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THE VALUE OF MENTORING: A FIVE-FACTOR FRAMEWORK

Stephen C. Betts, William Paterson University
bettss@wpunj.edu
Louis J. Pepe, Oakland School District
pepe@oakland.k12.nj.us

ABSTRACT

Mentoring in business has gained significant popularity in professional practice and attention by academic researchers. Those who study mentor/protégé relationships have concluded that mentors provide psychosocial and instrumental career support for protégés. In this study we look beyond the types of support and address the outcomes associated with the mentor/protégé relationship. The results of a cross sectional survey show five distinct outcomes associated with mentor/protégé relationships: success, awareness, advancement, attitudes and behaviors. The survey also reveals differences in perceived value of mentoring between those who have mentors and those who do not, those who are involved in mandatory and voluntary mentoring programs and gender based differences. The five factor framework and results are examined and integrated into the existing literature. The paper concludes with recommendations for practitioners and suggestions for further research.

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is a sustained relationship between a younger, less experienced individual (protégé) and an older, more experienced individual (mentor) dedicated to achieving long term success and fulfillment. Mentors provide support, visibility, resources and direction (Ragins, 1989). In this paper we investigate the perceived outcomes of mentoring relationships.

The origin of the word 'mentor' can be traced back to the Greek meaning 'enduring'. In fact Mentor was the friend that Odysseus, the King of Ithaca, entrusted with the education of his son Telemachus during the Trojan War (Hamilton, 1948). In ancient Greece it was a common practice for wise men to counsel younger men, and Mentor became the "counselor, guide, tutor, coach, sponsor, and mentor for his protégé" (Hunt & Michael, 1983).

Some scholars trace the modern usage of the word to the character Mentor in Les Aventures de Télémaque by the 17th century French writer Fenelon (Turner, 2005). Regardless of the origin of the term, throughout history those with wisdom and experience have offered counsel as a training and development tool. Master-apprentice, professional-intern, teacher-student, and coach-athlete are relationships that generally follow this pattern.

In this paper we look beyond the types of support and address the outcomes associated with the mentor/protégé relationship. The results of a cross sectional survey show five distinct outcomes associated with mentor/protégé relationships: success, awareness, advancement, attitudes and behaviors. The five-factor framework and results are examined and integrated into the existing literature. The paper concludes with recommendations for practitioners and suggestions for further research.

THE VALUE OF MENTORING

Research indicates that mentors serve two basic types of functions, career and psychosocial (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000; Kram, 1983). The career functions include sponsorship, exposure and visibility, coaching, protection, and challenging assignments. Generally mentors enhance the possibility of career advancement. Sponsorship involves nominating the protégé for assignments and transfers/promotions. The exposure and visibility function involves giving the protégé assignments that were highly visible to corporate decision-makers. Coaching includes advice and feedback relevant to achieving work objectives. Reducing risks that might damage the reputation of the protégé falls under the protection function as the mentors assume the risk themselves (Zaleznik, 1977). Mentors also provide challenging assignments that allow protégés to develop job related skills (Noe, 1988) and can affect the degree of job related stress experienced by the protégé (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

The psychosocial functions of mentors consist of role modeling, acceptance and confirmation, counseling, and friendship. Generally, they serve to enhance the protégé's self-image. In role modeling, the mentor provides examples of appropriate behavior and attitudes. Mentors perform the acceptance and confirmation function by exhibiting unconditional positive regard. Counseling involves allowing and actively encouraging the protégé to talk about his/her fears and anxieties. The friendship function manifests itself through informal contact at work.

Mentor/protege relationships have been investigated by researchers since the 1970's and much has been learned about the nature and benefits of such relationships (Ragins, 1997). Studies have addressed individual and organizational level factors that affect the relationships (Higgins & Kram, 2001), as well as the processes involved in mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985). In this paper we go beyond looking at individual situations and the experiences of specific dyads and look at the general perception of mentoring. We also go beyond the functions and processes of mentoring and explore the outcomes that are their result. Specifically we investigate the perceived value of the outcomes of mentor/protege relationships. Therefore, we propose the following:

Research question: What is the perceived value of mentoring?

METHODS, ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In order to investigate the perceived value of mentoring, an anonymous survey was conducted during fall of 2004. The sample was obtained from one primary source, a major annual professional workshop (91 respondents) and was augmented with some responses from adult professionals attending professional (22) and MBA (7) classes. The survey contained demographic and professional information and a series of questions regarding the value of mentoring.

120 completed surveys were returned. The sample was 60% male, had an average age of 43.9 years old with 21.5 years in paid employment. The sample represented a large number of industries and occupations, with the highest percentage coming from education (11.7%) and sales (10.8%). 50.4% of the respondents had a mentor at work. Of these, 44.4 chose the mentor themselves and the mentoring program was voluntary for 68.3%.

