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EXAMINING EMOTIONAL STABILITY, AVOIDANCE AND WORLDVIEW: A META-ANALYSIS OF THE MAYER-SALOVEY-CARUSO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST

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ABSTRACT

In the fall of 2012, the researcher conducted a meta-analysis on the Big Five factors and found that avoidance in adults and worldview in youth remained quite blurred in final results from the study and all studies that focused on these factors. In addition, the emergence of a new finding, emotional stability, in the results brings to light the need to examine the underlying role of emotional stability further. Through conducting this meta-analysis proposed here, the researcher hopes to strengthen potential linkages to avoidance and worldview, in addition to examining not only the direct role but the indirect role emotional stability, and the effects emotional stability may have on avoidance and worldview. Specifically, the researcher will utilize the meta-analytic approach to further examine the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test for the research proposed. Consideration was given to the Emotional Contagion Scale, yet in preliminary considerations, the researcher found that mood was considered, examined, and proved weak results; therefore the Emotional Contagion Scale was eliminated. The reasons for this was due to the Big Five, along with other studies, indicates that mood, along with life satisfaction and job satisfaction, are not predictable, stable, or strong variables to consider. With many personality tests available for use, the researcher seeks to find a way to incorporate multiple factors to determine if Big Five can be further tested by the use of another scale.

Keywords: Big Five Factors, Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, Emotional Stability, Avoidance, Worldview.

CROSS-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN VALUES AND ETHICAL DECISION MAKING: A COMPARISON OF U.S. AND PUERTO RICO

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ABSTRACT

In this study, two research questions considered the possibility that managers from the two cultures (i.e., U.S. vs. Puerto Rico) are different with respect to their cultural values and business ethical decision-making. The MANOVA results for testing the cultural differences are significant but are not significant in ethical decision making. The results indicate that the managers from the U.S. and the Puerto Rico samples are different in Individualism and Long-Term Orientation.

INTRODUCTION

In this paper, the role of national origin is considered as it relates to dimensions of national culture and the ethical decision making process for professionals in the mainland U.S. and the U.S. territory Puerto Rico. Although these venues are, of course, part of the same country, the dispersed geographic location of the areas and the island nature of Puerto Rico converge to make this a conceivably very different set of cultures. In this exploratory research, we are interested in the differences between the cultures studied. We want to know what the differences are and how these potentially different combinations of culture and ethical decision making processes affect the workplace. Such a determination may lead to better management practice in dealing with multicultural work environments: to better understand what motivates workers, how they think, and how to fashion solutions that will be acceptable to all, regardless of cultural background.

National Origin and Ethical Decision Making

Many studies have been conducted on differences in decision making processes. Some of the research has been directed towards comparisons of one country or culture to another, while some studies have involved multiple countries and cultures. Single-country studies have been done on the U. S. and China (Morris, Williams, Leung, Larrick, Mendoza, Bhatnagar, Li, Kondo, Luo and Hu, 1998; Shafer, Fukukawa and Lee, 2006; Ma, 2010), the U. S. and the Japanese (Lopez, Babin and Chung, 2009), the U. S. and the French (French, Zeiss and Scherer, 2001), Australia and China (Tsui and Windsor, 2001), and the U. S. and Sweden (Helin and Sandstrom,

2008). Tung and Verbeke (2010), Venaik and Brewer (2010), Forsyth, O'Boyle and McDaniel (2008), Scholtens and Dam (2007), Tsai and Chi (2011), Williams and McGuire (2010), and Ala and McGuire (2005) have all engaged in studies that included multiple countries. In 2007, Egri and Ralston reviewed international corporate responsibility research from 1998 to 2007: this also gives some idea of the scope of interest in international business and ethics. See also McGuire, Fok and Kwong (2006) for a literature review of research done prior to 2005.

The present article focuses on the ethical decision making process as impacted by well-recognized cultural dimensions. Ethics is an inquiry into the foundations of morality, the moral judgments, standards and rules of conduct of a person (Taylor, 1975). "It is a system of principles, a guide to human behavior that helps to distinguish between good and bad, or between right and wrong (Phatak, Bhagat and Kashlak, 2009, p. 487)." At the heart of a person's or society's moral standards are values; they are socially or personally desirable elements (Joyner and Payne, 2002). Carroll (2004) and Freeman and Gilbert (1988) have defined ethics in general as an understanding of what is right and fair conduct or behavior. The ability to choose between the right or the wrong, the good or the bad, is ethics, also known as morals. Ethics is the "study of morality (Velasquez, 1998, p. 7)." Velasquez (1998) has defined business ethics in similar terms. "(B)usiness ethics is a specialized study of moral right and wrong. It concentrates on moral standards as they apply particularly to business policies, institutions, and behaviors... (B)usiness ethics is a study of moral standards and how these apply to the systems and organizations through which modern societies produce and distribute goods and services (1998, p.13)." Business ethics is the "moral thinking and analysis by corporate decision-makers and other members regarding the motives and consequences of their decisions and actions (Amba-Roa, S. C., 1993, p. 553)."

Culture: Many Definitions

Culture is composed of the shared implicit beliefs and tacit values that identify each culture as unique: the cultural identity of groups is of vital importance to them and to those of different cultures who would like to successfully interact with them. "Understanding national cultural beliefs and values then provides a foundation for developing effective business practices in an international context (Taras, Steel, and Kirkman, 2011, p. 190)." Alas (2006) has described culture as the entire set of social norms and responses that condition people's behavior; it is acquired rather than inherited. Culture is the way group members relate to each other and their environment (Hofstede, 1980; Schein, 1985). All groups have cultures unique to themselves, a "collective programming" that differentiate them from other groups (Hofstede, 2001; Ma, 2010, p. 124). Hofstede (2001) further associates culture with values, systems of which are core elements of culture. Triandis (1995) has defined culture as "a pattern characterized by shared beliefs, attitudes, norms, roles and values that are organized around a theme and that can be found in certain geographic regions during a particular historic period (p. 43)." Resick *et al.* (2006) defined culture as the practices, norms and values commonly shared by members of a group; it provides a context from which to derive meaning and to make moral judgments.

Culture influences ethical values, attitudes and behaviors (Ma, 2010). Values form an important foundation of ethics: they are held by individuals and organizations (Elango, Paul, Kundu and Paudel, 2010). Having made the connection between culture and values, attitudes and behavior, i.e., the ethics or morality of a culture, we now turn to an examination of cultural characteristics. Cultural characteristics incorporate values, attitudes and behaviors. Hofstede's (1980) original four cultural values, individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-femininity, have been used countless times in research on national culture in the workplace. In this effort, we seek to determine how Hofstede's original cultural values, augmented by others found in empirical research, relate to ethical decision making. "National culture, organizational culture, personal religious beliefs, economic pressures, and other factors will influence judgments, intentions and behaviors regarding (ethically questionable) actions...(Franke and Nadler, 2008, p. 255)."

Research Question 1: Subjects in the United States and in Puerto Rico will have different levels of cultural dimensions.

Research Question 2: Subjects in the United States and in Puerto Rico will have different ethical decision making.

METHODOLOGY

Instruments

The culture instrument is adopted from a Brenner and McGuire (2003; McGuire, Fok and Kwong, 2006) study. The instrument is a 150-item self-report questionnaire on cultural values and beliefs. Items were developed based on qualitative research on culture, or taken directly or adapted from existing, validated culture surveys. Brenner and McGuire (2003) found evidence of the Cultural Values Instrument's scale reliability and construct validity on a sample of American respondents. The ethical decision making instrument was derived from the Becker and Fritzsche (Fritzsche and Becker, 1984; Becker and Fritzsche, 1987; Premeaux and Mondy, 1993) instrument and presents five vignettes. For each vignette, two responses were solicited. First, subjects were asked to indicate on a 0 to 10 point Likert Scale what their own decision would be to the scenario issue. Second, they were asked to indicate the reasoning behind their decision. Options were presented in multiple-choice format, including an open-ended option.

Subjects

There are 66 in the US sample and 51 in the Puerto Rican sample in the study. Both samples are executive MBA students from a university in a large Southern city in the U.S. In the US sample, the subjects were 47% male and 53% female with an average age of 35.9 with 15.4 years of working experience and 6.5 years in management position. In the Puerto Rican sample, the subjects were 65% male and 35% female with an average age of 34.5 with 13.7 years of working experience and 6.5 years in management position.

RESULTS

Our two research questions considered the possibility that managers from the two cultures (i.e., U.S. vs. Puerto Rico) are different with respect to their cultural values and business decision-making. Tables 1 and 2 provides the MANOVA results. The MANOVA results for testing the cultural differences are significant (p-value = .000) but not significant in ethical decision making. The results indicate that the respondents from the U.S. and the Puerto Rico samples are different in Individualism and Long-Term Orientation. In both cultural values, the US sample has higher averages than the Puerto Rican sample which implies that the American managers in the continental US are more individualistic but have a more long-term orientation than the managers in Puerto Rico.

Research 2 suggested that there would be differences in the selection of behavioral choice when faced with an ethical dilemma among the subjects from the US and the Puerto Rican samples. The MANOVA results do not support this proposition.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we tested for cross-cultural values and ethical decision making differences for working professionals in the mainland U.S. and Puerto Rico. Regarding ethical decision making, we measured behavioral intentions rather than actual behavior. One advantage to measuring intentions rather than real-world behavior is that it standardizes the context by removing consequences of the decision and social influences like peer pressure.

