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GUIDELINES FOR SUBMISSION

Journal of Organizational Psychology
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The Journal of Organizational Psychology (JOP) aims to publish empirical reports and theoretical reviews of research in the field of organizational psychology. The journal will focus on research and theory in all topics associated with organizational psychology within and across individual, group and organizational levels of analysis, including but not limited to: personnel selection and training; organizational assessment and development; risk management and loss control leadership development, marketing and consumer behavior research, organizational culture, organizational justice, organizational performance, performance appraisal, feedback, staffing and selection. It is also the aim of JOP for all research to have an end benefit to practitioners and policy makers. All empirical methods-including, but not limited to, qualitative, quantitative, field, laboratory, meta-analytic, and combination methods-are welcome. Accepted manuscripts must make strong empirical and/or theoretical contributions and highlight the significance of those contributions to the organizational psychology field. JOP is not tied to any particular discipline, level of analysis, or national context.

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Include a title page with manuscript which includes the full names, affiliations, address, phone, fax, and e-mail addresses of all authors and identifies one person as the Primary Contact. Put the submission date on the bottom of the title page. On a separate sheet, include the title and an abstract of 100 words or less. Do not include authors’ names on this sheet. A final page, “About the authors,” should include a brief biographical sketch of 100 words or less on each author. Include current place of employment and degrees held.

References must be written in APA style. It is the responsibility of the author(s) to ensure that the paper is thoroughly and accurately reviewed for spelling, grammar and referencing.
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In today’s borderless world where change is the only constant, organizations need to work on building a workforce, which can not only survive but also thrive in such a volatile environment. Proactive individuals actively create environmental change. The purpose of the present study was to empirically test the mechanism by which proactive personality is related to intent to remain with the organization through three important factors—managerial communication, affective commitment to change and job satisfaction. The results supported the mediating effect of all the three factors. Implications for organizations and future research are discussed.

OVERVIEW OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY

In today’s competitive world, change seems to be the only constant, competition the norm, and job security a day-dreamer’s fantasy. In such a back-drop being proactive is a necessity rather than a luxury. Organizations are treating proactive behaviors as a role requirement, emphasizing its value to employees, and hiring applicants with a proactive orientation (Campbell, 2000). Proactive behavior entails a dynamic approach toward work (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996; Parker, 2000) seeking to improvise the existing job along with developing personal prerequisites for furthering career success (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999) and organizational effectiveness (Bateman & Crant, 1999). It encompasses behaviors such as taking charge (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) and personal initiative (Frese et al., 1996) and is closely associated with flexible role orientations (Parker, Wall, & Jackson, 1997).

The dispositional approach involves the measurement of personal characteristics and the assumption that such measures can aid in explaining individual attitudes and behavior. Also when traits and predispositions are strong there is a lesser likelihood they will be overridden by situational forces (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Using this approach past research has conceived proactive personality as a relatively stable individual disposition toward proactive behavior (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Additionally, the extant work on proactive behavior advocates the fact that the construct proactive personality explicitly encompasses the varied aspects of proactive behavior and initiative (Crant, 2000).

Bateman and Crant (1993) defined the construct proactive personality “as a dispositional construct that identifies differences among people in the extent to which they take action to influence their environment” (p. 103). They further developed the Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) to measure this construct and provided evidence for the scale’s convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity with results from three studies. Since then, a number of studies have consistently demonstrated the validity of the proactive personality construct, as assessed by the PPS (e.g., Becherer & Maurer, 1999; Crant, 1995, 1996; Crant & Bateman, 2000; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Parker & Sprigg, 1998).
Proactive personality is a unique disposition not captured by other typologies such as the five-factor model; Crant and Bateman (2000) found only moderate correlations with the five-factor model of personality. Furthermore, Crant (1995) found that proactive personality predicted sales performance above and beyond conscientiousness and extraversion. Additionally, Bateman and Crant (1993) showed that proactive personality is distinct from self-consciousness, need for achievement, need for dominance, and locus of control. All these studies provide further evidence for the discriminant validity of proactive personality.

Research in understanding this construct has been rapidly increasing. Its effects have been studied in varied fields like job performance through a social capital perspective (Thompson, 2005); transformational (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and charismatic leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000); and job search success (Brown, Cober, Kane, Levy, & Shalhoop, 2006). Chan (2006) has explored the interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and outcomes. Parker and Sprigg (1998) found that proactive personality moderated the interactive effect of job autonomy and demands on employee strain. Their results were consistent with the premise that proactive employees take advantage of high job control to manage more effectively the demands they face, whereas passive employees do not take advantage of greater autonomy to this end.

Importance of Proactive Personality in Organizational Change

Several researchers have called for a more person-focused approach to the study of organizational change (e.g., Aktouf, 1992; Bray, 1994), especially since we are witnessing immense changes in the world of work with jobs in the 21st century requiring greater initiative, courtesy of global competition (Cascio, 1995; Frese & Fay, 2001; Howard, 1995). Recent years have therefore seen an escalating interest in studying the complexity of changes in the workplace, their causes, consequences, and strategies for change (for reviews, see Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Porras & Robertson, 1992). This is where the proactive stance plays an important role: as work becomes more dynamic and changeable, proactive personality and initiative become even more critical determinants of organizational success (Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997). Proactive personality is the degree to which individuals have an active role orientation. Rather than accepting their roles passively, proactive persons challenge the status quo and initiate change (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Thus employees with proactive personalities use initiative, persevere, and attempt to shape their environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993).

There is an ever-increasing demand by organizations for proactive behavior as they expect employees to fix things that they see as wrong (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). In this context the words of Bateman and Crant (1999) are apt:

Proaction involves creating change, not merely anticipating it. It does not just involve the important attributes of flexibility and adaptability toward an uncertain future. To be proactive is to take the initiative in improving business. At the other extreme, behavior that is not proactive includes sitting back, letting others make things happen, and passively hoping that externally imposed change “works out okay.” (p. 63)

Retaining Proactive Employees

From the above discussion it is evident that proactive employees are an asset to an organization. This led to understanding the factors affecting proactive employee retention. Based on the extant literature of both proactive personality and organizational change three factors were chosen for the present study—managerial communication, affective commitment to change and job satisfaction. Also in the present study, instead of measuring turnover intentions a more positive variable was chosen i.e. intent to remain with the organization.

Proactive and Managerial Communication

An important factor in employees’ support for change, which has gained importance in recent years, is managerial communication, which is also predominantly important in the entire organizational change
process (Armenakis & Harris, 2002; Lewis, 1999). It is generally defined in terms of a process through which companies basically prepare employees for change by stating and clarifying issues related to the change (Lewis, 1999). Communication helps employees to gain a better understanding for the need for change, as well as to have some insights on the personal effects which may be caused by the proposed change (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). The process perspective suggests that when employees receive adequate and suitable communication in a change context (i.e. appropriate justification for, and information about, the change and timely feedback), they will have more favorable attitudes toward the change which, in turn, should impact their intention to stay with the organization.

Hence in the present study we anticipated the potential mediating effect of managerial communication.

**Hypothesis 1:** Managerial communication will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization.

**Proactive Personality and Affective Commitment to Change**

Commitment, in a broad sense, can be defined as “a force [mind set] that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets” (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Conner and Patterson (1982) noted, that “the most prevalent factor contributing to failed change projects is a lack of commitment by the people” (p. 18). Thus commitment to organizational change is unquestionably one of the most imperative factors involved in employees’ support for change projects (Armenakis, Harris, & Feild, 1999; Coetsee, 1999; Conner & Patterson, 1982; Klein & Sorra, 1996). Conner (1992) aptly described commitment to change as “the glue that provides the vital bond between people and change goals” (p. 147). Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that this force, or mind-set, could take different forms: desire (affective commitment), perceived cost (continuance commitment), or obligation (normative commitment). In the present study the affective form of commitment to change (desire to provide support for the change based on a belief in its inherent benefits) was used.

Bateman and Crant (1993) argued that proactive individuals actively create environmental change, while less proactive people take a more reactive approach toward their jobs. Thus, proactive personality refers to the general disposition to make active attempts to effect changes in one's environment, and is crucial in modern organizations characterized by fast changes and reduced supervision. Proactive people identify opportunities and act on them, show initiative, take action, and persevere until meaningful change occurs (Crant, 1996). Given the definition of proactive personality and the importance of commitment to change, it was predicted that commitment to change will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization.

**Hypothesis 2:** Affective commitment to change will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization.

**Proactive Personality and Job Satisfaction**

Dispositional characteristics incline people to a certain level of satisfaction (see Bowling, Beehr, Wagner, & Libkuman, 2005). In fact two important studies found that genetic factors, which apparently affect disposition, may account for as much as 30% of the variance in job satisfaction (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Arvey, McCall, Bouchard, Taubman, & Cavanaugh, 1994). Dispositions may have a direct effect on job satisfaction or may influence the way in which employees perceive their jobs, which, consequently affects job satisfaction (Bowling et al., 2005). In the present study job satisfaction was defined as an individual's global feeling about his or her job (Spector, 1997). Proactive personality will probably affect job satisfaction as “proactive individuals will be more satisfied with their jobs because they will remove obstacles preventing satisfaction” (Erdogan & Bauer, 2005, p. 861).

Research linking job performance with satisfaction and other attitudes has been studied since at least 1939, with the Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). Organ (1988) found that the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction follows the social exchange theory; employees’
performance is giving back to the organization from which they get their satisfaction. Thus it seems to be a common assumption that employees who are happy with their job should also be more productive at work (Spector, 1997) and therefore should be less inclined to leave the organization.

Hence, it was anticipated that job satisfaction would mediate the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization.

Hypothesis 3: Job satisfaction will mediate the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization.

METHODOLOGY

Research Setting and Participants

Data for this study was collected from a non-profit organization located in the United States, having approximately 900 employees working in offices spread out throughout a southeastern state. This organization was chosen because it had recently experienced a major restructuring.

Data was collected via a self-report online survey wherein respondents were informed that participation in the survey was voluntary and that the survey responses would be completely anonymous. The on-line survey resulted in 275 usable questionnaires, which gave a decent response rate of 31.3%. A sizeable amount of respondents used in our analyses aged over 50 years (42.6%) while the lowest range was between 20-29 years (4.6%), and 60.6 percent of the respondents were women, 63.5% were Caucasian while 26.6% were African Americans. Table 1 provides a demographic profile of the respondents.

| TABLE 1 | DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS |
|---|---|---|
| **Variable** | **N** | **%** |
| Gender | | |
| Females | 171 | 62.2 |
| Race | | |
| Caucasian | 177 | 64.4 |
| African American | 75 | 27.3 |
| Hispanic | 1 | .4 |
| Native American | 2 | .7 |
| Asian | 1 | .4 |
| Other | 4 | 1.5 |
| Age | | |
| 20 – 29 years | 13 | 4.7 |
| 30 – 39 years | 38 | 13.8 |
| 40 – 49 years | 100 | 36.4 |
| > 50 years | 118 | 42.9 |
| Tenure (Organization) | | |
| < 1 year | 11 | 4 |
| 1 – 5 years | 47 | 17.1 |
| 6 – 10 years | 53 | 19.3 |
| 11 – 20 years | 88 | 32 |
| > 20 years | 72 | 26.2 |

*Note: N = 275*


**TABLE 1 Continued**

**DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF SURVEY RESPONDENTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tenure (Job position)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>&lt; 1 year</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5 years</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>45.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 – 10 years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>17.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 – 20 years</td>
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<td>19.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt; 20 years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.3</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Job Position</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>County Extension Coordinator</td>
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<td>16.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Regional Extension Agent</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Specialist</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Specialist/University</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faculty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State-wide Administrators</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative Staff</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Para-profession</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Locally funded Agents &amp; Actor Assistants)</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: N = 275*

**Measures**

**Proactive Personality**

Proactive personality was measured by using the shortened version of Bateman and Crant's (1993) 17-item Proactive Personality Scale (PPS) created by Seibert, Crant, and Kraimer, (1999). The shortened version consists of 10 items, which were selected as they had the highest average factor loadings across the three studies reported by Bateman and Crant (1993). These three studies presented evidence for the scale’s reliability (Cronbach’s alpha across three samples ranged from .87 to .89, and the test-retest reliability coefficient was .72 over a 3 month period) and convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity. Seibert et al (1999) mentioned that the deletion of 7 items did not result in a major effect on the reliability of the scale (17-item α = .88; 10-item α = .86). These items were summed to arrive at a proactive personality score. Responses were indicated on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"), with such items as "I excel at identifying opportunities" and "No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen." Internal consistency (coefficient alpha) obtained in the current study was .89, in line with that reported by Bateman and Crant (1993).

**Intent to Remain**

Employee’s intent to remain with the organization was measured using a scale from Robinson (1996). This four-item scale asked employees to respond to Likert-type questions about how long the employee intends to remain with the employer, the extent to which they would prefer to work for a different employer, the extent to which they have thought about changing companies, and one binary question (“If you had your way, would you be working for this employer three years from now?”). We found a rather modest reliability with Cronbach’s alpha measuring .68.
Affective Commitment to Change

This variable was measured using a sub-scale of the scale developed by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) to measure commitment to change. The scale consisted of 22 items of which seven items assessed affective commitment (e.g., “I believe in the value of this change”), which was used in this study. Responses were made using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This scale exhibited strong reliability with Cronbach’s alpha measuring .95.

Managerial Communication

Managerial communication was measured by using a subscale of the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ) (Downs & Hazen, 1977). Although several factors are identified by Downs and Hazen (1977) as indicators of overall communication satisfaction in the workplace, the focus of the present study was specifically related to the dimension that assesses employees’ satisfaction with communication with their immediate supervisor or manager. It assesses how satisfied employees are with information they receive about their job, recognition of their efforts, and how well supervisors understand problems faced by employees. A 7-point Likert response format (ranging from 1 = very dissatisfied to 7 = very satisfied) was used to measure employees’ satisfaction to the five items. The reliability found in the present study was in tune with these studies as Cronbach’s alpha was .90.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by using a nine-item scale developed by Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch (1997). Respondents indicated the extent of their agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree). Cronbach’s alpha measured for this scale was a .89.

Demographic Data

The survey also included items inquiring about the subjects' age, gender, ethnicity, and job tenure. (See Table 1 for a summary of the measures).

Data Analysis

In the present study the data was analyzed by using hierarchical linear regression. To test for mediation Barron and Kenny (1986) suggested a three-step procedure: 1) the mediator was regressed on the independent variable, 2) the dependent variable was regressed on the independent variable, and finally 3) the dependent variable was regressed on both the independent variable and on the mediator. However, to test for complete mediation the independent variable needs to be controlled in the third step. Hence a simple regression was performed for step one, but for steps two and three a hierarchical linear regression was employed. A formal test of the significance of mediation was provided by the Sobel test (1982) (see MacKinnon, Warsi, & Dwyer, 1995).

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 displays means, standard deviations and correlations among all the variables. Correlations among the independent and mediator variables had a median value of .07 and a maximum value of .40, with a maximum variance-inflation factor less than 2; hence, multicollinearity was not a severe problem that would preclude interpretation of the regression analyses (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1983). Proactive personality was significantly and positively related to intent to remain with the organization (r = .13, p = .05) and the three factors managerial communication (r = .19, p = .01); affective commitment to change (r = .18, p = .01); and job satisfaction (r = .22, p = .01). Given the proposed mediational framework managerial communication (r = .31, p = .01); affective commitment to change (r = .17, p = .01); and job satisfaction (r = .63, p = .01) were significantly correlated with intent to remain.
**TABLE 2**
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND ZERO-ORDER CORRELATIONS AMONG VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Intent to remain</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Proactive Personality</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Managerial Communication</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.31**</td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Affective Commitment to Change</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.17**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Job Satisfaction</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>.63**</td>
<td>.22**</td>
<td>.56**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 275
*p < .05. **p < .01.

**Hypotheses Testing**

For testing hypothesis 1, which suggested the mediating role of managerial communication in the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization, we first regressed managerial communication on proactive personality. This was followed by a two-step hierarchical linear regression (see Table 3). In step one, intent to remain with the organization was regressed on proactive personality, followed by step two wherein proactive personality was controlled and managerial communication was introduced. Finally we calculated the Sobel’s test (Preacher & Leonardelli, 2001). Formula for the test was drawn from MacKinnon, Warsi, and Dwyer (1995). The above steps were repeated for analyzing hypotheses 2 and 3 related to the mediating effect of affective commitment to change and job satisfaction respectively. Tables 3, 4 & 5 summarize the results of the regression analyses.

**TABLE 3**
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MEDIATION OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON INTENT TO REMAIN BY MANAGERIAL COMMUNICATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression 1&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Sobel Test</th>
<th>Proactive Personality</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Δ R²</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression 2&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.19**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>2.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managerial Communication</td>
<td>.30***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Dependent variable is Managerial Communication
<sup>b</sup>Dependent variable is Intent to Remain with the Organization

Note. N = 275. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

As shown in Table 3, the regression coefficient for managerial communication was significant in contributing to intent to remain with the organization when proactive personality was controlled indicating the mediating role of managerial communication ($β = .30, p = .001; R^2Δ = .09, p = .001$).
Proactive personality was statistically insignificant in step 2, which suggested that managerial communication completely mediated the relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain with the organization. The Sobel test (1982) revealed significant evidence of complete mediation by managerial communication, $z = 2.71, p = .006$.

**TABLE 4**
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MEDIATION OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON INTENT TO REMAIN BY AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT TO CHANGE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression 1&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Sobel Test</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Δ R²</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>.21&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.05***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression 2&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Sobel Test</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Δ R²</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>.37&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>.13&lt;sup&gt;*&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.38&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.38&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment to Change</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Dependent variable is Affective Commitment to Change  
<sup>b</sup>Dependent variable is Intent to Remain with the Organization  
*Note. N = 275. *p<.05. **p<.001.*

**TABLE 5**
SUMMARY OF HIERARCHICAL REGRESSION ANALYSES: MEDIATION OF THE EFFECT OF PROACTIVE PERSONALITY ON INTENT TO REMAIN BY JOB SATISFACTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression 1&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Sobel Test</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Δ R²</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>.22&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.05***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression 2&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Sobel Test</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>Δ R²</th>
<th>z</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td></td>
<td>.02&lt;sup&gt;*&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.13&lt;sup&gt;*&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>.13&lt;sup&gt;*&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.17&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td></td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.42&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proactive Personality</td>
<td></td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.42&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>.42&lt;sup&gt;***&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup>Dependent variable is Job Satisfaction  
<sup>b</sup>Dependent variable is Intent to Remain with the Organization  
*Note. N = 275. *p<.05. **p<.001.*

Similarly as seen in Tables 4 & 5, the regression coefficient for affective commitment to change and job satisfaction were significant in contributing to intent to remain with the organization when proactive personality was controlled indicating the mediating role of affective commitment to change ($β = .38, p = .001; \Delta R² = .01, p = .05$) and job satisfaction ($β = .42, p = .001; \Delta R² = .17, p = .001$). Proactive personality was statistically insignificant in step 2 for both the variables, which suggested that affective commitment to change and job satisfaction completely mediated the relationship between proactive personality and...
intent to remain with the organization. The Sobel test (1982) revealed significant evidence of complete mediation by affective commitment to change ($z = 3.18, p = .001$) and job satisfaction ($z = 3.28, p = .001$).

**DISCUSSION**

The present study aimed at delineating the process/mechanism through which proactive personality affects intent to remain through three factors—managerial communication, affective commitment to change and job satisfaction thereby providing evidence for the importance of these three factors in retaining an organization’s proactive employees. The present study has made an important contribution to both the proactive personality and the change literature. Interestingly we found that all the three factors completely mediated the relationship between proactive personality/intent to remain, which implied that in the absence of these three factors there would be no relationship between proactive personality and intent to remain.

**Practical Implications**

The above findings have several practical implications; especially from an applied perspective this type of research is important, as it gives more insight on how organizations can recognize and leverage from those exhibiting proactive personality. This is even more important in the backdrop of change—hence companies need to invest in retaining their proactive employees, if they want their organizational change process to be more effective and smooth. There is hardly any doubt in the fact that proactive employees are an asset to the company, however it is up to the company to make sure that they do not lose such an asset. Our results have shown that proactive individuals will intend to remain with the company if their supervisors/managers communicate with them, they understand the change and are committed to it and are satisfied with their job.

**Limitations of the Study**

Data for this study was collected anonymously. Although limiting any inference of causality among the study variables, protecting respondents’ anonymity provided benefits by potentially reducing the method bias (see P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & N. P. Podsakoff, 2003). This is a particularly important aspect in the present study as it related to organizational change which is often characterized by high levels of distrust and uncertainty and which may lead to biased responses if participants believe their identity could be revealed to management. This, in turn, may result in a less of internal validity if respondents are hesitant to provide honest responses to the survey questions for fear of repercussion (Green & Feild, 1976).

Data was collected from a single organization, even though a limitation but conducting the study in one organization helped avoid impending confounding factors, such as type of industry, resources, and markets (Pritchard, Jones, Roth, Stuebing, & Ekeberg 1988; Mukherjee, Lapre’, & Wassenhove, 1998). Additionally, the measure of intent to remain with the organization had disappointing low reliability ($\alpha = .68$) in this study although it was close to the recommended minimum threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). An alternative measure could be used in future research. Finally, the data was collected from a non-profit organization and hence generalizability may be an issue.

**Future Research**

There is considerable agreement in the organizational change literature that people are concerned with the amount of impact change will have on themselves, their job, and their work colleagues (e.g., Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Lau & Woodman, 1995; Weber & Manning, 2001). When discussing the impact of change in the workplace, authors have drawn a fundamental distinction between incremental or first-order change and transformational or second-order change (e.g., Bartunek & Moch, 1987; Levy, 1986). As seen from the results proactive personality has a robust relationship with job outcomes. Proactive personality is indeed a blessing for both transformational and incremental changes. Although
the present paper concentrates on transformational change it would be interesting to replicate this study in an organizational setting characterized by incremental change. Also, authors in the field of organizational change have argued that individuals are concerned with the timing of change in the workplace, and whether change occurs very frequently or infrequently (Glick, Huber, Miller, Doty, & Sutcliffè, 1990; Monge, 1995). Future study can observe a proactive employee’s reaction to both frequent and infrequent changes as Glick et al. argued that changes which occur infrequently will help employees to identify a clear beginning and end point of change. On the contrary, when changes are frequent, organizational members will find the change highly unpredictable.

The present paper shed light into the mechanism by which proactive personality affects intent to remain, and it is also evident from the literature on turnover that intentions are one of best predictors of turnover behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001). However, research has found that intentions do not always result in turnover behavior (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005). Hence it would be interesting to replicate this study using turnover behavior as the outcome variable.

In today’s borderless and competitive world it would greatly help if this study could also be replicated by comparing data across cultures example U. S. and Japan as Japanese employees exhibit higher work centrality, and give greater importance to job security and stability than do employees in the U.S.(England & Misumi 1986; Lundberg & Peterson 1994).

Further it would be interesting to observe how the results of this study vary across demographic variables especially age. Although in the present study we collected data for age we hardly had any variation in the age as a major portion of the respondents were either above 40 or 50 years. Age plays an important role as seen in the organizational change literature with older workers being more resistant to changes in job changes since they are worried that they may have to start afresh especially if there is no significant value for their job experience of past working skills (Campbell & Cellini 1981; Hansson, DeKoekkoek, Neece, & Patterson 1997). Finally, the effect of organizational change is better captured by longitudinal data. It would be interesting to observe if the present results would differ in a longitudinal study.

Crant (2000) aptly states the importance of proactive personality which can be rightly applied to an organization undergoing change—as change relates to dynamism and uncertainty: “As work becomes more dynamic and decentralized, proactive behavior and initiative become even more critical determinants of organizational success” (p. 435). This study provides an initial attempt to delineate the process/mechanism through which proactive personality affects certain job–related outcomes in the backdrop of a change setting. The “bottom line” is to prevent organizations from losing one of their most important assets—its proactive employees.

REFERENCES


Don’t Even Think: Virtual Team Process for Flexible Decision Making

Sean Cordes
Western Illinois University

A theory-driven task process intervention was proposed to improve decision-making in virtual teams. Twenty-six teams performed an online decision task using chat communication and a shared document. Experimental teams used a structured decision process including coordination, monitoring and back up behaviors, while control teams used ad hoc processes. Experimental teams made stronger, more accurate decisions than control teams. The intervention shows promise for reducing bias that obstructs online decision making. The research provides understanding and importance of process design and training to improve outcomes for virtual teams where communication cues are limited and members may have limited online collaboration experience.

INTRODUCTION

As technology evolves, it changes the way we live, learn, and work. The ability to adapt to the digital environment is critical for business and organizations where learning and work activity is increasingly performed online, and success is often dependent on the ability to solve problems and make decisions collectively. Cognitive Flexibility Theory was designed to assist learning in ill-structured domains and typically uses contextual cases as the basis for learning (Jonassen, 1997). Learning in ill-structured domains requires sufficiently complex representation of the knowledge, and the way it applies to individual cases varies greatly. Perhaps most importantly, learning complex representations require structures for assembling information into useful knowledge. Spiro and colleagues theorize that these representations make learning actionable through multiple representations of information, support for context dependent knowledge, and variability and interconnectedness of cases (Spiro, Coulson, Feltovich, & Anderson, 1988).

Similarly, organizational psychology research recommends process strategies to increase team effectiveness by providing mechanisms for organizing, managing, evaluating, and acting upon information. Marks, Mathieu, and Zaccaro identify four key action processes for team work including monitoring progress towards goals, systems monitoring, team monitoring and back up response, and coordination (2001). These processes reflect periods of direct action where teams perform work relating directly towards the goal, and transitional periods where members evaluate progress and plan next steps. The structuring of these phases helps ensure that appropriate process behavior occurs when needed to ensure success. Considering decision making in virtual teams action processes are especially critical having strong task orientation and close ties closely to dimensions related to team interaction like communication, information sharing, task technology fit, and adaptation to changing conditions (Powell, 2004).
Functional Models and Learning

Functional models help guide team learning by defining what the system and related processes are designed to do, and how performance is measured (Guzzo & Shea, 1992). In terms of learning, models guide instruction by helping identify learning needs, examine teaching and delivery options, and evaluate learning systems and learner outcomes (Magliaro & Shambaugh, 2006). For example, towards improving knowledge acquisition in the Second Life environment, Wang and Hsu, 1) conducted analysis of learner characteristics, technology, and goals, 2) created a design that included clear objectives, activities, and strategies for delivering content, 3) developed and integrated materials into the environment, 4) facilitated student interaction with materials, and 5) evaluated the system through data collected from instructors and learners (2009).

Organizational psychologists have also relied upon functional models to predict and improve team effectiveness. The input-process-output model provides a way to describe systems and develop interventions related to performance (Hackman & Morris, 1975). In general, inputs are tangible things such as human and material resources, knowledge, and task and technology requirements (McGrath, 1984). Given this, team outcomes are typically measured by the quantity and/or quality of products, the consequences for members, and the potential for teams to perform effectively in the future (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). As such, team action processes represent dynamic between group members and resources, and help define how teammates interact and work together to reach goals (Lee, Espinosa, & Delone, 2009).

Cognitive Flexibility and Action Process

Action process drives task interaction, including group communication, task technology fit, and adaptation to changing conditions (Powell, Piccoli, & Ives, 2004). Action processes for performing task work include: monitoring progress toward goals, systems monitoring, team monitoring and backup responses, and coordination activities (Marks, Matheiu, & Zaccaro, 2001). These processes help members maintain awareness of the work environment, align with and judge progress towards goals, synchronize activity, and provide corrective action.

Monitoring progress towards goals requires self-directing the exchange of information, objectively tracking team progress, and adapting action as the decision process evolves (Nutt, 1999). Teams with strong progress monitoring understand what needs to be done, and review and evaluate activity to detect performance gaps, correct errors, and ensure work is performed correctly. Systems monitoring includes tracking of internal resources such as technology and information used by the team and provides a way to understand information and make careful judgments (Waller, Gupta & Giambatista, 2004). Equally important is the ability for team members to understand the status of the team environment. Team monitoring and backup behaviors are actions that aid in task execution. Monitoring and backup actions support effective observation and adaptation of team member behavior (O'Dea & U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, 2006). Monitoring enables decision makers to identify alternatives, make more informed choices, and offer and receive assistance when needed. Research shows team process interventions that contain monitoring and backup components can help teams identify choices, recognize types of information to collect, engage in interdependent actions, and adapt to changing conditions in the information environment (Nutt, 1993).

