and societal benefits that can be directly achieved from the contributions of people with dissimilar backgrounds. To achieve diversity requires a need to reduce both overt and unconscious discrimination in hiring.

Anti-discrimination

Unashamedly refusing to hire someone based on protected class status is a blatant violation of U.S. labor laws. This includes practices that create an explicit discrimination termed by the EEOC as disparate treatment, and the practices that result in a de-facto discrimination despite intentions, termed by the EEOC as disparate impact. Even with laws and regulations, the news is continually reporting on employers who were blatant in their refusal to hire someone due to some form of discrimination. Some researchers will argue that discrimination is human (Cuilla, Martin, & Solomon, 2014), and even with legal frameworks in place, the likelihood of eradicating manager bias is difficult, if not impossible. Other research has suggested that discrimination is not only immoral, but that hiring managers and the organizations that they represent have a moral obligation to enforce the principle of non-discrimination in employment (Demuijnck, 2009). To fulfill the moral obligation, Demuijnck (2009) postulates that firms must implement effective diversity training by setting long-term diversity objectives and by assigning
specific managerial responsibilities to support this initiative. Successful hiring procedures require an organization to be genuinely motivated to help their managers avoid discriminatory behaviors. Some managers may be intrinsically motivated to avoid discriminatory behaviors, whereas others will rely on the corporate culture for guidance and structure (Lantos, 1999).

Obvious and intentional discrimination based on protected factors is much easier to identify when it happens. When discrimination occurs through subconscious stereotyping or personal bias, unforeseen problems can arise in the hiring process. In her legal analysis of employment discrimination in relation to the harm principle, Roberts (2016), builds the case of detrimental stereotyping and the negative effects that it can cause through employee selection and employment. In her article, the researcher discusses the idea of actions that can cause certain stereotype threats. In some situations, even mentioning that someone falls into a diverse or protected class can be a harmful trigger that may create disillusionment with the organization, depressed ability, a feeling of tokenization, or even a sense of exclusion (Roberts, 2016). Among other things, Roberts (2016) argues that some stereotype triggers could also leave an organization susceptible to employment discrimination where others may not. As proposed by the author, the best way to avoid unethical stereotyping in hiring is to create stringent internal policies and procedures through self-evaluation for the purpose of minimizing the occurrence of stereotypic harms (Roberts, 2016).

Federal regulation has defined which classes are protected, however to maintain a climate of ethical hiring practices, there are other forms of discrimination that organizations should be made aware of. The literature has ample examples of ways that organizations can reduce discrimination of unprotected factors in their hiring practices, but for the sake of brevity, only a few additional examples are presented. Some researchers have found that employers are beginning to take into consideration economic factors such as likelihood of an applicant to use medical benefits, a desire to restrict the personal liberties of employees outside of work, and requiring pre-employment health screenings which can be viewed as an invasion of privacy (Ladd, Pasquerella, & Smith, 1994). These same authors argue that “using non-job-related criteria for hiring is discriminatory and that hiring decisions should be based exclusively on the prospective employee's ability to do the job” (Ladd et al., 1994, p. 326). Some employers may try to justify this type of discrimination as a method of reducing corporate liability during hiring; however, the results of their actions are can be labeled as discriminatory and unethical. Corporate leaders and hiring managers who allow such actions to take place are a perfect example of moral disengagement by using moral justification to convince themselves that their harmful behavior is beneficial (Johnson, 2015).

Some researchers are calling for corporations to begin reducing discrimination based on appearance bias (Harvard Law Review as cited by Cuilla, Martin, & Solomon, 2014). This research originally published in the Harvard Law Review cites several examples of how employers need to create policies that disregard personal attractiveness and unilaterally forbid pre-employment inquiries in regards to appearance (with the exception of grooming). Much of this research comes from recent studies where overweight individuals have reported being discriminated against due to their appearance rather than their ability to do the job for which they are applying. Echoing the strategy set forth by previous research, the anonymous author(s) suggest that employers need to reflect on their own practices and place emphasis on legitimate work related applicant criteria rather than consider appearance. The only way to stop this form of bias is to change the attitude of hiring managers and people in general. When managers adhere to
ethical hiring practices, based in either personal values or corporate policies, they are acting with integrity.