Although we did find cultural value differences between the two groups in the areas of Individualism and Long-term orientation, no differences were observed on the ethical decision making instrument. Thus, it appears that, among U.S. and Puerto Rican professionals, the national culture differences do not play a large role in decision making. One possible explanation is that the cultural differences that have distinguished Puerto Rico's unique culture from traditional American culture are being minimized as the cultural gap closes.

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF JUSTICE ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DOWNSIZING AND OCB

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ABSTRACT

Downsizing has become a pertinent issue to organizations in recent years. Research has shown that downsizing can result in unfavorable outcomes in terms of survivor's attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. This paper proposes that perceived justice mediates the effect of downsizing on organizational citizenship behavior among those involved in organizational downsizing. Implications and avenues for future research are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Downsizing is a serious issue that is impacting large numbers of workers in the US and Worldwide. In the last six months of 2010, Caterpillar, Verizon, Pfizer, Merck, Wal-Mart Stores, Alcoa, AT&T, Boeing, and Home Depot have each downsized their companies' labor force by at least 8,000 jobs (Kneale & Turchioe, 2010). The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reported that 80,703,000 jobs have been lost as of September 2010 due to temporary and permanent downsizing. Datta, Guthrie, Basuil, and Pandey (2010) stated, "Global competitive pressures coupled with ever-changing demand conditions have caused firms to critically examine their cost structures, including those associated with human resources" (p.282)

The way in which survivors respond to the downsizing can have far-reaching effects for the organization. An organization's existence rests upon employees who remain after cutbacks are complete. From this, employee behaviors and productivity become ever more important to the future functioning of the organization. Armstrong-Stassen (2000) stated, "Organizational citizenship behavior has been shown to be related to improved organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997), workgroup performance (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997), and individual performance (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998)" (p.159). If downsizing has a lasting effect on morale, it would then be probable that organizational citizenship behavior will also be affected (Armstrong-Stassen, 2000).

Organ (1988) found perceived justice to be an essential determinant of organizational citizenship behavior. When an individual feels that he or she has been treated fairly by the organization they are more likely to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors. James and Tang (1996) stated, "The way in which an organization handles labor cuts and downsizing is critical to the efficient functioning of the organization after the downsizing is complete" (p.34).

Little research has been conducted on how significant workplace events can influence justice perceptions on work attitudes (Clay-Warner, Hegtvedt, & Roman 2005). According to

Moorman, Niehoff and Organ (1993), perceptions of justice are important predictors of work attitudes and may also contribute to the effectiveness of an organization by directing an employee's decision to exhibit organizational citizenship behaviors. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to examine whether perceived justice mediates the effect of downsizing on organizational citizenship behavior among those affected by organizational downsizing.

Downsizing

Since the recession of the late 1970's and early 1980's employers have been looking for ways to cut costs (Appelbaum, Simpson, & Shapiro, 1987). One of the ways employers cut costs is through eliminating the number of employee positions within their companies. Downsizing has become the new norm as employers realize they can get by with less. According to Freeman and Cameron (1993), downsizing has spread widely as it moved from being seen as a last attempt effort to save a failing company to becoming an accepted way of managing.

There are three main types of implementation strategies used for downsizing. Workforce reduction is the most commonly used strategy and is implemented in a variety of different ways such as offering early retirements, transfers, attrition, and layoffs. This is the approach we will focus on for this analysis.

There are both benefits and consequences associated with downsizing in organizations. Some of the benefits of downsizing defined by (Appelbaum, Delage, Labib, & Gault, 1997; Cascio 1993) include lower overhead and smoother communication. However, according to Appelbaum et. al. (1987) the widespread use of downsizing has had major consequences on both the macro and micro environments. It puts a larger strain on unemployment and welfare programs. Employees who lose their job due to downsizing may lack the confidence they need to get a new job. According to Sahdev (2004) it leaves businesses to pay the high cost associated with employee severance packages. Sahdev (2004) states, "financial measures, such as return on assets, return on equity, sales to total assets, and the ratio of market to book value equity, are negatively affected by the announcements of layoffs" (p.166). Other consequences of downsizing are changes in how power is distributed throughout the organization, one's level of trust, teamwork, communication processes, and leadership style.

Making the adjustment is difficult because downsizing disrupts social networks at work and leaves "survivors" unsure of what is yet to come. The "survivor syndrome" research suggests there are different reasons for it, such as a breach of one's psychological contract and perceptions of unfairness within the organization. Doherty and Horsted (1995) referred to survivor syndrome as being the "mixed bag of behaviors and emotions often exhibited by remaining employees following an organizational downsizing" (p.26).

Employees who remain with an organization after downsizing will express feelings and attitudes that will affect their behavior (Hareli & Tzafrir, 1996). According to Moorman (1991), one way to assess the relationships between perceptions of fairness and employee behavior is to include more nontraditional types of behavior. One example of a nontraditional job behavior is organizational citizenship behavior. Organ (1988) defined organizational citizenship behavior as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal

reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p.4).

Organ (1988) identified five dimensions belonging to organizational citizenship behaviors. The five dimensional model of OCB includes altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. Altruism consists of discretionary behaviors that are aimed to help others in an organization with certain tasks or problems (Organ, 1988). Courtesy includes consulting with other employees before acting, giving advance notice, and relaying information (Organ, 1988). Sportsmanship refers to making (or avoiding making) problems seem bigger than they are, complaining about the small stuff, and having a negative viewpoint on situations (Organ 1988). Conscientiousness involves employees going above and beyond the minimum requirements of the organization (Organ, 1988). Finally, civic virtue refers to how politically involved an employee is in the organization (Organ, 1988).

Blau’s (1964) theory of social exchange lays out the theoretical and conceptual foundations for understanding organizational citizenship behavior (Love & Forret, 2008). Ahmadi, Forouzandeh, and Kahreh (2010) stated, “social exchange theory explains when the employee uses social exchange approach, they show more commitment and better performance in comparison with the time when they just wait for economic rewards for their practices” (p.111). Employees take part in social exchanges in order to receive both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Organizational Justice

According to Datta et al. (2010), individual outcomes due to downsizing have been explained using justice theories, the foundation for which individuals evaluate situations and make a decision to react favorably if they have been treated fairly. Konovsky and Brockner (1993) stated that value can be found in examining the effects of an organizational downsizing in terms of organizational justice because “the layoff process consists of a series of events in which victims and survivors evaluate the fairness of the layoff procedures” (Hopkins & Weathington, 2006, p.137). Organizational justice currently contains three constructs studied by researchers; distributive justice (Price & Mueller, 1986), procedural justice (Thibault & Walker, 1975), and interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Distributive Justice

Since the early 1970’s the study of justice was mostly concerned with distributive justice, which is the perceived fairness of outcomes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001). Some examples of distributive justice include perceptions of human resource management practices, such as hiring decisions, the outcomes to performance appraisals, raise requests, decisions about downsizing, and layoffs.

Proposition 1: Distributive justice will mediate the effect of downsizing on organizational citizenship behavior among prior victims more than on survivors.

Procedural Justice

Viswesvaran and Ones (2002) define procedural justice as “the (perceived) fairness of the means or procedures used to determine that outcome” (p.193). When an undesired outcome is matched with the perception of an unfair decision, employees may feel a sense of resentment towards the decision maker and the organization. Konovsky and Brockner (1993) stated, “resentment is often directed toward the organization and its managers after a downsizing” (p.137). Leventhal proposes six rules, which focus on procedural justice and the outcomes that accompany it; consistency, bias, accuracy, reversibility, representativeness, and compatibility (Viswesvaran and Ones 2002). These rules are used as a foundation to identify the differences between the legal and organizational context.

A clear link can be made between procedural justice and organizational outcomes such as job performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behaviors, and organizational commitment (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). Viswesvaran and Ones (2002) found that procedural justice had a stronger correlation to organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and productivity than distributive justice.

Lind and Early (1991) proposed that an independent relationship can be made between procedural fairness and organizational citizenship in using the group value model of procedural justice. Unlike victims, survivors are likely to take a closer look at how their employer treats them to determine whether they are still valuable to the group.

Therefore we suggest the following proposition.

Proposition 2: Procedural justice will mediate the effect of downsizing on organizational citizenship behavior among survivors more than on victims.

Interactional Justice

Interactional justice concerns an individual’s perception of the degree to which he or she is treated fair by another in terms of distribution of resources and everyday interactions (Bies and Moag 1986). Interactional justice also includes social actions such as how a supervisor treats an employee, listening to employee concerns, providing employees with information about decisions, and being empathic towards employees (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Survivors’ perceptions of interactional justice are of significant importance in mediating the behavioral and attitudinal consequences of the layoffs (Brockner, Grover, Reed, DeWitt & O’Malley, 1987).

Moorman (1991) found that out of the three justice dimensions, interactional justice was the only dimension significantly related to organizational citizenship behaviors. This means that survivors who thought they were treated fairly by their supervisors in regards to the downsizing will be more likely to take part in organizational citizenship behaviors. Mishra and Spreitzer (1998) stated, “if survivors are ignored and blamed for the downsizing, it is likely that they will be threatened by the downsizing” (p.577). Survivors will be more likely to take part in deviant work behaviors because they feel mistreated by management.