Finally, coordination process provides sequence and timing to manage team activity. This often involves information exchange and mutual adjustment of team actions, and is strongly correlated with team effectiveness in a number of organizational scenarios (Brannick, Roach, & Salas, 1993). In virtual teams task work often requires simultaneous action, coordination becomes more complex, and breakdowns in communication and timing of activity are more likely to happen (Tesluk, Mathieu, Zaccaro, & Marks, 1997). As information is integrated across the team, new arrangements arise that could not be developed from individual components, and the shape and meaning of the representation may change over time (Hutchins, 2001). As such, coordination of information across team, tools, and the environment is critical to effective team performance (Preece, 1994). Key to effective action process is interactivity among team members. As Hackman notes, group interaction impacts ability to coordinate...
activity, and the strategies teams use to work together (1975). Considering decision making, action process is critical as it directly impacts information sharing and exchange activities that determine outcomes (Marks & Panzer, 2004).

Cognitive Flexibility and Process Design Intervention

Cognitive flexibility and process design intervention work by maintaining complexity of information, while providing fluid connections between contexts and cases (CiFuentes, Alvarez, & Bettati, 2010). It can be argued that cognitive flexibility only occurs when there is sufficient interaction to engage information and enable problem solving. For example, obvious information held by all persons is more likely recalled, discussed, and given greater value, causing critical information to be overlooked (Stasser & Titus, 2003). Further, decisions are often based on initial individual information, and preference for this perspective persists even when other information is presented, limiting acknowledgement of potential alternatives (Greitemeyer & Schulz-Hardt, 2003). Teams with strong interaction, opportunity to express diverse thinking, and open attitude for change have more alternatives to choose from, and tend to make better decisions (Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995). For instance, Maier found teams often begin to generate and evaluate alternatives before analyzing the task thoroughly (1963). Likewise, Hoffman found potential solutions gain or lose strength depending on support or criticism from member discussion (1961). To address decision bias process, Hackman and Vidmar recommend process designers arrange conditions in the problem space so obvious solutions are not adopted prematurely, and alternative options encouraged (1970).
Applying Cognitive Flexibility to Improve Decision Making

Cognitive flexibility requires application of specific knowledge to meet problem needs. Groups must assemble information effectively to get a clear picture of the knowledge required to maximize decisions (Spiro, Feltovich, Jacobson, & Coulson, 1992). Research suggests process guidelines for coordination, monitoring, and backup response help teams construct and manage multiple views of complex information, and provide ways to build connections among team actions and resources (Marks, et al., 2001).

Coordination may help support cognitive flexibility by sequencing activity of team members to focus on relevant knowledge so logical representations can be developed as individual cases change the overall information set. Monitoring goal progress is a regulating function that helps teams judge whether actions are effective in solving the problem, and what performance gaps need correction. In terms of cognitive flexibility, goal monitoring helps members decide which cases are most relevant to solving problems, or where cases may need to be integrated, or removed.

Team monitoring and backup behaviors on the other hand help mediate information brought forward by the team and provide clarification about changes to the collective value of the information as it is organized by team members. The interaction among team members impacts ability to coordinate member effort, and cognitive flexibility and action process reflect the generative potential of information. Thus it is reasonable that a learning process that supports cognitive flexibility through action process would increase decision effectiveness in learning teams. Given this it is expected teams using collaboration process that supports information complexity, multiple representations, and connections between team members and team information will make more effective decisions than those with ad hoc processes.

Hypothesis 1: Action process structure will be positively related to decision accuracy.
Hypothesis 2: Action process structure will be positively related to decision quality.

METHODS

Participants

Population for the study was students at two Midwestern universities. Recruitment methods were approved by the institutional review board at both universities. Students were invited using email and in-class presentations. The recruiting materials provided students with a description of the study including: purpose and task, benefits, compensation, confidentiality, and a link to the study sign-up calendar. The final sample was 104 participants assigned to 26 complete teams.

Study Design

The experiment used a single factor design with two levels to test the impact of an intervention for increasing decision performance by structuring the collaborative process to increase cognitive flexibility. Because single factor designs manipulate conditions between a proposed treatment and typical conditions, they are often used to evaluate the effectiveness of new methods or interventions (Gliner, & Morgan, 2000).

Evaluation Task

A hidden profile task was used to determine impact of the process on decision making. Participants acted as committee members assigned to choose an airline pilot from four candidates. Each pilot candidate had a set of ten personality attributes including some distinctly positive and negative traits. Positive attributes included characteristics such as, “has excellent depth perception”. Negative attributes were statements like, “is sometimes arrogant” (Schulz-Hardt, Brodbeck, Mojzisch, Kerschreiter, & Frey, 2006). Candidate information sets were distributed so each team member had some unique information about each candidate, and some that was shared with other members so no one person had the complete information required to make an accurate decision. The distribution of positive and negative attributes across profiles provides a set of information where no clear choice is available at the individual level, but
an optimal solution is available when all information is aggregated by the team. Initially, candidate C appears weakest with only three positive qualities, while candidates A, B, and D have four. With complete sharing, candidate C has seven positive and three negative attributes, while all others have four positive and four negative. Given complete information sharing C is clearly the strongest choice. As such, learning gains occur when team members integrate all relevant information into the discussion (Greitemeyer, Schulz-Hardt, Brodbeck, & Frey, 2006).

To perform the task, participants logged in to individual Google accounts. Each team member had an individual Google document containing candidate information, and access to a shared document which provided task instructions and a way collaborate with the team. The chat feature was used to communicate using text, and the body of the document was available for teams to input and view task information. There were two phases. First participants were asked to read the candidate attributes and choose a pilot based on the information. In addition, they were asked to rate suitability of each candidate on a scale of 1-5 (coded 1-not suitable at all to 5-very suitable). Individual decisions were entered into an online form. Second, participants assembled with the team by opening a shared team decision document. This document included instructions for conducting the team discussion based on one of the two treatment conditions reflecting levels of the action process structure variable described in the next section. Team members discussed the candidate attributes as prescribed in the instructions using either the experimental process structure or an ad hoc process. After the team discussion, each individual again ranked the suitability of candidates, and all members entered the same team decision for the pilot selection into the final decision form.

Independent Variable

The independent variable was action process structure with two conditions. Teams in one condition followed a procedure using a turn taking discussion format with monitoring, backup, and coordination elements felt capable to foster systematic team interaction to improve decision making. The communication structure for the team decision used two communication channels, a chat message system, and a shared online document. In the high action process structure all team members were instructed to monitor and report on teammate actions and members were encouraged to perform backup actions during discussion. In addition, team members had equally coordinated input, responsibility, and consideration opportunity for highlighting and responding to critical decision information. According to Maholtra and colleagues, discussion structures which support information exchange and keep team members aligned with the task enable stronger team interdependence and performance (Malhotra, Majchrzak, & Rosen, 2007). The action process structure was designed to support CFT principles by providing sufficient information complexity, alternative representations, and connections between cases in the decision task. Teams in the control condition had the same task environment, decision information, goal, and communication affordance, but were given no specific task procedure. These teams could discuss and manage information using the chat and shared document tools in any way.

Dependent Variables

Decision accuracy was an objective measure of the team decision based on selection from one of four candidates (Stasser & Titus, 1985). Given complete information, candidate C was the optimal choice over candidates A, B, and D. Data was collected on this variable from individuals before discussion with only partial information available, and again after team discussion when the complete information set was available. The variable reflects the amount of novel information teams integrated from individual member data sets into the final representation. Enough information must be integrated to show distinct difference between candidate C and the others. However the final decision set does not need to be complete for an accurate choice. Decision quality was defined by the strength of perceived suitability of candidate C at the time of individual decision with partial information available, compared to individual perceptions after complete information was made available to the team. The variable reflects the strength of the decision based on the completeness and acknowledgement of the information set.
RESULTS

Logistic regression results supported hypothesis one. The test provided evidence that the action process had significant predictive effect on decision accuracy, ($\beta = .926, \chi^2 = 4.40, p = .036$ with df = 1). The effect size was moderate (OR=2.52) indicating the likelihood of accurate outcomes for teams using the experimental action process structure was 2.5 times greater than those using ad hoc process. Experimental groups picked the optimal candidate significantly more often (79.0%) than teams in the control condition (60.0%). Hypothesis two was also supported. The shift in perceived suitability from initial preference to the optimal candidate was stronger when action process supported cognitive flexibility. A meaningful relationship was indicated between process condition and decision quality. Namely, action process teams had increased positive perception of candidate C after discussion, $F(1, 104) = 13.07, p < .001, \eta^2 = .038$. The results suggest process structured groups exchanged information more effectively leading to higher quality decisions, (M = 3.53, SE = .128) than those in control groups (M = 3.16, SE = .128).

DISCUSSION

Although the study offers a single example of the action process intervention in use, the results may help explain how structuring process behavior improves decision making by addressing knowledge acquisition challenges. In general, action process may enhance decision making coordination and management by providing support for bottom-up review of information, case comparison, and making connections between novel points in the information set which clarify the viability of alternatives. In this study, it may have reduced overgeneralization of initial impressions about the candidates. Further the tendency to bias shared information presented to the group was likely reduced (Schulz-Hardt, et al., 2006). Alternately, the action process may simply have been different than what participants had used before, and so these teams paid closer attention to the details of the process and related decision information. For instance Hackman and Morris suggest novel strategies can free learners from routine approaches, exposing more effective ways of performing tasks (1975). Adopting a novel, self-directed approach appropriate for solving the problem may also explain how some control groups using only ad hoc process were still able to solve the decision problem.

Another implication is that action process allowed teams to create better representations of the information. Teams using the action process intervention took turns listing candidate information individually one at a time, with pauses for comment and reflection about each candidate from all members as information was entered. This coordination function may have generated more comprehensive perspectives of the information that demonstrated irregularities, and highlighted divergent examples as the information was pooled (Spiro, et al., 1988). In this way, teams were better able to differentiate routine shared information from critical non-routine information needed to make the decision. Further by using monitoring and back up behavior to analyze and reflect on candidate attributes, teams may have been better able to track and interpret system information including the changing relationship between the positive and negative attributes in a given candidate profile, and how this influenced the relationship to other candidate cases (Marks, et al., 2001).

The differentiation of information value is important to success as teams often reach an incorrect conclusion because they fail to understand the relationship between decision goals and information context. Context independence supports the ability to view cases as unique, with some more suitable than others (Spiro, et al., 1992). In this study, teams were asked to review and compare four job candidates and reach an objective decision. But to do this they needed to understand that ultimately the strength of candidate cases were based on unique information held by certain members, and that suitability of candidates changed when this information was acknowledged by the team. Understanding decision context allows teams to tune in and adapt to small changes that can occur, and reduce the belief that all decisions are based on a singular circumstance (Cervone, 2005).
In this study, as new information was added to the team environment, multiple representations of candidate information were generated. The regulating and supporting effects of coordination, monitoring, and backup behaviors seemed to help maintain context independence of candidate profiles by alerting teams to changes in information that altered the potential of each candidate. Supporting this idea, DeSanctis and Gallupe note that effective decisions require adapting interaction in a positive way throughout the process (1985). This adaptive interaction allows members to revise meaning about individual cases, adjust team understanding to the information, and act accordingly.

Another implication is that action process guidelines provided more interaction directly related to the goal which fostered active exploration, involvement, and transmission of knowledge that helped these teams develop and share more meaningful knowledge representation of the candidates. Accordingly, ability to balance structured team activity throughout the decision process while allowing teams ample opportunity for interdependent exploration is vital in ill-structured contexts where the “absence of information” is essential to problem solving (Spito & DeSchryver, 2009, p.110). Finally, action process team members individually reviewed and provided feedback on each candidate for the team. Reasonably then there was greater chance that decision information was evaluated equally and objectively by all team members. Jonassen describes this dynamic as reflective dialogue between problem solvers and problem elements (1997). This could have prompted members to reduce focus on singular representations which reduced bias for member’s initial preference. Likewise, preference for shared information at the group level may have been overcome as well as attributes for each of the four candidates was critically compared to the others during discussion.

**STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS**

While numerous studies on collaboration and decision making have used similar populations, one suggested limitation is that participants in this study were university students. As such, results may not be generalizable to other work teams, and additional research using action process structures to improve team learning in other contexts and organizational settings is suggested. In addition, given the completely distributed nature of the study, there may be issues related to the control of the action process variable. All teams performed the same exercise in the same virtual setting with the same goal. But some teams received additional instruction designed to guide the decision process. Teams using this structure seemed to perform better presumably due to the effect of the intervention. But it is difficult to tell how closely they followed the scripted instructions, or whether the process was adapted in some other way by the team that would have impacted the outcomes.

Likewise, teams in control groups used completely self-directed process, and while decision performance was lower, some teams were nonetheless able to solve the problem. Because it was a discussion based problem, some interaction must have occurred to complete the task. But it is unsure if, when, and to what degree action process behaviors were used, or in what manner. Towards this, future research would benefit from collecting qualitative data from both experimental and control groups to better operationalize distinctions between factor levels. In addition, this measure may also help clarify subtleties in the decision process that fall outside the gross procedural elements. For instance, misunderstandings about the semantic meaning regarding the relative positivity or negativity of candidate attributes may have played a factor in both conditions.

**CONCLUSIONS**

Process interventions designed on action process elements may support CFT principles that can help improve virtual decision making. Designers might integrate more active learner involvement in defined decision making scenarios to develop skill managing complex information (Spiro, et al., 1992). Also, when developing process interventions, guidelines should stress what is communicated, to whom, when, and what for (Malhotra, Majchrzak, Carmen, & Lott, 2001). In addition, future studies may provide greater understanding by discretely examining action process variables. Determining the amount,
frequency, and quality of monitoring, backup, and coordination behaviors used in the decision making process may identify which actions are more salient for team learning and performance and under what conditions. Finally, team experience is carried forward as an input to the next activity. Longitudinal study of action process intervention across ongoing learning teams across disciplines, contexts, and problems may help refine how action process can foster learning and team development over time.

REFERENCES


Geographic Differences in Reactions to Perceived Injustice at Work

Thomas A. Timmerman
Tennessee Technological University

This study tested geographic differences in the relationships between three forms of justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and three outcomes (job satisfaction, pride in one’s employer, and intent to quit) in a large nationally representative sample. Consistent with previous research, all three forms of justice were significantly related to all three outcomes. As predicted by the culture of honor theory, people in the Southern United States responded more negatively to perceived injustice than did people outside the South.

INTRODUCTION

The relationships between perceived injustice and employee reactions are perhaps the most commonly studied in all of organizational behavior. This may be true because justice has relatively large relationships with a variety of important outcomes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson, 2013). Despite the size of these effects, it has become apparent that some people react more strongly to injustice than do others. Whereas some research has explored the origins of these differential reactions, there are many gaps yet to be filled. Some researchers, for example, have studied cultural differences as moderators of various justice-outcome relationships (e.g., Kim & Leung, 2007). But researchers in this tradition often equate “cultural” with “national” differences and, therefore, ignore cultural variation with national boundaries.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between justice perceptions and employee attitudes in different geographical settings theorized to represent different cultural norms within the United States. Specifically, there is a growing body of research that suggests people in the Southern region of the United States adhere to a “culture of honor” (Nisbett & Cohen, 1996). The culture of honor includes a belief that insults to one’s honor and threats to one’s social identity should be met with anger and even physical violence. This body of research suggests that people in the South may be more sensitive to injustice in general, and more sensitive to workplace injustice in particular.

BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Management scholars and practitioners are interested in justice perceptions because they predict such a wide array of important outcomes. Over the years, researchers have discovered that different forms of justice have different causes. Distributive justice, for example, is the perceived fairness of one’s outcomes. It is predicted by judgments regarding the extent to which decision outcomes follow certain allocation norms such as equity, equality, or need (Adams, 1965; Deutsch, 1985). Procedural justice, on
the other hand, is predicted by the extent to which decision makers follow rules that are consistent, free from bias, and correctable (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Perceptions of interactional justice are largely predicted by the extent to which decision makers provide information about their decisions and treat people with respect and dignity (Bies & Moag, 1986). Despite their varied causes, different forms of justice tend to have similar effects on attitudes and behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013). Among other things, perceived injustice leads to lower job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, fewer organizational citizenship behaviors, and higher turnover.

To explain differential reactions to distributive injustice, Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1987) proposed that some people are especially sensitive to underpayment inequity (i.e., entitleds), whereas others are especially tolerant of underpayment inequity (i.e., benevolents). Less attention has been given to differential reactions to procedural and interactional injustice, but some recent studies suggest that personality traits such as trust propensity, risk aversion, and trait morality moderate the relationship between these forms of injustice and behavioral outcomes like task performance and counterproductive behavior (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006). Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) found that people react more negatively to interactional injustice when they are high in negative affectivity and low in agreeableness. Likewise, van Hiel, de Cremer, and Stouten (2008) found that the relationship between procedural fairness and cooperation was stronger among those high in neuroticism.

Another stream of research has used cultural differences to explain differential reactions to injustice. In a recent review of the literature, Leung (2005) describes a number of studies with surprisingly consistent findings. Specifically, people in countries that embrace low power distance values exhibit stronger negative reactions in the face of injustice. Power distance is typically conceptualized as “the extent to which a community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges” (Carl, Gupta, Javidan, 2004, p. 513). In a collection of four studies, for example, Brockner and his colleagues (Brockner et al., 2001) found that people from low power distance cultures (e.g., the United States, Germany) exhibited stronger negative reactions to lower levels of procedural justice (i.e., voice) than people from high power distance cultures (e.g., China, Mexico, Hong Kong). It appears as though people in low power distance cultures are more likely to expect fair treatment from people in positions of power.

Likewise, Li and Cropanzano (2009) produced meta-analytic evidence that North American studies find stronger correlations between justice and outcomes than do studies conducted with East Asian samples. Specifically, North Americans exhibited stronger correlations between distributive justice, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. With respect to procedural justice, North Americans experiencing injustice exhibited lower job satisfaction and greater turnover intentions than East Asians. Taken together, these studies fit a relational theory of justice in which perceived injustice is experienced as a threat to one’s social identity (Blader & Tyler, 2015). In cultures where an individual’s social identity is particularly valued, threats to social identity are more likely to produce stronger reactions.

One of the weaknesses of the existing research on cross-cultural psychology is the likelihood that cultural differences may exist within nations (Cohen, 2009). Thus far, researchers studying cultural differences in justice perceptions have assumed that differences between nations were more meaningful than differences within nations. A growing body of research, however, suggests that regional differences in the United States may predict stronger reactions to injustice among people in the Southern United States. Nisbett and Cohen (1996) describe an assortment of evidence suggesting that people in the South are more likely to respond aggressively when confronted by an insult or anything else that might pose a threat to one’s social identity. This “culture of honor” has been used to describe a wide variety of regional differences including homicide patterns and tolerance for violence when defending self or property (Cohen & Nisbett, 1994; Cohen, Nisbett, Bowdle, & Schwarz, 1996).

According to Nisbett and Cohen (1996), the culture of honor is rooted in the economic histories of the earliest settlers of the South. When Scotch-Irish herders settled in the South, they brought with them a willingness to defend their property and establish a reputation to match. Thus any threat to one’s social identity would trigger an especially defensive (and often violent) reaction. Regardless of the source, a
variety of studies show that people in the South respond more aggressively to insults. More recently, the relational nature of the culture of honor was supported among professional baseball pitchers (Timmerman, 2007). Pitchers from the South were more likely hit opposing batters, but only in situations where their social identities may have been threatened (e.g., after a teammate was hit by a pitch, following a homerun).

Thus far, the culture of honor has not been used to explore regional differences in work outcomes or work attitudes. But given the findings in other fields, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- **H1**: Consistent with previous research, distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice will be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment and negatively related to intent to leave the organization.
- **H2**: The relationship between justice and work outcomes will be moderated by region such that people in the South will react more negatively to perceived injustice than people in other regions of the United States.

**METHOD**

**Data Source**

Participants in this study included 4,584 respondents to the General Social Survey (GSS; Smith, Marsden, & Hout, 2015). The GSS is a project of the National Opinion Research Center and is typically administered biannually. The face-to-face cross-sectional survey contains core items that are asked in every administration. It also includes items that are unique to each year. The sampling is representative of the adult population in the 48 contiguous United States. The questions necessary to test the proposed hypotheses were asked in 2002, 2006, 2010, and 2014. During these years, the response rates for the survey were 70.1%, 71.2%, 70.3%, and 69.2% respectively. The sample was 76.1% White, 49.0% female, and 37.0% were interviewed in the South. The respondents averaged 42.4 years of age, had achieved an average of 14.0 years of education, and earned an average income of $37,440 (in constant 2000 dollars).

**Measures**

- **Southern**
  
  To preserve confidentiality, respondents' locations were not identified beyond their US Census regional location. Respondents were classified as Southern if the survey interview was conducted in one of the states identified as Southern by the US Census (i.e., Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas, Florida, Mississippi, Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, West Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, and Washington, D.C.). This is the same definition used in other culture of honor research (e.g., Cohen & Nisbett, 1996).

- **Justice**
  
  Distributive justice was measured with a single item (FAIREARN) asking respondents “How fair is what you earn on your job in comparison to others doing the same type of work you do?” Answer options ranged from 1 (“Much less than you deserve”) to 5 (“Much more than you deserve”). Procedural justice was measured with a single item (PROMTEFR): “Tell me if the statement is very true, somewhat true, not too true, or not at all true with respect to the work you do. Promotions are handled fairly.” This item was recoded so that high scores would indicate more perceived justice. Interactional justice was measured with a single item (RESPECT) “Please tell me whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with each of these statements. At the place where I work, I am treated with respect.” This item was also recoded so that high scores would indicate more perceived justice.

- **Outcomes**
  
  Job satisfaction was measured with a single item (SATJOB1) asking “All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with your job?” The responses were coded from 1 = “Not at all satisfied” to 4 = “Very
satisfied.” Organizational commitment was measured with a single item (PROUDEMP): “Please tell me whether you strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree with each of these statements. I am proud to be working for my employer.” Intent to leave was measured with a single item (TRYNEWJB) asking “Taking everything into consideration, how likely is it you will make a genuine effort to find a new job with another employer within the next year?” Responses were coded from 1 = “Not at all likely” to 3 = “Very likely”.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations between study variables are shown in Table 1. The strong correlations between all forms of justice and all outcomes are consistent with previous research and support Hypothesis 1. Also noteworthy is the fact that none of the justice measures or outcomes vary by region. In other words, Southerners were not more likely to perceive more (or less) justice in the workplace and they were not more likely to experience more (or less) satisfaction, commitment, or intent to leave the organization.

Hypothesis 2 was tested with hierarchical multiple regression (see Table 2). If the relationship between justice and outcomes depend on geographical region, there should be a significant interaction term after controlling for other predictors of the outcome and the main effects of justice and the particular outcome of interest. With respect to distributive justice, none of the expected interactions were statistically significant. With respect to procedural justice, the interaction with geographical region significantly predicted satisfaction and commitment, but not intent to leave the organization. Interactional justice demonstrated a similar pattern. The interaction between interactional justice and region significantly predicted satisfaction and commitment, but not intent to leave.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN STUDY VARIABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>5</th>
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<td>.047**</td>
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<td>.098**</td>
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<td>-.222**</td>
<td>.325**</td>
<td>.112**</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Income</td>
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<td>36,562</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>-.079**</td>
<td>-.119**</td>
<td>-.041**</td>
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<td>6. Region</td>
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<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>.057**</td>
<td>-.066**</td>
<td>.045**</td>
<td>.072**</td>
<td>.133**</td>
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<td>Fairness</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Procedural</td>
<td>2.88</td>
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<td>.006</td>
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<td>.077**</td>
<td>.069**</td>
<td>.099**</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>.072**</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>.094**</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.115**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
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<td>.174**</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.080**</td>
<td>.110**</td>
<td>.136**</td>
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<td>0.67</td>
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<td>.007</td>
<td>.082**</td>
<td>.086**</td>
<td>.105**</td>
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<td>Intent to Leave</td>
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<td>.015</td>
<td>-.056**</td>
<td>-.174**</td>
<td>-.182**</td>
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</tbody>
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* p < .05, ** p < .01
### TABLE 1 CONTINUED
**DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND INTERCORRELATIONS BETWEEN STUDY VARIABLES**

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<td>2. Sex</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Education</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Race</td>
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<td>5. Income</td>
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<td>6. Region</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>7. Distributive Fairness</td>
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<td>8. Procedural Fairness</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.246**</td>
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<td>9. Interactional Fairness</td>
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<td>.173**</td>
<td>.342**</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Job Satisfaction</td>
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<td>.254**</td>
<td>.404**</td>
<td>.445**</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Pride in Employer</td>
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<td>.197**</td>
<td>.410**</td>
<td>.566**</td>
<td>.562**</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Intent to Leave</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>-.175**</td>
<td>-.212**</td>
<td>-.195**</td>
<td>-.399**</td>
<td>-.287**</td>
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* p < .05, ** p < .01

### TABLE 2
**REGRESSION RESULTS PREDICTING OUTCOMES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Outcome Variable</th>
<th>Job Satisfaction β</th>
<th>Pride in Employer β</th>
<th>Intent to Leave β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.132**</td>
<td>.079**</td>
<td>-.218**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.045**</td>
<td>.035**</td>
<td>-.033*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>-.001</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.028</td>
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<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td>.038**</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>-.109**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>.056**</td>
<td>.046**</td>
<td>-.124**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region</td>
<td>-.321**</td>
<td>-.297**</td>
<td>-.061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.051**</td>
<td>.029**</td>
<td>.107**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributive Fairness</td>
<td>.137**</td>
<td>.050**</td>
<td>-.093**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural Fairness</td>
<td>.156**</td>
<td>.207**</td>
<td>-.153**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interactional Fairness</td>
<td>.359**</td>
<td>.438**</td>
<td>-.104**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.260**</td>
<td>.358**</td>
<td>.055**</td>
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<td>Distributive Fairness X Region</td>
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<tr>
<td>Procedural Fairness X Region</td>
<td>.098*</td>
<td>.114**</td>
<td>.062</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interactional Fairness X Region</td>
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<tr>
<td>ΔR²</td>
<td>.004**</td>
<td>.004**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05, ** p < .01
The specific nature of these significant interactions is shown in Figures 1-4. Figures 1 and 2 show that, as expected, Southerners react more negatively to unfair procedures than do people not in the South. Interestingly, and also as expected, the difference between Southerners and non-Southerners is apparent at the lowest levels of perceived injustice, but not at the highest levels. The culture of honor predicts that Southerners respond more negatively to social identity threats, but it does not predict that Southerners respond more positively to high levels of perceived justice. Figures 3 and 4 show a similar pattern for interactional justice. People in the South react more negatively to disrespect in the workplace with respect to satisfaction and commitment. As with job satisfaction, the differences are most apparent at the lowest levels of perceived disrespect.

**FIGURE 1**
PROCEDURAL FAIRNESS AND JOB SATISFACTION MODERATED BY REGION

![Figure 1: Procedural Fairness and Job Satisfaction Moderated by Region](image)
FIGURE 2
PROCEDURAL FAIRNESS AND PRIDE MODERATED BY REGION

FIGURE 3
INTERACTIONAL FAIRNESS AND JOB SATISFACTION MODERATED BY REGION
DISCUSSION

Overall, the results of this study suggest that the culture of honor persists in modern workplaces. Furthermore, the culture of honor may help explain geographic differences in reactions to perceived injustice at work. This neglected aspect of workplace diversity may have important consequences.

From a practical standpoint, the fact remains that all forms of perceived injustice are strongly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave the organization. Management training related to the causes and consequences of perceived injustice has been shown to be effective (Skarlicki & Latham, 1996, 1997). Such training should be designed to maximize learning and transfer (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005). Trainees, for example, should actively participate and receive meaningful feedback about their use of distributive, procedural, and interactive justice principles. The regional differences support the idea that this type of training might be especially important in the Southern region of the United States. These differences may also be important to incorporate in diversity training.