Bias and discrimination may not always be negative, and in some cases actually benefit an applicant for a position. In his book Everyday Bias, researcher Howard Ross (2014) explains that sometimes interviewers may instantly favor an applicant over others due to some stereotype or associated feeling. According to Ross (2014), our unconscious biases are formed either individually or collectively, and they affect every decision we make including who we interview, how we interview, hire, assign jobs, promote, or take a risk in hiring.

Integrity

When managers practice their duty of upholding the ethical identity and climate of an organization in hiring, they are exercising both moral character and integrity. Compliance with the law is not to be confused with integrity, but rather integrity is an essential element that influences every type of business decision (Johnson, 2015), including hiring. Adherence to governmental compliance acts as a guide to avoid legal repercussions, whereas taking an integrity-based approach to management goes much deeper affecting operations and behavior. In an environment that chooses to operate in an ethical manner, management will personify moral values, create an ethically supportive climate, and instill the idea of shared accountability among all employees (Paine, 1994). An organization who adheres to integrity focused guiding principles will be more likely to identify the ethical and job related skill set of potential applicants when determining suitability for possible employment (Paine, 1994). When hiring, employers can recruit, but should do so in a manner that is void of deception and moral transgressions (Gardner, Stansbury, & Hart, 2010), as these types of actions would not be permissible in an integrity based approach.

Fairness

The critical concepts of fairness/justice have permeated nearly every discussion on hiring ethics within this literature review. Rawls (1971), laid out an argument for fairness as he explains how often times individuals are quick to develop rules for societal action while being ignorant to their own self-interests. These interests affect fair distribution of both benefits and burdens for everyone, including fairness in hiring criteria (Ladd et al., 1994). Through the scope of ethical employment protocol, the goal of fairness in hiring is not just have formal access to a position, but rather to actually be considered for an open position without the blindness caused by managerial self-interest (Rawls as cited by Demuijnck, 2009). Bias undermines fairness when a manager acts in accordance with their own self-interests by intentionally withholding employment opportunities from individuals who are qualified for the position, however disregarded due to the manager’s personal prejudices (Alder & Gilbert, 2006). Organizations who choose to uphold the values of fairness and justice have earned the right to be called ethical, whereas organizational values that prioritize profits or allow for the bending of rules tend to be considered unethical (Alder & Gilbert, 2006). In terms of acquiring new employees, fairness in the hiring process and selection of candidates is synonymous with ethical behavior.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS
ABSTRACT

In this paper, we present a review of the literature concerning behavior-based interviews. Companies have a need to improve selection methods for employment to accurately assess a candidates’ abilities, skills and knowledge. The authors explore behavior based interviews (BBI) and Role Play Interviews (RPI). BBI use structured questions to gain insight about candidates’ past behaviors in specific situations to predict their future performances. Various studies point toward successful selection of candidates with BBI. BBI is more inclined to measure candidates’ ability to adapt and communicate, which points toward customer service roles or a job role involving working with people. It doesn’t focus on the candidates’ technical ability. Even though BBI has been found to predict future performance, it’s difficult to completely rely successfully on only one method of interview to properly assess a candidates’ worth for the job. A study to analyze interviewees perspective is being carried whose results will be disseminated at the conference.
interviewing for because it’s not specific enough, nor does it provide any insight into how the candidate will perform the new job. The interviewee does not mention specifically how he attempted to solve problems. He mentions formulating the model, but does not clarify what the model is, nor what it does.

**Purpose of the study**

The shortcomings of the example interview are the reason restructuring the interview to gather higher quality information is necessary. Behavior-based interviews are designed to elicit specific answers which are more useful and instrumental in the selection process. In this paper, the authors define types of interviews such as behavior-based, role-playing interview, structured and unstructured. The paper provides a review the literature of various studies conducted on behavior-based interviews to attempt to identify the best way to interview. The literature lacks studies which explore the perspectives of the interviewees in the context of behavior-based interviews. Therefore, the authors explore the interviewees’ perspectives.