Based on the above, we suggest the following proposition.

Proposition 3: Interactional justice will mediate the effect of downsizing on organizational citizenship behavior among survivors more than on victims.

DISCUSSION

We examined the relationships between perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, and organizational citizenship behaviors among, survivors, victims, and unaffected workers in the event of a downsizing. Specifically, we proposed a mediating role for perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice between downsizing and organizational citizenship behaviors. This conceptual paper has limitations. First, finding victims willing to participate in the proposed study may be a difficult task. Also, clarity of the relationship between past and present perceptions of justice and organizational citizenship behavior need to be addressed.

REFERENCES

References available upon request

UNDERSTANDING WORKPLACE INCIVILITY: EXAMINING ISSUES WITH MEASUREMENT

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ABSTRACT

The Workplace Incivility Scale (WIS) is currently used as the primary measurement for capturing workplace incivility. The current study examines this measurement of workplace incivility in an attempt to gain a better understanding of the construct. Studies were coded along three main dimensions: content, format and context. Many differences were found compounding the confusion surrounding workplace incivility.

INTRODUCTION

Workplace incivility was brought to our attention through the work of Andersson and Pearson (2001) and defined as “*Low intensity, deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect.*” Authors give examples of behaviors such as demeaning notes or conversations, excluding members, ignoring, cutting people off while speaking, or leaving a mess for someone else to clean up.

The goal of this paper is to develop a better understanding of workplace incivility highlighted within the issues found in instrumentation. In this article we will walk through the primary measurement used within workplace incivility and discuss concerns with current research. Since the inception of this construct, the area of incivility has taken off with more than 60 articles written on the subject. During this explosion, the construct has become anything but more clear. Researchers have attempted to parcel the topic through the use of various measures. Each of these measures manipulates incivility through definition, role (target, instigator, and witness), and construct parameters. This research does a review of the Workplace Incivility Scale to show that there are some discrepancies in the construct within the literature. A framework was developed upon which to analyze and review the various studies.

CONSTRUCT ISSUES

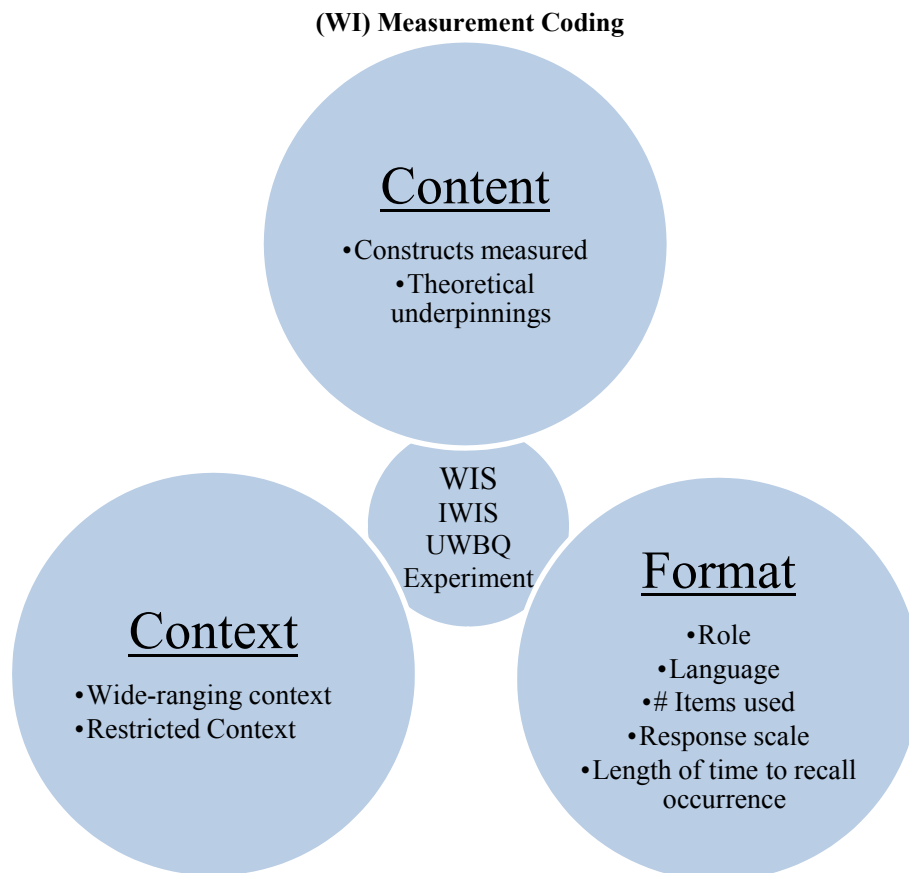
Incivility appears to have grown to the point of overlapping constructs. It is hard to discern at this point in the literature if certain topics are separate constructs, or simply a form of a larger encompassing construct. The overlap in construct definition and measurement between workplace deviance and workplace incivility raises many concerns. Issues include the ability to conceptually differentiate incivility from other similar constructs including bullying or harassment, as well as the inconsistency of the scope of what should be included as incivility. This would lead one to ask whether incivility is able to predict organizational outcomes above

other existing constructs that have already been established, and whether incivility research has the ability to capture and isolate incivility in measurement.

In this manner, examining how researchers have measured incivility may give us some better insight into a clearer understanding of the boundaries of the construct of incivility. If we are not clear on our construct definition of incivility, then we end up with measurement instruments labeled as “incivility measures,” yet not truly aligned in construct. The following is a review of the measurement issues currently found in the incivility literature.

METHODS

In this qualitative analysis we selected articles that examined workplace incivility. We limited our search to published articles, and used key word searches in databases of psychology and business literature which resulted in a sample size of 45 articles. These key words included deviance, incivility, and workplace incivility.



In the current study we classified and coded the WIS along three main dimensions: content, format and context. **Content** variation includes theoretical underpinnings and constructs being measured interchangeably with incivility. This represents the specific behaviors and perceptions various researches feel are aligned with the construct of incivility. **Format** includes role, specific language used, variations of the number of items used, response scale items, and

range in time length recalling incivility behaviors. Finally, **Context** refers to the various situations in which incivility has been studied (i.e. wide-ranging or restricted).

RESULTS

The first instrument created to capture incivility specifically, was the Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001). The items were identified based on the definition by Andersson and Pearson (2001) and included behaviors that were identified as low level intensity and having ambiguous intent to harm. These behaviors were also identified as the most common negative acts in the workplace (Einarsen et al., 1994). Their sample consisted of 1,662 employees of the U.S. Eighth Circuit federal courts system. It was demographically broken down into 833 women, 325 men.

The WIS has been the most widely used instrument for measuring incivility being used in 84% of studies examined. Additionally, the WIS has been adapted excessively. Out of 46 empirical articles that cite the WIS as the roots of their measurement, not one article to date has used the WIS in its exact original form. Using confirmatory factor analysis, researchers determined that all 7 items fit the single factor model appropriately. Further, when the 7-items were summed into the WIS scale, it produced an alpha coefficient of 0.89.

Content

Operationalizing incivility and determining if it warrants its own construct has been a major focus of attention in research. While there is yet to be a clear answer on this, it is apparent that current instruments tend to capture content beyond the scope of incivility, as it now stands. The WIS instrument has been used in conjunction with a number of other instruments, increasing the scope of the construct including the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire to assess incivility in sexual harassment (Lim, & Cortina, 2005; Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007); Daily Racist Hassles Scale (Harreld, 1994) to assess gendered incivility (Miner, Settles, Pratt-Hayatt, & Brady, 2012); Lehman Inventory of Physical Aggression (Penney & Spector, 2005); and the Workplace Aggression Questionnaire to capture the construct to include a broader behavior sphere (Penney & Spector, 2005). Perhaps the most vivid example of this practice was by Cortina and Magley (2003) when they added items intentionally to expand the scope of the definition to include mild negative appraisal. In these incidents the scope of the measure was expanded by adding more items representing different behaviors. It is unclear as to whether these behaviors fit with the standardly used incivility definition.

Format

Incivility has been examined from three role perspectives, the target (victim), the instigator, and witness (third party) of the incivility-behaviors. Witnesses are considered third party individuals that are not directly involved but see it occurring. The instigator is the person who actually displays the incivility-behaviors. The target is the person who the instigator is directing their incivility-behaviors toward. The WIS scale was originally created to capture the perspective of the target of incivility. While it has been used in this form many times, many other researchers have made adaptations to the original WIS to capture the remaining roles (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Trindle & Rejo, 2011; Min & Eiseid, 2012). For example, Min and

Eisheid (2012) attempted to measure the effects of witnessed incivility by adapting the wording of the WIS to assess the frequency of observing incivility.

Context

The original WIS focused on targets of incivility and was created to measure prevalence, specifically within the federal court system. Based on our qualitative findings, the context in which incivility is being studied can be described as wide ranging or restricted. Wide ranging encompasses the general workplace, those settings that are typical organizational environments, whereas restricted context is examined within a specific realm. Within these contexts, sub-contexts are also found. These include individual perceptions; team perceptions; climate of organization; and job position such as coworker or supervisor. This research found that wide ranging context includes participants that are employed in organizations from a particular sector. Researchers have focused on single, specific industries as well as cross-sectional samples encompassing a number of diverse industries.