There are some limitations to this study. Perhaps the most significant is the fact that the major variables of interest were measured with single items of unknown reliability. Whereas multiple-item scales are certainly preferable, Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy (1997) made a strong case for single-item measures of job satisfaction when multiple-item measures are unavailable. Subsequently, researchers in marketing (Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007) and management (Fuchs & Diamantopoulos, 2009) have argued that single-item measures may be acceptable and should not be the “kiss of death” during the review process. In this study, the validity of the measures is strengthened by the intercorrelations between the justice measures and the outcomes. They are consistent with other studies that have used multiple-item measures.

It should also be noted that several of the hypothesized moderated relationships were not observed. Specifically, distributive justice was significantly related to all three outcomes in the expected direction, but the relationships were not moderated by region. This might suggest that violations of distributive
justice do not have the same type of relational implications that violations of procedural and interactional justice carry. Specifically, procedural and interactional injustice might be more likely to be perceived as a threat to one’s social identity than distributive injustice (Blader & Tyler, 2015). Also, intentions to leave the organization were significantly related to all three forms of justice, but none of these relationships varied by region. Thus in this study, region interacted with justice to predict attitudes, but not behavioral intentions. This finding warrants additional research to establish its generalizability.

In summary this study used a large, nationally representative sample to test relationships between three types of justice and three important outcomes. Consistent with previous research, distributive, procedural, and interactional justice were strong predictors of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intent to leave the organization. Furthermore, this study found evidence of a “culture of honor” in which employees in the Southern United States reacted more negatively to procedural injustice and interactional injustice. This new finding opens the door for future researchers to study this neglected aspect of workplace diversity.

REFERENCES


Social Exchange at Work: Impact on Employees' Emotional, Intentional, and Behavioral Outcomes under Continuous Change

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Under continuous change, organizations often find themselves struggling with negative employee reactions such as stress, cynicism, and turnover. Social exchanges such as leader member exchange (LMX) and team member exchange (TMX) may play an important role in managing such change-related outcomes. The purpose of this paper is to develop a dependency model pertaining to the role of LMX and TMX in employee reactions to continuous change. Integrating human resources, organizational behavior, and change literatures, I develop a socio-centric mediation model of employees' emotional, intentional, and behavioral reactions to continuous change. Implications of the model for research and practice are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, the pace of organizational change has increased substantially owing to a number of factors such as consumer demand, globalization, cost pressures, and technological advancements (Huy, 2002; Longenecker, Neubert, & Fink, 2007). “Businesses are confronting continuous and unparalleled changes” (Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005, p. 213). Thus, change is no longer viewed as a sporadic activity, but as an essential, ongoing work place phenomenon that can seriously impact individual as well as organizational outcomes (Price, 2006; Vakola, Tsamousis, & Nikolaou, 2004). Therefore, it has become imperative for organizations to embrace continuous change in order to be successful (Madsen et al., 2005). Moreover, a firm’s ability to adapt to and implement continuous change has emerged as a unique competitive advantage in today’s dynamic business environment (Lines, 2005; Price, 2006; Todnem, 2005). Consequently, organizations are constantly under pressure to find ways to manage change effectively (Probst & Raisch, 2005).

Organizational ecologists, however, have opined that all changes involve some destruction due to “structural inertia” resulting from internal and external constraints, structural transformation, and/or personnel replacement (Boeker, 1989). Thus, despite the consensus that the ability of organizations to manage change is critical to their survival (Carnall, 2003; Cummings & Worley, 2001) and that managing change must be a core competence (Dawson, 2003; Dunphy, Griffiths, & Benn, 2003), a majority of firms fail to develop this competency (Brodbeck, 2002; Burns, 2005; Harung, Heaton, & Alexander, 1999). This is evident from the fact that about 70% of change efforts result in failures (Beer & Nohria, 2000), and very few change projects achieve the desired objectives (Burke, 2002; Probst & Raisch, 2005; Styhre, 2002). Moreover, change has often been associated with maladaptive work patterns and negative outcomes (Bovey & Hede, 2001; Probst, 2003). For example, organizational change is often accompanied by employee resistance to change, stress, and feelings of denial, resulting in negative outcomes.
The knowledge that change can be difficult and disruptive has compelled researchers to not only examine the negative outcomes of change, but also the factors associated with these outcomes. Employees exhibit various types of negative reactions to change such as cognitive, affective, intentional, and behavioral (e.g., Bernerth, Armenakis, Feild, & Walker, 2007; Fedor, Caldwell, & Herold, 2006; Lines, 2005; Oreg, 2006; Stanley, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2005; Smollan, 2014), which might be influenced by several macro- and micro-level antecedents (Oreg, 2006; Probst, 2003; Vakola et al., 2004). While some of these factors and outcomes have often been researched, others have remained neglected. For example, limited research exists on role of social exchange variables such as leader-member exchange (LMX) and team-member exchange (TMX) in employee outcomes under continuous change. Similarly, "although change is often emotional the affective elements of metaphors of change have been under-studied” (Smollan, 2014, p.794).

Thus, the purpose of this research is twofold. The first goal of this study is to propose an integrated view of different types of employee reactions to continuous change. “Employees today are facing greater changes, at a more rapid pace, than ever before” (Wanberg & Banas, 2000, p. 132). The psychological unpredictability associated with these changes, augmented by deficient change management efforts, has been known to induce several types of negative reactions among employees that may be broadly categorized as cognitive, affective, intentional, and behavioral (cf. Lines, 2005; Piderit, 2000; Smollan, 2006). Drawing from the rational-emotive-behavior sequence of employees reactions to change (Bovey & Hede, 2001), I propose two levels of reactions to change. Affective reactions, i.e., stress, change-specific cynicism, and affective commitment, constitute the first-level outcomes, and intentional and behavioral reactions, i.e., turnover intentions and performance, comprise the second-level job outcomes.

The second objective of this paper is to draw upon the social information processing and conservation of resource perspectives to propose social exchange variables as important in influencing employee reactions to change. Previous studies have espoused that social support (Tierney, 1999) and social environment (Brown & Quarter, 1994) play critical roles in employees’ change behavior. Given that social exchanges such as LMX and TMX are essential elements of employees' social environment, these variables may influence employee reactions to change. Although previous studies have linked them to various employee outcomes (cf. Harris, Kacmar, & Witt, 2005; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Sherony & Green, 2002; Varma Srinivas, & Stroh, 2005), the role of LMX and TMX in employee reactions to continuous change has not been studied to our knowledge.

Thus, in this paper I propose a socio-centric mediation model of employee reactions to continuous change. Specifically, I posit that social exchanges at work (LMX and TMX) will impact employees' affective reactions to change (stress, change-specific cynicism, and affective commitment), which in turn, would impact their turnover intentions and performance. Figure 1 represents conceptual model proposed in this study.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND PROPOSITIONS

Theories of Organizational Change

Early Change Approaches

Traditionally, change has been portrayed as a discrete event comprising a sequence of unfreezing, moving, and freezing (Lewin, 1951). This “planned approach” to change, characterized by being group-based, consensual, and slow, was criticized as being inflexible and inappropriate for situations requiring rapid change (Burnes, 2005). In the 1970s, the “incremental approach” viewed change as a process where different parts of the organization changed incrementally and separately, one at a time, such that the organization would be transformed over time (Hedberg, Nystrom, & Starbuck, 1976). In the 1980s, this approach gave way to the “punctuated equilibrium model” of organizational change which states that organizations evolve through relatively long periods of stability punctuated with short bursts of fundamental change (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994).
Continuous Transformation Approach to Change

Another perspective to emerge in the 1980s was the continuous transformation model (Burnes, 2005). This model draws from complexity theories (cf. Manson, 2001; Resher, 1996; Stacey, 2003), increasingly used by researchers to understand and promote organizational change (Black, 2000; Boje, 2000; Stacey, Griffin, & Shaw, 2002). According to the continuous transformation model, an organization is considered analogous to a complex system in nature that needs to undergo continuous transformations to survive (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; Stacey, 2003). In fact, an organization’s ability to change continuously and fundamentally is deemed critical to its success (Brown & Eisenhardt, 1997; Burnes, 2005; Stacey, 2003).

Researchers argue that this evolutionary approach to change might bring greater insights about the phenomenon (Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Sammut-Bonnici & Wensley, 2002). For example, the complexity approach to change has also been used to explain high failure rates of change initiatives. As per this approach, organizations are dynamic, complex, non-linear systems with a set of simple order-generating rules (MacIntosh & MacLean, 1999; Stacey, 2003). Most change efforts, however, involve a linear, top-down change approach instead of the self-organizing approach required for a complex system, resulting in failures (Higgs & Rowland, 2005; Styhre, 2002). Change initiatives, then, should be built around the principles of self-organizing to be successful which assumes a critical role of individual-level human activities in outcomes (Kiel, 1994). In this study, we view organizations as complex, nonlinear entities, which undergo incessant changes and require a socio-centric perspective to managing change.

Employee Reactions to Continuous Change

Organizational change has been known to induce several types of cognitive, affective, intentional, and
behavioral reactions among employees (cf. Lines, 2005; Piderit, 2000; Smollan, 2006). In this study, we propose that employee cognitions would influence their affective reactions to change such as stress, which in turn, would impact their intentions and performance.

**Affective Reactions**

An inevitable aspect of change is affective or emotional responses (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Piderit, 2000; Smollan, 2014). *Affective events theory* explains affective experiences at work as arising from work events, rather than job characteristics (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Organizational changes could be such events that evoke emotional responses in employees. Researchers have advocated examining affective reactions during change since these can undermine the success of change initiatives (cf. Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Smollan, 2014). However, the affective domain has generally been neglected in change research (Mossholder, Settoon, & Henagan, 2000; Smollan, 2014). Given their critical role in organizational change and employee turnover (Bernerth et al., 2007; Oreg, 2006; Stanley et al., 2005), we included stress, change-related cynicism, and affective commitment as the primary reactions in this study.

**Stress** is defined as a coping mechanism adopted by the individual to meet the excessive psychological or physical demands (Greggory & Griffin, 2000). In this study, stress is defined as an unpleasant emotional and physiological state induced by negative work experiences, lack of perceived control, and uncertainty (Hart & Cooper, 2001). Stress is a major concern to managers as well as researchers since employees are experiencing increasing levels of stress due to changing work demands, job uncertainty, and work overload (Jex, 1998) resulting in problems such as reduced productivity and high turnover (e.g., Netemeyer, Burton, & Johnston, 1995).

Organizational change induces stress when an individual lacks adequate resources to cope with new work requirements (Lazarus, 1993). Schabracq and Cooper (1998) noted that individuals experience stress during change as their *situated skills*, i.e., skills acquired as a result of developing general automatic responses to repetitive work requirements, become invalid. During change, individuals have to acquire new skills as well as cope with uncertainty, which generally leads to stress.

**Affective commitment** refers to the “emotional bond of employees to their organizations” (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). Affective commitment is one of the strongest predictors of organizational outcomes (Wasti, 2003). It has also been associated with organizational change perceptions (Jing, Xie, & Ning, 2014). As a result, researchers have suggested that commitment should be one of the criterion variables in change-related studies. For example, Armenakis et al. (1999) included commitment as an important factor in their process model of change. Commitment to organizational change was also a key variable in Jing et al.’s (2014) work. However, in spite of its importance, affective commitment has seldom been included in models of change outcomes (cf. Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

**Change-related cynicism** is an employee’s “disbelief of management’s stated or implied motives for (a specific) organizational change” (Stanley et al., 2005: 436). Previous research has affirmed that change might lead to employee cynicism (cf. Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999) and that change efforts would most likely fail if employees do not trust management’s change motives (Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997). Thus, change-specific cynicism appears to be an important variable to be examined in context of continuous change (Stanley et al., 2005). Previous research has rarely examined this construct in the context of change.

**Intentional and Behavioral Reactions**

A review of existing literature reveals that employee *turnover intentions* are often the outcomes of organizational change (Oreg, 2006; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Stensaker, Meyer, Falkenberg, & Haueng, 2002). Turnover intention refers to an individual’s desire to leave an organization. Past studies have often linked turnover intentions to actual turnover (e.g., Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffith, 1992) implying that employees might cope with change by harboring intentions to leave and by subsequently exiting the organization. These research findings are corroborated by the high employee turnover rates prevalent in a majority of organizations operating under a dynamic business environment (Peterson, 2006; Townsend, 2006). Voluntary turnover costs U.S. organizations billions of dollars annually (Rosch, 2001).
along with the loss of valued knowledge resources (Holton, Mitchell, Lee, & Inderrieden, 2005; Steel, Griffeth, & Hom, 2002). Given the criticality of employee retention to organizational functioning (Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005; Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Holton et al., 2005; Steel et al., 2002), turnover intention was chosen as a second-level outcome.

Another change outcome critical to organizational effectiveness is an employee’s performance on such measures as product or service quality, time taken to finish the task, and so on. Under conditions of continuous change, performance may be impacted due to a number of factors such as stress, ambiguous work expectations, and cynicism. Although a few previous studies have shown change to have a negative impact on employee performance (Oreg, Leder, & Castro, 2006), models of responses to change having performance as an outcome variable are almost non-existent. Therefore, we included performance as the secondary behavioral outcomes.

**Social Exchange and Employee Reactions to Continuous Change**

Several theories have been forwarded in the organizational change literature to emphasize the role of social exchange. For example, according to the social information-processing perspective, in the absence of a single interpretation of change events due to the inherent complexity and ambiguity (Isabella, 1990) employees’ change perceptions are likely to be influenced by their peers, subordinates, and superiors (cf. Lines, 2005; Rice & Aydin, 1991). Thus, when employees face continuous change, their perceptions, and subsequent reactions, to change may be shaped by their social exchanges with the supervisor and subordinates.

Similarly, conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993) emphasizes the role of peer and supervisor support as valued social resources in stress, turnover intentions, and low commitment (Halbesleben, 2006). The COR theory posits that negative behavioral and attitudinal outcomes occur when there is an actual or perceived loss of valued resources, insufficiency to meet work demands, or less than expected returns (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). A key resource is social support which is put under strain by work pressures, unpredictability, and stressful events such as change (cf. Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

Empirical research also attests to the role of social factors in change-related outcomes (e.g., Lines, 2005; Neves, 2009). For example, in a study on causes and consequences of managerial failure in rapidly changing organizations, Longenecker et al. (2007) identified “poor work relationships” with a superior and colleagues as the second most important reason for failure. Also, the relational perspective forwarded by Mossholder et al. (2005) identified relational reciprocity, mutual obligation, and connectedness with leader and members as important factors in turnover and other withdrawal behaviors. Thus, given these studies, it is likely that LMX and TMX would be significant in employee reactions to continuous change.

**Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)**

LMX theory posits that leaders develop differential relationships with their subordinates through reciprocal exchanges involving role expectations, rewards, and resources over time, resulting in dyadic relationships of varying quality (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The quality of LMX has been linked to a number of organizational outcomes including commitment, stress, performance, and turnover intentions (e.g., Biron & Boon, 2013; Griffeth & Hom, 2001; Wang et al., 2005). For example, in a study involving healthcare employees, Biron and Boon (2013) reported a significant relationship between employees’ exchange relationships with their supervisor and co-workers and their performance and turnover intentions. Similarly, Harris et al. (2005) suggested that low LMX would increase turnover intentions due to its negative impact on employees’ feelings and cognitions. The new “Leadership-Motivated Excellence Theory” (LMX-T) forwarded by Graen and Schemmann (2013) also elucidates the important role of leader and team member exchange in managing (and retaining) the millennial generation. Additionally, in high LMX situations, employees may be more informed and aware of organizational events such as change (Graen, 1989) and may perceive the climate as change-conducive (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989), which might reduce employee cynicism and intentions to quit during change. Given these associations, it is likely that LMX would positively influence employees’ reactions to change.
Proposition 1: LMX has a negative relationship with stress and change-specific cynicism, and positive relationship with affective commitment under continuous change conditions.

Proposition 2: LMX has a negative relationship with turnover intentions and a positive relationship with performance under continuous change conditions.

Team-Member Exchange (TMX)
TMX is similar to LMX in that it is also based on the notions of exchange, reciprocity, and each party’s contribution in terms of resources (Seers, 1989). However, TMX is not dyadic but rests on the premise that individuals aggregate their role-specific reciprocal exchanges across members of the group, reinforcing their own role identities as well as the group’s identity as a team in the process (cf. Seers, 1989). A high quality TMX is characterized by mutual cooperation, collaboration, and higher social rewards, whereas a low quality TMX is signified by less effort, cooperation, and rewards.

Previous studies have linked TMX to several work outcomes including job satisfaction, performance (Seers, 1989), work attitudes (Seers et al., 1995), and organizational commitment (Liden et al., 2000). TMX might play an analogous, important role in change-related outcomes as well. Support from peers has been identified as an important resource under COR theory to deal with stress and negative emotions triggered by change. Jones and George (1998) indicated that individuals who enjoy high quality relationships with their team members exhibit more involvement, risk-taking, and extra-role behaviors at work. Members of such teams also engage in open communication, free information exchange and feedback, and reciprocal helping behaviors (Jones & George, 1998; Seers, 1989). These behaviors might significantly influence outcomes such as commitment, cynicism, and turnover intentions in a change context.

Moreover, high levels of mutual trust and support enjoyed by the team members in a high TMX situation, and positive perceptions of change climate might help them cope with change (Tierney, 1999) and weaken their intentions to leave the organization. This situation, described as embedding, protects individuals against shocks (e.g., change) that result in turnover decisions (Mitchell & Lee, 2001) and low affective commitment (Burt, 2001). Thus, I propose:

Proposition 3: TMX has a negative relationship with stress and change-specific cynicism, and a positive relationship with affective commitment under continuous change conditions.

Proposition 4: TMX has a negative relationship with turnover intentions and a positive relationship with performance under continuous change conditions.

Relationship Between Affective, Intentional, and Behavioral Reactions
Bovey and Hede (2001) found that individuals’ intentions to resist change were influenced by their emotions that, in turn, were influenced by their perceptions and cognitions about a change. Thus, it can be argued that employees’ intentions to quit and their performance, would be a result of their affective reactions to change-related perceptions.

Relationship of Stress with Turnover Intentions and Performance
Parker and DeCotiis (1983) conceptualized job stress as a first level outcome that might cause second-level outcomes such as avoidance behavior, low productivity, and dissatisfaction if it persists over a long time. Supporting the notion of stress as an antecedent to other negative outcomes, Schaubroeck and Ganster (1993) noted that chronic stress could diminish an individual’s ability to adapt to challenging situations and to perform on challenging tasks, thereby reducing productivity. Prolonged stress may also result in information overload, which creates cognitive fatigue and energy drain affecting task performance negatively (Cohen, 1980). Work-related stress is also related to burnout, which impacts...
turnover intentions, turnover (e.g., Lee & Ashforth, 1996), and job performance (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004).

**Proposition 5:** Stress has a positive relationship with turnover intentions and a negative relationship with performance.

**Relationship of Affective Commitment with Turnover Intentions and Performance**

Affective commitment is an antecedent to several individual and organizational outcomes including turnover and performance (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). It has been a consistent predictor of employee turnover intentions and is included in most turnover model (Bentein, Vandenberg, Vandenberghe, & Stinglhamber, 2005; Griffeth et al., 2000; Neves, 2009). Meyer et al. (2002) reported a strong negative correlation between affective commitment and withdrawal intentions. Wasti (2003) found that affective commitment predicted turnover intentions irrespective of employees’ cultural values. It is also a key variable in change-related studies (Bernerth et al., 2007). Thus, I propose:

**Proposition 6:** Affective commitment has a negative relationship with turnover intentions and a positive relationship with performance.

**Relationship of Change-Specific Cynicism with Turnover Intentions and Performance**

Employee cynicism refers to a negative attitude toward the organization accompanied by negative emotions, mistrust, and deviant behavior (Dean et al., 1998). Cynicism is a key variable in organizational change research (Bernerth et al., 2007), proposed as an important antecedent to employees’ resistance to change (e.g., Abraham, 2000; Wanous, Reichers, & Austin, 2000). Stanley et al. (2005) differentiated between general and change-specific cynicism and emphasized the importance of latter in employees’ resistance to change. The authors showed that change-specific cynicism correlated more strongly with change resistance than general cynicism.

Thus, given the importance of individual reactions to organizational change (e.g., Wanberg & Banas, 2000) and the demonstrated role of change-specific cynicism in intentions to resist change (Stanley et al., 2005), it might be argued that change-specific cynicism is significant in change-related outcomes. Employees with high change-specific cynicism would likely harbor negative attitudes toward management, expend energies in resisting change, and experience negative emotions, thereby decreasing productivity and increasing intentions to leave.

**Proposition 7:** Change-specific cynicism has a positive relationship with turnover intentions and a negative relationship with performance.

**Mediated Model of Employee Reactions to Continuous Change**

Previous researchers have found support for the notion that human processes occur in a rational-emotive-behavior sequence (e.g., Bovey & Hede, 2001). In his conceptual work, Smollan (2006) proposed similarly that organizational change would initially lead to cognitive responses, which, in turn, would trigger affective responses. The affective responses, along with the evaluation of potential behavioral responses, would result in the final behavioral outcomes. Thus, individual perceptions about social exchanges during change would elicit certain affective reactions that, in turn, would influence turnover intentions and performance.

Support for the mediating role of affect in change outcomes can be found in the literature related to stress and affective commitment. Stress has often been viewed as a first-level affective outcome that mediates the relationship between several antecedents and behavioral consequences (Parker & DeCotiis, 1983). Similarly, employees' change-specific cynicism and affective commitment would likely get influenced by the quality of LMX and TMX, and would in turn, have an impact on their turnover intentions and performance.
intentions and performance. However, a partial mediation is proposed since the social exchange may also have a direct impact on the outcomes.

**Proposition 8:** Affective outcomes (stress, affective commitment, change-specific cynicism) partially mediate the relationship between social exchange (LMX and TMX) and job-related outcomes (turnover intentions and performance).

Thus, in this study, I propose a social-exchange based, dependency model of employee outcomes under change. Drawing from current literature and theory, specific propositions related to the role of LMX and TMX in employees reactions to change are posited. The interrelationships among different levels of change outcomes are also hypothesized. Table 1 lists the constructs in the model, along with their definition, theoretical orientations, and rationale for inclusion in the model.

**IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE**

In this paper, I integrate the social-information processing perspective, the affective events theory, and the rational-emotive-behavior sequence perspective to present a model of employee reactions to constant change. This is an initial attempt and theoretical inputs of future researchers is needed. For example, the model can be refined further to include team- and organization-level outcomes and other antecedents too. Additionally, in investigating the micro-level factors determining change outcomes in organizations, this study highlights not only the social-psychological underpinnings of change outcomes, but also the role of emotions. Emotional reactions to continuous change have not been examined frequently, and thus, the conceptual framework hopes to attract the attention of researchers to this overlooked area.

The proposed mediation model also needs to be tested empirically, and validated, to understand the role of social exchanges under change conditions. Testing the model can also explain the relationships among primary and secondary reactions to change. Thus, this study provides impetus for future research in the areas of continuous change, social exchanges, and human resource management. Researchers can apply both qualitative and quantitative methodologies to test the model. A case based exploratory study can be conducted initially to refine the model, followed by survey data to validate the model. Established scales pertaining to all the variables in the model are available that can be used for data collection.

From a practitioner's perspective, this study is important since employee turnover is a major problem that typically results in organizations’ incurring huge personnel costs (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2005). Issue of turnover is especially grave in industries plagued by continuous change. The business process outsourcing (BPO) industry is one such example. According to Ranganathan and Kuruvilla (2008), "The continued growth of the BPO sector is contingent on it overcoming its biggest human resources problem (i.e., high turnover, which is posing a serious threat to growth and profitability in this sector). Average turnover rates in the industry range from 25-40% (NASSCOM, 2005), imposing a significant cost on firms as they attempt to replace 40% of their employees per year in a very competitive labor market." Apart from these obvious economic consequences, high turnover also upsets the social-psychological equilibrium of the firm, resulting in intangible costs in terms of impaired relationships and increased stress and instability (Allen et al., 2005). For example, when employees leave a company, it can impact the morale of other employees in the company. Such consequences might be especially marked in team-based organizations where employees work in close proximity with each other.

Current study is an effort to help managers understand the relational and emotional dynamics of employees’ intentions and behavior and enable them to design interventions for more effective change management. The study also highlights how social exchanges may be useful in managing employees’ emotions and attitudes during change. By designing effective teams and training team leaders in social skills, a firm may be able to create a positive and stress-free work environment, even under conditions of unpredictability of constant change.
### TABLE 1
A SUMMARY OF CONSTRUCTS, RELATED THEORETICAL ORIENATIONS AND RELEVANCE FOR THE MODEL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Theoretical Orientation</th>
<th>Relevance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leader Member Exchange (LMX)</td>
<td>Leaders develop differential relationships with their subordinates through reciprocal exchanges involving role expectations, rewards, and resources over time, resulting in dyadic relationships of varying quality (Graen &amp; Uhl-Bien, 1995).</td>
<td>Social information processing theory (Isabella, 1990)</td>
<td>The quality of LMX has been linked to a number of organizational outcomes including performance, commitment, satisfaction, stress, and higher turnover intentions (Gerstner et al., 1997; Griffeth et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Member Exchange (TMX)</td>
<td>Individuals aggregate their role-specific reciprocal exchanges across members of the group, reinforcing their own role identities as well as the group’s identity as a team in the process (Seers, 1989).</td>
<td>Conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll &amp; Freedy, 1993)</td>
<td>TMX is associated with several work outcomes including job satisfaction, performance work attitudes, efficiency, and commitment (Liden et al., 2000; Seers et al., 1995).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>Stress is defined as an unpleasant emotional and physiological state induced by negative work experiences, lack of perceived control, and uncertainty (Hart &amp; Cooper, 2001).</td>
<td>Affective events theory (Weiss &amp; Cropanzano, 1996)</td>
<td>Stress has been linked to diminished ability to adapt to challenging situations, cognitive fatigue, and low performance (Schaubroeck &amp; Ganster, 1993).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change-Specific Cynicism</td>
<td>Employee cynicism refers to a negative attitude toward the organization accompanied by negative emotions, mistrust, and deviant behavior (Dean et al., 1998).</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cynicism has been proposed as an important antecedent to employees’ resistance to change (Abraham, 2000; Wanous et al., 2000).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>Affective commitment refers to the “emotional bond of employees to their organizations” (Rhoades et al., 2001).</td>
<td>Rational-emotive-behavior sequence (Bovey &amp; Hede, 2001)</td>
<td>Affective commitment is an antecedent to several individual and firm level outcomes including turnover and performance (Griffeth et al., 2000; Meyer et al., 2002).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turnover Intentions</td>
<td>Turnover intention refers to an individual’s desire to leave an organization.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Employee turnover intentions are often the outcomes of organizational change (Oreg, 2006; Rafferty &amp; Griffin, 2006).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Performance</td>
<td>Job performance refers to quantitative or qualitative outcomes such as service quality, time taken to finish the task, and number of units produced, and so on.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Studies have shown change to have a negative impact on employee performance (Oreg et al., 2006).</td>
</tr>
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REFERENCES


A Phenomenological Study: Understanding Registered Nurses Experiences Related to Dysfunctional Leadership in a Hospital Setting

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This phenomenological research study explored the experience so Registered Nurses exposed to perceived dysfunctional leadership behaviors. The study provides insights into the phenomenon and how participants of the study were able to cope and adapt to the experience. Four major themes emerged from the research: 1.) The dysfunctional leader’s approach to leading, 2.) The dysfunctional leader’s competence and leadership attributes, 3.) The organization’s competence related to addressing dysfunctional behaviors and 4.) The emerging of the phenomenon; the experiences of Registered Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership behaviors and how they made sense of their experiences.

INTRODUCTION

The social problem associated with dysfunctional workplace behaviors have taken several forms in recent years. Workplace bullying, narcissism, toxic, abusive, and tyrant behaviors have drawn a great deal of scholarly research (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006; Lubit, 2002; Kets d Vries, 2001, Tepper, 2000; Hornstein 1996). While workplace dysfunction is found in many industries it is predominant in the fields of healthcare, service industries, education, and social services. Dysfunctional workplace behaviors have touched all genders and races and causes harm to victims, bystanders, organizations and society as a whole. No one is immune to these behaviors.