Table 1
Mentoring Factors

Success	
	I think mentors are a positive influence on an individual's ability to succeed in business.
	Mentors are vital and necessary to achieve long term goals and objectives in professional development.
	I think mentors provide better stability in my field/industry.
	I think mentors provide an opportunity to ensure strong career satisfaction.
Awareness	
	Mentoring provides protTgTs with an awareness of their prospective tasks and areas of responsibility.
	Mentoring provides protTgTs with an awareness of career
	Mentoring provides protTgTs with an awareness of their prospective options and goals.
Advancement	
	Mentoring allows for a better transition into the workforce.
	Mentoring is a critical step in the transition of protTgTs from entry level to middle management.
	Mentoring is a critical step in the transition of protTgTs from middle management to upper level management.
	Mentoring enhances personal influences such as networking, guidance, interests, and self
	Mentoring enhances situational influences such as organizations, groups, professional associations and social networks.
Attitudes	
	Without a mentor, potential protTgTs are more likely to lose interest in work.
	Without a mentor, potential protTgTs are more likely to develop low self
	Without a mentor, potential protTgTs are more likely to lack a sense of hopefulness regarding their future opportunities.
Behavior	
	Without a mentor, potential protTgTs are more likely to exhibit higher degrees of absenteeism.
	Without a mentor, potential protTgTs are more likely to more susceptible to poor performance.
	Without a mentor, potential protTgTs are more likely to engage in negative behavior (e.g., alcohol & drug use, etc)

A factor analysis was conducted on the questions dealing with the effects of mentoring (principal components extraction, vari-max rotation). The analysis resulted in 5 orthogonal factors that are presented in table 1. The alpha reliabilities for the factors ranged from .79 for 'Success' to .90 for 'Attitudes. They can be found on table 2, which also shows the correlations between the factors, age and years in paid employment.

Table 2
Correlation Table

#	Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Years in paid employment	21.48	11.36							
2	Age	43.86	11.88	0.88**						
3	Success	4.12	0.68	0.06	0.02	(0.79)				
4	Career Awareness	4.04	0.6	-0.13	-0.13	0.47**	(0.82)			
5	Advancement	3.92	0.64	-0.03	-0.06	0.59	0.64**	(0.82)		
6	Attitudes	2.7	1	0.09	0.06	0.34**	0.26*	0.38**	(0.90)	
7	Behavior	2.43	0.92	0.13	0.12	0.32**	0.26*	0.34**	0.67**	(0.86)

** p < .001, *, p< .05, Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are in parentheses on the diagonal

Table 3 is a summary of mean tests conducted between the five factors and mentoring status, voluntary vs. mandatory mentoring, level of education and gender. The mean test shows that those respondents that had a mentor had a greater agreement with the success factor. Those respondents that chose their mentor them self had a greater agreement with the attitude factor. Respondents for whom mentoring was voluntary showed higher agreement with every factor on mentoring, except for value/prescription. There were no differences in agreement with the factors associated with level of education. Female respondents showed lower agreement with every factor on mentoring, except for value/prescription.

Table 3 - Mean Test (ANOVA)

	%	Success	Awareness	Advancement	Attitudes	Behavior
Had a mentor	50.4	4.22*	4.07	3.97	2.75	2.46
Did not have a mentor	49.6	4.00*	4.01	3.85	2.68	2.41
Mentor chosen by self	44.4	4.1	4.03	4	2.97*	2.61
Mentor assigned by organization	55.6	4.2	4.04	3.8	2.50*	2.21
Voluntary	68.3	4.38***	4.22**	4.18***	2.85*	2.58*
Mandatory	31.7	3.78***	3.76**	3.48***	2.26*	1.95*
High School	7.8	3.94	3.59	3.84	2.7	2.37
Associates degree or some college	13.9	4.2	4.09	4.1	2.65	2.48
Bachelors degree	35.7	4.14	4.04	3.91	2.85	2.46
Some graduate study	11.3	4.04	4.15	3.77	2.46	2.41
Masters degree	29.6	4.1	4.11	3.95	2.57	2.3
Doctorate	1.7	4.5	4	3.6	2.67	3.33
Female	39.1	4.00*	3.90*	3.78*	2.51*	2.10**
Male	60.9	4.22*	4.15*	4.03*	2.84*	2.64**

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

Paired sample T-tests between all pairs of the six factors showed that there is a significant difference in the mean responses between all of the factors except for the top two - Success and Career Awareness. The order by degree of agreement: Success, Career Awareness, Advancement, Attitudes and Behavior. The respondents agreed with the first three factors and disagreed slightly with the last two factors.

CONCLUSIONS

This research contributes to the field in three ways. First, the results of the factor analysis provide a typology of outcomes associated with mentoring relationships. Second, the specific relationships between the five factors and other variables give some insight into what influences perceptions about mentoring. The third contribution is the measurement tool for the perceived outcomes.

The five-factor model is in line with the existing research. Perceptual measures of outcomes is established in mentoring research and some of the individual factors, such as career success, have already been examined (Joiner, Bartram & Garreffa, 2004). Each of the five factors seems to be plausible results of the career and psychosocial functions of mentoring.

However none of the five categories of outcomes appears to be the result of just one of the two functions. This is in line with recent research that is taking a more 'holistic' approach to mentoring, such as that extending the concept beyond rigidly defined dyadic relationships (Higgins & Kram, 2001) and findings that the type of support given is not clearly related to the outcomes of mentoring (Payne & Huffman, 2005). The lack of agreement with the last two factors, attitudes and behavior, is interesting. In fact, more recent research has addressed potential negative effects of mentoring relationships (Eby & Allen, 2002).

Our study shows differences between the perceptions of those involved in mandatory vs. voluntary programs, and whether the mentor was assigned to or chosen by the protege. These findings fit into streams of research investigating formal vs. informal mentoring programs (Raabe & Beehr, 2003; Waters, McCabe, Kiellerup & Kiellerup, 2002). Age, education and gender are often included in mentoring studies (Ragins, 1997).