CONCLUSIONS

The authors developed a framework through which to examine content, format and context issues present within the Workplace Incivility Scale. The limitedness of the WIS has caused researchers to adapt the instrument beyond its original intent. The continuing mutation of the WIS has resulted in a fuzziness or confusion when trying to establish a more robust understanding of the phenomenon being examined. These issues are of concern because measurement is most useful when we can use it to connect abstract concepts, such as incivility, to empirical indicants. In situations where these connections are weak or faulty, we run the risk of incorrect inferences or reporting misleading conclusions.

Therefore, we suggest the development of a set of tools, rather than one measure that can be used across perspectives which will appropriately include facets of incivility as well as limit the nomological net to only incivility. It is plausible that we might learn more about incivility by extinguishing the quest for a standard instrument. Incivility research needs to begin to populate the research tool box to create more robust measures that have maximal localized significance. This approach has been discussed in pro-social behaviors (Puffer, 1987) and would seem to also similarly serve negative social behaviors as well.

IMPACTS OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT INNOVATIONS ON PRODUCTIVITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to conduct an empirical study on how human resource management (HRM) can increase employee productivity by maintaining a balance in autonomy, technology, limited turnover, and concern for employee health and wellness. Much research has been done on the HRM innovation, but no prior study investigated impacts of HRM innovations on productivity from the four factor perspectives in a medium-size not-for-profit organization in the Midwest. This paper fills the gap in the HRM literature. A survey was conducted to collect sample data via questionnaires. A multivariate statistical analysis performed to develop a multiple regression model on the productivity. Results show statistical significances of the overall model, and autonomy and technology factors in relation to the employee productivity.

Keywords: Autonomy, Technology, Turnover, Health & Wellness Plan, Productivity

INTRODUCTION

There is a constant change in HRM, and management is being innovative by seeking ways to increase employee productivity. There have been many studies on innovations of HRM. Autonomy is important in creating decreased turnover and improved well-being; when autonomy is increased there is an offset to negative consequences (Chung-Yan, 2010). Ressler (2008) also proves to strengthen this reports analysis with their case studies conducted regarding autonomy – increased autonomy improves productivity by decreasing turnover and improving employee well-being. Vanderfeesten (2006) reports that autonomic aspects of technology will improve employee motivation, performance, and satisfaction. With the changes in technology, it is important to maintain efficient and well communicated programs through HRM. Wang & Shyu (2006) suggests that HRM's strategy alignment is fundamental to the success of businesses through comprehensive improvements in effectiveness and performance. It is also reported that commitment, job satisfaction and work-life balance satisfaction have important effects on levels of engagement, performance and intent to quit (Baptiste, 2008). A literature survey finds no prior study has tested statistical significances of a group of four factors such as autonomy, turnover, technology, and health & well-being as HRM innovations, in relation to employee productivity. Such a lack of past studies motivates this research.

Sampling of employees at a medium-size not-for-profit organization in the Midwest was done via in-person survey questionnaire. A multivariate statistical analysis performs a hypothesis testing.

In Section 2, a review of prior studies is conducted. Section 3 presents methodology, followed by statistical results in Section 4. Managerial implications are given in Section 5. Finally, Section 6 concludes this study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Generations have moved from being motivated solely by money to being motivated by doing things their own way and in their own time. Autonomy can change the lack of motivation. Autonomy is a degree or level of freedom and discretion allowed to an employee over his or her job. As a general rule, jobs with high degree of autonomy engender a sense of responsibility and greater job satisfaction in the employee. Not every employee, however, prefers a job with a high degree of responsibility” (Chung-Yan, 2010; Ressler, 2008; Hiltrop, 2005).

Another important factor affecting workplace productivity is technology. The borders for doing business have expanded internationally and created massive changes in operations because technology advances have made this an easy objective. Global business means technology will only improve and change more rapidly. With the age of our workforce increasing, it becomes difficult for employers to the training required to keep the older generations up to date on progress – it is costing money to add so much training. The younger generations willing grasp for new technology to find more progressive ways to complete their tasks and make it quicker to finish work. But technology that is limiting “may negatively affect employees’ motivation, performance, and satisfaction” (Vanderfeesten, 2006). HRM will need to maintain technology that makes efficiency possible.

The workforce population is aging. The need to maintain wellness plans and good healthcare plans is important to employees. But it is not always about age; the stress levels of work today are much more intense with the constant changes going on in business. Since 2008 Financial Crisis, the amount of work per employee has increased because employers are hiring less people yet expecting overall output to remain the same or increase. Stress is a major contributor to health issues, both mental and physical. HRM should have programs in place, as well as people who are able to identify needs, for those who may not easily voice their need for assistance (Baptiste, 2008; Guthrie, 2001).

The last factor is turnover. One of the primary reasons for people leaving a job is because they do not believe in whom they are working for or what that company stands for. Companies need to maintain alignment between their business strategy and the type of people they hire to run that business. With all of the talk about corrupt business people and loss of ethics in society, it is showing its face in the workplace even more today; employees are paying attention. Trust has been lost and employees don’t want to wait around to see what will happen next time their manager fails to be honest with them. It is important to hire people that maintain integrity and are transparent enough that turnover can hide its ugly head; people will want to be loyal to those whom are loyal to them (Chung-Yan, 2008).

No study was found to encompass all four variables into productivity. There are many that show that autonomy increases productivity. There are many studies that focus on the

need for HRM to improve their health and wellness plans; many more were found to focus on HRM programs as a whole and how they may impact work performance. This study proposes a framework for HRM innovations in which an organizational culture strives for a balance of four factors such as autonomy, technology, limited turnover, and health and wellness. Thus, this paper hypothesizes that HRM innovations will increase organizational efficiency.

METHODOLOGY

A main hypothesis for this research states that productivity in the workplace can be improved by increasing autonomy, reducing turnover, showing concern for employee health and well-being, and giving employees access to appropriate technologies.

To test this hypothesis, a multiple regression model is employed. The multivariate statistical model uses employee productivity (#10 from the questionnaire) as a proxy for the dependent variable (Y). Four factors describing HRM innovations serve as independent variables: autonomy (X₂), turnover (X₄), health and well-being (X₆), and technology (X₈). Statistical modeling enhances the model reliability by including pertinent variables such as employment period in years (X₁₂), education (X₁₃₋₁; 0 = non-graduate school, 1 = graduate degree), age (X₁₄₋₁), job type (X₁₁₋₁; 0 = non-manager, 1 = manager), and human resources management evaluation (X₁₆; 0 = bad HR management, 1 = good HR management).

$$Y = b_0 + b_2 * X_2 + b_4 * X_4 + b_6 * X_6 + b_8 * X_8 + b_{11-1} * X_{11-1} + b_{12} * X_{12} + b_{13-1} * X_{13-1} + b_{14-1} * X_{14-1} + b_{15} * X_{15} + b_{16} * X_{16}$$

In-person surveys were conducted in a not-for-profit organization in the Midwest, in which about 400 full-time employees work. Over 50 responses were collected. Among them, 10 were thrown out due to missing values. A sample of 40 cases is used for data analysis.

RESULTS

Results show the statistical significance in the multiple regression model on employee productivity as describe in the methodology section [$R^2 = 0.461$, $F(10, 30) = 2.567$ ($p < 0.05$)]. No serious multicollinearity is present. Interesting findings are that that autonomy ($p < 0.05$) and technology ($p < 0.01$) significantly affect productivity, as shown in Table 1. Education factor also shows the statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

Table 1: Multiple Regression Model						
Dependent Variable (Y) = Employee Productivity (Q10)						
$R^2 = 0.461$, $F(10, 30) = 2.567^*$						
X _j	Acronym	Source	b _j	SE	SB	t
(Constant)			-.901	1.542		-.584
X ₂	Autonomy	Q2	.483	.176	.408	2.739*
X ₄	Turnover	Q4	.041	.145	.042	.284

Table 1: Multiple Regression Model						
Dependent Variable (Y) = Employee Productivity (Q10)						
$R^2 = 0.461, F(10, 30) = 2.567^*$						
X_j	Acronym	Source	b_j	SE	SB	t
X_6	Health	Q6	.092	.124	.119	.745
X_8	Technology	Q8	.470	.140	.483	3.360**
X_{11-1}	Job-1	Q11	.272	.471	.104	.577
X_{12}	Employment	Q12	-.021	.022	-.176	-.929
X_{13-1}	Education-1	Q13	-1.355	.528	-.463	-2.567*
X_{14-1}	Age-1	Q14	.022	.014	.290	1.514
X_{15}	Gender	Q15	-.395	.368	-.152	-1.075
X_{16}	HR	Q16	-.232	.423	-.095	-.549
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$						
Source # of the survey questionnaire						
b_j Unstandardized regression coefficient for X_j						
SE Standard error of unstandardized b_j						
SB Standardized regression coefficient of X_j						

DISCUSSION

Evidence of this study supports findings on autonomy factor in the literature (Chung-Yan, 2010; Ressler, 2008; Hiltrop, 2005). On technology, Vanderfeesten (2006) is in line with this research. Contrary to prior studies (Baptiste, 2008; Guthrie, 2001), statistical results of this paper on turnover and health & well-being variables are inconclusive. A limited sample size might be attributed. An extensive survey with more sample cases may result in the significances of turnover and health & well-being variables.