**INTERVIEW DEFINITIONS**

The BBI method is based on the belief that the best way to forecast future performance of a candidate is through his or her past experiences. The interview is used to measure the candidate’s past ability to deal with real-life problems, and how well they learned from them. In BBI, the employer identifies employment-specific behaviors, and candidates are asked about their past experiences in an attempt to match the job-specific identified behavior (Easdown, Castrp, Shinkle, Small, & Algren, 2005). The premise is that past behavior is the best predictor of future performance. This method uses specific questions based on candidates’ backgrounds and experience to determine if they can perform the job (Clement, 2008). The interview questions are built around real-life experiences as opposed to hypothetical situations. In contrast, situational questions posed focus on hypothetical situations and candidates are asked what they would do. This method is similar to the premise for a traditional interview (Jean, 2001). The traditional interview includes generic questions such as “Tell me about yourself” or “Why should we hire you?” as opposed to questions such as “Tell me about a time you had to get buy-in for your idea from your leader who is opposed to the project requirement, and how did you accomplish it?”, which is the premise of behavior-based interview. Additionally, management research has shown traditional interviews have only 15 to 20% chance of accurately predicting job performance (Van Clieaf, 1991).

Another type of interview, ‘Role-Playing interview’, involves the candidate and the interviewer act out in a scenario, either one-on-one or in a group setting. The goal is to simulate a difficult situation and test candidates’ behavior. The difference between behavior and role play interviews is that role play can be done based on hypothetical scenarios and likens to simulating a potential real-life situation.

Within behavior-based interview, there are two sub-categories of interview, structured and unstructured interviews. The structured interview is preferred over the unstructured because structured interviews reduce dependency on the interviewer to be competent. The unstructured interview concept relies on the interviewer to have a good understanding of requirements of a job role and to be able to judge from the interviewees’ past behavior. The structured interview relies
on an established model with job-specific questions, competencies and well-defined metrics which match the candidates’ behavior to that of the job description. The judgement not only relies on the interviewer’s competency to administer the interview, but also relies on the structured model implemented by the company (Warech, 2002).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The common theme in the studies focused on whether behavior-based or traditional interviewing lead to better selection processes and which best forecasted future performance of the employee. The studies concluded that behavior-based interviewing rather than traditional interviewing was a better tool for employers to utilize for better selection and as an indicator of future performance. The questions designed for behavior-based interview as opposed to traditional interview had higher validity when correlated with supervisory ratings of performance. The behavior questions also improved the quality of information collected on candidates by tapping a wide range of job-related skills and abilities, hence improving the selection process.

The other trend was organizations affinity towards structured behavior questions geared to elicit specific answers. The focus was knowledge, skills, abilities, motivations, behavior and personality attributes. The organizations spent considerable amount of time upgrading their process through various trial and error, past conducted interviews and from existing employees in the position the interview process is constructed for.

Another theme arises, where employers are stress testing the candidates. Specially, how self-motivated are they, especially in frustrating situations such as dealing with conflict, high pressure situations, and overwhelming projects. Additionally, when there is a rapid change in the environment, do the candidates immediately start looking for a new job, or internalize the idea and work through it. Behavior-based interviews measures their integrity, values, and candidates’ communication ability to seek what they are looking for, especially in difficult situations. The interview uncovers a candidates’ problem-solving skills and ability to work with teams, especially under pressure. The interview also gives insight into the personality of the candidate, specifically, their confidence, drive to go above and beyond, and decisiveness. Additionally, it helps employers understand the candidates’ ability to communicate, be it through conflict management, customer relationship management or influence skills to get people to get buy-in from people. Finally, it showcases the character of the candidate, whether they own and learn from their mistakes and improve, or try to escape from the situation. A regular interview wouldn’t be able to gauge these characteristics as they are based on hypothetical scenarios, and there is a high chance the candidate may make false statements to seem favorable. To summarize, the employer is trying to understand the candidates’ ability to weave with organizations culture and whether if it is a good fit for both parties.