Further research can concentrate on revealing relationships between the five outcome factors and the two function categories. Further research designed to develop the factors themselves should investigate 'Attitudes' and Behavior', the two factors that respondents disagreed with. The statements that were associated with these factors were different than those for the other three in as they were stated in the negative. Rewording the statements to be more consistent with the other statements might give a different result. Research into the relationships between demographic and career characteristics and the factors could be done with larger or more targeted samples with more detailed questions regarding occupation, education and so on. The establishment of specific relationships can be of value, for example if individuals in a specific occupation do not perceive a high value of mentoring, those involved that field can take actions to change individuals perceptions or find the cause of it.

(references available on request)

EXPLORING THE LINKAGE OF PERSONNEL PRACTICES AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF THE DUAL-CAREER AMERICAN FAMILY WORKER: A TOOL FOR HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGERS

Kelly Bruning, Northwestern Michigan College
kbruning@nmc.edu

ABSTRACT

The 2004 Unites Sates Bureau of Labor Statistics reports that married coupled families in which husband and wife both work accounted for 50.9% of the workforce in 2003. These workers face problems in balancing work responsibilities with home commitment. Organizations look to their employees for productivity and efficiency, which is compromised by work-life conflict in the form of absenteeism, decreased employee satisfaction, and poor job performance. Employees look to their employers for personnel practices to help alleviate the stress they experience in balancing home and work responsibilities. Human resource managers evaluate personnel practices to meet those needs with the hope of increasing employee loyalty toward the organization. The research in this study explores the linkage of personnel practices and perceived employee commitment to the organization. It examines the ranking of eighteen personnel practices and explores a possible correlation to employee commitment to the organization using validated survey instruments and statistical testing. The results of this study will be useful to those academics and practitioners who are interested in developing new quality of work-life programs that meet the needs of dual-career families. In addition, the findings may also serve as validation for business and industry on the importance of measuring employee attitude regarding work-life practices and prompt organizations to re-examine their quality of work-life business practices to meet the needs of their employees. The potential underlying results for business is increased employee morale, loyalty, job satisfaction, and overall increased employee productivity.

INTRODUCTION

The workforce has undergone a transformation leading to an increase in dual-career families. The Census Bureau reported that in 1997 only 17% of all families conformed to the 1950s model of a wage-earning dad, a stay-at-home mom, and one or more children. Since the late 1950s, growing attention has focused on families in which both partners work; these relationships are called dual-earner marriages (Jordan, Cobb, McCully, 1989). Married couples with children in which husband and wife both work accounted for 50.9% of the workforce in 2003 (Bureau of Labor Statistics: Employment Characteristics of Families: April 24, 2004). These dual-career couples face many stressors in balancing career, family, social obligations and work expectations. Changing societal trends such as an increase in the number of women entering the work force combined with an economy that requires dual incomes to support an average standard of living contribute to work-family conflicts. As a result, society and American business have recognized the conflicts unique to dual-career families and have responded.

With the increase of dual-career couples in the workforce, many organizations have begun to take a role in developing quality of work-life programs. The goal of the organization is

to relieve the stressors of employees in an attempt to retain employees, cultivate good employee morale, and develop organizational commitment while also enhancing productivity and efficiency of work performance. Society has responded with innovative solutions such as job sharing, flexible work schedules, and day care solutions. Dual-career families continue to look to employers and society for assistance in managing quality of work-life conflicts.

Research supports that many managers in organizations cite issues with lost time at work, lack of motivated workers, and loss of worker productivity resulting from work-family conflicts. Absenteeism, employee turnover, and job satisfaction attributable to the existence or non-existence of quality of work-life concepts in the workplace are also concerns of managers as cited in research.

In addition to the importance to individual employees of organizational support of family roles, there also appears to be a growing concern on the part of organizations regarding employee-organizational linkages, or the connection an employee feels toward an organization. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) stress that the extent and quality of employee-organizational linkages provide important consequences for individuals, organizations, and society and are greatly affected by the social changes taking place.

One of the major changes Mowday, et al. (1982) note with respect to impacts on employee-organizational linkages related to the changing composition of the characteristics of the work force. In particular, they suggest that the percentage of women entering the work force, an increase in dual-career households, and a new value system will create difficulties for organizations that ignore the problem. The widened ties of individuals to the organization may have negative implications for both individuals and organizations. More specifically, Mowday et al (1982) suggest that reduced linkages may lead to lowered organizational commitment.

Therefore, it seems important to examine the relationship between work-life conflicts and organizational linkages such as organizational commitment. Because changes in the number of women workers, the number of dual-career couples and changing values have been linked to both employee organization linkages and to work-life conflicts, it appears plausible that work-life conflict and commitment may be related.

Literature suggests that organizational practices reflecting values that are congruent with those of their employees may be related to higher values of organizational commitment. Because commitment to an organization involves person-value congruence, organizational commitment and work-life conflict may be related. This study will examine personnel practices and determine their ranking of supportiveness by members of dual-career families in helping them manage work-life conflict. It will also measure the employee's perception of their level of commitment to the organization. The study will seek to determine if the level of perceived organizational commitment by the dual-career employee is directly related to the perceptual ranking of supportiveness of quality of work-life personnel practices.