Results present important managerial implications. To build and sustain employee success in the long-term, an organization should focus on improving its productivity by making sure that HRM addresses employee needs and expectations. This report shows how important providing autonomous work environments as well as available technology for job completion are. It also suggests that decreasing turnover and increasing concern for employee health and well-being are important in increasing productivity in the workplace. In summary, an organization can increase efficiency substantially by implementing HRM innovations.

CONCLUSION

This study shows employee's autonomy and technology factors affect organizational efficiency. Further studies on this subject can investigate impacts of innovations of HR management on organizational effectiveness. Other multivariate statistical models like a structured equation model can conduct a multi-level path analysis among factors. Also, a larger sample size can enhance validity. In addition to HRM innovations, organizational culture can be explored in relation to productivity and effectiveness.

This research provides the HRM literature with empirical evidence of importance of HRM innovations on organizational efficiency in a medium-size not-for-profit organization. Evidence suggests that managers can achieve organizational success by HRM innovations.

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ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION

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BACKGROUND

Trait-theory psychologists have largely signed on to the Five-Factor Model of personality as espoused by Costa and McCrae (1992). The five factors are: neuroticism (surely the most multi-dimensional of all the factors, presumably to cover a lot of what Freud talked about such as repression, sublimation, reaction formation, splitting, transference and so on), extraversion (as opposed to introversion, about as one dimensional as neuroticism is multi) , openness to new experience (just what it sounds like), agreeableness (ditto) and conscientiousness (willing to commit attention to a cause consistently). Some of the achievement-related personality dimensions that have received attention are hyper-competitiveness, cooperation, personal development achievement orientation, narcissism, self-esteem and Machiavellianism (Ross, Rausch & Canada, 2003).

Athletes have been a favorite subject for these experiments and it has been variously found (including in Ross, Rausch and Canada, 2003) that neuroticism is low and extraversion and conscientiousness are high among high-performing athletes.

There appear to be differences between those who voluntarily engage in competition (athletics for example) for personal development and those who do so to help boost their self-esteem, out of narcissistic impulses or to attain feelings of superiority over others through deft manipulation of the required interaction (Machiavellian tendencies). I will leave it up to you to consider whether it is good insight or not, but it seems that much of competition in the business arena is based in narcissism, Machiavellianism, self-esteem issues, or feelings of inferiority (it was Alfred Adler who emphasized the irony of those who act so superior, actually being driven by feelings of inferiority).

David McClelland (1961) spent a career looking mainly at need for achievement. He saw achievement and excellence as synonymous and would seek to determine a person's felt drive toward excellence as indicative of his or her level of need to achieve. He actually set up and delivered training workshops to teach people to act like, talk like and think like, high-need for achievers, since his and other research on the subject indicated that those high in the need to achieve were more often successful.

The modernization paradigm of cultural development assumes that people in currently developing nations will follow paths similar to those walked previously in the already-developed (already-modern) Western European countries and the U.S. That is, in McClellandese, the people in developing nations will have to learn to walk like they are high in need for achievement, if they and their societies are to become "successful" on the order of the U.S. and Western Europe.

Among the expectations of the changes to be brought about by modernization in these "backward" cultures, are an increased achievement orientation and a movement away from

family and kin relations to more commercial relationships. From this point of view, a laid-back approach to life and reliance on family are considered obstacles to be overcome in the development of individuals and nations (Moore, 1997).

There is research to support the notion that people in developing nations are more likely to be high in need for achievement, with those in nations already developed freer to adopt a variety of lifestyles from achievement-oriented to more passive approaches to life. However, it has long been assumed that Americans are largely aggressive and selfish in their approach to business and careers and that other people around the world will need to be the same way if they want to repeat our successes. Modernity, it turns out, affords nothing if not a plethora of lifestyle choices, among which are a return to nature and marching to the beat of a distant drummer. But getting to modernity, there is much thrashing about and tight-necked concern with uniformity in an attitude of excellence.

These may be elaborate myths (the one of organization man during the years of modernization and that of more choice of attitude after modernity) and may fail as characterizations of cultures, but when such broad-brush statements are made they are not assumed to apply to all individuals in a culture, but rather to the values that influence those living in that culture. Cultures in which people are encouraged to be cordial toward others may be too soft for entrepreneurship, since the decisions made by the independent business person often appear, at least from the outside, to be callous and insensitive. This logic asserts that the entrepreneur must be too goal-focused to spend a good deal of time worrying over smaller issues of interpersonal consideration or keeping a cooperative spirit in business transactions.

This belief is embedded in a larger conception of the highly modern business type as the perfect capitalist, a despiser of unions, flier of regulations, avoider (always legally of course) of taxes, dipper in the deep pool of free enterprise. This modern business type represents the organizational pursuit of excellence in the microcosm. Politics should never get in the way of profit. Doing the right thing is equated with whatever it takes to turn a profit.

The modern business person in this paradigm, could never be primarily interested in his or her own development as a human being, for such a mindset would represent subordination of one's economic interest and the company's financial outcomes to those of oneself, and this is the sort of selfishness that Adam Smith would never have permitted in his vision of capitalism. Capitalism, so goes the myth, permits only one brand of selfishness, and that is selfishness on behalf of the enterprise in question, which often may require extreme selflessness on the part of the individual, or at least a form of workaholicism.

Under such regimes, if one were to read a book, the book must have something to do with how to be better at minimizing business risk, optimizing on opportunities, competing in the market. Appreciating nature, contemplating the meaning of life, letting time go by in an accepting way, are all anathema to the achievement orientation assumed of our modern business type. To whatever extent this view of modernity is apt, God Bless America and perhaps more to the point, God Bless those cultures out there that seek to be like America. Or to put it another way, God speed the day when they have "arrived" and once again have a choice about when or whether to see life as best lived for economic excellence as opposed to some added, nobler purpose.

ACHIEVEMENT STRATEGIES

Consider the great difference between the person who awakens in the morning to a day of striving to find food, shelter from the weather, and protection for dependent children, and the person whose breakfast is served by a staff, whose morning commute is chauffeured and whose presence in the office is widely anticipated and heralded. If the first person, the one who is relatively desperate for both his own survival and that of others he supports, is consistently high-spirited, positive, hopeful in his judgment, clear in actions, free from neurotic impulses, has a variety of knowledge, skills and ability, is devoid of shame and guilt, high in self-esteem, confident about the future, a firm believer in his ability to control his own destiny; we might only surmise that this person has been cast into this situation recently, that the predicament is not of his own doing, that a lot of others must be similarly indisposed by some harsh circumstances such as the crash of the economy around them, and that once the environment returns to favorability, our fully-equipped survivor will once again return to his rightful place among the thriving.

On the other hand, it seems unlikely our fabulously privileged person will shown marked signs of depression, will have limited knowledge, skills and ability, will be wracked by pain, guilt and remorse for a life misspent, will suffer from paranoid delusions, will be clawing at her skin with her finger-nails and generally be unsuited to present herself in public. We surmise this because we have an intuitive sense of what is required of people for them to be successful.

Do the circumstances make the person or does the person make the circumstances? Of the two unlikely scenarios just mentioned, the second one is easier to imagine as true. In fact, when we think of the tormented rich and famous, we may picture their lives as being far from heaven on earth, and we are of course aided in this by persistent tabloid images and by the often apparently quite debilitating effects of too much money, too much fame, too much “good life”. Elvis’s fate always comes to mind in this regard and more recently the implosion of Michael Jackson.

Most evidence says that happiness tends to descend most often on those who have reason to be hopeful that the future will bring a better life. Also, happiness helps create enough behavioral energy to sustain motivation to push through obstacles toward goals, since happiness seems to be related to such other positives as self-esteem and self-efficacy.

High personal achievement tends to depend on certain factors. These factors are under the control of the individual involved to a certain extent. In fact, the extent to which this is true is actually at the heart of the differences between economic conservatives and those who are in favor of something closer to a welfare state, with the former more often believing that people choose success and the latter more likely to believe that success depends on oneself, ones starting position and other variables outside of the individual’s control. Below I will list and briefly discuss some of what we know about antecedents of individual achievement.