Exploration of the literature establishes that nurses are a high-risk occupational group for a range of dysfunctional behaviors including workplace violence and aggressive behaviors in the healthcare setting (Rodwell, Brunetto, Demir, Shakelock, & Wharton, 2014; Hutchinson, Vickers, 2002; Hegney, Plank, & Parker, 2003). With increased stress and pressure healthcare is suspect for continued dysfunctional behaviors to continue. Despite being considered a substantial topic in literature, focusing primarily on dysfunctional behaviors with peers and co-workers, few studies have focused on dysfunctional interactions between direct reports and leadership (Tepper, Carr, Breaux, Geider, Hu, & Hua, 2009). Limited research exists related to understanding the insights and experiences of Registered Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership; specifically how they make sense of these experiences; a topic which has detrimental impact to healthcare (Rodwell, et al., 2014). This research study focused on a phenomenological approach to understand the lived experiences of Registered Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership in a hospital setting in the Chicago Metropolitan area.
BACKGROUND

Challenges Facing Healthcare

Healthcare organizations today are facing extreme pressures to lower costs while increasing quality. Further compounding the issue, healthcare leaders are faced with increased stress due to rapid changes in technology, ambiguity related to healthcare reform, decrease in reimbursements, nursing shortages, an aging population requiring complex care, and an increasingly large patient population that is not financially equipped to handle the rising costs of healthcare (Wramsten, Ahlborg, Jacobson, & Delve, 2014; Leatt & Porter, 2003). In addition healthcare organizations today live in lean times asking employees to do more with fewer resources. Healthcare continues to be held to higher levels of scrutiny and demands from the government, regulatory agencies, and educated consumers. It is vital that during this time of tremendous change, employees need to be engaged, motivated, focused and committed to the organization. Institutionalizing a healthy, motivated and energized workplace can increase financial outcomes while also allowing for collaboration across the board within healthcare (Moore, Leahy, Sublett, & Lanig, 2013). Delmatoff and Lazarus (2014) declared “Healthcare leaders must understand the value and critical importance of delivering an emotionally and behaviorally intelligent style of leadership to ensure that their staff feel empowered and supported as they work through and implement some of the greatest changes in the delivery of health since the introduction of Medicare” (p. 245-246).

Challenges Facing Nursing Leadership

Many political, economic, and professional factors influence the essence of the nurse leadership role (Jooste, 2004). Plowman and Duchon (2008) asserted that traditional leadership theories and models are no longer acceptable in informing leadership behaviors in healthcare. A paradigm shift in leadership is needed in order to address the issues being face. No longer is the leader the one that controls the employee but, acts as a visionay leader, able to plan, organize, lead, and control activities (Jooste, 2004). Exemplary healthcare leadership is crucial during these times of change and significant upheaval (Anonson, Walker, Arries, Sithokozile, Telford, & Berry, 2014; Kilty, 2005).

A paradigm shift is difficult provided the lack of leadership training that is offered for nursing leaders making the transition from bed side nurses to leadership. Sanford (2011) identified that often nurses who are excellent clinical nurses are assumed to be strong leaders needing little to no development. Swearingen (2009) discussed that given the complexity of modern healthcare it is imperative to ensure that managers and leaders received adequate educational preparation and ongoing access to leadership development opportunities.

Nursing is one of the most necessary and vital fields in medicine today. They are the frontline care givers as well as the conduit between the patient and physician. Nurses need to focus on the care of the patient, providing quality outcomes along with the ability to navigate through the ambiguous and ever changing landscape. However, the nursing profession is not without its own issues and problems. In recent years compounding factors include the high turnover rate of nurses. Hart (2005) stated that at a turnover rate of 18-26%, nursing turnover is one of the highest of all professional occupations. One of the main factors leading to high turnover and job dissatisfaction is leadership. Leadership problems such as insufficient support, lack of follow through, and favoritism have increased dissatisfaction for nurses thereby resulting in higher turnover rates (Cline, Reilly & Moore, 2003).

While nursing turnover plays a significant role in organizational well-being it is also an indicator of more severe issues such as intention to withdraw from the nursing profession completely (Tummers, Groenevald, Lankhaar, 2013). In 2002, approximately 500,000 individuals held nursing licenses but were not actively working in the nursing profession (Nelson, 2002). In 2008, the number declined to approximately 465,600 licensed Registered Nurses who were not practicing (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2010). Speculations on why so many licensed nurses have left the profession include personal and family issues, job burnout, and stress related factors including dysfunctional work relationships between peers, physicians, and leadership (van der Heijden, van Dam, & Hasslehorn, 2009; Leatt & Porter, 2003).
A constant threat to healthcare organizations are the risks of dysfunctional behaviors which impact the ability to address the change that is desperately needed. The nurse leader is faced with challenges and changes which continue to stretch nursing leaders to their limits, causing them to feel alienated, angry, and powerless. These negative feelings can then be turned on colleagues and direct reports in the form of criticism, sarcasm, silence, or other dysfunctional behaviors including violence (Bower, 1997). Without powerful leadership development, nurse leaders base their leadership style on what they know and have experienced from past leaders, which may be dysfunctional behaviors (Bondas, 2006; Laurent, 2000). Roberts (1983) shared that nurse leaders often adopt the values and norms of dominating groups that they have been exposed to, believing that by doing so, they would gain power and control. In many cases nurse leaders become controlling, coercive and rigid in order to conform to the model that is predominate within the work environment (Matheson, 2008).

**Types of Dysfunctional Leadership**

In order to understand the role of dysfunctional leadership it is important to understand each of the different types of dysfunction that was focused on in this study. For the purpose of this study only narcissistic, abusive, and bullying leadership behaviors were highlighted. The following explains each of these dysfunctions in further detail.

**Narcissistic Leadership**

Kets de Vries (2001) defined narcissistic individuals as “troubled by their being, by a sense of deprivation, anger, and emptiness” (p. 101). King (2007) further expanded upon this definition as “a personal form of admiration” (p. 184). Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006) added, “A perverse self-love. In order for the narcissist leader to cope with their insecurities, they may become fixated on power, status and superiority to others” (p. 618). Narcissists are also characterized as overly confident (Campbell, Goodie & Foster, 2004), arrogant (Paulhus, 1998), dominant (Emmons, 1989) and extraverted (Miller & Campbell, 2008). For some followers this approach to leadership may seem appealing.

Lubit (2002) explained that not all narcissistic behavior is negative. “We all have some degree and variety of narcissistic delusion” (Shengold, 1995, p. 29). Freud (1914), Kohut (1971), and Rothstein, (1980) found that normal or healthy narcissism is implied if the ego is relatively stable (Fine, 1986). Lubit (2002) described simply, that there are two types of narcissistic behavior. The first type of narcissistic behavior can be considered positive. Often referred to as constructive narcissistic leaders, utilizing power and status for positive influence and impact. Humphreys, Zhao, Ingram, Gladstone and Basham (2010) rationalized that the constructive narcissistic leader leads by empowering, enabling, and providing a positive vision. Some theories suggest that narcissism is an essential component of creativity, empathy, and the acceptance of loss, thereby adapting to change quite well (Frosh, 1991, p. 96). Narcissistic leaders have been touted as visionary innovators who can motivate the masses with rhetoric (Macoby, 2000). Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006) stated “The contrast between the harmful impact that narcissistic leaders can have on their constituents and institutions and the fact that narcissism is a key trait of the world’s most creative and generative leaders seems to suggest that the concepts need to be studied and defined” (p. 628). Kets de Vries and Miller (1985) also supported this statement by explaining that narcissism may in fact be a fundamental element of leadership effectiveness.

The second type of narcissism is referred to as reactive narcissism. Macoby (2003) defined the reactive narcissist as extremely independent, highly distrustful, self-involved, and eventually causes the destruction of the leader, followers and organizations. Lubit (2002) further expanded on the definition by explaining that narcissistic leaders are preoccupied with their own importance. They can be considered exploitive, overly sensitive to criticism, arrogant and egocentric, with a sense of entitlement and lack of empathy towards others. (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Rosenthal & Pittinsky, 2006). The reactive narcissist relishes the spotlight and will take credit even when the credit belongs to others (Kets de Vries, 2001). Their presence is often dominating and will not exude empathy towards their followers (Kets de Vries, 1999).
Abusive Leadership

Tepper (2000) explained abusive leadership behaviors as it relates to the subordinate’s perception of hostile and negative leadership behaviors. These behaviors include: public criticism, use of derogatory names, condescending tones, intimidation, tantrums, rudeness, coercion, public ridicule, yelling, taking credit for subordinates’ achievements, intimidating subordinates and blaming subordinates for mistakes they did not make (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Tepper & Duffy, 2002). Ashforth (1997) acknowledged that abusive leaders use their power to mistreat and disrespect employees. The negative impact of this behavior is not limited to interactions with their subordinates, but also extends to interactions with other departments, and peers (Solano & Kleiner, 2003). Hornstein (1996) added that abusive leaders are primarily concerned with gaining and maintaining control and or power through fear and intimidation. Research conducted by Tepper, Duffy, Hoobler, and Ensley (2004) indicated that followers subjected this type of behavior experienced less commitment to their organization and were more likely to display increased turnover rates. Followers who experienced abusive leadership stated that they believed leadership was unjust and had a negative influence on their attitude toward work, the organization, and their work environment (Tepper, 2000).

Bullying Leadership

The social problem related to bullying in recent years has taken many forms. Workplace bullying has drawn a great deal of scholarly research in recent years (Einarsen, Hoel & Notelaers, 2009). Bond, Tuckey, and Dollard, (2010) stated “Workplace bullying is a serious and chronic workplace stressor that negatively impacts individuals and organizations” (p. 37). Espelage and Swearer, (2003) argued that “perhaps, the most challenging aspect of bullying prevention programming is reaching a consensus on a definition of bullying.” (p.338). Definitions of bullying include repetitive actions intended to offend, behavior that devalues, humiliates, harasses, ostracizes and causes the victim stress by demonstrating hostile or aggressive behaviors (Barrow, 2010; Einarsen,1999). Bullying can take the form of blaming subordinates for errors, making unreasonable demands, attacking the victim’s character and competence, threatening employees with termination, excessive monitoring of work, and insults (Yildirim & Yildirim, 2007; Naimie & Naimie, 2003).

Similar to abusive leadership, bullying occurs in all ranks of leadership, including middle management and executive leadership (Rayner & Cooper, 2007). Bullying and abusive leadership seem similar however abusive leadership differs from bullying as it is strictly hierarchical and may involve a single act, whereas bullying is repetitive with focus on intentional harm to the victim (Neuman, 2009). Greer and Schmelze (2009) cited the 2007 US Workplace Bullying Survey which found that 37% of US workers were bullied at work. According to the Campaign Against Workplace Bullying one in five United States employees reported being victims of repeated workforce bullying (Naimie & Naimie, 2003). Workplace bullying is widespread (Needham, 2003) having devastating effects on an employee’s life, family, and career (Naimie & Naimie, 2003). Vickers (2002) explored the dimensions related to bullying in the workplace and pointed out that bullying is not limited to one individual but can include groups, even functioning organizational units. Workplace bullying has a devastating impact on the individual and the organization (Quine, 2002).

Impact of Dysfunctional Leadership Behaviors

The impact of dysfunctional leadership has many components. The monetary costs to the United States exceeds $23 billion each year in employee healthcare costs, absenteeism, and lost productivity (Tepper, Duffy, Henle & Lambert, 2006). The effects of dysfunctional leadership reach far beyond the monetary costs identified. Blasé, Blasé and Du (2008) stated that the psychological and emotional impact of dysfunctional leaders include negative feelings such as: desperation, incompetence, embarrassment, guilt, and shame. These negative feelings often manifest themselves in physical reactions that have a harmful impact on the health and well-being of the followers.
Psychological Impact

The impact of dysfunctional workplace behaviors affects the target (also referred to as the victim), as well as bystanders witnessing the behavior, through psychological and or physical symptoms. The seriousness of physical and psychological abuse has been well documented (Barrow, 2010; Kusy & Holloway, 2009; Einarsen et.al., 2009; Einarsen & Raknes, 1997; Einarsen & Skogstad, 1996). Prolonged exposure to dysfunctional behavior often results in Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). Steele and Lee (2007) explained that workers that experience abuse or harassment on the job are likely to experience negative outcomes in a work setting such as decreased job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, withdrawal from work, physical illness, mental health issues, and other symptoms of PTSD. Symptoms of PTSD include a.) Diminished energy (MacIntosh, 2005); b.) Anxiety (D’Cruz & Nronha, 2010); c.) Avoidance and d.) Depression (Malinauskienė & Einarsen, 2014). In addition to PTSD it has been noted that on occasion dysfunctional behaviors in the workplace have been associated with suicidal thoughts and attempts (Hinduja & Patchin, 2010). In a study of Turkish nurses, 10% of the respondents said they contemplated suicide because of dysfunctional behaviors (Yıldırım & Yıldırım, 2007).

Physical Impact

Stress has a negative impact on the physical well-being of individuals. Stress of dysfunctional situations can cause physical impairment to the victim as well as bystanders (Johnson, S. 2009; Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003). Physical symptoms of dysfunctional behaviors include but are not limited to the following: a.) Increased drug use, smoking and drinking; b.) Weight loss; c.) Fatigue; d.) Headaches; e.) Upper and lower GI symptoms; f.) Chest pain and heart palpitations; g.) increased obesity. (Youn, Bernstein, Mihyoung, & Nokes, 2014; Yıldırım & Yıldırım, 2007). As a result of physical illnesses victims exposed to dysfunctional leadership behaviors are more prone to miss work due to illness.

Organizational Impact

Unprofessional conduct exists at all levels within Healthcare (Swiggard, Dewey, Hickson, Finalysen, Spickard, 2009). When employees perceive the organization is responsible for the dysfunction and permitting the behavior, they will often be less satisfied with their job, have increased levels of absenteeism, higher quality issues, and decreased loyalty to the organization (Rodwell, Demir, & Steane, 2013). Dysfunctional behaviors in healthcare attribute to organizational issues such as turnover which, demonstrated earlier, is already taxing healthcare. Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership contemplate leaving the organization or the nursing profession as a whole (Lewis, 2006; Daiski, 2004).

METHOD

Based on an extensive review of the literature, it was determined that limited qualitative research existed focusing on the topic of dysfunctional leadership in Healthcare. Limited research specifically related to understanding the phenomenon associated to Registered Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership in a hospital setting was lacking. This study focused on the Phenomenological approach of Registered Nurses in a hospital setting in the Chicago Metropolitan area exposed to perceived dysfunctional leadership styles.

Sample and Procedure

The study sample was comprised of 18 Registered Nurses employed at 18 different hospital settings within the Chicago Metropolitan area. Since the field of Healthcare is so broad, the researcher chose to focus on Registered Nurses in a hospital setting who were identified as having experienced with leaders whom the nurses perceived as having dysfunctional leadership characteristics. A diverse population ensured an in-depth focus on the phenomenon. Purposeful selection was used to determine the sample. Certain criteria was imposed on the study, such as participants were required to be over the age of 21 and employed as a registered nurse in hospital setting in the Chicago Metropolitan area. If potential candidates were interested in the study they were invited to an online instrument for pre-screening purposes. The pre-
screening instrument asked participants if they were able to share experiences related to leaders they have been exposed to. The survey focused on a variety of dysfunctional leadership behaviors. Table 1 presents the questions asked in the instrument:

**TABLE 1**  
**PRE-SCREENING INSTRUMENT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you able to share experiences with a Healthcare leader who</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Was hostile towards you, displaying verbal and non-verbal negative</td>
<td>Abusive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comments or actions?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sabotaged your work or undermined you?</td>
<td>Bullying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would steal the spotlight and take credit for your work?</td>
<td>Narcissism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeatedly used abusive behavior such as threatening termination,</td>
<td>Abusive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insults and minimizing your accomplishment?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have never experienced a Healthcare leader that displayed negative</td>
<td>Opt out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behaviors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am unable or too uncomfortable to share my experiences</td>
<td>Opt out</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pre-screening instrument was open for the duration of four weeks; identifying 75 participants who completed attempted completion of the instrument. Of the 75 participants 41 shared that they had experienced some form of dysfunctional leadership behavior or behaviors; 24 participants indicated they were interested in participating in the interview phase of the study. As the emergent design evolved, 18 participants were interviewed for the study.

**RESULTS**

Four major themes emerged from the analysis of transcripts: 1.) The dysfunctional leader’s approach to leading, 2.) The dysfunctional leader’s competence and leadership attributes, 3.) The organization’s competence related to addressing dysfunctional behaviors and 4.) The phenomenon’s impact on the lived experiences of Registered Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership. The following discusses each of the themes in depth.

**Theme 1: The Dysfunctional Leader’s Approach to Leading**

The perceived dysfunctional leader’s approach to leading focused on how the leader’s behaviors affected participants as well as discussion regarding the team and the organizational system. Several of the participants shared experiences with dysfunctional leadership behaviors that were destructive, abusive, narcissistic and ultimately detrimental to all involved including the organization system. Dysfunctional leadership behaviors were found to restrict team development and formation. Participants felt that the dysfunction often interfered with team formation and interactions resulting in teams that were fragmented and disconnected. However, interesting to note was that despite interference from the leader, many of the participants formed their own sub-teams or sub-culture in order to unite together to fight what they believed was the common enemy. As a result participants found power in their new formed unity which opposed the direction of the leader. This new found power was used against the leader; ultimately sabotaging the action of the leader with the goal of having the leader removed from the unit or the organization. In some of the cases the participants were successful and in others they were not resulting in negative consequences.

Participants of the study explained that in most cases the dysfunctional leadership behavior was not just limited to their area or unit but permeated several layers within the organization. They also felt that the leader was focused on promoting their own personal agenda at any cost to the organization or the individuals they were leading. Participants found leadership behaviors that were considered undermining,
belittling, lying, ostracizing, and sabotaging in order to discourage followers and to promote the leader’s agenda. Several participants stated that the ego of the leader and the lack of finding a purpose to their work was causing them to question their calling. In many cases they stated that this “was not what I signed up for” and thoughts of leaving the nursing profession were discussed and often considered. What kept participants from leaving the organization was fear for other co-workers and what would happen to them.

**Theme 2: Leader Competence and Leadership Attributes**

The research study found that the participants of the study struggled with the inconsistent behavior of the dysfunctional leader. Participants believed that much of the dysfunction they experienced came from emotional issues such as stress due to lack of competence in their roles as a healthcare leader and inability to effectively manage or lead. They felt that the leaders were not equipped to handle the stress and demands placed on them. As a result many of the leaders would either act out in an aggressive manner or recoil and become passive under stress.

Confusion regarding lack of direction, vague expectations, and unpredictable leadership behavior caused additional stress for the participants. In a majority of the cases the participants felt that the leader was too far removed from the day to day role of the nurse and did not fully understand the clinical scope of nursing. In addition participants found leaders struggling with changing technology, financial pressures, endless meetings, all of which resulted in lack of engagement with direct reports on the part of the leader with the nursing staff.

As was found in the literature, many of the participants found that their leader was often a strong bedside nurse and eventually promoted without management or leadership training. To the participants it appeared their leadership did not have the support of the organization, seemed to lack mentoring and leadership development which may have caused leaders to struggle with their roles. The paradigm shift of moving from patient care and to one of a business mindset was a difficult transition for several of the leaders. As a result, the participants felt the pressure and lack of knowledge caused frustration on the part of the leader and employees.

**Theme 3: The Organization’s Competence Related to the Dysfunctional Experience**

Participants shared interesting observations in regards to how the organization specifically centered on executive leadership and their lack of ability to address problems concerning dysfunctional leadership behaviors. Each of the participants shared that their organizations and executive leadership was aware of the dysfunction that was occurring. Participants found that the organizations chose to ignore the problem, hoping that the problem would resolve itself. Complaints regarding dysfunctional behaviors were escalated to Human Resources, other leadership team members and in some cases executive leadership team members including the Chief Nursing Officer or the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). It was perceived by the participants that their organizations either permitted the behaviors or they did not possess the skills needed to address dysfunctional behaviors. In some of the examples, when faced with a dysfunctional leader, organizations would rationalize the behavior as the leader doing what was needed for the organization and it was viewed as necessary for the success of the organization. This was especially true if the unit was a financially viable department showing strong financial performance. If this was the case, dysfunctional leadership behaviors were ignored.

Dysfunctional leadership caused the organization and the culture to suffer. The research found that cultures morphed to fit the behaviors of dysfunction. The higher the leader’s status the more the culture would change to accommodate the dysfunctional behaviors demonstrated. In other examples, organizations purposely sought out leaders that were believed to change the organization. If the culture was already dysfunctional, senior leaders frequently hired leaders that possessed the same dynamics and personalities as the rest of the leadership team. This perpetuated the problem, causing the perfect storm. In other cases leaders were hired that were different from the culture; looking for someone who “could shake up the organization”. By bringing in a leader that had opposite leadership styles than the executive leadership team, they believed that they were bringing in a new dynamic force that would change the
direction of the organization. In many cases the dynamics became further dysfunction, resulting in senior leaders rationalizing the behavior as a way for the leader to get done what needed to be done for the good of the organization; regardless of the methods that were used.

Theme 4: The Phenomenon’s Impact on the Lived Experiences of Registered Nurses Exposed to Dysfunctional Leadership

The problem addressed in this study was to understand the phenomenon related to Registered Nurses exposed to dysfunctional leadership in a hospital setting. Theme 4 addressed the phenomenon as it emerged. Each of the 18 participants shared that they had experienced some form of emotional and or physical distress from the dysfunctional behaviors experienced. Distress manifested in many forms including emotional, physical, and spiritual. Each of the Registered Nurses in the study explained that they felt equipped to care for the needs and well-being of their patients but, lacked the skills to effectively care for themselves or to handle stress associated with a dysfunctional leader.

Resources were not available for participants to work through their experiences. Participants found Employee Assistance Programs (EAP) were a conflict of interest and also feared that experiences would be shared with upper leadership, ultimately resulting in retaliation. If EAP was utilized participants stated that the often counselor knew about that situation from others and recommendations were to lay low and keep out of sight of the dysfunctional leader. To find relief participants found outside support in the form of family, therapy, continuing education or spiritual care. Others found support in destructive behaviors including, recreational and prescription drug abuse, alcohol, overeating, bringing the stress home and causing conflict with loved ones. In four of the eighteen participants, contemplation of suicide was considered as a way to end pain and suffering experience.

Many of the participants stated that they continue to struggle with their experience with a dysfunctional leader. In some cases the leader has been out of their lives for a number of years but, participants stated they often relive the experiences. Many of the participants did not want to seek help and thought that they were crazy for these feelings.

DISCUSSION

Based on the findings of the research there is much that can be learned from an organizational standpoint to understand these experiences. Dysfunctional leadership impedes teamwork, affects communication, is detrimental to the culture of the organization and can be damaging to employees exposed to this type of leadership. The impact that dysfunctional leadership behavior has on direct reports as well as the organization is detrimental. The following provides further discussion to address these types of behaviors in healthcare.

Role of Executive Leadership

It is vital that executive healthcare leaders understand and address the implications of dysfunctional leadership. The need to address these behaviors is paramount to the success of healthcare both now and in the future. Clear expectations of acceptable behavior must be defined and communicated throughout the organization at all levels. One has to believe that while the study focused on Registered Nurses, this type of behavior is widespread and happening to other healthcare employees. Zero tolerance policies are essential and must be institutionalized as part of the culture.

Executive leaders require the skills necessary to address dysfunctional leadership behaviors. Even more important is the urgency in which these behaviors need to be addressed. Ignoring the problem will not aid the situation. Developing cultures with expectations on how to address these behaviors is the first step. Building a culture of accountability is the next step. Strong mechanisms that allow employees to report dysfunctional behavior in a safe environment is essential. While many healthcare organizations have implemented hotlines to report issues regarding patient safety, process problems as well as leadership issues, many times not enough information is provided to effectively follow up on issues. Investigations maybe conducted, however employees will not speak up due to fear of retaliation and the
cycle continues. Employees need to be assured that retaliation will not be permitted or tolerated. Utilization of outside mediators, coaching, and leadership development is an option that should be utilized. Development of skills that promptly address these behaviors ought to be implemented.

Executive leadership development programs in healthcare often address the tactical components of management and leadership such as strategic alignment, financial management, and building healthcare networks. Clear definition of healthy leadership behaviors and traits is a practice that is often ignored or assumed. Educational focus on leadership skill development is needed at all levels of leadership within healthcare. Focusing on education including stress reduction, burnout, effective relationship building, and empowerment is a critical component in building a healthy work environment.

One of the findings in the research study found that several of the leaders lacked competence in leadership, interpersonal leadership, and management skills. Ramoom, Abdullah, Piaw (2013) stated that nurses’ social and professional relationships are salient predictors of nursing job satisfaction. Leadership development programs that are rooted in emotional intelligence and relationship building are required for successful nursing leadership. Today’s healthcare leader’s role is evolving and changing rapidly. In the past healthcare leadership was considered one-dimensional however, today’s leadership model is multi-dimensional requiring leaders that are focused on relationship building, financial acumen, clinical outcomes and adaptability to address change.

Promotion of nurses into nursing leadership must be reconsidered. Having a strong clinical nurse does not equate to a competent and capable leader. While technically able to do the job, the nurse may not be equipped for the other components of leadership. Mentorship programs to help to develop and provide support to newly promoted nursing leaders should be examined. Navigating through complexity while building relationships can be stressful for a new leader. A strong mentor or support group of individuals should emulate the type of leadership characteristics and traits that promotes a healthy work environment.

Support

Support is critical for victims exposed to dysfunctional leadership. Psychological Safety is defined as a shared belief by employees of an organization that they are safe for interpersonal risk taking (Harper & White, 2013; Edmondson, 1999). Early studies (Edmondson, 1999, 1996) found that psychological safety in healthcare teams revealed that members of psychologically safe teams were more likely to discuss and report errors, learn from mistakes, and prevent recurrence. Higher levels of learning resulted in higher functioning team environments. In order for these components to be implemented, there is a need for strong support systems in place including Human Resources, mentorship programs, along with mechanisms to address stress, burnout, and dysfunction. All participants in the study felt that their organizations did not offer support systems that could be utilized. Providing avenues for employees to get support is critical for the health of the employee and the organization. Employee Assistant Programs or Counseling that is not associated with the healthcare organization is important. A third party support system, such as outside mediators, counseling, or coaching, will allow employees to find the support they need to cope as well as to feel safe in their environment.

Strengths, Limitations and Future Research

Strengths of the study focused on the actual lived experiences of nurses exposed to perceived dysfunctional leadership traits. As a result, the study was able to provide insights of how Registered Nurses made sense of their experiences. The research demonstrates how the participants coped with the situation; how they made sense of the experience; and how their organizations addressed the situation. The research provides another lens into the world of dysfunctional leadership and the understanding of the themes that emerged. Understanding the impact from a physical, psychological, and organizational component, organizations are able to understand the impact of ignoring the problem. The research provides a lens to understand qualitatively the themes that were experienced by the participants.

With any study there are limitations. The first limitation addresses geographic location. The geographic location of the Chicago Metropolitan area does not provide an adequate understanding of other locations throughout the US. We are unable to determine if these experiences are truly
representative of all geographical areas. In addition the research does not focus on any mitigating circumstances that may have been occurring within the organization or provide the insights of the leadership that is viewed as dysfunctional. Lipman-Blumen (2005) explained that one person’s toxic leader is another person’s hero. The study is limited by the insights of only a select few representatives of the experiences. The study does not take into account others within the same organization who are also exposed to the same behaviors and how they interpret the experience.

Future research is needed to further explore this phenomenon. Quantitative analysis exploring larger populations to provide insights on how predominant dysfunctional leadership is in regards to healthcare is required. Additional qualitative research of conversations with leaders to understand their experiences related to healthcare and their awareness of their behaviors is missing from the literature. A difficult topic to investigate as leaders may not be willing or even aware of influence regarding their behaviors. Nevertheless, it is important to understand the insights of leaders and perspectives which may differ from direct reports. Ultimately, an important topic to explore is the role that dysfunction plays in the care of the patient and patient outcomes.