The findings can be used to analyze what quality of work-life programs may significantly impact the dual-career family's ability to manage work-life conflicts in today's society. The findings will also be useful to businesses by providing a measurement of attitude of dual-career workers regarding the quality of work-life concepts they feel are most important in the 2003 workplace. Businesses and organizations can use this study to determine what types of quality of work-life concepts are most likely to contribute to commitment to the organization which may lead to improved job satisfaction, employee morale, and productivity and efficiency in the workplace. In addition, businesses can use the finding to allocate resources that will support those personnel practices that dual-career employees find most helpful in alleviating work-life conflicts.

RATIONALE

Organizations can implement or redesign practices to reflect consideration of the issues facing dual-career couples. As a result, they may avoid the costs resulting from home stress spilling over to work. Creative practices designed to accommodate the needs of working couples are emerging in companies across the United States (Hall & Hall, 1978; Koplemann, Rosenweigh & Lally, 1982).

Unfortunately, despite expressed interest in supporting families, the actual practices of most companies lag behind expressed attitudes of workers (Catalyst Career and Family Center, 1987). Employers may be reluctant to adopt new quality of work-life practices partly because they lack clear evidence of their effects, both for employees and the company. Although an array of new options exists, confusion surrounds the election of practices to best meet the needs of an organization's specific employee population.

Employee perception of the support their company provides them in balancing career with family roles affect critical employee attitudes such as employee commitment, job satisfaction, and employee morale (Chusmar, 1986; Magid, 1983). Other studies have identified a causal relationship between employee perceptions of the support of their company with employee productivity and have established a correlation of worker's attitude of QWL concepts with employee morale, employee loyalty to the organization, and overall job satisfaction.

Practices such as flextime and childcare are typically assumed to be helpful to dual-career couple employees with families. However, the actual beliefs of employees are rarely assessed. Employee's perceptions may be a crucial barometer of the usefulness of family support practices in diminishing home-career conflicts and may assist companies in selecting and implementing new benefits while also enhancing corporate productivity. Companies that minimally support and consider employee's family responsibilities in terms of personnel practices may experience decreased acceptance of the organization's values. This may lead to diminished loyalty to the company, decreased willingness to exert effort of work (decreasing worker productivity), and the employee may elect to leave the company in favor of organizations who support quality of work-life programs and practices which employees deem important.

This study examines the attitude of dual-career couples in northern-lower Michigan toward quality of work-life programs which will serve as a valid measurement instrument for business and industry to understand the dynamics of work-life conflicts of dual-career couples and to develop quality of work-life programs within their organizations that address these issues.

In addition, this study explores the perceived commitment level of employees toward the organization and determine if a relationship exists between commitment level and the ranking of personnel practices. This finding will assist organizations in evaluating organizational commitment and the role it may or may not play in personnel practices offered by the organization.

POPULATION AREA

The population of this study consisted of members of dual-career couples living in the rural area of northern-lower Michigan. A geographic illustration of the population area appears as Figure1. The geographic location for the study is northern-lower Michigan, which is primarily a rural area with a predominately Caucasian population. It is comprised of relatively small businesses and organizations with less than 500 employees. The industries representative of health care, education, banking, insurance, manufacturing, and tourism are included in the study.

Figure 1. Geographic Area of Population
Northern-Lower Michigan

The researcher distributed 2,530 surveys to members of dual-career families. Three hundred and eight responses were returned resulting in a 12% response rate. Of the 308 responses, 30 were invalid responses due to the following reasons: (a) the survey was not fully completed; (b) the respondent was self-employed which may lead to response bias due to the nature of the survey items; and (c) they did not meet the definition of a dual-career couple family as outlined in questions one through five of the survey instrument. The survey instrument was designed with criteria questions to identify members of dual-career families. Any respondent answering negatively to those questions did not meet the criteria defining the sample and were eliminated from the study.

Of the 278 valid responses, 140 were males and 138 were females working in several different organizations representative of business and industry throughout the northern-lower Michigan region. Though 17 organizations participated in the study, spouses of those employees completing the survey worked in different organizations resulting in a sample from a myriad of businesses throughout the northern-lower Michigan region.

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH

Members of dual-career couples in northern-lower Michigan were surveyed on a volunteer basis using a 18-item Likert-type scale adapted from Schmidt and Scott and a 15 item organizational commitment Likert-type scale developed by Porter. The survey is produced using an interval Likert-type seven point rating scale anchored at 1- not at all supportive and 7- very supportive or helpful. To determine which personnel practices are perceived by members of dual-career couples as most supportive, the ratings from a quantitative Likert survey were analyzed using SPSS software. The overall mean ratings were calculated for each of the nineteen personnel practices and rankings for the personnel practices were examined. Organizational commitment was measured using the 15-item Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982) in which statistical analysis performed on responses categorized respondents according to level of commitment to the organization (high, medium, low). The survey instrument also included demographic information including age, gender, education, and number of children.

The sample was divided into the three categories: high, moderate, and low commitment levels. The mean of each of the 18 personnel practices was calculated and the practices ranked by level of commitment. The findings of study indicate that 65% of respondents scored above 5.00 (on a 1 to 7 scale) indicating a high organizational commitment. This was followed by 31% of the respondents scoring at the moderate organizational commitment level. Only four percent of the respondents scored at the low organizational commitment category. The findings support that the majority of the employees (96%) based on their own perception, have a high to moderate commitment level to the organization. Figures 2,3, and 4 graphically depict the various rankings of the personnel practices by perceived organizational commitment levels.