1. Life conditions that permit one to use behavioral energy for more than one’s own survival or the survival of dependent others (based on the work of needs theorists such as Maslow, Herzberg, and Murray; also related and important for achievement is McClelland’s need

- for achievement, with those high in this need being more apt to succeed and a supportive environment required to maintain high Nach). Circumstances can range from mildly influential to heavily constraining.
2. Relative freedom from psychological or physiological impediments such as pain or handicapping ailments (low neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to new experiences and conscientiousness; are among the important psychological factors that can enhance interpersonal effectiveness and thus facilitate achievement; along with the absence of physiological, biological or chemical obstacles). In other words, the constitution of a person's personality can facilitate success or undermine it. The extent to which the person can "bootstrap" (lift him or herself up by his or her own bootstraps) may depend on the environment and the bases of the psychological or physiological barriers, with those of an organic base being less under the control of the "self".
 3. Emotional intelligence; which can be broken down into two main categories: interpersonal which has to do with empathy and the ability to perceive the emotions of others, and intrapersonal having to do with awareness and regulation of one's own emotions and self-motivation. Based on work by Goleman, 1995 and others. It is largely assumed that although people have predispositions toward emotional intelligence, they can also willfully learn it and adapt their thoughts and behavior accordingly.
 4. Opportunities for "flow" experience: a clear goal about the activity; a balance between challenges and skills; immediate feedback from the task; a merging of action and awareness; intense concentration on the task; a sense of heightened control; a forgetting of one's self; a forgetting of time; and an activity that becomes autotelic-that is, an end in and of itself (Charalampos, 2001). Flow is neither a necessary nor sufficient condition for high achievement, and it may in fact, be considered more of an outcome and a type of success in its own right paralleling other types of achievement.
 5. Internal locus of control (related to self-efficacy, or self-esteem with respect to a given task, and self-esteem tends to follow from a person's perception of her abilities as commensurate with the achievement-situation). Rotter (1966) got the ball rolling toward what ultimately became social learning theory which in general says that people learn from their social environment how to be in the world and being in the world includes learning how to think and act in "achievement-oriented" situations.
 6. Hardiness in the face of stress – cognition, emotion and action aimed not just at survival but at enrichment through personal development. Constellation of personality characteristics that permit adaptability in the face of potential stress through control, challenge and commitment. (Kobasa, Maddi & Kahn, 1982)
 7. Diet, exercise, rest – anyone over the age of thirty has already figured this out, although many if not most people persist in trying to succeed in spite of what they consume and how they treat their bodies, as opposed to caring for their bodies and minds in a holistic, adaptive way (Dobbins & Pettman, 1997).
 8. Cultural variables – generally speaking, in the U.S., at least, European American males occupy higher-paying more prestigious jobs and this has all sorts of ramifications from mentoring and role-model opportunities to good-old-boy exclusionary practices, to

- limitations on individual perceptions of what careers or levels of success are available to “someone like me who is not a European (extraction) American male”
9. Spiritual wellness – links between spiritual wellbeing and achievement or success abound and tend to be associated with holistic (umbrella of material, spiritual, physical and psychological) approaches to living
 10. Reward systems – can be intrinsic or extrinsic, with the two interrelated, since rewards inherent in the work itself may compete psychologically with rewards external to the work.

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FROM INSPIRATION TO LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS

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INSPIRATION

Inspiration is psychological combustion. When the first woman (or man) saw lightning strike something and then saw that thing immediately catch on fire, imagine the combination of thrill and fear that charged through her (or him). There is not one source of fire in the universe, of course, but many, to include lightning, friction, and in general the combination of ignition, combustible material and oxygen.

Likewise there is not one source of inspiration for the human mind. Ignition, combustible material and oxygen are necessary. Ignition can come from ideas shared directly (person-to-person, phenomenon-to-imagination) or indirectly (access to ideas recorded in some fashion). Inspiration is to understanding as combustion is to fire. New learning can inspire new ways of thinking and acting.

From work by Platania & Moran (2001), Zajonc (1965) and Allport (1924), we have strong indications that the presence of other people can inspire us to repeat dominant responses (social facilitation), i.e. we perform for the audience using the best thoughts and behaviors we have learned to date, on tasks that do not involve higher-order thinking. However, when it comes to higher-order thinking, the presence of an immediate audience can undermine our clarity. Returning to the fire metaphor, for higher-order thinking, we are apparently better off taking the lit fire back to our private domicile and using it to ignite combustible material we have there. We “respond” better when people are watching, but we “ruminate” better alone.

If a group of people are writing a paper that involves conceptualization, they would be better off thinking alone and assembling together, conceptualizing and then coordinating, rather than trying to conceptualize together and then having one person put the group-derived concepts together.

A lot of inspiration is still not thoroughly understood. Some people appear to be autocatalytic (capable of self-inspiration), but most require interaction with people or ideas to become inspired. It is likely the case that people who disagree with us but not to the point that we are emotionally distracted by the disagreement, will serve to inspire us to better insights. Furthermore, people whose dominant paradigm of thought or whose habitual responses are dissimilar (obviously a relative term) to ours will be more likely to catalyze us into “new thinking”, even though they may not disagree with us. You might say that inter-paradigm exchange has the power to catalyze our thinking in ways reminiscent of intra-paradigm disagreement (or inter-paradigm disagreement).

In other words, we are more likely to be inspired by the unique than the familiar. We are probably also more likely to be inspired by being challenged in our thinking than by being affirmed in it. If I say inspiration comes from friction between two rough things being rubbed

together like sticks and you say, no, I think it comes from a flow process sort of like the siphoning of gas through a hose, from a gas tank, we may be able to prove that both of us are correct.

During idea brainstorming, sometimes I follow the moves of others, work with similarities; but sometimes I clearly seek to contradict others, that is, I appear to be working with dissimilarities. The former is like hose siphoning and the latter more like rubbing two sticks together. Inspiration can be either making more out of the same or making something new out of a difference.

INDIVIDUAL CREATIVITY

Whether or not your thoughts and actions are construed as creative depends on socially-constructed, retrospective interpretations of them as being both novel and valuable (Drazin, Glynn & Kazanjian, 1999). If you have no incentive for creativity even your innate capacity for it may well lie dormant. Situations can promote individual thought processes that may lead to novel and valuable outcomes. However, creative capacity and impulse can be undermined or overwhelmed by neuroses, resource constraints, or situational variables.

Chessick (1999) implied that creativity is a human capacity for the tendency and ability to playfully break patterns of relationships and replace them with new ones. In something often on the order of a dream state, the creative person transforms repressed auditory, visual and kinesthetic (movement) memories into a creative product resulting in restoration of lost or threatened self-esteem. In other words, at the individual level, creativity is often a successful escape from a seemingly air-tight box of psychological hang-ups. This view of creativity might be referred to as a deficit view or one of creativity as an act of recovery or healing.

Creativity at the individual level has been variously discussed as the transformation of narcissistic energy into products with their own life (Spitz, 1985), to the ability to think about one's thinking (metacognition) in a way that makes it unusually adaptive to life situations, to ways of thinking and behaving that insinuate the presence of superior planning skills (Naglieri & Kaufman, 2001). This approach to individual creativity might be considered the "surplus view" or creativity as an act of precise adaptation.

The Freudian or deficit view of creativity is often used to interpret the life and works of artists (Turco, 2001), while the surplus view tends to be applied to other expressions of creativity, to include those produced in the context of groups or organizations. Sociological or organizational views of creativity, it could be said, are biased toward seeing the black box as generative of adaptive thought and action, as opposed to compensative of thought and action.

One assumption of this generative black box approach to creativity is that creativity is a matter of individual choice. According to this view, the creative person apparently chooses a creative response over other less novel or valuable alternatives. Another assumption is that the person-situation interaction is a key determinant of whether the person chooses a creative response or some other one. It is almost as if these theorists are saying that the organization has numerous creative people and that all it must do is figure out how to engineer the situation to

bring this creative impulse out of them. The organization can thus devise strategies to mine the gold in the heads of these potentially creative participants.

INSTITUTIONAL OR ORGANIZATIONAL CREATIVITY

Drazin, Glynn and Kazanjian's (1999) model of organizational creativity includes four concepts, individual sensemaking, inter-subjectively shared frames of reference, negotiated belief structure among parties with different frames of reference and a shift in the negotiated belief structure that results from crises.

Drazin, Glynn & Kazanjian (1999) go on to talk about inclusiveness in the culture as important. They assert, and I believe rightly, that individuals are not just members of one organization, but of many and that because of this, they can be said to be operating from a frame of reference that is the product of the many organizations in which they have membership and contexts from which they have learned. This helps explain why some people are more likely to be creative even in less-than creative organizations and some are less creative in creative organizational cultures.

ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING

Levitt & March (1988) and March (1991), described organizational learning as a three-part process, codification, exploration and exploitation. Codification involves encoding inferences from routines that guide behavior. Exploration is captured by the terms search, variation, risk taking and experimentation, play, discover and innovation. Exploitation includes refinement, choice, efficiency, selection and execution.

A host of such tripartite definitions of organizational learning have been espoused. I will summarize them as having to do with capturing knowledge, preserving it and disseminating it. Many of those who study organizations are quite reductionistic, but then, so too are those who study a lot of other things, I suppose. Even God himself (at least for most Christians) tends to be broken down into the father, son and holy spirit.

Eastern mystical views of human learning also tend to come back to three things. In one version, they are lha, nyen and lu, the beginning, the rise and the falling down. I heat water for tea, I drink it and I wash out the cup. Virtually all activities can be broken down this way into a preparation phase, the main phase and the winding down phase, as indeed, can life itself (Trungpa, 2003).

People that populate organizations are constantly learning but this learning does not always translate into knowledge instrumental in helping the organization reach its desired outcomes. Whether this happens is dependent on those factors we mentioned earlier, codification, exploration and exploitation.

When organizations value improvement over self-satisfaction, adaptation over structure, fluid systems over static systems and connectivity with internal and external customers over security in the organization's isolated view of the environment, knowledge is more likely to be effectively captured and used (McCullough and Faught, 2003).