Criticisms of behavior based interview

Just like most ideas, behavior-based interview comes with its fair share of criticism. Studies mentions structured Behavior questions have become quite mainstream and with the help of the internet, the candidates can come prepared. It is mentioned answers for behavior-based
interviews seem scripted. The idea they portray is to make it simple and perhaps ask a real problem the department is facing rather than ask context-less questions such as “Tell me about a time you had to think on your feet?” It also says behavior-based interviews do nothing to measure the creativity or brain power of the candidate, and to achieve that the authors mention brainstorming sessions and seeing if their energies resonate. They talk about having a legitimate conversation by asking the candidate to ask questions to them which will give the interviewer more insight into the candidates’ characteristics.

Another trend arises that not every candidate has an answer. He explained that sometimes there are moments that the candidates don’t have anything to share with respect to the question asked, and may tend to lie to seem favorable. One issue that candidates face is that thinking back in time takes time. Most interviews get awkward if there is a lengthy moment of silence which can disrupt the thought process of the candidate. No candidate will simply have an answer to questions of this nature at the top of their head. Additionally, certain levels of negativity can be grating and can affect the morale of the candidate. There is also more room for mistakes from the candidate because the questions are supposed to be hard. The author gives the candidates the benefit of the doubt by saying behavior-based interviewing is hard and even good candidates with skills and abilities sometimes fail at these interviews.

THE STUDY: INTERVIEWEE PERCEPTIONS OF BEHAVIOR-BASED INTERVIEWS

The literature is missing information from the perspective of interviewees. Since behavior-based interviews have some weaknesses, understanding the perspective of the interviewee is essential. It would give both employers and candidates’ better ways to communicate their questions and answers. The researcher’s plan is to conduct a survey and an interview with interviewees who were subject to behavior-based interviews with the goal of understanding their perspectives of the process. Survey questions available upon request.

CONCLUSION

In this review, the definition of behavior-based interview is predicting future performance by measuring past experiences in a systematic way. The literature indicates a positive outcome in terms of selection with the use of behavior based interview as opposed to traditional interview techniques. Additionally, the literature states that structuring the behavior based interview process to suit the needs of the job role, organization culture and consistently developing updates is necessary to get maximum information from a potential candidate. On the flip side, behavior-based interview paves way for employers to make the job and company culture appealing to the candidate.

BBI has disadvantages when it comes to being scripted: candidates are unable to share useful information. There is a chance the candidate may have a pre-conceived answers for specific scenarios which may not necessarily be true. Negative climate which may grate the candidate and morale. In addition, various professionals have posted testimonial articles endorsing BBI through LinkedIn, Glassdoor and Indeed.
Currently, the researchers are conducting a study through a survey and an interview to understand the perspective of interviewees. Results will be disseminated at the conference and summarized in the Conclusion.
REFERENCES


LinkedIn Team. (February 24, 2017). *Hiring managers share their top behavioral interview questions, and we help you answer*. Retrieved from: https://www.linkedin.com/jobs/blog/top-behavioral-questions-answers


**TABLE 1: SUMMARY OF LITERATURE: INFORMATION EMPLOYERS SEEK THROUGH BEHAVIOR-BASED INTERVIEWS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Citations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How determined are the candidates, especially in frustrating situations?</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; Tatem, Kokas, Smith, &amp; DiGiovine, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gauge integrity, values and whether they communicate about their needs in uncomfortable situations</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; Warech, 2002; Tatem, Kokas, Smith, &amp; DiGiovine, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to determine culture fit</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; LinkedIn, 2016; Warech, 2002; Tatem, Kokas, Smith, &amp; DiGiovine, 2017; Ku, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to measure how they respond to pressure and problem solving</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Warech, 2002; Tatem, Kokas, Smith, &amp; DiGiovine, 2017; Barclay, 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to provide insight into candidates decisiveness and confidence</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; Warech, 2002; Tatem, Kokas, Smith, &amp; DiGiovine, 2017; Barclay, 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offers insight into candidates drive and “why” behind their initiative. That is, are they internally driven to go above and beyond or doing bare minimum? And what was the motivator to do bare minimum vs go above and beyond</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provided insight into candidate’s conflict resolution skills</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gave insight into candidates’ customer relationship management skills</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; Warech, 2002; Tatem, Kokas, Smith, &amp; DiGiovine, 2017; Barclay, 2001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplied insight into candidates’ influential skills. Answered how can they get a buy-in from someone and their tenacity to problem solving</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; Warech, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Granted insight into candidates’ ability to own their mistakes and learning from it</td>
<td>Poindexter, 2017; Fuscaldo, 2013; Warech, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offered insight into their adaptability and collaboration skills</td>
<td>LinkedIn Team, 2016; Lederhause, 2017; Ku, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gave insight into their communication skills, specifically written skills and building rapport with colleagues and clients</td>
<td>LinkedIn, 2016; Lederhause, 2017; Warech, 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplied insight into their ability for attention to detail</td>
<td>LinkedIn Team, 2016; Lederhause, 2017; Ku, 2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Used to gauge their long term goals and ambitions</td>
<td>LinkedIn Team, 2016; Lederhause, 2017; Barclay, 2001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
STRETCHED TOO THIN? THE IMPACT OF SCHOOL-WORK CONFLICT ON JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