**Conclusion**

Healthcare continues to be an environment that is primed with complexity. Nursing shortages, lack of qualified staff, new technology, healthcare reform and new regulations are only the start of the issues facing today’s healthcare leaders. Leadership that is capable, caring, and focused on excellence is paramount in order for healthcare organizations to survive.

As the nation continues to face shortages of qualified Registered Nurses, healthcare organizations cannot afford to lose qualified nurses for the reason of dysfunctional leadership. Organizations are encouraged to explore the costs of turnover, absenteeism, medical errors and lower productivity to determine root causes. Through exit interview, employee satisfaction survey reports, patterns emerge that ascertain the reasons nurses are leaving. It is essential to look for patterns and address any dysfunctional behaviors that are occurring in units or the organization.

In a time when healthcare is facing tough challenges productivity and teamwork will be vital for success. The role nursing plays is pivotal in coupling all moving elements. Excellence in nursing leadership is the adhesive force that holds healthcare together. The ability to effectively address and deal with stress is pertinent for leadership and organizations. Healthcare employees desperately seeking capable leadership to guide them through this period. There is no room for dysfunctional leadership behaviors. Healthcare organizations and leadership must demonstrate commitment to creating a healthy work environments for employees which will ultimately impact the patient and patient care.

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Training Effects on Emergency Management Activation Response

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Emergency management personnel play an important role in keeping our citizens safe. This study considered whether local and long-term emergency management training could produce different behavioral reactions to severe weather situations. Results indicate a significant positive effect for both long-term and local training on emergency management behavioral response. Individuals with higher levels of training initiated a significantly higher proportion of emergency response activation. Discussion centers on the notion that while these results indicate training has an effect on behavioral reaction, quantity of training rather than the specific type of training was most important.

INTRODUCTION

As the frequency of natural and man-made disasters continues to increase worldwide (National Weather Service, 2011), it is vital for emergency management professionals to maintain a constant state of preparedness to respond effectively. Across numerous professions, a wide variety of variables have been cited as having significant effects on ability to perform effectively (e.g., organizations, technology (Globerson & Salvendy, 1984), employee attitudes, and workplace stress (Jex & Britt, 2008), (Morss, Demuth, Bostrom, & Lazo, 2015). Training and professional development are key tools in improving employee performance in a variety of ways. Researchers have shown that use of these tools can potentially increase an individual’s job-related knowledge and skills (Ittner & Larcker, 2003), can increase employee morale (Rothwell, 2008), and may lead to higher productivity on organizational tasks (Erickson, Noonan, & McCall, 2012; Lim & Morris, 2006). However, very little is known about the effects of training on preparedness as it affects timeliness of response for individuals working in the field of emergency management (Caruson, & MacManus, 2007).

Individuals with responsibilities falling under the umbrella of the emergency management system come from a wide variety of backgrounds and educations (Weaver, Harkabus, Braun, Miller, Cox, Griffith, et al., 2014). These disparate backgrounds may make it difficult without proper training to insure
emergency management workers perform their duties effectively. Additionally, due to the wide variety of events that could occur involving emergency management, certain skills may be used frequently, while others are seldom used (Weaver, et al., 2014). It is not easy to plan for disasters when “natural disasters range widely in terms of severity, the type of damage caused, and related warning times—hurricanes typically offer a small window of time to prepare, whereas tornadoes and earthquakes present little to no warning” (Management Connections, 2012). This indicates individuals working in emergency management may experience long periods over which trained skills are not put into practice. Examining the level of effect of training on action is, therefore, critical. Multiple skills must be developed in order to maintain abilities at functional levels over periods of downtime. A constant regimen of training is one effective method for developing and retaining these skills.

Although emergency management may be an ideal discipline for studying the effects of training decay on reaction, at this time very little is known about training procedures or refresher techniques that lead to maintenance over time within this industry. Understanding how training affects emergency management is essential for the development of programs that enable a timely and effective response. Emergency Operation Center (EOC) personnel are required to make critical decisions at critical times; therefore, it is essential that they are not overworked (Burgess, 2007). In the dynamic environment of an unfolding natural disaster, bottlenecks in the process can lead to devastating impacts, with each second of hesitation spelling the difference between life and death. Advancements in science, observation and technology have improved forecast lead times for tornadoes and other natural disasters; however, the potential benefits are lost without capable, skilled personnel to disseminate the information in a rapid and coordinated way (Brotzge & Donner, 2013; Brotzge & Erickson, 2009). To better understand the linkages between training and time-critical decision-making, the present study examines the effects of short-term, long-term, and local-training on reaction of emergency management personnel toward three different behavioral scenarios involving the threat of a tornado. As expected, results show that training is important, but there are some surprising results regarding the type of training received.

METHOD

Participants
A sample of 1,224 individuals working within the emergency management community nationwide was obtained. Recruitment methods included varied strategies, including posting a link to the online survey within all available emergency management journals (e.g., Emergency Management Bulletin), and emailing directly to various emergency management websites. Responses were received from 49 out of the 50 states (Delaware excepted). The participants were primarily male (80.8%), and ages ranged from 26 to greater than 55, however 72% of those responding were 46 years of age, or older. The majority of participants listed their race as Caucasian (N=982, 94%).

Measures and Procedure
Emergency management personnel who agreed to participate on a volunteer and anonymous basis answered a 10-min online survey (the encrypted and protective program Qualtrics was used).

Demographics
Participants were asked a variety of questions pertaining to their demographics, including: age, gender, and education.

Training
Participants were asked to report on their experiences with training. Questions involved the types of training each individual had experienced, including types of emergency training exercises they had participated in locally. They were also asked to specify all types of emergency training courses they had been taken over the past 5-years from a list (categories included natural disasters (such as hurricanes, floods, tornadoes), industrial/chemical accidents, terrorism, mass transportation disasters, plus an open-
ended ‘other,’ category with a fill-in-the-blank line). Participants were scored 1-point for each of the different scenarios checked-off; scores ranged from 0 to 5. They were then divided into low- and high-categories of training, using a median split of 3.0 for long-term training, and a median split of 2.0 for local training.

Behavioral Scenarios
At the end of each survey, participants were exposed to three different behavioral scenarios and asked to indicate: What proportion of your response system would you activate based on this information alone? The three scenarios can be classified as (1) first notification: radar suggests that a tornado may exist in an approaching thunderstorm, (2) first confirmation notification: law enforcement confirms two sightings of a tornado on the ground, and (3) second confirmation notification: personal visual confirmation of a large and damaging tornado on the ground (see Appendix A). As expected, the proportion of the emergency response system activated increased from first notification (M=47.84%, SD=39.94) to first confirmation (M=60.14, SD=43.43), and increased again from first confirmation to second confirmation (M=63.86, SD=45.43).

RESULTS
To investigate the initial assumption that different levels of training would result in different reactions to our three behavioral scenarios various standard statistical tests were run (t-tests, regression analysis, etc.). Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was also utilized, followed by ad-hoc analyses for long-term and local-training on each of the three scenarios. MANOVA results indicate that both long-term (Table 1) and local training (Table 2) have a significant effect on the proportion of the emergency system activated for all three theoretical scenarios. Individuals categorized as high Long-Term-Training (LTT) activate a significantly larger proportion of the emergency response system than individuals categorized as low LTT (e.g., 80.47% activated for high-long-term trained individuals after the second confirmation compared to 57.26 for individuals categorized as low-long-term training).

### TABLE 1
LONG-TERM TRAINING MEANS FOR PROPORTION OF EM SYSTEM ACTIVATED, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, & MULTIVARIATE EFFECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High LTT</th>
<th>Low LTT</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Notification</td>
<td>61.82 (36.29)</td>
<td>42.29 (39.99)</td>
<td>14.82</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Confirmation</td>
<td>76.24 (34.57)</td>
<td>53.75 (44.93)</td>
<td>26.84</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Confirmation</td>
<td>80.47 (36.04)</td>
<td>57.26 (47.08)</td>
<td>29.43</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 2
LOCAL TRAINING MEANS FOR PROPORTION OF EM SYSTEM ACTIVATED, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, & MULTIVARIATE EFFECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>High LTT</th>
<th>Low LTT</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td>M (SD)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Notification</td>
<td>60.04 (36.53)</td>
<td>38.01 (39.89)</td>
<td>16.23</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Confirmation</td>
<td>74.81 (35.61)</td>
<td>48.33 (45.54)</td>
<td>33.45</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Confirmation</td>
<td>79.19 (36.90)</td>
<td>51.51 (47.85)</td>
<td>33.53</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Following initial t-tests, regression analyses were conducted for each of the three behavioral scenarios to determine whether long-term and local training could significantly predict the proportion of the emergency response system activated while controlling for certain demographic variables (e.g., age). Overall results (Table 3) indicate that together local and long-term training have a significant effect on all three behavioral scenarios while controlling for age, with results predicting roughly 9% of the variation in activation of the emergency management system across all three scenarios. These results show that long-term training, regardless of specific type of training (e.g., terrorism vs. natural disaster) can predict the behavioral reactions of these emergency management personnel.

### TABLE 3
REGRESSION RESULTS FOR THE THREE BEHAVIORAL SCENARIOS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Model 1 DV First Notification</th>
<th>Model 2 DV First Confirmation</th>
<th>Model 3 DV Second Confirmation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$b$</td>
<td>$t$</td>
<td>$b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>4.65**</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Training</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>5.03**</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long-term Training</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>8.26**</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Standardized coefficients are presented here.  
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

After examining the effects of training on behavioral reactions, the effects of a number of individual difference variables (gender, age, education) on behavioral reactions were examined. Of all the variables tested, only one significant relationship emerged: age had a significant effect on the proportion of activation engaged for the first notification scenario ($F=3.85, p<.05$); specifically, individuals aged 45 and younger were less likely to activate the emergency response system ($M=36.93, SD=30.48$) when compared to individuals 46 and older ($M=56.37, SD=37.90$).

**DISCUSSION**

Overall results indicate long-term training and local training exercises had a significant effect on all three extreme weather scenarios; individuals with more training engaged a significantly higher proportion of emergency response activation. All forms of training were combined to create a ‘level of training.’ Thus, these results indicate that for this sample, the type of training (e.g., terrorism, natural disaster, etc.) did not matter as much As the quantity of training, in general. In conjunction with these findings, Wulf and Shea (2002) put into question the issue of whether learning response skills through training could translate, more generally, into effective behavior. These results support this idea by showing that individuals working in emergency management can benefit from attending training sessions as often as is practical, regardless of the topic for training. Researchers have suggested that specific training for certain geographical regions should be highlighted (McEntire & Myers, 2004; Dawson, 2007). One benefit to regionally-specific training is to provide a clear and specific shared model for all professionals that will be responding to disasters to which the area is prone (Morss et al., 2015). However results of the present study are especially interesting in that they suggest all training has value, regardless of whether one believes the training is applicable to their jurisdiction (e.g., a hurricane training simulation for an emergency management worker in Oklahoma).

These results also show that participant age may effect urgency in of response; that is, age had an effect on the proportion of activation engaged for the first notification warning. Individuals aged 45 and younger were less likely to activate the emergency response system (though there were no significant
differences in age when examining reactions to the two, more serious situations). These results may be related to the level of risk perception, experience, responsibility, or status of an individual aged 45 and younger - by default they have not had as much time to develop skills through training or actual experience. Individuals 45 and younger may not react accordingly due to a lack of training or confidence and needs to be further examined. It would be interesting to examine whether with more training would these individuals change their behavioral reaction, or if there is some other individual difference that would explain this difference. Research on the effectiveness of training within other industries indicates that age can effect training through ability and maintenance. Loftus (1985) affirms the important rule that knowledge and skill can be acquired to differing degrees and that those differences will influence the extent to which the skills are maintained. What now needs to be understood is whether differing degrees of acquisition are a result of individual difference variables, or the quality of training.

A wide assortment of individual difference variables may affect whether or not communication within the emergency management system is successful (Schumacher et al., 2010, Morss et al., 2015). These results, as noted, show that factors such as the specificity of training, time spent in training, and actual experience with disaster can play a critical role in the planning and response to disaster situations. Unfortunately, even with a large sample size (N=1224) in the present study, there was not enough power to test specific types of natural disasters against other types queried. This topic should be a point of focus in any follow-up study. Undoubtedly, factors such as time spent within the emergency management field, time spent in training, and actual experience with disaster can play a critical role in the planning and response to disaster situations and also need to be further explored and understood (Kendra and Wachtendorf, 2003; Moynihan, 2005).

Limitations
The present study has a number of limitations, in particular it lacked the power needed to compare specific types of training on the behavioral reaction scenarios. For example, it might have been interesting to determine whether specific training for tornados produced a different behavioral reaction. Unfortunately, our survey did not separate natural disaster types from one another; that is, the question set asked about natural disaster training and stated that this included tornados, hurricanes, flooding and etc. Thus, even though most emergency managers reported having received natural disaster training, the specific type could not be separated for comparison.

The majority of our participants had received training in both terrorism management and natural disaster response. Terror management training is not surprising, considering history effects. Prior to the 9/11 terrorist attacks there were few, if any, effective preventative measures in place for such incidents. There is a possibility that some governmental agencies were trained for the threat, but those who actually responded to the disaster were not prepared. That tragedy established the importance of intercommunication for multiple jurisdictions, while establishing a defined structure (Perry, 2003), and increased the number of training scenarios nationwide occurring for terrorism management. Disasters of this magnitude not only affect local areas, as it also affects adjoining regions.

Another limitation of the current study is self-selection biases in survey participation (e.g., certain states had very low response rates). While it would be interesting to learn why certain emergency management workers entered into the study and others did not, the low response rate of some states can be at least partially explained by the number of emergency management workers registered for that state (e.g., smaller states should have fewer emergency management workers).

Implications/Future Directions
As always, it is essential to establish standards for the development of emergency management training programs (Alexander, 2003), while ensuring these standards do not place limitations on necessary changes (Doyle, 1996). In this process, it is essential for emergency management agencies to recognize that training for any situation, regardless of the size and scope, may be nearly as important as that providing specific training for the geographical location. By keeping the idea of rapid response in the
forefront of emergency manager’s thinking via training, response to any emergency is likely to be quicker.

This initial study examined the effects of training on early response, based on these results, follow-on studies might be directed toward examining the issue of decay-of-knowledge and skills; that is, on comparing decay rates for differing degrees of original acquisition. It would be interesting to learn whether training in a wide variety of topics affects retention of training in others. Future studies should separate disaster types into more specific subtypes and should include a number of personality/individual difference variables that could further explain behavioral reactions within emergency management (e.g., resiliency). If possible, recruitment should be directed at crossing cultural barriers a little more significantly. It would be interesting to learn how different cultures view training and response. Do these different cultures respond differently to emergency messaging, and would communications be made more effective by recognizing these important cultural differences?

REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

Behavioral Scenarios

1. Assume you learn that the National Weather Service (NWS) has issued a tornado warning for your county, valid for the next 30 minutes. The warning is based on a strong Doppler radar signature that indicates a possible tornado roughly 15 miles away from your response area, that is headed your direction at 25 miles per hour.

2. Now suppose that you call the severe weather desk at the NWS and learn that they have just received two reports from law enforcement of a tornado on the ground. It is 12 miles away from your response area and moving in your direction at 25 miles per hour.

3. Now suppose that a few minutes later you turn on a television in time to see local news coverage of what seems to be a reasonably wide tornado doing damage on the ground at a location you recognize to be about 8 miles away from your response area. The storm is still headed in your direction.
The Role of Extraversion and Communication Methods on an Individual’s Satisfaction with the Team

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University of North Texas

Saurabh Srivastava
University of North Texas

Teams communicate. The question then becomes how communication methods influence an individual members’ satisfaction with the team. We explore face-to-face and online communication methods to determine how each influences the individual’s satisfaction with the team. Further, we examine extraversion as a moderator between communication method and individual satisfaction with the team. Results suggest that face-to-face communication and individual satisfaction with the team are positively related, while online communication is not related to individual satisfaction. Our post hoc analysis suggests a negative relationship between age and face-to-face communication. Discussion and implications are included.

INTRODUCTION

Organizations have been moving toward more online communication, not only for their daily operations, but also for team projects. This transition has caused researchers to investigate how teams interact within an online domain (Alge, Wiethoff, & Klein, 2003; Becker-Beck, Wintermantel, & Borg, 2005; Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, & Gibson, 2004; Triana, Kirkman, & Wagstaff, 2012). Furthermore, the method by which teams communicate has received a substantial amount of research (Anderson, McEwan, Bal, & Carletta, 2007; Kupritz & Cowell, 2011; Pitts, Wright, & Harkabus, 2012; Rico & Cohen, 2005; Warkentin, Sayeed, & Hightower, 1997). The shift from purely face-to-face communication to more online, or virtual, communication is steadily increasing. Moreover, methods by which teams communicate range from face-to-face to online, and increasingly, a hybrid of face-to-face and online communication methods is emerging (Dixon & Panteli, 2010). This view of a hybrid between face-to-face and online communication methods is gaining popularity (Cohen & Gibson, 2003; Dixon & Panteli, 2010; Griffith & Neale, 2001; Rico & Cohen, 2005; Wang & Hsu, 2012).

As teams are being utilized more in organizations, researchers should also explore individual team member satisfaction with the team experience. Although studies have neglected this aspect of team satisfaction (Peeters, Rutte, van Tuijl, & Reymen, 2006), it is imperative that researchers focus on this aspect as it could have ripple effects not only within the team itself, but also for future teams. For instance, a member’s dissatisfying experience with a team could negatively influence that member’s attitude toward teamwork, thus potentially resulting in decreased effort when engaged in future teams (Peeters, et al., 2006).
Some team dynamics result from the personality differences among team members. The Big Five personality traits have been studied extensively within teams (i.e., Bell, 2007; MacDonnell, O’Neill, Kline, & Hambley, 2009; Mohammed & Angell, 2003; Peeters, et al., 2006; Wang & Hsu, 2012), since researchers called for a construct-oriented approach in studies concerning personality and workplace criteria (Hough & Oswald, 2000, 2005; McGrath, 1998). In this study, we focus on extraversion since past studies using extraversion within teams yielded conflicting results (Lancellotti & Boyd, 2008; Yellen, Winniford, & Sanford, 1995) and since extraversion has been suggested to influence communication preferences (Topi, Valacich, & Rao, 2002). The purpose of this study is to understand the effect of communication methods, online and face-to-face, and individual satisfaction with the team, with extraversion as a moderator. This study contributes to the literature by exploring the relationship between communication methods and individual satisfaction with the team and by offering further explanation of the role of extraversion in teams.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teams and Communication Methods

A team is defined as individuals who work together to achieve specific goals and take common responsibility for the team’s success (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Team members rely on each other and share their own complementary skills or knowledge to contribute to the team (LePine, Hanson, Borman, & Motowidlo, 2000; Perrow, 1967). Research suggests that the impact of team interaction processes on effectiveness may depend on task interdependence, which refers to the extent to which team members are dependent upon each other to get tasks accomplished (Alge, et al., 2003; Wageman, 1995). Today, teams use two methods of communication to complete their goals: FTF and online.

FTF Communication

FTF communication is an orderly process in which verbal and nonverbal cues offer feedback, facilitate turn taking, and transmit subtle shades of meaning (McGrath, 1991; Ocker, Fjermestad, Hiltz, & Johnson, 1998). People rely on multiple modes of communication in FTF conversation, such as verbal (tone of voice, inflection, and voice volume) and nonverbal (eye movement, facial expressions, hand gestures, and other body language) cues. Further, in normal FTF conversation, there are few interruptions or long pauses and the distribution of participation is consistent (McGrath, 1990). Overall, FTF communication offers the maximum amount of cues, and is regarded as the highest quality method (O’Mara, 1999). Despite its advantages for richer communication, FTF meetings can be costly, both in terms of travel and in terms of time spent for location arrangement (O’Mara, 1999).

Online Communication

Also known as computer-mediated communication (Baltes, Dickson, Sherman, Bauer, & LaGanke, 2002), online communication refers to communication via computers and involves two types: synchronous communication, in which people communicate in real time via chat or discussion software, with all participants at their computers at the same time, and asynchronous communication, in which people communicate in a delayed fashion by computer, such as e-mail (Warschauer, 2001). Online communication has also changed intra-organizational communication (Bordia, 1997). Both small and large organizations use online communication for a host of activities such as group problem solving, coordination of group projects, and sharing ideas (Siegel, Dubrovsky, Kiesler, & McGuire, 1986). An advantage of online communication is the ability to recruit additional members with relevant expertise rapidly (Anderson, et al., 2007). Despite the increasing acceptance of online communication methods within organizations, there have been some shortcomings, which include issues with privacy, trust, security, and social control (Dunlop & Kling, 1991). Moreover, online communication eliminates the verbal and nonverbal cues associated with FTF communication, thus altering the orderliness and effectiveness of information exchange (Hightower, Sayeed, Warkentin, & McHaney, 1997;
Lewandowski, Rosenberg, Parks, & Siegel, 2011) and destroying the normal “give and take” of a FTF conversation (Warkentin, et al., 1997).

Communication Theories

Three communication theories are particularly relevant to this study. Social presence theory refers to the degree to which a communication method conveys the psychological perception that other people are physically present and suggests that these methods are capable of providing a greater sense of intimacy and immediacy (Short, Williams, & Christie, 1976). Media richness theory suggests that intra-organizational communication can be ordered on a continuum from leanest to richest media, where lean media, such as numeric documents, lack a personal focus and are not able to transmit nonverbal cues or to provide immediate feedback that rich media, such as FTF communication, are able to provide (Daft & Lengel, 1984; Trevino, Daft, & Lengel, 1987). Media naturalness theory contends that because humans’ natural form of communication is face-to-face, less natural forms of communication such as online methods will have negative impact on message interpretation (Kock, 2004). Furthermore, these three theories imply that FTF communication is superior to online communication (MacDonnell, et al., 2009).

Previous Communication Research

Previous research demonstrates differences between FTF and online communications. First, the level of participation between the two types has been shown to be different. In FTF groups, status differences in group members frequently determine participation, with higher status members participating more, while in online groups, participation tends to be more balanced or equitable (Siegel, et al., 1986). Second, studies show that there is less normative interpersonal or social pressure in online groups (Bordia, 1997). Third, online groups tend to have higher uninhibited behavior. Since members are occupied with creating, sending, and receiving messages, the attention of members is distracted from the social context. Thus, they are less concerned with what others will think, which presumably leads to uninhibited behavior (Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984; Siegel, et al., 1986). Fourth, research suggests that teams which utilize online communication methods will communicate less effectively than groups who meet in person (Hightower & Sayeed, 1995, 1996; McGrath & Hollingshead, 1994; Straus, 1996). Conversely, studies have shown that teams using online communication methods could not outperform FTF teams under similar circumstances (Warkentin, et al., 1997). These studies demonstrate the need for further investigation to evaluate the effectiveness of FTF and online communication methods.

Individual Satisfaction with the Team

Researcher has shown that teams are less effective when the members themselves are not satisfied with the way the team functions (Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995). Therefore, determining how satisfied team members are with their team is of increasing importance to both researchers and managers since this information holds important consequences for the team member’s future work (Peeters, et al., 2006). Although some research regarding the individual satisfaction with the team has been explored in virtual team research (Furumo, 2009; Piccoli, Powell, & Ives, 2004), it is an outcome variable that has largely been ignored in team research (Milliken & Martins, 1996). Since teamwork has become an increasingly important aspect of organizations and education, individual team member satisfaction with the team presents a vital area to explore (Peeters, et al., 2006).

Extraversion

Extraversion refers to the extent to which a person is outgoing and talkative and is associated with behaviors such as being sociable, gregarious, assertive, and active (McCrae & Costa, 1985). Additionally, people with this type of personality trait are usually talkative, lively, optimistic, enthusiastic, and active (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Neuman, Wagner, & Christiansen, 1999). Furthermore, they like to have contact with people and positively participate in team discussions (Littlepage, Schmidt, Whisler, & Frost, 1995). Highly extraverted people are often perceived as being dominant and as leaders (Barry & Stewart, 1997) and tend to have better communication skills (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994).
Researchers have called for a construct-oriented approach in studies involving personality and workplace criteria (Bergman, Small, Bergman, & Bowling, 2014; Hough & Oswald, 2000, 2005; McGrath, 1998). Although several subdimensions of the Big Five have been shown to have an impact on team effectiveness (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998; LePine, 2003; Lim & Ployhart, 2004; Mohammed & Angell, 2003; Neuman & Wright, 1999), each contains a host of subdimensions that address narrower and more criterion-specific aspects of the larger constructs (Pearsall & Ellis, 2006). Additionally, researchers suggest that examining these subdimensions may uncover effects that would otherwise be hidden and that there is value in examining the subdimensions of the Big Five, such as extraversion, in teams (Moon, 2001; Pearsall & Ellis, 2006).

Extraversion has been studied extensively in teams, with mixed results regarding its effect on performance (Barrick, et al., 1998; Barry & Stewart, 1997; Bell, 2007; Neuman & Wright, 1999). Barry and Stewart (1997) suggested that the benefits of extraversion on team performance lie primarily in the subdimension of assertiveness. Assertive individuals tend to be decisive, outspoken, forceful, and direct (Deluga, 1988) and share ideas and information in a clear, confident manner (Hayes, 1991). Furthermore, team member extraversion has been shown to be related to attraction toward the team (Kristof-Brown, Barrick, & Stevens, 2005) and to team processes such as team members seeking help from other team members when needed (Porter, et al., 2003). Given the previous studies on extraversion within teams, an underexplored area rests with how extraversion interacts with both the type of communication method and individual satisfaction with the team.

FIGURE 1
ILLUSTRATION OF HYPOTHESES BETWEEN COMMUNICATION METHOD, EXTRAVERSION, AND INDIVIDUAL SATISFACTION WITH THE TEAM

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Communication Methods

Research has not provided consistent support for the predictive value of social presence theory or media richness theory for communication methods. Further, researchers have criticized the assumptions
of both theories indicating that communication richness is an objective property of the communication method itself, independent from the social context where the communication takes place (Carlson & Zmud, 1999; Fulk, Schmitz, & Steinfeld, 1990; Markus, 1994; van den Hooff, Groot, & De Jonge, 2005). Additionally, opponents propose that online communication methods are multilayered and contextual and argue against the placement of email as a leaner medium as it was predicted to be in the aforementioned theories (Kupritz & Cowell, 2011).

Research has also shown that some differences arise regarding individual satisfaction with the team and communication methods. Specifically, anonymity, discussion time, and group size each had effects on the difference between member satisfaction between the online groups and FTF groups (Baltes, et al., 2002). Other research has shown that when necessary information is not distributed equally to team members, dissension is created which leads to lower levels of satisfaction (Janz, Colquitt, & Noe, 1997; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). Likewise, satisfaction will decline when members fail to coordinate their interdependent roles and responsibilities toward the completion of the team task and are then left to fend for themselves (Van Der Vegt, Emans, & Van de Vliert, 2000, 2001; Wageman & Baker, 1997).

Team members must communicate to accomplish their task. Although not explicitly stated in the definition of individual satisfaction with the team, we suggest that communication method plays an intricate role in determining the individual satisfaction with the team as communication is a fundamental aspect of teamwork. Further, we argue that since communication is a fundamental aspect of a team, any type of communication, whether FTF or online, will have a positive influence on an individual’s satisfaction with the team. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: FTF communication has a positive relationship with individual satisfaction with the team.

Hypothesis 2: Online communication has a positive relationship with individual satisfaction with the team.

Extraversion and Satisfaction

A team environment offers extraverts the means to be assertive, to talk, and to socialize (Neuman, et al., 1999). Extraversion usually facilitates positive results for a team, not only being advantageous to a team’s operations, but also enhancing the participation of team members and team satisfaction (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hogan, et al., 1994). It follows that since a team environment permits extraverts to be themselves, we hypothesize that the individual dynamics of team members will grant positive individual satisfaction with the team. In other words,

Hypothesis 3: Team members with high extraversion will have higher individual satisfaction with the team than team members with low extraversion.