As people flow in and out of organizations, they can be valuable knowledge assets upon entry, once they are process experts and ultimately, when they become sages or keepers of the wisdom of how the processes should work together (McCullough, 1999). Opportunities for rich interchange among organizational sages, experts and novices, must be created and supported.

Consider the terms organizational learning and learning organizations, how do you suppose we have come to have both expressions? I suppose it is because, organizational learning is used to describe a type of learning organizations can do, whereas learning organization is used to describe a type of organization where learning occurs. The term organizational learning is given the burden of distinguishing this type of learning from regular learning. The term learning organization is assigned the task of distinguishing an organization that learns from organizations that do not. (O'Conner, Bronner & Delaney, 2007).

If we substituted the word human for organization, we would have human learning and learning human. Human learning has a body of science beneath it that represents an attempt by scholars to answer various questions about our learning. Learning human is a more novel expression that might be used to delineate one of the capacities we humans have, parallel to thinking human, running human, living human, sensing human, and such.

Organizational learning is a body of work wherein scholars have attempted to describe how organizations learn as opposed to how individuals learn. Learning organization is a less scientifically pretentious, more pop expression, one that might be more commonly used by consultants than by scholars.

If we pursue our rhetorical treatment of these words, and seek to separate learning organizations from other ones, the first node we might come to would be, learning organizations as distinct from non-learning organizations. It seems unlikely that any collective of humans could be aptly described as non-learning.

Learning organizations, in other words, not only learn, but they seek to learn strategically and also to learn from their learning (Argyris, 1982). The idea is to create systems that lead to the development of new knowledge and understanding which drives organizational operations, policies and strategies, and to monitor these systems for efficiency and effectiveness.

Having control over learning and its outcomes is the fundamental difference between a strategic learning organization and organizations that learn. In formal education circles, teachers, administrators and schools tend to be concerned with outcomes and seek to let these outcomes lead them back to the development and management of their curriculum.

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WHY DIVERSITY?

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SOURCES OF DIVERSITY

No two people are the same. Proof can be found using retina scans, fingerprints or DNA samples. On this level, organizations need not worry, they have diversity. Clearly when the term diversity is used as a battle cry in business it carries little of the meaning of basic physiological differences, but rather it has more to do with the politics of ethnicity, national origin, gender, sexual orientation, age, handicapped status and other similar categories yet to arise; categories often referred to as “objective diversity” (Hentschel, Shemla, Weggie and Kearney; 2013)

Diversity is in some ways used as a shield against the slings and arrows of those who would criticize the outcomes of organizations as being dominated by a concern for profit-making. Affirmative action is one reason diversity awareness has grown, stemming as it does from the historical fact of U.S. slavery, the after-effects of which remain in the culture. Affirmative action is the term for actions of private and public organizations to both redress past wrongs and alter going forward, their personnel practices, but it has come under fire in the last several years as no longer necessary. (Johnson, 2013). Rather than complain or fight against affirmative action, businesses have tried to make the issue of “minority” hiring their own, giving them the apparent moral high ground and returning for themselves, control over human-resource decisions. Business response against affirmative action has been more subtle than, for example, that of state legislatures.

The other main reason for diversity’s increased purchase as a term with so much cache, yet controversy, is the rapid globalization of large-scale business operations and the markets they seek to serve. Diversity and globalization are often used together. MNCs often hire a host-country workforce, which means when their global employment practices are reviewed, they can be said to employ a diverse workforce. Of course, another way to say this is that they employ a number of homogeneous workforces across the several nations where their operations exist. This raises some question as to whether such practices should in fact be called pro diversity, since for many companies local workers tend to be highly similar in terms of ethnicity.

Another source of diversity for a large number of U.S corporations with operations still based here, are undocumented workers. Wal-mart, the world’s largest retailer, with annual sales of a quarter of a trillion dollars, 1.4 million employees at nearly 5,000 stores worldwide, had over 300 cleaning contract associates arrested at 60 U.S. stores on October 23, 2003. These workers were from mainly Eastern Europe, Central America and Asia and worked in Wal-mart stores, although technically employed by contractors (Armour and Leinwand, 2003).

The claim most often touted in business school textbooks and academic journal articles, is that diversity is important for greater productivity, however, virtually no evidence exists for such a claim, and perhaps most importantly, apparently few researchers are interested in the question. Diversity is publicly announced as a direct path to organizational improvement,

commonly understood as a challenge to be dealt with, and privately discussed as a way to retain a politically-correct image and/or to keep government regulators at bay.

OUTCOMES OF DIVERSITY

Diversity, whether it be in flora or fauna, lower-order or higher-order species, leads to healthier ecosystems, since each representative of the variety sustains the others by its existence. The biomass of individual plants has been found to be greater when they are found among other species rather than one among many of the same species (Tilman, et.al., 2001). Genetic reproduction favors heterogeneity over homogeneity, indeed nature has built in punishments for inbreeding.

What holds for biology would reasonably hold for all the other “ologies”, from psychology to sociology to anthropology, since biology is the foundation for the others. Indeed, Aristotle and many other philosophers advocated a life of balance and variety, full of activities ranging across the physical, mental and emotional and meals drawn from a broad array of choices.

It feels good to be alone after a long time spent in a crowd and good to again gather among friends once we have had enough of being alone. A woman speaks with greater alacrity on the favorite subjects of her friends when she is reunited with them after her trip to a distant land where the people spoke another language and saw the world from perspectives unlike any she had ever encountered. The psychotropic effect of the drug of contrast lasts longer if she partook deeply of it.

The man accustomed to high teas and fine dining would be served well to spend a few nights being served at a soup kitchen. The man holding the jack hammer forty hours a week would no doubt benefit nicely from some time spent gently rocking a newborn baby. The horseback riding camp should also involve a little swimming, singing, meditation and tastes from around the world.

Monotones, grayscales, lukewarm beverages, all soon grate on us, sending us out into the busy night streets in search of flashing colors and hot toddies. Just try composing a poem using nothing but the words that end in –ed.

One of the great attractions of places like Los Angeles, Hawaii and Cashmere, is the juxtaposition of mountains with bodies of water. Days spent in varied activities leave us exhilarated and with a feeling of strength, resilience.

A sad reality of human existence is that if one leads an isolated life long enough, the desire for variety may atrophy and die. The young should travel widely, learn new languages, wear garments with names they are just learning to pronounce and spend evenings in the company of people they have never seen before and may never see again.

Hope itself comes from the prospect of something better, but if not better at least different. Henry David Thoreau spent his years at Harvard contemplating the greatest thoughts mankind has generated so that when his desires turned to separating himself from society, he took with him such a splendid garden of ideas he wrote the classic journal, *Walden Pond*.

The world cannot stand many more people who know they are the only ones who are right, the only ones whose lives are god-breathed, the only ones whose experiences truly matter. One more baby born into such thinking may just sink the ship we all sail on.

It matters not whether the current enthusiasm for diversity found in the rhetoric of politicians and business people lasts for two, five or fifteen years, its importance will not go away when the talking ends. Appreciation of cultural, ethnic and worldview variety was essential to the minds of the ancients, long before the first sail boat, the first telegraph machine, the first pony rider with a bag full of mail, before affirmative action, before apartheid in South Africa came and went, and it will remain thus.

It is ironic that those who surround themselves with homogeneity often fear that their lives will be diminished if contrasted with those of others from around the globe, but the truth is, it is the separation that diminishes us.

Nationalism, regionalism, ethnocentricity, sexism, are all sociological diseases. Pride in one's flag becomes sickening when it is accompanied by protestation that another person cannot wave her flag beside ours. Hate for the world's other humans is one of the primary products of many national governments. If you want to save the world, you have to do it one flag, one language, one history book, one skin-hue-variety at a time. No one's pride in heritage is worth anything if it is not accompanied by an attitude of freedom for others to express the same pride of their own.

Sure the world should have free trade, one economy, one government, but those who are staunch advocates of breaking down trade barriers are often the loudest proponents of other types of barriers.

MNCs are often like well-traveled people, teeming with broad perspective, established on broad-based foundations with supporting pillars in many different lands. However, if they act in a hegemonic fashion, imposing their will, occupying regions of the world rather than setting up cooperative arrangements with the indigenous, they are nothing more than temporary blights on the earth, destined for early extinction, but never dying soon enough to rescue many of those whose lives they ruin.

Organizations are powerful forces for good when those who direct them are diverse. They can be equally destructive when those who direct them are highly similar to one another. Diversity may be a greatest source of competitive advantage, but even more importantly, it is always the greatest source of cooperative advantage.

THE VALUE OF DIVERSITY

If you want to know the value of diversity, look no further than your own mind. The more places you visit, the more plays you see, the more books you read, the more people you meet, the more experience you gain, the more interesting you become, the broader your perspective, the deeper your understanding, the more trustworthy your judgment. Ultimately, the value of human diversity is in the contribution it makes to the development of each individual.