Figure 2. Ranking of Personnel Practices
Low Organizational Commitment Level

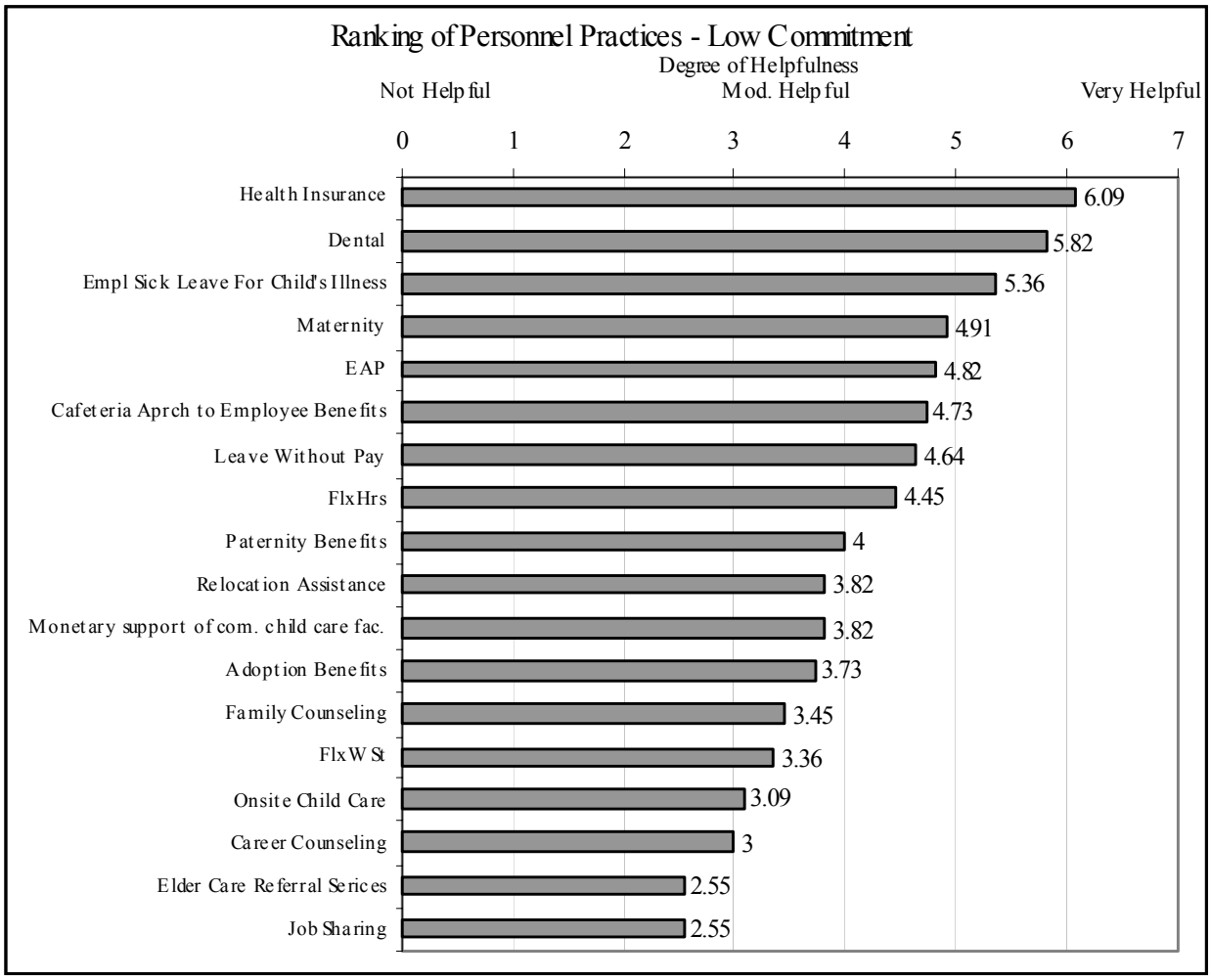


Figure 3. Ranking of Personnel Practices
Moderate Organizational Commitment Level