LAURA WALKER
University of North Texas
1155 Union Circle, Denton, TX 76203

WENJUAN GUO
University of North Texas

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the dual role of the student-employee is important for both management researchers and practitioners. Considering that the number of full-time employed students has increased over the years (McFarland et al., 2017), it makes sense that research on the effects of conflict experienced by this group has also increased. However, whereas most research studies on multiple roles has focused on family-, personal-, or school-related outcomes, few have focused on the outcomes that are purely work-related. This leaves the door open for potential advancements in the management literature pertaining to the effects of dual role conflict on work motivations. The purpose of this study is to examine the effects that school-work conflict has on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and to determine if core self-evaluations and exhaustion moderate these relationships.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Prior literature on work conflict concepts has centered on role conflict theory (e.g., Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005; Wyland, Mone, & Winkel, 2013). A role is considered to be those activities or behaviors that are associated with a specific environment (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). For example, an individual in a student role is involved in learning new content, actively participating in group discussions, thinking critically, and applying their learning. The role of an employee is very similar to that of a student, as a typical employee engages in occasional professional development where they learn new information, process that information, and apply the information to their job. Since each role has its own demands, role conflict is likely to arise due to the individual being pulled in multiple directions, depriving them of the ability to satisfy every role partner (Kahn et al., 1964).

In Wyland et al.’s (2013) study, the researchers developed and tested a dual-role conflict model where perceptions of school-work conflict (i.e., conflict that occurs when the demands of school-related activities are not compatible with the demands of work-related activities, causing one difficulty to perform both roles) was used as a mediating variable between school involvement and job performance. Job performance was operationalized as job dedication, interpersonal facilitation, and task performance. After conducting two studies, findings indicated that 1) school involvement was a significant predictor of school-work conflict and 2) perceptions of school-work conflict did in fact hinder work performance (Wyland et al., 2013). In order to stay consistent with prior research, and because of the emphasis on work-related outcomes from
having dual roles of student and employee, we use Wyland et al.’s (2013) definition of school-work conflict in this study.

School-work conflict and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is described as the pleasure one has in their job (and organizational commitment as “an employee’s desire to remain with an organization” (Grusky, 1996; Hrebinjak & Alutto, 1972; Lee, 1969, 1971; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996). Job satisfaction has been shown to be directly related to job performance, turnover, and OCB (e.g. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Griffeth, Hom, & Faertner, 2000). Because of the importance of job satisfaction’s influence on the organization, many scholars looked at antecedents of job satisfaction. Lambert and Hogan (2009) conducted a study that included the impact of work environment variables on job satisfaction. Role overload and role conflict were included in their work environment variables. They did not find significant correlation between role conflict and job satisfaction. However, they have found that role overload had significant effects on employees’ job satisfaction ($\beta = -.18$), which means role overload had a negative relationship with employees’ job satisfaction. Inconsistent with Lambert and Hogan’s (2009) result, in 2016, Laughman, Boyd, and Rusbasan (2016) used a sample of undergraduate students to test the relationship between work-school conflict and job satisfaction and found a significant negative correlation between the two. However, a study by McNall and Michel (2011) did not find supporting evidence that work-school conflict had a negative relationship with school satisfaction. In this study, however, we expect to see a negative relationship between school-work conflict and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1: Participants who experience high levels of school-work conflict have low job satisfaction.