When I look across a table and see someone whose experience mirrors my own, the chances are good the two of us will soon run low on topics to discuss. We may take a walk along

the shore, but chances are we will notice a lot of the same things, we will know many of the same names of shells or spent crustaceans, the names of tides, if a number of other people walked with us, all of whom had highly similar experiences, hailing from the same home town, having graduated from the same school, the same year, having dated a lot of the same people, having had the same preachers and teachers, even if there were fifty of us on the walk, we might as well be one, so limited would be our breadth of knowledge. We might be highly valuable to one another should we be attacked, since we could be expected to easily rally to one another's support, being so likeminded and all. But when it comes to mutual contributions to soul and mind expansion, we may be liabilities one to the other.

The advantage we might have, acting in concert with one another, responding similarly to situations, would be no real functional advantage unless the challenge were a tug of war and we were all weightlifters, or unless the task were remembering the names of the people who lived along a certain street in our home town and we all had good memories.

There is another point to be made here, however. If all fifty of us from the same home town, with basically the same backgrounds, had each achieved an understanding some years before that personal development must ultimately come back to finding diversity within one's self, we may well be a band of fifty individuals, as varied as species in a tropical rainforest. That is, the greatest limitation we face is not our history, but our lack of openness to the human and ecological diversity available to our senses.

The assumptions of this approach to living are basic: (1) life is an unfolding of previously undiscovered potential, (2) other people and their approaches to life are sources of insight, (3) the drama of the universe as seen through your own eyes is life's richest reward, and (4) the presence of a human audience to provide meaning to your existence should be appreciated for the marvelous support that it is.

There are mean-spirited, anti-human, greedy, selfish, opportunistic, materialistic, deceitful, anger-based, guilt-sponsored, approaches to life, as plentiful and various as there are kind-spirited, pro-human, magnanimous, selfless, serendipitous, spiritual, authentic, love-based, basic-goodness-sponsored, approaches to life. Seen this way, diversity is not all good, not all healthful. Some approaches to life are poisonous and the people adopting and promoting them might live right beside you or on the other side of the earth, they may speak your language or they may not, they may share your religion or they may not. Just because someone is from another land does not make him or her a positive influence in your life. However, just because someone shares your skin color or surname, also does not make them redeemable.

How did we turn so judgmental in this discussion of diversity? The point is that diversity for its own sake is like experience for its own sake, it is not always worth your while. People whose approach to life has fundamentally turned against healthful living, are valuable to study, but not to emulate; appropriate to befriend, but not to join forces with; never to be hated, always to be loved and encouraged in their humanity, not in their negativity.

Broad diversity in a group of people or an organization is a good deal like inexpensive travel accomplished at a rapid pace. Everywhere I turn, in the midst of cultural diversity, someone is speaking another language, eating a different cuisine, saying a prayer unlike any I have heard before, approaching problems with the sort of perspective I have seldom seen back

home. Such diversity is a deep text to the wise mind, but it can be a source of confusion and danger for the person who is ready to glom onto every fashionable attitude that comes along.

Customs come from reactions to histories unique to a people, but art, literature, and music that elevate the spirit transcend all places, all times. If the religion you find tells you that people unlike yourself are to be despised, spurn that religion. If the philosophy you read advocates you to become wrapped up in your own fortunes to the exclusion of those of others, run from that philosophy. Seek to learn from the worst faces of diversity and to assimilate into your life those that affirm love for living.

When organizations hire brown people to sell products to brown people, such a practice is cynical and shallow. See it for what it is, using ethnicity and color as a marketing device. Such an approach may well serve the purpose of marketing but it does not promote human dignity.

When organizations hire black people so they can meet a quota set by the government, rather than because that person is a valuable human being to have in the presence of the other human beings they employ, that is an unprincipled approach to diversity, without lasting merit.

When organizations hire diversity to do distasteful or lower-paying jobs because white males (or whatever the dominant group might be at the time) have better things to do, this is nothing more than a perpetuation of one of the premises on which slavery and virtually all class systems are based, that some human beings are more redeemable than others, not because of how they think or behave, but what they look like or possess in terms of genetic wiring. The true value of diversity is in its potential to remind me to return to the search for the best that is in me.

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TEACHERS' RESPOND TO THE NEED FOR ADDITION TRAINING ON SOCIODRAMATIC ACTIVITIES: IMPLICATIONS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

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ABSTRACT

Play is a serious component of self-regulation and the ability to manage children's behavior and emotions, which becomes critical at the age of two. Therefore, it is imperative that appropriate practices are taught, such as redirection of inappropriate behaviors; and play is a significant factor in the development of a child's self regulation. The findings in this study suggest that teachers have not received sufficient professional development in the proper integration of sociodramatic play activities in the classroom. Results of this study may suggest that administrators reexamine teachers' response to the need for additional professional development in the area of sociodramatic play and the effect this will have on the organization.

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SUPPORTIVE SUPERVISOR COMMUNICATION AND ROLE AMBIGUITY IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LMX AND EMPLOYEE AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT, TURNOVER INTENTIONS, AND PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

This research examines the mediating role of supportive supervisor communication (SSC) and role ambiguity in the relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and employee job attitudes and performance. It was predicted that supportive supervisor communication and role ambiguity would mediate the relationship between employee rated LMX quality and employee's affective commitment, job dedication, turnover intentions, and supervisor rated employee performance. Specifically, it was hypothesized that LMX would have a direct positive relationship with SSC and a direct negative relationship with role ambiguity and turnover intentions. It was also predicted that SSC would have an indirect, negative relationship with employees' turnover intentions through its direct positive relationship with employee's affective commitment, and an indirect positive relationship with supervisor rated employee task performance and interpersonal facilitation through its direct positive relationship with job dedication. Next, it was predicted that employee's affective commitment would have a direct, negative relationship with turnover intentions. Finally, it was predicted that job dedication would have a direct, positive relationship with task performance and interpersonal facilitation. Structural equation modeling results based on a sample of 243 supervisor-subordinate dyads from the banking industry provided substantial support for the theoretical model.

Keywords: supportive supervisor communication, LMX, affective commitment, role ambiguity, turnover intentions, contextual pe

THE ROLE OF PERSONALITY IN ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: INTRODUCING COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIOR AND INTEGRATING IMPRESSION MANAGEMENT AS A MODERATING FACTOR

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ABSTRACT

This review explores the moderating effects of impression management on the relationship between the Big Five personality traits and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and introduces the possibility of counterproductive work behavior (CWB) having the identical antecedents and moderator but divergent relationship as OCB. Research has indicated some effect of dimensions of the Big Five on OCB and CWB. However, there is empirical and theoretical reason to believe that this effect may be moderated by impression management (IM), which may intensify or abate the relationship when individuals display high levels of IM. The review investigates different personality types, according to the dimensions of the Big Five, and offers propositions on their influence(s) on organizational citizenship behavior, as well as the interaction of impression management with the Big Five and OCB. It also takes a broad look at the relationship between the Big Five, IM, and CWB. A conceptual model and suggestions for future research in the field are provided as well.

Keywords: personality, Big Five, organizational citizenship behavior, impression management, counterproductive work behavior, workplace deviance

ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR IN THE CLASSROOM: IS THE “GOOD SOLDIER” PRESENT?

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ABSTRACT

Management discussions and research findings on Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) relates to the organization’s environment. Evidence indicates that there is a relationship with organizational rewards (Podsakoff & McKenzie, 1994) and greater levels of importance ((MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Paine, 1999). With the exception of researchers like Allison, Voss and Dryer (2001), application of the theory to the classroom has been sparse. This study investigated Organizational Citizenship Behavior in a classroom environment. The researchers hypothesized the impact of OCB on the performance of the student research participants. To evaluate the hypotheses, structural equation modeling was utilized. Implications, limitations and future research directions were discussed.

FACTORS AFFECTING STUDENT ATHLETES PERCEPTION OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

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ABSTRACT

Where much empiricism (Coakley, 2009 (Edwards, 2000; Azzarito & Burden, 2004; Harrison, Young, Friesen, & Borycki, 1994; Young, Friesen, & Dillabough, 1991) can be found on various aspects of the student athlete (for example race, athletic prowess, individual responsibility and sport superiority), research has not adequately documented why student athletes pursue some jobs and avoid others. In other words there seems to be an absence of research supplying answers to the question, "Why are student athletes not going pro in something other than sports? This paper investigated a number of factors which impact student athletes' perceptions of employment opportunities. Regression analysis was used to evaluate the hypotheses. Implications, limitations and future research were also discussed.

SOCIAL MEDIA NETWORKS AND SELF-ESTEEM: HOW DOES USAGE AFFECT SELF-ESTEEM?

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ABSTRACT

Technology has served as a platform for advancement in the world. In particular, the spherical world as we used to know it has become flatter than ever so to speak; this is due to the development of the web and interconnecting capabilities with individuals from almost anywhere in the world. Due to technology, we have been able to enter ventures such as social media networking. Social media has made it possible to conduct business, share ideas and experiences, and communicate casually on a global scale. The great capabilities of social media have evoked a number of responses in individuals. Whether favorable or unfavorable, social media has the ability to directly impact the behavior and life of a given individual. Social media usage has been steadily increasing and there are no indicators that it will decline in the near future. The purpose of this research is to quantitatively and qualitatively analyze the relationship between social media usage rate, and its impact on the self-esteem of individuals.

For the purpose of the conference, the motive is to gain an understanding as to how online social media can impact our well-being as well as that of our loved ones. Also, the relationship between the education levels and social media usage will be examined.