Extraversion as Moderator for Communication Method

Since team members must communicate about ideas, work approaches, individual contributions, progress, and encountered problems, they need to be assertive in taking actions toward task completion (Peeters, et al., 2006; Van Vianen & De Dreu, 2001). Wang and Hsu (2012) concluded that compared to a “negative and passive” team, a “positive and active” team personality composition has high extraversion; additionally, a team with a personality trait of low extraversion will demonstrate behaviors of being passive and lacking confidence.

Extraverts may experience frustration in environments in which relationship building is hindered by online communication methods (MacDonnell, et al., 2009). Regarding online communications, Topi and colleagues (2002) illustrated that extraverts may not perform well communicating online since it lacks the social cues that are utilized to guide their interactions with others. Yellen and colleagues (1995) show that extraverts were more inclined to elaborate on their solutions and, in FTF meetings, were more focused on general comments, which included problem definition and clarification. Further, FTF meetings provide an
outlet for the exchange of gestures and body expressions, which gives extraverts more flexibility to expand upon and argue their proposed solutions.

Hypothesis 4: Extraversion in team members will moderate the relationship between FTF communication and individual satisfaction with the team, such that when a team member’s extraversion is high, the positive relationship between FTF communication and individual satisfaction with the team is stronger.

Hypothesis 5: Extraversion in team members will moderate the relationship between online communication and individual satisfaction with the team, such that when a team member’s extraversion is high, the positive relationship between online communication and individual satisfaction with the team is weaker.

METHOD

Sample and Data Collection

We collected data from undergraduate business students at a large public university in the southwestern United States who were engaged in team projects for a course grade. Project teams are defined as “temporary entities that execute specialized time-constrained tasks and then disband” (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003, p. 336). Student teams embody this definition (e.g., Bergman, et al., 2014). They are temporary (only meeting for one semester), have time-constrained tasks (typically 12-15 weeks to complete a project, with aspects due at different times), and then disband (at the conclusion of the semester or when the project is completed, whichever is first).

Since we wanted to capture the natural behavior of teams regarding the two communication methods, teams were not divided into “online” or “face-to-face” teams. Furthermore, we presumed that teams would use both mediums, which would result with team members gravitating toward either more online or FTF communication.

After agreeing to participate, students were given an online survey. A total of 214 students participated in the study, of which 188 students completed the entire survey. We removed 7 surveys due to the participants completing the survey in less than 5 minutes, for a final sample size of 181 participants. Our sample consisted of 58% male participants, with an age range of 19-46 and ethnicities consisting of 54.7% Caucasian, 17.1% Hispanic, 16% African-American, 8.3% Asian, and 3.9% other.

Measures

All items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 5 (completely agree).

Online Communication

We measured online communication method by use of a newly developed four-item scale to include all possible online communication methods that are available to students. These include social media, email, and instructor-provided mediums such as Blackboard or Wiki. In an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), two items related to social media loaded on one factor while the other two items related to email and instructor-provided mediums loaded on a different factor. However, we treat our construct as formative since we used different communication methods to form an “online communication method” construct. These items do not share a common theme and therefore are not interchangeable (Jarvis, Mackenzie, & Padsakoff, 2003; Rossiter, 2002). Social media, email, and instructor-provided medium items are different in terms of usage, but we are certain that they all pertain to online communication. Relating to participants’ responses, students perceived social media as a separate domain of online communication method and responded accordingly; thus, we used the two items which referred to email and instructor-provided mediums (“My team used email frequently [at least once per week] to discuss
aspects of our project” and “My team used an instructor-provided medium [such as Wiki or Blackboard] to work on our project”). The Cronbach’s alpha for these items was 0.946.

**Face-to-Face Communication**

Similar to the online communication method, we developed a three-item scale to measures FTF communication method. Although all three items loaded on a single factor in confirmatory analysis, we consider our FTF communication method as a formative construct. A sample item is “My team met frequently [at least once per week] to work on our project.” The Cronbach’s alpha was 0.725.

**Extraversion**

We adapted eight items from Tiwari, Singh, and Singh (2009) to measure extraversion. A sample item is “I am a talkative person.” The Cronbach’s alpha was 0.898.

**Individual Satisfaction with the Team**

To fit this study, we adapted four items for individual satisfaction with the team from Peeters, et al., (2006). A sample item is “Taken as a whole, I am satisfied with the team.” The Cronbach’s alpha was 0.907.

**Controls**

We used three control variables: age, gender, and ethnicity. According to Herzog and Rogers (1981), older individuals are typically more satisfied with their overall life in terms of family, friends, job, and global wellbeing. Additionally, studies have shown that younger individuals prefer online communication than do older individuals (Thayer & Ray, 2006). Since the ages of participants ranged from 19 to 46, we controlled for age. Additionally, we controlled for gender since prior research suggests that women are more inclined to online communication (Weiser, 2000). Finally, we controlled for ethnicity, since people with different cultures may have an inclination to different communication methods (Winner, 1983).

**RESULTS**

In order to test our hypotheses, we used regression analysis to test the direct and moderating relationship between our variables. Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics and correlations. Due to the moderation analyses, we centered the independent and moderator variables. The maximum VIF is less than 3; thus, multicollinearity is not a severe problem that would hinder the interpretation of the regression analysis (Neter, Wasserman, & Kutner, 1983).

**TABLE 1**

OVERALL DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND CORRELATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Face-to-Face Communication</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Online Communication</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Extraversion</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.15*</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Individual Satisfaction with Team</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Age</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>-0.16*</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>-0.03</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Gender</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>-0.17*</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Ethnicity</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-0.16*</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.17*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 181, * p < 0.05, **p < 0.01
The results of the regression analysis are displayed in Table 2. As shown in Model 1 of Table 2, FTF communication was found to be significantly related to individual satisfaction with the team (β = 0.516, \( p < 0.05 \)), which supports Hypothesis 1. Online communication (β = 0.046, \( ns \)) and extraversion (β = -0.013, \( ns \)) were not significantly related to individual satisfaction with the team, thus not supporting Hypotheses 2 and 3. In exploring the moderating relationship of extraversion, we included the interaction variables in Model 2 as shown in Table 2. Both FTF and extraversion (β = -0.011, \( ns \)) and online and extraversion (β = -0.066, \( ns \)) were found to be insignificant, thus not supporting Hypotheses 4 and 5.

### TABLE 2

RESULTS FOR COMMUNICATION METHOD AND EXTRAVERSION ON INDIVIDUAL SATISFACTION WITH THE TEAM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Model 1</th>
<th>Model 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>-0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.049*</td>
<td>0.136*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face Communication</td>
<td>0.516*</td>
<td>0.526*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Communication</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>-0.013</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face X Extraversion</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online X Extraversion</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>0.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standardized coefficients shown. \( N = 181, p < 0.05 \)

### TABLE 3

POST-HOC ANALYSIS RESULTS

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face Communication</td>
<td>0.517*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online Communication</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>-0.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face X Extraversion</td>
<td>0.053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online X Extraversion</td>
<td>-0.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face X Age</td>
<td>-0.184*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online X Age</td>
<td>-0.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-to-Face X Gender</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online X Gender</td>
<td>-0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
<td>0.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
<td>0.255</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standardized coefficients shown. \( N = 181, p < 0.05 \)
POST-HOC ANALYSIS

Since the correlation and regression results (see Tables 1 and 2) indicated that gender and age may play a role in individual satisfaction with the team, we decided to conduct a post-hoc analysis to explore these relationships. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 3. The only significant interaction was age with FTF communication on an individual’s satisfaction with the team. This finding is especially interesting since it acts in a negative manner ($\beta = -0.184$, $p < 0.05$), which implies that older students were not as satisfied with the team using FTF communication. One possible explanation is that older students may have responsibilities outside of schoolwork and, therefore, did not have as much time to devote to FTF meetings with team members. Although we cannot directly infer why older students may have had insufficient time to devote to FTF meetings, one possible explanation is that the university used for data collection has a large student population of non-traditional students; therefore, career and family situations may have had an influence on the amount of time these older students were able to devote to FTF meetings, resulting in insufficient relationship development with other team members. Whatever time these older students could spend in FTF meetings created a negative experience for them. Another possible explanation is that the dissimilarity in ages between the students may have made FTF interaction more uncomfortable for the older students.

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Overall, we found interesting insights related to the role of communication method in teams related to an individual’s satisfaction with the team. Additionally, we found strong support for the positive relationship between FTF communication and individual satisfaction with the team. These are addressed in more detail below.

Communication Method

We found strong support for Hypothesis 1, which states that FTF communication and individual satisfaction with the team are positively related. This implies that when teams decide to meet more in person, the individual team members are more satisfied with their team experience. Further, if these members are more satisfied, then they are more likely to engage in team activities in the future. Our results suggest that online communication method and individual satisfaction with the team are not related, which suggests that, in this particular sample, online communications methods had no influence on how satisfied a team member was with the team experience. Further research should investigate this relationship.

Based on these results, we believe that a hybrid communication method may have been in effect for our teams. Since we concluded that FTF communication was positively related to individual satisfaction with the team and that online communication had no relationship to individual satisfaction with the team, we assume that team members most likely used a combination of the two methods (FTF and online) in their team project, but were overall more satisfied with their face-to-face interaction than with their online interactions.

Extraversion

Based on our analysis, we did not find any relationship between the extraversion personality trait and individual satisfaction with the team. Similar to our study, Peeters and colleagues (2006) found no significant relationship between extraversion and individual satisfaction with the team. There is a possibility that there was a major difference in the degree of extraversion among team members and highly extraverted team members influenced the satisfaction level of other team members. This assumption is consistent with Barrick and Mount (1991) that stated that extraverts not only influence other team member’s performance, but also promote the team’s performance by facilitating positive results.
Our results showed that the extraversion personality trait does not moderate the relationship between both FTF and online communication with individual satisfaction with the team. Topi, et al. (2002) found that extraverted people are more satisfied than introverted people regardless of the communication method (FTF or online). Our results imply that extraversion does not have a moderating effect on the communication method and an individual’s satisfaction with the team. Furthermore, our findings suggest that satisfaction may not be as strongly linked to personality traits as previously believed (e.g., Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011). Lastly, our results suggest that team members should not be overly concerned about this trait of other members when focusing on their personal satisfaction with the team.

Limitations and Future Research
This study has a few limitations. Our study is based in a university setting with students, collected at a single time-point which can result in generalizability issues. Although student teams do illustrate a project team, the same results may not transfer to an organizational setting. We did not control for the initial organization of the team. It is possible that a self-selected team would have higher satisfaction than a team that was organized by the instructor.

Despite these limitations, there are several future opportunities. First, the hybrid communication method warrants further investigation, as there is limited research in the area (Dixon & Panteli, 2010). Further, the examination of how the use of videoconferencing mediums (i.e., Skype) in a team setting could influence individual satisfaction with the team is another area. Since more companies are moving to videoconferencing, the individual satisfaction with the team utilizing videoconferencing mediums is warranted to maintain individual’s engagement with the team. Moreover, an experiment to replicate this study would provide additional insight into these relationships and could contribute to the teaching literature. The potential influence of age on communication method, as suggested in the post-hoc analysis, warrants further exploration.

CONCLUSION
Our study examined how different communication methods (face-to-face and online) affect an individual’s satisfaction with the team and explore extraversion as a moderator. Our results provided insight into this relationship. First, we suggest that FTF communication and individual satisfaction with the team have a positive relationship, thus indicating that team members are more satisfied when meeting face-to-face to complete team projects. We also found that the online communication method and individual satisfaction with the team do not have a significant relationship. Our post-hoc analysis also suggests that age may play a role regarding communication method on an individual’s satisfaction with the team. Lastly, our study suggests that there is no relationship between extraversion on the relationship between communication method and individual satisfaction with the team.

REFERENCES


NOTE: paper was presented at the 2015 Annual Conference of the Southwest Academy of Management in Houston, TX.
Breaking Boundaries and Leaving Bad Impressions: Toward Understanding Workplace Encounters with Helicopter Parents

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University of Tennessee Chattanooga

Joy Peluchette
Lindenwood University

Using an inductive qualitative approach, this study examined perceptions of helicopter parents in the workplace. An analysis of 596 comments posted to online discussion boards revealed four major themes (1) attributions (i.e., someone is to blame including the helicopter parents, the adult children, and/or the company), (2) impression formation (e.g., adult children of helicopter parents are incompetent, unreliable, unable to work independently), (3) boundaries/separation (parents are over-stepping important boundary), and (4) the appropriateness of parental involvement in the workplace. Based on the qualitative analysis, a theoretical model and a set of propositions are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

With the entrance of the Millennial generation into the workforce, a new and unexpected entity from the non-work domain has appeared—their helicopter parents. For instance, the popular press includes numerous reports of parents showing up with their young adult children for job interviews, negotiating their starting salaries, and calling to inquire as to why their child was rejected as an applicant (Ellin, 2014; Lantz, 2013; Shellenbarger, 2006). Some managers have cited instances where parents have “called in sick” for their adult child or have phoned to complain about their adult child’s performance review or failure to receive a promotion (Peluchette, Kovanic & Partridge, 2013; Tyler, 2007). Indeed, “helicopter parenting” has become a significant workplace issue as evidence shows 32 percent of employers have experienced some level of parental involvement in the recruitment and selection of recent college graduates (Gardner, 2007).

This phenomenon has prompted a lot of debate in the popular press about the appropriateness of such behavior, why it is happening, and who is to blame for the situation. Some have expressed outrage at parents for engaging in such behavior and at young adults for allowing themselves to be coddled by their parents (LeTrent, 2013). Others have taken a more positive stance, seeing this as a generational trend and urging businesses to adjust their workplace practices in ways that recognize the role of parents in young people’s lives (Berman, 2013; Ludden, 2012). Employers have responded by either denying parental involvement or allowing parental involvement, but managing it (Shellenbarger, 2006; Tyler, 2007). Those organizations that deny parental involvement believe that it is inappropriate and would prefer not to deal with candidates’ or employees’ parents. For example, Ellin (2014) relayed an instance of an HR manager who had a young recruit show up with her mother for an interview. The mother extended her hand,
introduced herself, and proceeded to explain that her daughter was nervous and may forget to tell him things and she wanted to be sure the HR manager knew her daughter was a hard worker. The HR manager said he was shocked, “How could she not know that this was inappropriate?” The daughter did not get the job. As is often the case, when hiring managers are confronted with helicopter parents, the outcome is negative for the candidate/employee.

However, there are other firms which have chosen a more positive stance on parental involvement. Recognizing that today’s young adults tend to have close relationships with their parents and that parents yield substantial influence over their adult children’s decisions, these firms believe that, by embracing parents as part of the employment process, they will have a better chance at recruiting and retaining young employees (Lantz, 2013). Willyerd (2013) argues that organizations should view parents as their “secret weapon” when designing recruitment and retention strategies. Likewise, Marie Artim, a vice president for Talent Acquisition for Enterprise Holdings, a car rental company, sees parents as a key “influencer” and believes that, if parents are comfortable with the culture and opportunities of a firm, they will feel better about advising their adult child to join or stay with the organization (Ludden, 2012).

In line with this thinking, a number of firms have taken proactive steps to enhance parental involvement in the workplace by implementing a “Take Your Parents to Work” day. Companies such as Google, LinkedIn, Enterprise, Northwestern Mutual, Dow Chemical, and Merrill Lynch have all instituted these annual events, seeing it as a way of building employee pride, loyalty, fun, and commitment (Berman, 2013; Ludden, 2012). Other companies have taken measures to involve parents but have put some boundaries in place. For example, while Office Depot has a web page dedicated to parents, they also provide tips on how to be supportive without being invasive (Loftus, 2012). Similarly, Enterprise sends recruitment information to parents of candidates but does not allow parents to sit in on job interviews or submit application materials for their child. Instead, the parent receives a gentle but firm message that, while their support is appreciated, their adult child is better off showing the initiative themselves (Ludden, 2012).

While this anecdotal evidence provides some insight into how organizations are responding to the presence of helicopter parents in the workplace, to date there has been no academic research on this issue. The purpose of this paper is to help fill that void as well as guide future research. To that end, we designed a qualitative inductive study to explore possible connections between the helicopter parenting phenomenon and existing theory, and to increase understanding and guide future research by developing a theoretical model (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

METHOD

The data for our study was collected from eleven online discussion boards (e.g., blogs.hbr.org; blogs.wsj.com; money.msn.com; online.wsj.com; cnn.com; huffingtonpost.com; npr.com) which were identified by using the search terms of “parents,” “workplace,” and “bring your parents to work day.” Each of these discussion boards dealt with the extent to which companies were making accommodations for parents in the workplace, including implementing a “Take Your Parents to Work” day or allowing parents to participate in their child’s job interview. All of the posts made on these eleven discussion boards (N=946) were included in the analysis. In situations where contributors made more than one post, their comments were combined and counted as one contribution, resulting in a total of 738 contributors.

Using a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to analyze the data, we read through all the comments to identify themes. In the early stages, the comments were coded as being either favorable or unfavorable. Upon further review, it was clear that many comments focused on the need for boundaries and separation while others focused on the negative impressions that were formed of the helicopter parent, their adult child or the company. Other comments focused on who was to blame. With these ideas in mind, we then searched the literature on work life balance and impression formation to identify existing theories that fit the data. We then went back to the data and identified four themes (1) attributions (i.e., someone is to blame), (2) impression formation, (3) boundaries/separation, and (4) the appropriateness of parental involvement in the workplace.
Next, both evaluators independently coded each of the contributor’s comments (1 = addressed the theme, 0 = did not address the theme) and, when completed, compared their codes. Any differences in the codes used were discussed with a third evaluator until agreement was reached. Codes were then entered into an SPSS file for descriptive analysis (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 21 was utilized for analysis of study data). Only those comments that directly addressed parents in the workplace were included in our analysis. After eliminating 142 contributors whose comments were irrelevant (e.g., “LOL” or “Onion anyone?”), we arrived at our final sample (N = 596). Using names or photos, we determined that 208 contributors were male, 118 were female, and there were 270 whose gender was unknown. With regard to age, 50 contributors identified themselves as Millennials, 179 were older than Millennials, and there was no age information for the remaining 367.

RESULTS

The most prevalent theme among the contributor’s comments was that someone was to blame for helicopter parents in the workplace (52%, N = 310). Some contributors blamed the parents for being too hovering (N = 129), some blamed Millennials for lack of maturity (N = 81), and others blamed both parents and Millennials (N = 82). Still others blamed the company for not taking a stronger stand (N = 26). Sample comments of each are included below.

Parent “If you have to attend your adult child's job interview then YOU HAVE FAILED AS A PARENT!!!! The job of a parent is to raise the child to be a self-sufficient and independent adult. If your 20-something can't get a job, negotiate pay based on his/her needs, and navigate the day-to-day of the workplace then he/she doesn't deserve the title ‘ADULT’.”

Millennials “I'm beyond shocked that even ONE person has done this. That 8% or ANY measurable number of people have done this leaves me (almost) speechless. . . . All hope is lost when an adult takes their parents to a job interview. . . . What is WRONG with these idiots? . . . These brats need to wake up and take some responsibility for their lives.”

Both Parents and Millennials “I think both generations (boomers and their millennial children) are to blame. Boomers for their refusal to acknowledge that your life should change when you get older and millennials for letting it happen. Boomers, your kids are grown and yes, that makes you OLD! Stop trying to desperately cling to being young by treating your offspring like perpetual 12 year olds.”

Company “Employers, if you can hear my plea... STOP... don't enable this kind of behavior from parents who feel they need to speak for their children. Throw their kids and parents out the door; tell the parent to tell their kids to grow a spine--or whatever else might need growing--and to take some gosh darn initiative for their own lives and decisions. This is insane!”

The second most prevalent theme was the impact helicopter parents had on impression formation (23.8%, N = 142), more specifically the impression that having one’s parents in the workplace would make on others. These comments were also coded by whether the contributor’s point of view was that of an employer (47.89%, N = 68), an employee (19.72%, N = 28), or some other third party (32.39%, N = 46; e.g., a parent or unknown identity). Sample comments include the following:

Employee Perspective “As much as I love my parents, I can’t think of anything that would undermine my credibility at work more than bringing in my Mommy & Daddy to show them my desk, as if it were Parent/Teacher night at school. I can appreciate that some parents really want to see where their kids work, but give me a break – unless it’s
the set of some feature film or some other mega cool unusual job, your kid is working at a desk with a phone, a stapler and some pens.”

Employer Perspective “I have conducted several interviews of prospective employees in various job settings, and I would never entertain the idea of speaking with someone's parent. I think the entire idea is ludicrous. How could these "kids" possibly earn the respect and admiration of their peers and supervisors if they depend on mommy to negotiate their salary and vacation hours?"

Other Perspective “I would think an interviewer would think the job candidate who brings their parents to the job interview can't think on their own and needs to have their hand held constantly.”

The third most prevalent theme focused on the need for boundaries or separation (17.95%, N = 107), indicating a concern for independence, distance or space, as well as comments related to interference and “cutting the cord”. Each of the following illustrates the theme of boundaries or separation.

“It's because these freaked-out parents have created codependency and seem to have done away with boundaries. I would have been MORTIFIED to have my parents sitting there in a job interview! it would have been insulting to me.”

“Healthy parents encourage separation and independence as appropriate and they also know they have to let their children fail - some of the most powerful learning comes from picking oneself up from failure/pain and learning that one has the resources to cope.”

“If parents are this involved before a job offer is put forth, I can only imagine the headaches they will create later - and that doesn't even begin to address what boundaries are crossed when the adult-child is working in an industry where confidentiality is a must.”

The remaining theme was related to contributors’ perceptions regarding the appropriateness of parental involvement in the workplace. We found most (84.9%, N = 506) were opposed to parents in the workplace, only 37 (6.2%) were supportive and, some contributors included both negative and positive comments (1.7%, N = 10). Others indicated it would depend on the company suggesting that organizational culture may impact perceptions of the appropriateness of parental involvement (5.5%, N = 33). The following are examples of contributor comments.

“My mom has asked nonstop since June about visiting the office. I don’t know why she’s so excited about it, but I just don’t think it would be appropriate. But if the company said it was, then I’d definitely bring her in to see the place!”

“We include children and spouses at company social events; surely including parents is just as reasonable. Employee family relationships, at all generational levels, matter to morale. Supporting and including them is part of good employment practice. That said, parents have no more place in HR matters than spouses or children. Being background advisors in salary negotiations or workplace concerns in fine, but sitting directly at the table is not. I still recall one father who notified me that his college-student son (my employee, and a legal adult) would be quitting his job due to personal health issues. I had to gently inform the fellow that I could not communicate with him regarding employment matters of another adult, even a relative, and that he could not legally terminate his son's employment -- the son would need to do so directly :) I'm sure it can be hard to let go, but 18 is 18, for crying out loud. If they can vote, be subject to adult criminal codes, pay taxes, and be called to military service, then they're grownups, and it's their job, not yours ;)”
Of those who were supportive, only seven were supportive of parents being present during their adult child’s interview. For example, one contributor stated, “I think it's a good idea. After all, I know my son's abilities and have a lot of life experience. I hope it becomes a more prevalent trend.” The others were supportive of a “Take your parents to work day.” For example, one wrote, “I’ve brought my parents to work just for a little tour. I don’t see this is heli-parenting at all (I’m also 35). They were genuinely curious about where I spent my days. Neither of them are professionals, so it was fun to show them my fancy office with a view. I think it’s nice.” Similarly, another contributor wrote, “My company has a once-a-year “Family Day” where you can bring in immediate relatives to show them around. I think it’s great.” Within the 47 supportive comments (including those which were both positive and negative) we identified three additional subthemes. Most contributors (51%, N = 24) thought allowing parents in the workplace was a nice thing to do for the parent, some saw it as providing some benefit for the employee (31.9%, N = 15), and the remainder saw it as a benefit to the company (14.9%, N = 7). Sample comments for each of these are included below.

**Nice thing to do for the parent** “Finding one time across the months to bring your parents in to work seems worth the effort. I think that we sometimes forget how different in many instances our worlds are from that of our parents. Letting the folks (and even siblings) have a quick tour of the workplace helps round out their sense of our lives.”

**Benefit for the employee** “As a Millennial, I am very close with my parents and it has nothing to do with hand holding and “needing” their help - I “want” their advice and guidance because we have a good relationship and I trust them. I like sharing things with them, like my new job, because it would be safe to bet they have insight beyond my own grasp of the subject. In a nutshell, that's pretty common among Millennials and the sooner Gen X stops dismissing us the better off everyone will be in the workplace.”

**Benefit for the company** “At XYZ Inc. they have a mutual selection process. They go through great lengths to give people realistic expectations about pros and cons of the career and company and difficulties they will face. It takes a lot of time and money to train people from the ground up. I would imagine bringing the parents in and letting them know what it takes for their kid to succeed would be a good thing, since if they know their kid is a slacker, the parent would probably talk them out of it. That is win-win for all involved.”

The remaining contributors (N = 43, 7.2%) were either neutral or their position was unclear. For example, one contributor wrote, “The intent of this write-up seems to be focused on getting old people fired up and shaming young ones.” Another wrote, “I take [this] with a grain of salt. It seems more like HR folks getting their name out than much of a real event.”

THEORETICAL MODEL AND PROPOSITIONS

The results of our qualitative analysis suggest that impression formation theory, attribution theory and boundary theory may be useful in explaining observer’s reactions to helicopter parents in the workplace. Context also appears relevant and given the substantial research evidence demonstrating the importance of organizational culture on the use and effectiveness of family-friendly practices (e.g., Burke, 2006; Clark, 2001; Kossek, Colquitt & Noe, 2001; Kossek & Lautsch, 2012; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2006; Thompson, Beauvais, & Lyness, 1999; Veiga, Balbridge, & Eddleston, 2004), we also include organizational culture in our theoretical model. See Figure 1. In the following discussion, we review the relevant impression formation, attribution, boundary management, and organizational culture literatures.

**Impression Formation**

Research on impression formation demonstrates that individuals make global dispositional inferences about others based on observations of their current behavior and that these overall impressions are influenced by primacy effects and causal attributions (Asch,1946; Barrick, Swider & Stewart, 2010;
In other words, first impressions tend to persist over time and the impressions which are formed are influenced by whether current behavior is attributed to the person (internal attribution) or situation (external attribution). Additionally, extremely negative behavior is considered more predictive of personality traits than less extreme behavior (Skowronski & Carlston, 1989) and behavior that deviates from expectations is more likely to be attributed to the individual’s dispositions than when he or she behaves as expected (Herriot, 1981).

Consistent with the impression formation literature, bringing a parent to an interview is considered an extreme deviation from existing social norms. Thus, when interviewers automatically reject candidates who do so, they are most likely attributing such behavior to the candidate’s negative personality traits (i.e., the candidate lacks maturity, competency, and initiative). For example, JoAnn Corley, an employee training and development consultant, argues that young adults need to be allowed to navigate for themselves as they enter the world of work. She states, “Sometimes young adults are not allowed to develop professional muscles because their parents are doing it for them. We want empowered professionals, not dependent and entitled employees” (Binford, 2012).

Even when parents are not present in the interview or workplace, but are constantly referenced, negative impressions are often formed. A recruiter cites an example of a candidate who was very bright, confident, and well-educated but who made constant references to her parents during the job interview. For the recruiter, it was a “turn-off” and made him question her maturity (Erwin, 2008). Employers also appear to be concerned that employees’ parental involvement may negatively impact the impressions formed by clients or customers and reflect badly on the company. For example, one manager expressed concern about witnessing a presentation to new clients by a new hire who used the phrase “my dad thinks” as it pertained to the project being discussed (LeTrent, 2013).

Recent evidence in the academic literature shows that reference to non-work roles in the workplace can negatively impact others’ perceptions of one’s professionalism (Uhlmann, Heaphy, Ashford, Zhu, & Sanchez-Burks, 2013). For example, these researchers found that candidates who indicated that discussing non-work roles (e.g., family) would be part of how they would build rapport with potential clients were more negatively evaluated by job recruiters compared to those who did not. They also found that study participants who viewed a higher proportion of non-work artifacts (e.g., family photos) in an employee’s work area evaluated that employee as lower in professionalism than those who viewed more work related artifacts (e.g., stapler, calculator, wall clock). Their findings also showed that minimizing non-work artifacts appears to be a culturally bound norm of the United States. That is, the norm in U.S. corporations is that minimizing reference to one’s non-work world through both visible artifacts (pictures) or conversation is tied to more positive impressions and perceptions of professionalism.