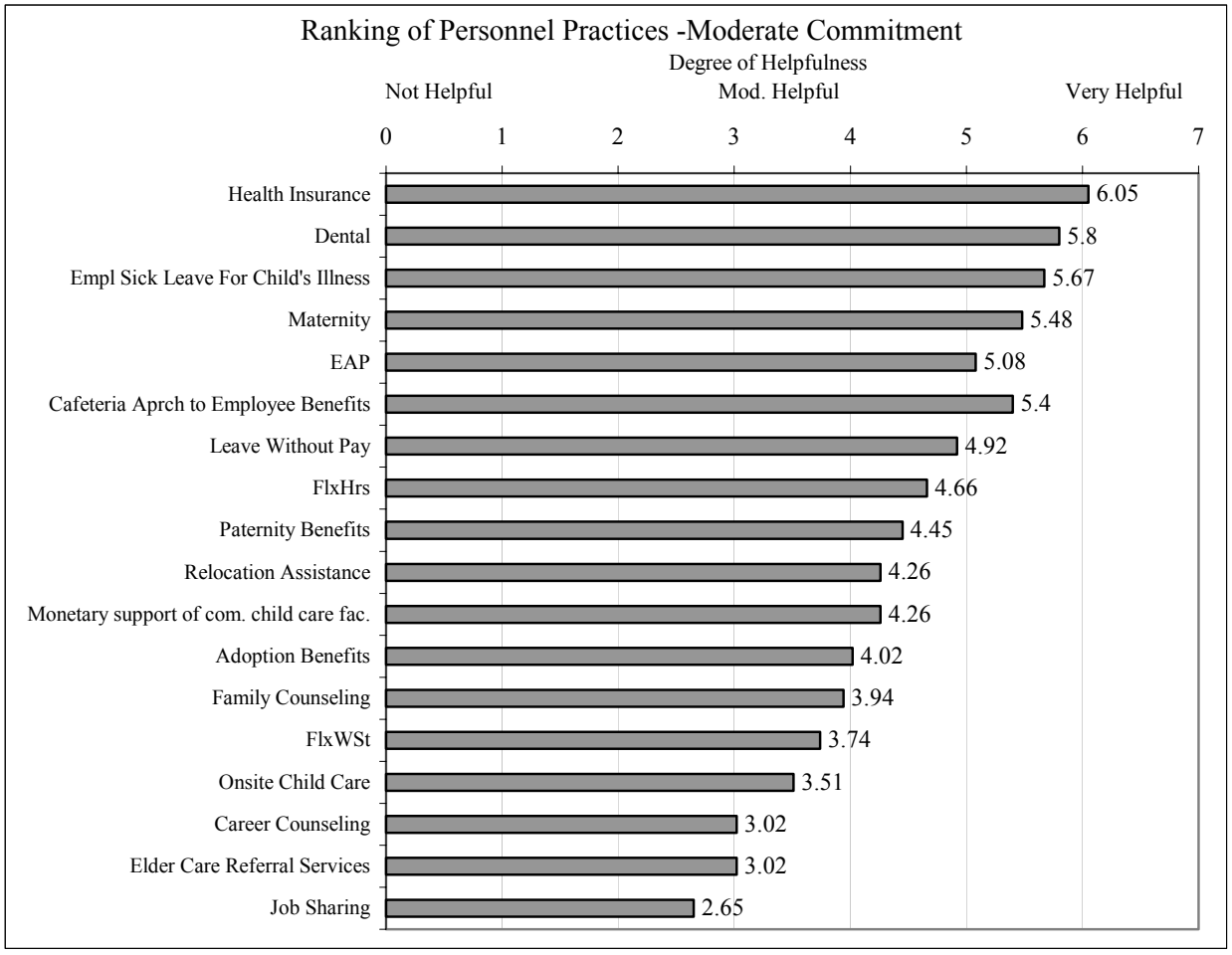
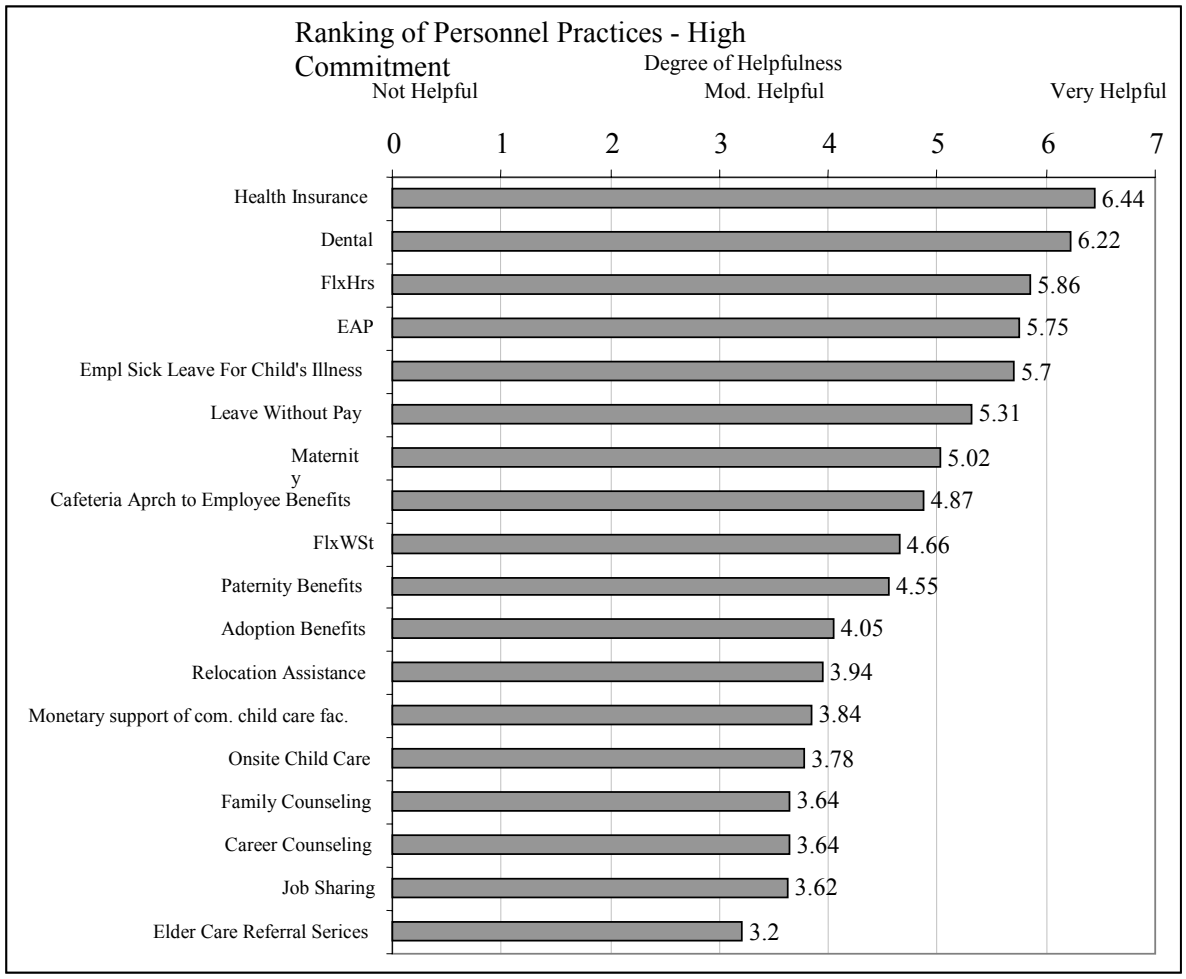