School-work conflict and organizational commitment

Employers who allow or encourage their employees to advance their education while working do not want to see employees leave the company once advanced KSA’s have been achieved. Rather, they want to hold onto these employees in hopes of them being able to contribute more towards the productivity of the company. Previous researches have shown that organizational commitment is a good predictor of turnover, employee performance and effectiveness of organization (See Koch and Steers, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Mowday, Porter, & Dubin, 1974; Steers, 1975). Therefore, it seems logical to look at the relationship between school-work conflict and organizational commitment.

According to Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic, and Johnson’s study in 2011, role stressors influence employees’ attitudes toward their organizations. Inconsistent with this, Lambert and Hogan’s (2009) study found a negative relationship between role conflict and organizational commitment. Moreover, several studies have looked at the relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment. After examining different types of commitment, Netemeyer, Boles, and McMurrian (1996) and Good, Sisler, and Gentry (1988) each found a significant negative relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment. However, Anderson-Kulman and Paludi (1986) were unsuccessful in finding significance in the
relationship between work-family conflict and work commitment. Although school-work conflict is a different variable than work-family conflict, we expect to find the same results of the prior studies relating to work-family conflict. We hypothesize that working students who show high levels of school-work conflict will also show low levels of organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2: Participants who experience high levels of school-work conflict have low organizational commitment.

Moderators: Core Self-Evaluations and Exhaustion

According to Hobfoll’s (1989) conservation of resources (COR) theory, psychological stress occurs in one of three instances. First, stress can occur when one is threatened with a loss of resources. Second, stress may occur due to a net loss of resources. Finally, the lack of gained resources after the spending of resources can cause stress. Hobfoll (1989) defines resources as “those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies” (p. 516). Due to the consideration in COR theory that one’s personal characteristics are resources, we assume that individual differences contribute to people’s different reactions towards stress. Core self-evaluations, a COR resource, is a stable personality that “encompasses an individual's subconscious, fundamental evaluations about themselves, their own abilities and their own control” (Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). In Judge et al.’s study (1997), they found that individuals with high core self-evaluations tend to think of themselves in a positive manner, and tend to be confident in their abilities. This led to other research that looked at the influence of core self-evaluations on many job related outcomes, such as job satisfaction and job performance. In addition to the proved direct influence on job outcomes, Kammeyer-Mueller, Judge, and Scott (2009) conducted a study testing core self-evaluations’ moderating influence on stressors and strain’s relationship, and problem solving and strain’s relationship. Their results suggest that individuals with high core self-evaluations would experience less stress and would be more able to cope. Moreover, a study conducted with full-time front line employees in the hospitality industry that tested core self-evaluations as a moderator of the impact that exhaustion had on job satisfaction found significance in core self-evaluations’ ability to strengthen the relationship between exhaustion and job satisfaction. Therefore, we assume that individuals with high core self-evaluations will not only experience less school-work conflict, but will react more positively to school-work conflict than individuals with low core self-evaluations. Thus, we propose that core self-evaluations will weaken school-work conflict’s influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: Core self-evaluations moderates the relationships between school-work conflict and (a) job satisfaction and (b) organizational commitment such that the relationships weaken when core self-evaluations are high.

In order to maintain a productive workforce, a firm needs employees who not only have the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) to perform their job, but are in good health as well. However, by allowing (or encouraging) employees to pursue advanced education, they risk lowering employee productivity due to the possibility of those individuals experiencing health
problems that result from the increased responsibilities at both work and school. One such health issue is exhaustion, which occurs when a person experiences extreme mental or physical fatigue.