Observer’s Boundary Management Preference

Traditionally, organizations have enacted a fairly well defined boundary between the work and non-work domains such that employees’ non-work life was their own concern. Employees were expected to fulfill their job responsibilities and leave all aspects of their non-work life at the workplace door. As described by Kanter (1977), employers took a position of “separation” where work and non-work were seen as two separate worlds. Over the past several decades, the boundary between work and non-work has been increasingly shifted by changes in job stability, communication technology, and family patterns (Barley, Meyerson, & Grodal, 2011; Deal, Altman, & Rogelberg, 2010; Kalleberg, 2009; Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, & Hannum, 2012). As a result, many organizations introduced a range of “progressive” workplace practices to help employees manage the boundary between these two domains. These are described by Kanter (1977) as an “integration” approach where employers treat work and non-work as affecting one another, attempting to reduce the gap between the two and resulting in a more permeable boundary (Hall & Richter, 1988). Some of these organizational practices, such as on-site day-care centers and gyms, allowed aspects of employees’ non-work lives to enter the workplace, whereas others (such as telecommuting) allowed work to enter employees’ non-work domains (Hecht & Allen, 2009). Today, organizations tend to be positioned at some point on the continuum between separation and
integration, depending upon the extent to which they want to include employees’ non-work identities with their work identities or keep them separate.

Likewise, employees have preferences for the extent to which they want to integrate or segment their work and non-work worlds. Initial research on boundary theory focused on how individuals defined their work and non-work roles and managed the transitions between them (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000; Nippert-Eng, 1996). These researchers found that individuals differed in the degree to which they segmented or integrated their work and home roles. For the extreme segmenter, the boundary between work and non-work is distinct and impenetrable with everything belonging to one domain or the other. In contrast, for the extreme integrator, there is “one giant category of social existence”, such that “all space and time is multipurpose” (Nipert-Eng, 1996, p. 586). Rothbard, Phillips, and Dumas (2005) extended this research and found that the extent to which individuals integrate or segment these two domains is based on individual preference, with some desiring greater integration to reduce the tensions involved in transitioning between them (Meyerson & Scully, 1995) and others preferring to segment the two domains so that they can provide better focus on particular roles (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Hewlin, 2003).

Additional research suggests the existence of a third boundary management preference, alternators, those who alternate between segmenting and integrating (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). For example, an employee may work at home one day a week integrating work, domestic errands, personal time, exercising, and socializing with friends. The remainder of the week the employee works at the office and separates work and non-work roles.

Regarding helicopter parents in the workplace, those who prefer segmentation may find parental involvement awkward and uncomfortable, negatively affecting their satisfaction and commitment to the organization. In support, research by Rothbard, et al., (2005) showed that employees who want more segmentation were less satisfied and committed to their organization when they were provided greater access to integrating policies, such as an on-site day care, but were more committed when provided with more segmenting policies such as flex-time. Integrators, on the other hand, may find parental involvement improves their feelings of work/life balance and, therefore experience higher levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Evidence indicates that boundary setting in the workplace is heavily influenced by sensitivity to impressions being formed by others, whether they are superiors, co-workers, or clients (Ammons, 2013; Trefalt, 2013). For example, Trefault (2013) found that many of the attorneys she studied attempted to create a more positive impression on others in their workplace by intentionally talking about their non-work activities not as something they wanted to do but as something they had to do and by sometimes giving into work requests that impinged on family activities. Others simply hid their non-work obligations or did not talk about them at all. Additionally, given the ubiquity of projection or the false consensus bias whereby observers tend to overestimate the extent to which others share their own beliefs, values and preferences (Mullen, Atkins, Champion, Edwards, Hardy, Story & Vanderklok, 1985), it is likely that segmenters will react more negatively than integrators to an encounter with helicopter parents in the workplace. Therefore, we predict:

**Proposition 1:** Segmenters will be more likely than integrators to form negative impressions (e.g., incompetent, undependable, unprofessional, lacks initiative, dependent) of the employee or applicant (i.e., child of the helicopter parent).
Organizational Culture

Research examining the success of family-friendly policies and programs (e.g., on-site day care, flexible working hours) indicates that organizational culture is a major determinant of the success of these programs (Allen & Russell, 1999; Thompson et al., 1999). For example, some employees fail to use family-friendly options because they fear they will be perceived by other organizational members as less devoted to their careers and, as a result, their career success will suffer (Perlow, 1995). Additional research shows that no matter how many and what kinds of family-friendly programs are available to employees, organizational culture is an important determinant of not only whether employees will use the benefits, but also their attitudes toward the organization (e.g., organizational attachment, work-family conflict, intention to leave the organization) (Thompson et al., 1999).

Similarly, research evidence shows that individuals who adopt a boundary management style not supported by the organizational culture may be stigmatized and receive lower pay and fewer promotions (Kossek et al., 2001). Another qualitative study examining boundary management among attorneys showed that some felt they had to hide their non-work obligations or activities from their coworkers (Trefault, 2013). Given these findings, it is also likely that organizational culture (beliefs and values governing expected and appropriate behavior in the workplace) will affect observer’s opinions regarding the appropriateness of parents in the workplace.

Two innovative companies, well known for their unique organizational cultures, are leading the way in terms of parental involvement in the workplace, namely Google and LinkedIn (Berman, 2013; Ludden, 2012). Google employees are given many perks (e.g., free food 24/7 cooked by a company chef, access to company daycare facilities, exercise gyms and other amenities) intended to help create a fun and creative atmosphere, fostering both company loyalty and innovation (Edelman & Eisenmann, 2010). According to their website, one of Google’s ten major beliefs is “you can be serious without a suit” acknowledging that “work should be challenging, and the challenge should be fun.” (“Ten Things we Know to be True”, 2015). Likewise, at LinkedIn, the culture embraces humor, encourages employees to take themselves less seriously, and fosters a collaborative and open environment, while at the same time, valuing integrity, being results-oriented, and committed to making a positive and lasting impact on the world (Soule,
It is likely that those who work for companies with relaxed work environments, such as Google or LinkedIn, will have more favorable reactions to helicopter parents and their adult children than those who work in more rigid and conservative work environments. Therefore, it is predicted:

\textit{Proposition 2: An encounter with helicopter parents in the workplace is less likely to violate observer expectations when the organization has a supportive work-family culture as opposed to an unsupportive culture.}

The attraction-selection-attrition model (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein & Smith, 1995) proposes that organizational cultures are established and solidified through the attraction-selection-attrition process whereby individuals are attracted to organizations whose members share similar values, interests and other attributes. Organizations, in turn, select those who are similar to existing members, and overtime, through attrition, those who do not fit in, leave. One aspect of organizational culture that is likely to attract or deter individuals is whether work arrangements can be customized to accommodate employee’s needs and preferences or whether a standardized approach prevails such that work demands take precedence and employees are expected to adapt to the organization’s preferred way of managing boundaries (Kossek & Lautsch, 2012). Thus, organizations that allow or encourage flexibility and permeability in employees’ work and non-work roles will most likely attract and retain individuals who tend to be integrators or, perhaps alternators. In contrast, those organizations which expect employees to put work first and leave everything from their non-work domain at the company door will most likely attract segmenters and deter integrators. Therefore we predict:

\textit{Proposition 3: The more supportive the organization’s work-family culture, the more likely its’ members are to prefer integration over segmentation.}

\textbf{Degree to which Incident with the Helicopter Parent Violates Expectations}

As described earlier, workplace encounters with helicopter parents vary widely with some being rather mild, such as a recruit who refers to his/her parents when answering an interview question (e.g., “My dad thinks …”), and others being extreme, such as a recruit whose parent shows up in the workplace to complain about his/her adult child’s poor performance evaluation or failure to get a promotion. Consistent with the impression formation literature on extreme behaviors (Herriot, 1981; Skowronski & Carlston, 1989), it is likely that the more extreme the encounter or incident is, the more likely it is to violate the expectations of managers and coworkers and also result in negative impressions being formed of the adult child. Also, personal preferences are likely to be consistent with an individual’s expectations about the way things should be. Thus, given that segmenters prefer to keep their work and non-work lives separate, it is likely that they also believe that work and non-work should be kept separate. It follows that:

\textit{Proposition 4: The more extreme the encounter with the helicopter parent, the more negative the impressions (e.g., incompetent, undependable, unprofessional, lacks initiative, dependent) formed of the employee or applicant (i.e., child of the helicopter parent).}

\textit{Proposition 5: An encounter with helicopter parents in the workplace is more likely to violate the expectations of segmenters than integrators.}

\textbf{Attribution Made}

As noted by Harvey et al., (2014), the most commonly studied attributional dimension is locus of causality. Internal attributions (e.g., effort or ability) reflect characteristics of the person, whereas external attributions (e.g., task difficult or luck) reflect aspects of the situation. With regard to workplace encounters with helicopter parents, observers may attribute blame to some inadequacy on the part of the
adult child of the helicopter parent (internal attribution), or observers may attribute blame to the situation in which the adult child is constrained, that is, being a victim of an over-controlling helicopter parent (external attribution). Given evidence showing that the locus of an attribution influences performance ratings (Harvey et al., 2014), it is likely that the impression formed by coworkers or managers of the employee will depend on whether blame is attributed to the helicopter parent or the adult child. Additionally, it is likely that both boundary management preference and the nature of the incident with the helicopter parent (mild versus extreme) will affect the attribution made. Therefore, it is predicted:

Proposition 6: The impression formed of the employee or applicant will be more negative when blame is attributed to the adult child as opposed to the helicopter parent.

Proposition 7: Segmenters will be more likely than integrators to attribute blame to the employee (adult child) as opposed to the helicopter parent.

Proposition 8: The more extreme the incident with the helicopter parent, the more likely the observer is to attribute blame to the helicopter parent.

DISCUSSION

Despite the recent attention in the popular press given to the attempts of some companies to accommodate the intrusion of helicopter parents in the workplace (Lantz, 2013; Shellenbarger, 2006), our analysis of online newspaper discussion boards shows there are generally negative impressions about such accommodation practices. While contributors to online discussion boards may not be representative of the general population, testing existing theory was not our intent. Instead, our intent was to build theory and provide direction for future research. Specifically, we propose organizational members’ impressions of employees with highly involved helicopter parents will be influenced by the organizational members’ boundary management preference, the organizational culture, the degree to which the incident involving the helicopter parent violates the organizational members’ expectations, and the attributions made.

In addition to investigating impression formation, future research is needed to determine the impact that involving parents in the workplace is having on employees. For example, how does having a “Take Your Parents to Work” day affect employees? Does it make them feel more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to the workplace? Or, does it make them feel uncomfortable, embarrassed or incompetent when having their parents present? Also, how far should companies go in accepting employees who have highly involved helicopter parents, or should the workplace be a parent-free zone? Recent research suggests that the adult children of helicopter parents may lack work-related competencies. For example, a study of 438 undergraduates showed a negative association between helicopter parenting and school engagement (Padilla-Walker & Nelson, 2012). Another study showed helicopter parenting was associated with Millennials’ neurotic tendencies, dependency on others, and ineffective coping skills (Odenweller, Booth-Butterfield, & Weber, 2014). Similarly, Bradley-Geist and Olson-Buchanan (2014) found over-parenting was associated with lower self-efficacy in undergraduates, as well as maladaptive responses to workplace scenarios. Specifically, students who reported higher levels of over-parenting were more likely to endorse solutions that relied on others, rather than taking responsibility oneself. Thus, it appears that young adults with over-controlling parents may be less proactive and take a less personally invested approach to important adult tasks such as pursuing an education, finding a job, or demonstrating independence or initiative in the workplace once they are hired. Future research is needed to examine the impact of helicopter parenting on their adult child’s job performance and career success.

Clearly, as a new non-work entity in the workplace, helicopter parents are wreaking havoc and blurring the line between work and non-work. Companies that opt to utilize “parent friendly” policies are prompting a redefinition of the boundary between these two domains. Our study suggests there may be
risks to these policies. The careers of young adults may be negatively impacted by others’ perceptions of incompetence and immaturity. We suggest that organizations proceed with extreme caution in their efforts to involve parents in the workplace. At a minimum, we recommend that companies establish boundaries or limits to such involvement and that these be consistent with the organizational culture. Although this study has raised more questions than answers, we hope that it prompts future studies about helicopter parenting and its impact on the workplace.

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Globalization, Assimilation, Culture Erasure: A Review of Trinidad and Tobago

Lystra Small-Clouden

This quantitative study examined the relationship between globalization and assimilation to determine whether managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their own culture to assimilate into a global culture. Global and culture assimilation as described by Hofstede (1980), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1993), and Schein (1996a, 1996b) provided theoretical grounding for the study. The results were (a) demographic factors impacted culture, (b) global factors had no impact on culture, (c) the Trinidad and Tobago manager assimilated during international business meetings, (d) there was an impact of assimilation on culture, and (e) there was no change in management behavior during international business meetings.

INTRODUCTION

Globalization is used to describe increasing integration, interaction, and interdependence among countries resulting from the modern flow of people, trade, finance and ideas from one nation to another (Bishop, Reinke, & Adams, 2011). Globalization has affected how business has been conducted throughout the world. According to Bishop et al. (2011), economies and societies around the world are becoming integrated. The authors pointed out that improved technology, enhanced telecommunications, and the Internet have changed the way business is conducted. Banking and other business arrangements are accomplished from homes, business meetings take place with others throughout the world via video conferencing, and email and other web-based channels allow for seamless professional communication. Due to globalization the cultures of island nations have changed, and the way that island nation organizations conduct business has also changed (Burton, 2009; Punnett 2012).

Organizations conducting business on the islands of Trinidad and Tobago have been impacted by globalization and rapid changes in technology. Due to these changes, the cultures of island nations have changed (Burton, 2009). According to Burton, the preservation of the national identities of these island nations has been at risk. The language, political system, legal system, the military, methods of production, education, architecture, customs, values, family structure, entertainment, clothing styles, and cuisine have undergone changes due to globalization (Steger, 2003). Globalization is shifting cultural norms through the influx of foreign goods, services, entertainment, and media (Burton, 2009). The problem is that organizations that provide goods and services worldwide are part of a broader culture that may ignore the richness offered by island nations. What has remained unstudied is whether globalization and assimilation influence change in management behavior, and more specifically whether managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their own culture to assimilate into a global culture. The study was designed to analyze whether globalization and assimilation influence change in management behavior, and whether managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their own culture to assimilate into a global culture.
Trinidad and Tobago

The overall population of Trinidad and Tobago is quite diverse. Based on information obtained from the central statistical office of the government of Trinidad and Tobago, as of 2013, the total population was approximately 1.3 million. There were slightly more women (678,073 = 50.55%) than men (663,078, = 49.44%) living in Trinidad and Tobago. Of this population, 39.59% were of African descent, 40.27% were of East Indian descent, and the remainder were 18.45% Mixed Race, 0.64% White, 0.38% Chinese, and 0.24% Other. A random sample of the student enrollment database widely reflected a cross-section of the nation’s population. Because the population was both multiracial and multicultural, it offered a significant opportunity for understanding cross-cultural and international business management relationships. One of the unique elements of culture in Trinidad and Tobago is religious preference; thus, it was important to explain the rational for collecting data on religious preference, which was included in the demographic data. Religious groups are influential in the values, norms, and culture of Trinidad and Tobago. There is an appointed ministerial body responsible for religious affairs including the administration of funding and distribution of land for use by religious groups. The school system is managed and funded by the government through the ministry of education, but the administration of schools is conducted by religious groups such as Roman Catholics, Anglicans, Hindu, Islamic, Pentecostal, Spiritual Baptist, Seventh Day Adventist. Religious groups are free to provide instructions based on their faith even within public schools. Trinidad and Tobago are religious democratic states. Trinidad and Tobago celebrates and grant 15 national holidays, seven of which are for religious activities.

SAMPLE

The sample frame population was business managers and non-business managers enrolled as students participating in postgraduate and higher-degree programs at an island university. A random sample was selected from the registration roster. The information provided in the student enrollment database reflected a cross-section of the nation’s population. Because the population was both multiracial and multicultural, there was a significant opportunity for understanding cross-cultural and international business management relationships. Using computer generated random numbers, 200 male and 200 female business graduate students were randomly selected from the enrollment roster. The students were sent an email asking them to complete the online survey. The process of random sampling was continued until completed responses were obtained from 170 students.

Research Design

A survey was developed to collect data regarding the attitudes and perceptions of the Trinidad and Tobago business managers and non-managers. The goal was to gain opinions about culture, values, norms, and identity. Demographic information about the participants was also collected. One research question and five research subquestions were posited to evaluate the impact of globalization and assimilation on management behavior and to determine whether managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, values, norms, and identities to assimilate into a global culture.

RQ. Do managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, values, norms, and identity to assimilate into a global culture?

RSubQ1. Do demographic factors have an impact on culture, values, norms, and identity in Trinidad and Tobago?

RSubQ2. Do global factors have a positive or negative impact on culture, values, norms, and identity in Trinidad and Tobago?

RSubQ3. Does the Trinidad and Tobago business manager assimilate during international business meetings?

RSubQ4. Does assimilation have a positive or negative impact on culture and identity in Trinidad and Tobago?
RSubQ5. Does the behavior of the Trinidad and Tobago manager change when interacting with international business partners?

THEORY

Seminal and contemporary literature in the phenomenon of globalization and culture were reviewed. Hofstede (1980) defined culture as unique and distinguishable collective behaviors programmed in the human psyche. Schein (1996b) defined organizational culture as “the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by its members, they operate unconsciously and function in a basic taken for granted fashion of how the organization views itself and its environment” (p. 236). The study focused on the concept of nationalism as defined by Smith (1991) and incorporated world systems theory as purported by Wallerstein (1974, 2005). The relevance of world systems theory is applicable since Trinidad and Tobago and the English-speaking Caribbean are considered developing island nations whose current business acumen and underlying factors of management are heavily influenced by historical events of slavery, colonialism, plantation economies (Punnett, Dick-Forde, & Robinson, 2006).

METHODOLOGY

Survey questionnaire and invitation emails were distributed to 1550 students, and there were a total of 170 responses. Parametric research tools were used to perform statistical analyses of the data collected to determine the relationships among variables of globalization, assimilation, and culture, norms, values, and national culture. Of the total 137 complete surveys, 49 respondents were male, and 88 were female. Based on the 2013–2014 enrollment statistics obtained from the university registrar, a total of 6,230 students were enrolled in postgraduate and other higher degree programs. Of these, 90% were citizens residing in Trinidad and Tobago, 10% were from other CARICOM countries, including Barbados, Guyana, Jamaica, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent and the Grenadines.

Assumption tests were conducted to achieve construct validity and reliability. Parametric tests were conducted to report for descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, median, mode, maximum, minimum, and range calculations. Standard regression analyses were conducted to accurately estimate the relationship between dependent and independent variables in linear relationships. Sample size effects were acceptable based on G*Power version 3.1. The recommended sample size to achieve empirical validity was calculated to be 108 participants. Relationships between independent and dependent variables are linear; values were set at 85 participants to support for the level of statistical significance, the amount of power desired in the study, and the effect size observing the differences in the means.

RESULTS

RQ. Do managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, values, norms, and identity to assimilate into a global culture?

RSUBQ1. Do demographic factors (latent independent variables: age, gender, education, religion) impact culture, values, norms, and identity (latent dependent variables)?

The results of analyses provided empirical evidence to determine there was no impact of demographic factors on culture, values, norms, and identity. A one-way ANOVA was analyzed for six dependent variables for each demographic variable of gender, age, religion, and education. A review of the descriptive statistics for this data set showed the means were similar for each variable. The descriptive statistics for the dependent variable my organization’s mission plan is balanced between local and global factors showed the mean was 2.77, and 3.63. Most participants believed their organization’s mission was balanced between local and global factors.
The demographic variable with significant effects for several of the dependent variables was education. This variable presented with the highest (5.00) and lowest (1.00) mean scores and a highest standard deviation of 1.41 for the statement, “My organization will implement strategies suggested by the international business manager rather than better strategies from a local manager.” Based on the ANOVA conducted on six dependent variables with regard to the four demographic variables of gender, age, religion, and education, the results for education showed a significant effect on responses provided by respondents. This is likely due to the fact that participants were participating in higher-level education. Seventy-four respondents held Bachelor of Science degrees, 58 held master degrees, and seven held other postgraduate program degrees.

RSubQ2. Do global factors (latent independent variables: technology, media advertising, social media / Internet, capitalism, education, economic development, music, and laws) have an impact on culture, values, norms, values, and identity (latent dependent variables)?

The second sub research question was posed to determine the impact of ten global factors on culture. The analysis began with a binomial test to analyze each dependent variable for a proportion of 50% or .50, with only the first two factors not showing a significant \( p < 0.05 \) effect. Respondents were asked to identify whether ten global factors including: (a) capitalism, (b) commercialism, (c) technology, (d) media advertising and communication, (e) social media, (f) economic development, (g) music, (h) laws, (i) the Internet, and (j) education had a positive or negative effect on culture, values, norms, and identity. The significance for the factor of capitalism was .210, which means it has no impact on culture, values, norms, and identity. The same could be said for the factor commercialism, which had significance level (exact sig.) of .273. The factors of technology, media advertising and communication, social media, economic development, music, laws, the Internet, and education, all displayed a significance of .000, based on the higher number of positive responses.

Based on responses, the results revealed these global factors do have an impact on culture, values, norms, and identity. Some global factors have changed the way business is carried out, the way education is delivered, human interactions, modes of dress, food choices, and other social interactions. These results correlate to Schein’s (1996a) definition of culture that states they operate unconsciously and function in a basic taken for granted fashion.

RSubQ3. Does the Trinbagonian manager assimilate or integrate during international business meetings?

Through an analysis of the frequency distribution and descriptive statistics, sufficient empirical evidence was gathered to determine that Trinidad and Tobago managers do not assimilate during international business meetings. Respondents were asked to describe their interaction with other cultures using the factors rejection, opposition, guarded, acceptance, and assimilation. Respondents used a Likert-type scale selecting always, never, often, sometimes, or very often. The data revealed 71 participants sometimes rejected other cultures, 93 were guarded when they interacted with other cultures, 44 practiced acceptance and inclusion, and only 34 approached other cultures with an open mind. For the response always, 31 participants practiced an open-minded approach to culture interaction, and 18 responded they were accepting and inclusive. It is important to reflect on of data for the factor never. Fifty-nine respondents never rejected other cultures, 51 never opposed other cultures, 17 respondents felt they were never guarded, two people responded they were never open-minded, and two were never accepting or inclusive of other cultures.

For comparative purposes, respondents were also asked to rate their own cultural characteristics when interacting with someone from a different culture or country. Most respondents viewed interaction with a different culture or interacting with someone from a different country as a learning opportunity towards self-development, enhancement, or enrichment. Of a total of 146 responses, 132 respondents stated they
approached other cultures with a view to self-development or self-enhancement. When asked how they would approach someone from a different culture, one hundred and twenty-three respondents stated they took a personal or individualistic approach when interacting with people from other cultures. When respondents described interactions with other cultures, 93 responded to the factor guarded. This represented the highest score in all factors. The factors were rejection, opposition, guarded, open-minded, and acceptance/inclusion. This random sample of respondents from academia seemed to be guarded when approaching and interacting with new cultures or countries and approached people from other cultures from the realm of self-development or enrichment.

The determination that most used a guarded approach to other cultures was confirmed by the results of an evaluation of respondent’s reports on the statement “how would you rate networking within your organization as a tool to promote inclusivity or acceptance of other cultures?” Respondents preferred to interact with other cultures via social networking. Based on the data, it was empirically determined the Trinbagonian manager would not assimilate during international business meetings.

RSubQ4. Does assimilation (latent independent variable) have a positive or negative impact on culture, values, norms, and identity (latent dependent variables)?

Sixty-five respondents (46.4%) somewhat agreed and 45 (32.1%) strongly agreed assimilation impacted culture. The mean response rate was 3.95, with a minimum of one, maximum of five and standard deviation of 1.041. To further examine this phenomenon, respondents were asked how they would rate their organization on the following characteristics: (a) embeddedness, (b) hierarchy, (c) mastery, (d) effective autonomy, (e) intellectual autonomy, (f) egalitarianism, and (g) harmony. One hundred six respondents rated the organization where they worked high on harmony/agreement; 104 respondents gave a high rating for intellectual autonomy/rational or logical independence. It is important to note that respondents agreed that assimilation had a negative impact on culture but respondents agreed that global factors have a positive impact on culture. This anomaly signifies that respondents do not correlate assimilation into the changes of global factors as having an impact on culture even though the way things were done previously changed due to global factors. The high number of responses for other elements such as mastery (64 respondents), effective autonomy, real independence, and freedom (88 respondents), egalitarianism and cultural equality (93 respondents), are typical of respondents who obtained a certain level of confidence by participating in higher education.

RSubQ5. Does the behavior of the Trinbagonian manager change when interacting with international business partners?

From the 170 responses, 139 were valid, 31 were missing, 13 (7.6%) respondents strongly disagreed, 32 (18.8%) somewhat disagreed, 40 (23.5%) neither agreed nor disagreed, 39 (22.9%) somewhat agreed, and 15 strongly agreed. Seventy-seven percent or 131 managers and non-managers conducted business in foreign managers. The sampled managers reported they conducted business with foreign managers at least once per week via email. Sixty-nine respondents conducted video conferencing, and 42 respondents held face-to-face meetings. Managers’ interactions were analyzed using the factors of the IDI. Explanation of the factors is as follows:

1. Acceptance. Acceptance is when one’s own culture is experienced as just one of a number of equally complex worldviews.
2. Adaptation. Adaptation is when the experience of another culture yields perception and behavior appropriate to that culture.
3. Defense reversal. Defense reversal is when one’s own culture is experienced as the only viable culture.
4. Denial. Denial is when one’s own culture is experienced as the only real culture.
5. Integration. Integration is when one’s experience of self is expanded to include the movement in and out of different cultural worldviews.
6. Minimization. Minimization is when one’s own cultural worldview is experienced as universal.

Results indicated 65 (43%) managers agreed that the ideal interaction is built on integration. Defense reversal was chosen by two respondents, and acceptance and adaptation were chosen by 30 and 37 respectively. To gather a better perspective on whether the elements of power and control existed in the relationships between the local and foreign managers, relationships were analyzed through factors of superior, colleague or peer, business partner, or subordinate. Seventy-four respondents represented as business partner, 60 categorized as colleague or peer, and 33 were superiors. Because only 33 (17.1%) of the respondents were involved in relationships as a superior, the influence of power and control was not significant in the relationship. Integration of ideas was preferred during business interactions; consequently, it was concluded there was no behavior change due to power and control within the relationship.

**Descriptive Statistical Analysis of Research Subquestions**

Decisions to append a negative or positive response to the sub questions were based on whether results of frequency distribution fell within the acceptable levels. A positive answer was applied to a sub research question when the \(p\)-value was less than the significant level. Empirical and construct validity and reliability were confirmed when an examination of the summary indexes demonstrated a 95% confidence level, and a positive or negative correlation between and among the values. Construct validity and reliability were further confirmed based on the results of the Research Subquestions. For Research Subquestion 1, demographic factors have no impact on culture, values, norms, and identity. For Research Subquestion 2, global factors have a positive impact on the variables. For Research Subquestion 3, manager will not assimilate during international business meetings. For Research Subquestion 4, assimilation negatively impacts culture. Finally, for Research Subquestion 5, power and control do not influence management behavior.

For the results for Research Subquestion 2, to determine if global factors have a positive or negative impact on culture, values, norms, and identity, a binomial test was utilized. Research Subquestion 2 was the only research subquestion where the variable global factors had a positive impact on culture, values, norms, and identity. Respondents were asked to identify whether ten global factors had a positive or negative effect on culture, values, norms, and identity. Each dependent variable was tested for a proportion of 50% (.50), with only the first two factors, commercialism and capitalism, not showing a significant \((p < 0.05)\) effect. The test met construct validity and reliability on eight of the ten constructs. The eight constructs were technology, media advertising/communication, social media, economic development, music, laws, Internet, and education.