Figure 4. Ranking of Personnel Practices
High Organizational Commitment Level



SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The findings of study indicate that 65% of respondents scored above 5.00 (on a 1 to 7 scale) indicating a high organizational commitment. This was followed by 31% of the respondents scoring at the moderate organizational commitment level. Only four percent of the respondents scored at the low organizational commitment category. The findings support that the majority of the employees (96%) based on their own perception, have a high to moderate commitment level to the organization based upon the result of the scores of the organizational commitment questions used in the study.

The study suggests little difference in the ratings of personnel practices among the three groups (high commitment level, moderate commitment level, low commitment level). All respondents regardless of commitment level ranked health insurance as the number one personnel practice that helps alleviate work-life conflict. This is followed by dental benefits. All respondents ranked elder care referral services and career counseling among the bottom three

(ranking in the position of 16,17, or18) indicating that members of dual-career families perceive those personnel practices as least helpful in managing work-life conflicts.

To determine statistically if there is a significant difference among the three groups, t-tests were used at a confidence level of 95%. Subjects with moderate organizational commitment perceived flexible work hours as significantly more helpful in alleviating work-life conflict as subjects with low commitment to the organization. Eldercare referral, family counseling, career counseling, and health insurance were perceived as significantly more supportive of home and family by subjects high in organizational commitment than those subjects with moderate organizational commitment. Subjects with high organizational commitment perceived flexible working hours and flexible worksites as significantly more helpful in managing work-life conflict than subjects with low organizational commitment.

Linear regression analysis used to evaluate commitment level with the ranking of the personnel practices indicated little findings of linearity between the commitment levels and the subjects' perception of supportiveness of each of the personnel practice. Analysis of Pearson's r Correlation Matrix indicates that all 18 personnel practices congregate within a range from -0.03417 to 0.1811589 (near 0), statistically indicating that commitment level is not directly related to the perceptual ranking of any of the personnel practices.

Literature supports that increased satisfaction of workers due to implementation of programs that help them balance the stress of work-life conflict may increase productivity, employee morale, and overall corporate productivity. The 1997 National Study of the Changing Workforce (NSCW) found that employees with more supportive work places as well as better quality jobs are more likely to have: (a) higher levels of job satisfaction; (b) more commitment to their company's success; (c) greater loyalty to their companies; and (d) a strong intention to remain with the company. The NSCW also found that employees with more demanding jobs and less supportive workplaces experience more stress, poor coping, and less energy off the job.

The research addressed in this study expands the body of knowledge of human resources by examining the needs of dual-career families in working America and the development of personnel practices to meet those needs. The survey instrument used in this study offers employers a survey tool that can be implemented in their respective organizations. It allows organizations to independently examine perceived employee commitment to the organization as well as the employees' perception of personnel practices they find most supportive in alleviating work-life stress. This may lead organizational leaders to re-examine personnel practices to better meet the needs of dual-career families. From the findings, business strategies can be developed by human resource managers to more effectively allocate financial resources to provide personnel practices that are perceived as most supportive by their employees. The underlying result for the organization is the potential for increased employee morale, productivity, and job satisfaction.

AUTHOR'S NOTE

Content and face validity research of the survey instrument can be obtained by contacting the author. Also, a list of participating companies can be obtained by contacting the author. Due to the limitations set on page numbers, the survey instruments were not included in this condensed version of the findings. Inquiries can be made regarding the survey instrument and the availability of the author to conduct independent research for businesses by replicating the study by contacting the author kbruning@nmc.edu.

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COMMUNICATION AND EFFECTIVE LABOR MANAGEMENT RELATIONS

Gerald E. Calvasina, Southern Utah University
calvasina@suu.edu
Richard V. Calvasina, University of West Florida
rcalvasi@uwf.edu
Eugene J. Calvasina, Southern University
ejcalvasina@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

In spite of the steady decline in union membership and density over the last forty years, organized labor continues to be a viable element in the US economy. Employers wish to remain non-union for a number of reasons, the most basic being that unions negatively affect profits. The purpose of this paper is to examine policy and practice issues associated with an employer's ability to effectively communicate a non-union strategy prior to the commencement of a National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) supervised election campaign. Policy issues examined include the relevant portions of the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA) and recent court cases. Practice issues include suggested strategies to legally communicate the employer's non-union position.