Since exhaustion may occur as a result of other variables, such as devoting emotional and physical time to family, chores, and other personal commitments, we also look at the role of exhaustion as a moderator to the relationships between school-work conflict and job satisfaction and school-work conflict and organizational commitment. Although we did not find any literature that looked at the moderating effect of exhaustion on school-work conflict’s relationship to either job satisfaction or organizational commitment, we did find research on exhaustion’s direct relationship to role/job performance (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Karatepe, 2011) and job satisfaction (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009; Karatepe & Uludag, 2007; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Mulki, Jaramillo, & Locander, 2006; Karatepe, 2011). Unfortunately, the results of these studies are mixed. In one such study, a sample of frontline hotel staff in Iran were found to experience a significantly negative interaction between exhaustion and job satisfaction (Karatepe, 2011). However, in another study that sampled frontline hotel employees in Nigeria, researchers failed to find a significant, negative relationship between exhaustion and job performance (Karatepe & Aleshinloye, 2009).

In our study, we hypothesize that exhaustion plays a significant moderating role in the school-work conflict’s relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

**Hypothesis 4:** Exhaustion moderates the relationships between school-work conflict and (a) job satisfaction and (b) organizational commitment such that the relationships strengthen when exhaustion is high.

**METHODS**

An online survey was administered through Qualtrics to approximately 300 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled at a large Southwestern university. A total of 203 students responded to the survey. Listwise deletion was utilized for data that (a) was completed in an insufficient time-period (4), (b) incomplete (3), and (c) was collected by individuals who lacked employment (28). This resulted in a final sample of 168 subjects. Participants ranged in age from 19 to 67 years, and 56 percent of the sample was male. Approximately 55 percent of the sample were graduate students, and 62 percent of the sample were working full-time.

School-work conflict was measured using 4 items that were adapted from Grzvwacz and Marks’s (2000) scale of work-family conflict. Job satisfaction was measured using the Six-item Job Satisfaction measure developed by Agho, Price, and Mueller (1992), which was a shortened version of Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) overall job satisfaction measure. We used Mowday, Steers, and Porter’s (1979) 10-item scale on organizational commitment. Core self-evaluations was measured using Judge, Erez, Bono, and Thoresen’s (2003) 12-item scale. Finally, we used 18 of the 37 items in Appels and Mulder’s (1988) exhaustion scale. We removed 19 items pertaining to sensitive subject matters such as sexual activity or suicidal thoughts. After removing the items, the coefficient alpha was .929.

Assumptions tests revealed moderate levels of skewness (negative) and kurtosis in job satisfaction and organizational commitment, so we transformed these variables using both reflection and square-root transformations. Linear regression was conducted to test Hypotheses 1
and 2, while hierarchical multiple regression was used to test moderation effects (Hypotheses 3a, 3b, 4a, and 4b).

RESULTS

Simple linear regression was used to test Hypothesis 1, which states that there is a weak, direct relationship between school-work conflict and job satisfaction. Results revealed that a moderately statistically significant relationship was found between school-work conflict and the reflected square rooted transformation of job satisfaction ($p = 0.055$), yet the effect size was very low ($r^2 = .022$). After testing Hypothesis 2, the relationship between school-work conflict and organizational commitment was found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$, $r^2 = .024$) when school-work conflict and the reflected, square rooted organizational commitment variable were used in the regression analysis. Therefore, we conclude that Hypothesis 2 is supported, but with low explanatory value of organizational commitment.

Next, we tested the hypotheses that core self-evaluations would moderate school-work conflict’s relationships with job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Hypotheses 3a and 3b). Before conducting the regression analyses, an interaction term (SWC*CSE) was created using mean-centered values of school-work conflict and core self-evaluations. Next, we began the test of Hypothesis 3a by regressing the transformed job satisfaction variable onto school-work conflict and core self-evaluations. These variables explained approximately 9 percent of the variance in the transformed job satisfaction variable, $R^2 = .085$, $F(2, 165) = 7.684$, $p < .01$. After adding the interaction term in the second model, results indicated that explained variance increased by less than 1 percent, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(1, 164) = 5.308$, $p < .01$. Therefore, we concluded that core self-evaluations does not moderate the effect of school-work conflict’s relationship with job satisfaction, thus Hypothesis 3a is not supported. Hypothesis 3b was tested by regressing the transformed organizational commitment variable onto school-work conflict and core self-evaluations. Together, these variables explained more than 16 percent of organizational commitment, $R^2 = .165$, $F(2, 165) = 16.321$, $p < .001$. Next, the interaction term was added to the model, which did not result in a statistically significant change in explained variance, $\Delta R^2 = .015$, $F(1, 164) = 12.047$, $p < .001$. In conclusion, Hypothesis 3b is not supported.