Manipulation of data for Research Subquestion 1, Research Subquestion 3, and Research Subquestion 4 was conducted using ANOVA regression analysis and by observing frequency distribution to learn more about the sample mean because the population standard deviation was unknown. The data was analyzed to observe significant differences in the sample mean. An ANOVA is used for comparison of means of samples when there is no significant difference between means of the samples. Data interpretation of the descriptive statistics included identifying significant outliers and making sure the dependent variables were approximately normally distributed for each category of the independent variables by analyzing the mean and standard deviation. Construct validity and reliability were based on the knowledge the sample came from a normal population, which had a mean of three. It was concluded that the population mean was statistically significant: demographic factors had no impact on the variables; managers will not assimilate during business meetings and assimilation negatively impacts culture, norms and identity.

**Implications of the Study Results**

The results of the study supported theoretical implications for the definitions of culture suggested by Hofstede (1980) and Schein (1996b). The results showed significant effects for the demographic variable of education in several of the dependent variables. The results supported the statement by Hofstede (1980)
regarding how mental programming can be inherited, transferred, or learned from birth; and about culture being the unique and distinguishable collective behaviors programmed in the human psyche. The results of the study indicated respondents were unaware of the problem of culture erasure. The results share a correlation with Schein’s (1996a) definition of culture, the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by its members. Schein said they operate unconsciously and function in a basic taken for granted fashion of how the organization views itself and its environment. The results of the study also align with Hofstede’s (2001) characterization of Trinidad and Tobago as an indulgent society influenced by the factors of globalization.

The results of the study were compared to the theoretical concept of nationalism as defined by Smith (1991). The three elements of personal identity, social identity and human or global identity can be discussed in relation to normativity, power, and control. The three elements can be juxtaposed with the results of Research Subquestion 5, “Does the behavior of the Trinidad and Tobago business manager change during international business meetings.” The data was reviewed to ascertain whether management behavior was influenced by power and control as exerted by international business managers. In this instance, the results indicated there was no evidence of power and control influencing the behavior of business managers during international business meetings. The results may explain the problem of trailing issues. Hammer (2005) explained trailing issues as unresolved aspects associated with earlier orientation. In the case of the Trinbagonian manager, the orientation of defense would most likely be apparent based on the historical perspective of the colonial and subjugated nature of the relationship with most of the Western world.

Depending on the nature of power and control within the relationships, the manager adopting the attributes of denial and defense reversal is defeated even before negotiations begin. The results of the study correlated with statements posited by Hofstede (1980) and Schein (1996b) on elements of denial and defense reversal when responding to statement of culture, norms, values, and identity. On the continuum of the intercultural development inventory, denial and defense reversal were at the low end of the spectrum; denial meaning one’s own culture is experienced as the only real one, and denial reversal meaning one’s own culture is experienced as the only viable one (Hammer, Bennett, & Wiseman, 2003). Usually, the word power is correlated with external strength and control; however, according to Foucault (1980), power usually emerges through unexamined rules that govern social interaction and consequently shape behavior through reconditioning of the mind. The words used by Foucault to describe power align with Hofstede’s (1980) and Schein’s (1996b) definition of culture. Culture transition as it occurs through everyday influences affecting our daily lives. Foucault’s (1980) explanation of power as unexamined rules that govern social interaction also aligns with Wallerstein’s (1974, 2005) prediction of subjugated societies operating under world systems. Foucault used words such as invested, colonized, involuted, transformed, displaced, and extended to describe the phenomenal dispensation of power.

The study focused on some aspects of seminal works on cultural dimensions by Hofstede (1999), specifically relating to developing nations, and in particular Trinidad and Tobago and the English-speaking Caribbean Islands. The results indicated education level had a significant impact on culture, values, norms, and identity. Student business managers and non-managers had the depth of knowledge to fully observe and report on the phenomenon of globalization, assimilation, and national culture. The results confirmed this academic community welcomed and embraced learning enhancements propelled through globalization and technology but cautiously or guardedly approached or interacted with other cultures except for the purposes of self-enhancement, self-development, or enrichment.

One practical aspect of this study was the results of the impact of global factors on culture, values, norms, values, and identity. Respondents felt the factors of commercialism and capitalism did not have a positive or negative impact on culture; however, respondents felt the other eight factors including technology, media advertising and communication, social media, economic development, music, laws, the Internet, and education had a positive impact on the variables. This result suggested unawareness of culture erasure. The results of this practical application also aligned with theoretical concepts of culture, identity, and world systems theory. The managers and non-business managers agreed that assimilation
into another culture affected current culture. Respondents agreed that global factors have a positive effect on culture.

**Implications for the Field of Organization and Management**

The results of the study present challenges and responsibilities for those working in the field of academia in Trinidad and Tobago and the English-speaking Caribbean. The results showed the variable of education had a significant impact on other dependent variables. In the realm of academia, students are taught cultural sensitivity, inclusion, and diversity, but the knowledge gap identified in this study can be used to bring awareness to the hegemonic power and control of the mind supported by global forces.

One major implication for the field of organization and management are the results regarding cultural sensitivity, inclusion, and diversity. When asked to rate behavior for interaction with other cultures and whether culture and inclusion should be a priority 54.5% of respondents were guarded to approach other cultures, and 53.5% reported low priority for culture and inclusion.

**Limitations**

There were limitations to the current study. The participants were from one university. Students 18 years of age and under did not participate and only three participants were over age 65. It can be presumed that if more participants were over age 65 the results may have been different because older participants might have a greater historical perspective of the transformation of culture and transacting business in Trinidad and Tobago and the Caribbean.

Another limitation emerged during the pilot study and validation of the survey instrument; it was realized that not all students enrolled at the graduate programs were business managers. To correct this limitation, survey questions six and seven were posed to determine if respondents knew someone who conducted business with international or foreign managers and how often they conducted business with international or foreign managers. An additional limitation was that during the design of the survey instrument an EFA was not conducted to determine the relationship between the variables. Consequently, limitations exist where variables measured with a single question would be difficult to validate.

**Recommendations for Further Research**

The primary purpose of this quantitative research study was to ascertain whether globalization and assimilation influenced management behavior, and more specifically, to determine if managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, values, norms, and identity to assimilate into a global culture. While the objective of this inquiry was achieved, there still remain many unanswered questions regarding the long term consequences of surrendering local culture to adopt a global culture. Further research could be conducted to determine whether or not cultural trauma can be escaped in light of the constraints of globalization and the world systems. Further research can be conducted to include a wider sample group outside of the field of academia. A wider sample group may yield different results for Research Subquestion 2, which was posed to determine whether global factors have a positive or negative impact on culture, value, norms, and identity. The research should not be limited to business managers and non-business managers pursuing post graduate studies or involved in higher education, and should include a wider age group as part of the sample. The demographic variable of education proved to be a significant discriminant or root cause influencing the factors of culture, values, norms, and identity. Based on the results of the study, it seems that academia has a great impact on culture, values, norms, and identity. An opportunity for further research can be to identify the role of academia in culture change in the midst of globalization.

A phenomenological approach to this topic would be ideal to observe, illuminate, and transmit the actions of the subjects within their environments. The study can be qualitative, conducted within organizations both union and non-unionized using the CPQ to obtain differentiating factors pertaining to organizational culture. An area of study would be to compare the organizational culture and management behavior between union and non-union companies. Another inquiry would be to conduct research with Caribbean managers employed in North America or European countries to establish how national and
organization culture is maintained, and more specifically, how it protects the self. A possible area of focus would be to try to determine if individuals totally assimilate into the culture of North America and Europe and reinstate the self when visiting their home country.

Conclusion

There were three purposes for the research presented here. First, the definitions of culture by Hofstede (1980) and Schein (1996b) were used as theoretical bases for posing the question to determine if managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, values, norms, and identity to assimilate into a global culture. Second, management behavior was examined to determine if the manager would assimilate during international business meetings. These results were juxtaposed with the results of Research Subquestion 5, “The change in behavior influenced by power and control is exerted by international business managers.” The results of Research Subquestions 3 and 5 were evaluated based on the theoretical concept of world systems theory by Wallerstein (1974). The third purpose was to evaluate management behavior against identity based on the concept of nationalism as posited by Smith (1991). Smith explained how devotion and loyalty to one's own nation and a sense of patriotism evolves.

The results supported Hofstede’s (2001) findings that Trinidad and Tobago is an indulgent society and easily falls prey to the factors of globalization that transforms culture, norms, values, and national identity. The results further support the theoretical concept of culture purported by Hofstede (1980) that mental programming can be inherited, transferred, or learned from birth; and by Schein (1996a), they operate unconsciously and function in a basic taken for granted fashion. The respondents agreed the global factors of technology, media and advertising communication, social media, economic development, music, laws, the Internet, and education have a positive impact on culture, value, norms, and national culture. A positive impact means that global factors enhance or make positive changes to peoples’ ways of life, how they communicate, how they conduct financial transactions, banking, and purchasing habits, and the ways people are educated. Basic assumptions and beliefs are transformed and current culture is erased.

Hofstede’s (1980) seminal work included 117,000 IBM managers covering the 40 largest countries examining managerial behavior within the organizational context then linking the results to national culture. Hofstede’s (1980) initial results of the five cultural dimensions were then used to generalize national culture on a global scale, thus introducing and endorsing the framework for cross-cultural studies. Hofstede, despite his original intention of building a framework for national culture has contributed to promoting the understanding of global culture. This universalization of culture is supported by Schein’s (1996b) view of culture, which is to adapt or assimilate based on the impact of factors in the external environment. According to Schein, assimilation and integration are necessary for survival. The results of this study support the view that assimilation impacts culture, norms, values, and national identity in Trinidad and Tobago. The results support the specifics of the research question that managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, norms, values, and identity to assimilate into a global culture.

The social traits of the younger generation are being programmed through education, a barrage of media penetration consistently demanding the revolution of the self, and the factors of globalization dictate and direct the re-identification of culture, values, and norms through globalization. The results of this study suggested students enrolled in higher education deny globalization and the assimilation impact of culture, norms, and values.

Nationality is critical to maintaining some semblance of culture in Trinidad and Tobago, and hyper-nationalism is erasing the national identity created by various ethnic groups and shaped through historical and social influences (Ho & Nurse, 2005). Based on the results, it was concluded that globalization and assimilation are key factors for creating discourse between self and other, and the results have shown that globalization promotes a global culture. More specifically, managers in Trinidad and Tobago devalue their culture, values, norms, and identity to assimilate into a global culture.

Power and control are transcendent, and culture and values are subconsciously aligned with economic and political practices. The conduit of this transition is education. Unintentionally, the education system is
collectively programming the human mind to exist within a global culture. Graduate students are learning from textbooks containing global management and leadership theoretical concepts authored by Europeans or Americans including cultural theorists such as Hofstede (1980) and Schein (1996b). Consequently, the data and results empirically support the view that the deep drivers of culture, which distinguish one group of people from another, are impacted by universally accepted global trends. The results support the view that nationality is being threatened and replaced by a global culture. Globalization and assimilation act as the eraser and education is the transposer.

Smith (1991) argued that nationalism does not depict a nation that requires all members to be alike, but members should share a sense of belonging and loyalty to the nation. The ten culture general dimensions parallel the results of this study in discussing culture, values, norms identity, and nationalism: (a) the sense of self and space prior to entering the transitional space, (b) the obvious adaptation or shift in communication and language, (c) the mode of dress and appearance, (d) a change in taste for food and feeding habits, (e) the behavior pertaining to time and time consciousness, that is, whether there is the existence of stress or anxiety when participating, (f) the power and control element within the relationships, (g) impact and influences on values and norms, (h) beliefs and attitudes, (i) learning or reprogramming of the mind, for example the capability to reinvent and introduce new dance repertoire in addition to dancing to the beat of the tassa and steel drum, and (j) work habits and practices are influenced by the imported global culture.

The Hofstede Center, with its mission and strategy for culture and change, promotes a global centric aspect of the phenomenon of national culture supported by the modern technology of the Internet including mobile applications. On the Hofstede’s Center’s website, one can select a home country and explore the lens of culture through a 6D model. In Hofstede’s (2001) six dimensional model, Trinidad and Tobago scored the highest in indulgence at 80%, and lowest on individualism at 6%. Based on Hofstede’s interpretation, an indulgent society tends to show less restraint to control their desires and impulses (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Based on Hofstede’s (2001) evaluation of Trinidad and Tobago, it can be interpreted that since society operates under a weak control of restraint and under a high degree of indulgence, the tendency towards assimilation is greater.

Students were asked to describe their interactions with international business managers. They were asked to focus on communication, participation, identity, and feelings of self-worth. Forty-one percent of respondents described their relationship with international business managers as acceptance. Acceptance is when one’s own culture is experienced as just one of a number of equally complex worldviews. Forty-three percent thought the relationship was integrated. Integrated means one’s experience of self is expanded to include the movement in and out of different cultural worldviews. The two factors of acceptance and integration are on the higher end of the intercultural development inventory developed by Hammer et al. (2003). The results demonstrated the willingness of the respondents to accept, integrate, and assimilate. These results support the point made by Parekh (2008) that citizenship has both a national and global dimension; thus, citizenship should be perceived as globally oriented and striving for a shared and inclusive sense of belonging at both a community and a national level, thereby creating a globally oriented citizenship. Parekh (2008) contended that in light of a globalized world, identity must be examined using three elements. The first is personal identity, involving self-consciousness and subjectivity, or what makes us different from others. The second is social identity or the relations of power and normativity for what make us different from other groups. The third and final element is human or global identity, which is what we share as human beings and what makes us different from the rest of the world.

The results of this study clearly highlight the paradoxical existence of self within the social construct of Trinidad and Tobago. Respondents agreed that assimilation into another culture had a negative impact on culture, but they also agreed the factors of globalization had a positive effect on culture. Some proponents of global leadership such as Beechler and Baltzley (2008), Gupta and Govindarajan (2002), and Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, and Osland (2006) agreed that if business managers are not willing to adopt a global mindset to deal with the “mind-bending levels of ambiguity and complexities which exists
across political, social and cultural boundaries, they will become extinct on the road to globalization” (Beechler & Baltzley, 2008, p. 43).

The results of this study confirmed Trinidad and Tobago and the islands of the English-speaking Caribbean are affected by hegemonic globalization, which threatens national culture. The global voice of culture and the globalization of management are slowly eroding the dimensions of Caribbean culture. One of the pitfalls of globalization experienced by Trinidad and Tobago, as well as other developing nations, is the hegemonic state of dominance or power and control exerted by multinational corporations as local businesses implement the policies and plans giving rise to standardization and ultimately promoting a global type culture. It is important to give voice to the culture being erased by the subtle hand of globalization. Hofstede (1980) stated that each civilization has its own unique way of managing and doing things, but this uniqueness is disappearing, and the way business is conducted has changed. Once culture is erased, there is no way back.

The challenge going forward will be to make international business managers aware of the dilemma faced by Caribbean business managers when interacting with local managers. Expatriates and international managers participate in cultural sensitivity and cross-cultural training, but in most cases the training may not be aware of the hidden and deeply buried facets of national culture embedded in the hearts of the local manager. This level of cultural sensitivity takes time to grasp; unfortunately, in most instances the international business manager flies into the home country, conducts meetings all day, then leaves the following morning without the opportunity to evaluate his effectiveness with respect to interaction with the local managers. His or her reports to his or her home country usually focus on financial transactions rather than human transactions.

A global-type culture combined with global interactions promotes an impersonal business atmosphere, which is an atmosphere that does not allow time for exploring or appreciating each other’s culture or uniqueness. Researchers on global culture emphasize intercultural sensitivity as one of the characteristics for the global manager (Cohen, 2010; Gerhart & Fang, 2005) but economically the business focus is driven by time and money. More research is necessary to determine if Trinidad and Tobago, and other islands in the English-speaking Caribbean, are suffering the effects of culture erasure due to globalization and assimilation as discussed by anthropologists and sociologists such as Hofstede (1980), Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1993), and Schein (1996b).

REFERENCES


Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence, Work Attitude & Outcomes:
Examination of Indian Middle-Managerial Level Employees

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This study is an attempt to assess the impact of emotional intelligence on middle level managers in Indian organizations. The study examines the extent to which middle level managers with high emotional intelligence are capable of developing positive work attitudes and outcomes. The results indicate that emotional intelligence had significant relationship with work attitudes and work outcomes which also impacted work family conflict, job involvement and job performance in the Indian context. However, career commitment, organisational commitment and job satisfaction was found to have no impact of high/low emotional intelligence possessed by employees in Indian cultural context.

INTRODUCTION

Middle level managers play a key role in tasks like resource allocation and supervision of deadlines and fostering innovative and creative environments. Middle–management functions generally revolve around enabling teams of workers to perform effectively and efficiently and reporting these performance indicators to upper management. Being at the centre of any hierarchical structure they are connecting forces between lower and upper management. Thus their role requires individuals who are capable to control their own emotions while understanding others and influencing them. It is believed that people with high emotional intelligence competencies are more likely than less emotionally intelligent people to gain success in the workplace.

In the current dynamic environment, an individual can face failure due to the lack of Emotional intelligence which refers to the ability manage emotions intelligently.

This study replicates that study titled “The Relationship between emotional intelligence and work attituded, behavior and outcomes :An examination among senior managers in Israel” by Carmeli (2003) published in journal of managerial psychology in Indian culrtural context.

This study attempts to test the degree to which emotionally intelligent middle level managers develop high job satisfaction, career commitment, job involvement and effective commitment, and diminish continuance commitment and work-family conflict, display better job performance. This research focuses on the employees at middle managerial level working in public as well private companies in New Delhi/NCR region.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional Intelligence has been explained as an array of non-cognitive abilities and skills that impacts an individual’s ability to excel in managing the environmental demand and complexities. Emotional Intelligence signifies the ability, skill, capacity to identify, assess, manage, regulate and recognize one’s own as well as others’ emotions. It helps in assessing employee behaviour, management styles, attitudes, interpersonal skills and potentials; it assists in analysing one’s own behaviour as well in maintaining good relationship with others. (Ealias & George)

Self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills are the basic building blocks of emotional intelligence.

Role of EI at the Workplace

EI is becoming crucial today in global organisations regarding role of an individual in the organisation. Nowadays organisations are turning flatter and flexibility is what the organisations are aiming at. The span of control is becoming larger and it turning out to be a challenge to manage relationship between a leader and the followers.

The task structure and incentive mechanisms are now more team focussed which necessitate more accommodating and emotionally intelligent behaviour to be accepted to attain both individual and organisational goals. Emotionally intelligent individuals do not face difficulties when encountering job stress and changes in their job and career; rather, they have more and better coping capabilities than emotionally low individuals and are thus likely to develop lower withdrawal intentions.” (Akintayo D., 2010)

EI and Role of Managers

Organisations in the existing millennium are seeking out for global customers and facing worldwide competition and therefore companies nowadays need managers having a ‘global’ mind set. Organisations require managers who can operate in a multicultural and dynamic environment and are aware of the global issues and identify the necessity for a diverse workforce to attain a competitive lead in their global operations. In order to outperform and become successful in a globalised setting, organisations require emotionally equipped managers who do not panic during tough times and instead change themselves with the ‘changes’ at the workplace. Hence the need of the hour is to develop a class of managers who are emotionally competent and are controllers of their own emotions and are able to associate them with others by considering the emotional components of decision making and retaining productive relationships at their workplaces.

Managers with high EI are able to construct and retain a competitive advantage by superior performance, improved innovation effective usage of time and resources, restored trust, teamwork and motivation. By exploiting emotionality and cordiality, leaders and managers may find that they can quicken the process of attaining company goals and thus improve their own career advancement at the same time. (Webb, 2014).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which an employee has a positive sentimental attitude for working in the organisation. It relates to the level of individual positive attitude towards the work. It signifies the degree to which an individual likes/dislikes his/her job or to what extent he/she is psychologically attached to the job.

Organisational Commitment

Organisational commitment denotes an individual’s power in recognizing his/her participation in the respective organisation and measures the extent of loyalty that an employee holds for his/her organisation. (Nikkhaslat, Asgharian, Saleki, & Hojabri, 2012) Organisational commitment relates to the extent to which an employee of an organization see himself/herself attached to the organisation.
**Job Involvement**

Job involvement relates to the extent to which an individual identifies himself/herself psychologically with his/her work and how important the work is to his/her self-image. An employee might be stimulated by his/her work committed to it or may not be. Employees may be stimulated by and drawn deeply into their work or they may not be involved in it mentally as well as psychologically on. (Madani, Partovi, Moharrer, & Ghorbani, August 2014)

**Work-Family Conflict**

Work-family conflict relates to the inter role conflict that arises due to the conflicting demands of family and work roles. This implies that it becomes difficult for an individual to perform one role due to the demands of the second role. (Carmeli, 2003) Numerous researches have proved that when an individual faces low work-family conflict, greater organizational commitment and increased job satisfaction is being achieved. (Bighami, Abdi, & Aliakbar, 2013). Employees who are low on emotional intelligence are prone to develop a negative relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction as compared to employees possessing higher emotional intelligence. Employees experiencing high family role conflict are bound to experience less affective commitment to the organisation.

**Emotional Intelligence and Work Outcomes**

Job performance of employees is crucial issue for any organization and indicates whether employee is performing his job well or not at the workplace. Job performance comprises of behaviours that employees depict at the workplace that are significant to the aims of the organization. Emotional intelligence develops innovation and inventiveness in employees which in turn helps in the enhancement of employee’s job performance. Emotional intelligence stimulates effectiveness at all levels at the workplace and contributes to job performance by aiding people to control their emotions, perform well under stress and adjust to organizational change. (Abdullah, Eranza, & Bagul)

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This study has used a descriptive survey design to collect detailed and factual information that describes an existing phenomenon. For the purpose of the current study the sample consisted of middle lever managers working in different business organizations in New Delhi/NCR region. A total of 92 self-administered questionnaires were distributed randomly to middle managerial level employees in different business organizations.

The distribution of the questionnaire was done on the basis of suitability mostly by personal contact and e-mail. The respondents were assured of their confidentiality and were asked to respond as per the instructions given in the questionnaire. Data is being collected in the form of 5 point Likert scale questionnaire (1- Strongly Disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Undecided, 4– Agree, 5 - Strongly Agree). Dependent variables has been taken as work attitudes (career commitment, Job Involvement, Affective and continuance commitment, job satisfaction and work family conflict),Work outcomes (Job performance) and Emotional Intelligence has been treated as independent variable.

The Cronbach’s alpha for the 55 items is .920, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency.

**RESULTS AND FINDINGS**

The questionnaire results of the objective questions were entered in SPSS software to analyse the data collected. The following analysis has been done on the basis of results obtained from the following scores:
1. Mean-Standard Deviation Scores
2. Intra and Inter item correlation
3. Linear Regression analysis
4. Exploratory factor Analysis

Mean Scores explained that majority of the respondents agree that their company recognize and acknowledge their work and has good career prospects for its employees, their work responsibilities are reasonable, organization is supportive and their work gives them feeling of accomplishment and pride, they are loyal to their organization as they have invested a lot in it emotionally, socially and economically, they will recommend their profession as a career, they get the most satisfaction in life from their job, handle criticism well, complete tasks on time, acknowledge and reward people’s strengths, accomplishments and development and promote a friendly and cooperative climate. (Mean=2). They disagree that they do not feel a strong sense of belonging to their organization, they are often preoccupied with family matters at work due to stress at home (Mean=3.53) Majority of respondents neither agree nor disagree that they would wish to work outside their profession, they have to miss family activities due to the amount of time they spend on work responsibilities, they spot potential conflict, bring disagreements into the open, and help deescalate the conflict (Mean =3).

Through correlation analysis, Career commitment was found to be statistically related to Job involvement and Job performance. Emotional Intelligence and Work-family conflict were positively correlated instead of negatively correlated. Job Involvement was found to be positively correlated with career commitment, work-family conflict and job performance of an individual. Job satisfaction, Organisational commitment and career commitment were found to be statistically unrelated to Emotional intelligence.

Through linear regression analysis A moderate positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and job performance ($r = .306$). Though, only 11.9% of the variance in job performance was accounted by Emotional Intelligence.

Before the explanatory factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin approach was used to determine the sufficiency of the sample size for the component, while Bartlet test of sphericity was used to establish whether the correlation matrix has meaningful difference with zero or not. The sufficiency of sampling and meaningfulness of the correlation matrix was checked for the ($p<0.001$), respectively. It showed that the exploratory factor analysis was permissible. Then, the explanatory factor analysis was performed with maximum probability approach and the variables were interpreted with Varimax rotation approach. The results showed that three factors came out from “Job satisfaction” component.

The initial Eigen values showed that first and second factors explained 48% and 15% of the total variances of variables respectively. Therefore, these three factors explained 63% of the total variances of variables for the component “Job Satisfaction”.

As regards this component, the following variables formed the following two factors:

**Factor 1: “Participative Management”**
- “My company recognize and acknowledge my work”
- “My work responsibilities are reasonable”
- “My organization is supportive”
- “My views and participation are valued”

**Factor 2: “Sense of achievement”**
- “My work gives me feelings of accomplishment and pride”
- “I enjoy the work that I do.”
DISCUSSION

The objective of this study was to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes and work outcomes of middle managerial level employees.

Through correlation analysis, Career commitment was found to be statistically related to Job involvement and Job performance. Hence an individual highly involved in job while performing job effectively, he/she was also found to be committed to his/her career. Demographic characteristics, Job satisfaction, job characteristics, professional behaviour and organisational climate are five factors impacting career commitment of an individual (Welsch & LaVan, 1981).

As opposed to the research by Abraham Carmeli (2003) this study found that Emotional Intelligence and Work-family conflict were positively correlated instead of negatively correlated. Other factors like organisational commitment, job involvement and job performance were positively correlated with work family conflict. It was analysed that respondents even though were high on emotional intelligence, still they faced role conflicts relating to work and family.

Regression analysis explained that Emotional Intelligence has a low prediction on the employee’s job involvement. Job Involvement was found to be positively correlated with career commitment, work-family conflict and job performance of an individual. Other factors impacting job involvement could be job characteristics like Skill Variety, task Significance, and task Identity, Autonomy, feedback, motivation and training. Again these findings are in contrast to the research by Abraham Carmeli (2003) who stated that Emotional intelligence was statistically unrelated to job involvement.

However, Job satisfaction, Organisational commitment and career commitment were found to be statistically unrelated to Emotional intelligence. It is assumed that managers’ commitment towards the organisation were influenced by factors other than emotional intelligence like career opportunities, job characteristics, rewards and recognitions, employee health, turnover intentions and wellbeing as explained by three component model of organisation commitment (P.Meyer & Allen, 1991) Focussing on Affective commitment, managers didn’t feel a strong sense of belonging to the organisation and at the same time they enjoyed discussing about the organisation outside it. On the other hand, majority of respondents depicted neutral results for continuance commitment.

In this study, through Regression analysis, a moderate positive correlation was found between emotional intelligence and job performance. It was interpreted that managers who were emotionally intelligent and were thus emotionally aware of their strengths and weaknesses, self-controlled, trustworthy, adaptable, committed, optimistic, empathetic and cooperative were able to complete task on time, handle criticism well and easily able to get along with others and hence were able to perform job well.

Findings of Factor analysis of job satisfaction revealed that two factors had significant impact on job satisfaction of respondents which were named as “participative management” and “sense of achievement”.

The variation in results between this present research and the research done by Abraham Carmeli (2003) might be due to the difference in culture of two countries: India and Israel and time gap of more than a decade between the two studies. Also, the respondents of the study done by Abraham Carmeli were of senior managerial level whereas in this present study middle managerial level employees are being focussed.

On the basis of the results achieved from this present study, it is being concluded that Emotional intelligence has significant relationship with work attitudes and work outcomes by impacting work family conflict, job involvement and job performance. However, Career commitment, Organisational commitment and job satisfaction had no impact of high/low Emotional Intelligence possessed by an individual (See Model 1 Below).
MODEL 1
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, WORK ATTITUDE AND OUTCOMES: AN EXAMINATION AMONG INDIAN MIDDLE MANAGERIAL LEVEL EMPLOYEES

(Adapted from Carmeli’s (2003) paper published in Journal of Managerial Psychology)

REFERENCES