To test Hypothesis 4a, we first created an interaction term (SWC*Exhaustion) using mean-centered values of school-work conflict and exhaustion. Next, the transformed job satisfaction variable was regressed onto school-work conflict and exhaustion. Together, these variables explained approximately 6 percent of the variance in job satisfaction, $R^2 = .058$, $F(2, 165) = 6.115$, $p < .01$. In the second step of the regression analysis, the interaction term between school-work conflict and exhaustion was entered, which resulted in a significant increase in variance explained in job satisfaction, $\Delta R^2 = .057$, $F(1, 164) = 7.878$, $p < .01$. School-work conflict became less significant in the second model, which indicates that exhaustion is a moderator of the relationship. As a result, Hypothesis 4a is supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 4b was tested by regressing the transformed job satisfaction variable onto school-work conflict and core self-evaluations. Together, these variables explained 8.5 percent of organizational commitment, $R^2 = .085$, $F(2, 165) = 7.684$, $p < .01$. Adding the interaction term did not result in a statistically significant change in explained variance, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $F(1, 164) = 5.308$, $p < .01$. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b is not supported.
DISCUSSION

Our findings suggest that although school-work conflict has a moderately-significant relationship job satisfaction, and a significant relationship with organizational commitment, the variance explained in each of the dependent variables is extremely small. Yet, when exhaustion was added to the model, the variable was found to play a statistically significant role in moderating school-work conflict’s relationships with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and noticeably increase the amount of variance explained in each of these variables. Core self-evaluations, on the other hand, was not found to moderate school-work conflict’s relationships with job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

This study is not without some limitations. First, the sample size was not adequate, which could be the reason why school-work conflict did not have a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction in our analysis. A replication study with a larger sample may result in different outcomes. Another limitation is that the some of the variables used in the study were found to have weak factor scores after conducting confirmatory factor analysis. Therefore, before collecting more data for another study, it is recommended that future researchers eliminate these items from the measure. A final limitation relates to exhaustion in that, although we found it to be influential as a moderator in the relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment, we were not able to explain why it influences the outcomes.

This study makes important contributions to the school-work conflict literature and to practitioners. First, we tested school-work conflict’s relationship with job satisfaction and organizational commitment and found that school-work conflict had a very small effect size on the dependent variables, and school-work conflict did not have a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction. These results indicate that the employee-student dual role neither increases nor decreases an employee’s work motivations (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment). This is good news for practitioners (especially for those who provide monetary support for employees who choose to go to school while working), as the conflict that the employee may experience by choosing to have dual roles in school and work is not likely to affect their level of satisfaction for their job or their commitment to the organization. One contribution that this study makes to the management literature is that never-before tested moderators (i.e., core self-evaluations and exhaustion) to job satisfaction and organizational commitment were analyzed with school-work conflict as the independent variable. Finally, most of the current literature relating to dual role conflict that occurs between work and school have examined the effects on academic outcomes rather than work outcomes (Markel & Frone, 1998; Butler, 2007; McNall & Michell, 2007). Since there is only one known study that has examined the effects that school activities have on job-related factors (Wyland et al., 2013), this study helps expand the knowledge in the area.

To conclude, the results of this study suggest that the dual-role conflict that student-employees may experience while working and attending school at the same time does not greatly increase or decrease their job satisfaction or organizational commitment. This is good news for managers, as work motivations of employees who attend school are not likely to be influenced by maintaining dual-role status. On the other hand, working students who experience high levels of exhaustion may experience lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Therefore, managers should be more concerned with helping their employees maintain good health rather than worrying about potential negative effects of advanced education on work
motivations. In conclusion, with the growing number of full-time working college students, there is clearly room for expansion in the school-work conflict literature.

REFERENCES AVAILABLE FROM THE AUTHORS