WHY EMPLOYERS WISH TO REMAIN NON-UNION

Employers wish to remain non-union for a number of reasons, the most basic being that unions negatively affect profits. Numerous studies have reported lower profits and lower levels of investment associated with unionized firms (Addison and Hirsch, 1989, Kleiner, 2001). Addison and Hirsch comprehensive review of the effects of unions on the economic performance of business showed that unions negatively affect profits (Addison and Hirsch, 1989). Pressure placed on individual managers to remain non-union is also intense. Freeman and Kleiner found that "managers in U.S. firms are much more likely to lose their jobs, be sent out for further training, or dramatically reduce their chance of being promoted if unions attempt to organize their establishment or obtain a collective bargaining agreement" (Freeman and Kleiner, 1990).

Management resistance and employer efforts to remain non-union over time have been found to be at least partially responsible for the steady decline in union membership and density in the United States over the last forty years. Kleiner estimated that as much as forty percent of the decline in private sector union membership can be attributed to the intensity of management opposition to unions (Kleiner, 2001). Kleiner also concluded that "managerial incentives to stop unionization are formidable" and is driven in part by enhanced managerial accountability to share-holders and greater emphasis on tying managerial compensation to performance. With the added emphasis on raising productivity utilizing workplace practices associated with high-performance or lower wages, management has been more willing to "vigorously" resists unions so decision makers can "make decisions on personnel quickly without challenges from employees or due process" commonly associated with a unionized workforce (Kleiner, 2001). The number of employees who were covered by a collective bargaining agreement declined from 26.5 percent in 1977 to 14.3 percent in 2003. The percentage of employees who are union members also declined from 23.8 percent in 1977 to 12.9 percent in 2003 (Hirsch and Macpherson, 2003).

WHY WORKERS JOIN-SOFT ISSUES

In spite of the steady decline in union membership and density, organized labor continues to be a viable element in the US economy, and in spite of management efforts both legal and illegal to resists unionization, workers continue to join. While the number of representation elections has declined over time, in recent years organized labor's success rate in winning elections has improved.

So, why are employees still voting for union representation? Jonathan A. Segal in a 1996 HR Magazine article makes a strong case for the impact of "soft issues" on employee unionization efforts and he details ten reasons why employees still find unionization an attractive alternative.

Recognition
Protection from Humiliation
Hopelessness
Double Standards
Lack of Control
Job Insecurity
Job Anxiety
Representation
Protection from Change
Broken Promises (Segal, 1996).

Many of the reasons identified by Segal as helping to create a "union-friendly environment" are related to ineffective communication on the part of various levels of management. For example, first line supervisors who focus most of their attention on poorly performing employees tend to ignore employees who are doing a good job. This is often compounded by top management's fear of wrongful discharge litigation that results in reluctance to fire employees who may deserve to be terminated. The failure to communicate to those employees who deserve recognition for a job well done, coupled with the reinforcement of mediocre employees' performance can create anxiety among all employees making unionization an attractive alternative (Segal, 1996). Supervisors who "play favorites" reinforce the perceived inequity associated with employees and the perception of double standards can further cultivate a union-friendly environment. Supervisors who utilize harassment and humiliation may also spur employee interests in unionization. Segal believes that "humiliation by an unfair supervisor is one of the most common sparks for precipitating interest in a union", and that the "humiliated employee becomes the cause celebre and, eventually, the union organizer" (Segal, 1996, p. 112).

The overriding theme in Segal's article is the importance of effective communication from all levels of management, most notably from first line supervisors. First line supervisors are the members of management that the vast majority of employees in most organizations have the most interaction with and, the quality of the relationship between employees and their immediate supervisors is often "the single most important variable in employee productivity and loyalty (Robbins and Coulter, 2005, p. 4). They are also often the members of management with the least amount of background, training, and experience when it comes to communication skills. Without effective training, this most important member of the management team can be the prime ingredient in creating a union-friendly environment.

LEGAL BACKGROUND

Section 7 of the National Labor Relations Act (NLRA) provides employees with the right to…

> *form, join, or assist labor organizations to bargain collectively through representatives of their own choosing, and to engage in other concerted activities for the purpose of collective bargaining or other mutual aid or protection (NLRA, 7, 1935).*

To facilitate enforcement of employee Section 7 rights, Section 8 of the NLRA prohibits employers from interfering with, restraining, or coercing employees in the exercise of their right to self-organization. Included among the prohibitions in this regard, are prohibitions against employers threatening, interrogating, or conducting unlawful surveillance of employees in an effort to dissuade employees from unionization. It is important to note, that these prohibitions apply to both union and non-union employers and many employers in non-union organizations find out the hard way about the protections granted to their employees by the NLRA. It is not necessary that the employees be members of a labor union nor that a union organizing drive be underway for the employees' Section 7 rights to exists. Over time, employee rights to engage in concerted activity under the NLRA have been broadly construed by the courts and a wide variety of efforts of employees to join together for mutual aid or protection have qualified as protected concerted activity "even if those employees are not represented by or attempting to form a union" (Walsh, 2004, p. 363).

While the clear purpose of the NLRA as passed in 1935 was to promote collective bargaining as a means to help stabilize the American economy, subsequent amendments to the Act have enhanced the employers' ability to communicate to employees their opinion on why employees should not support unionization. Bottom line, employers are "entitled to exercise their freedom of speech to lawfully advise employees about unionization as long as they don't threaten employees with any consequences for unionizing or promise employees that the terms and conditions of employment will improve if they choose not to unionize"(Buttrick, 2003).

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION – POLICY AND PRACTICE ISSUES

The development of an effective proactive communication strategy is key to a more positive, less union-friendly employee relations climate. From an employee relations standpoint, waiting for a formal unionization effort to commence before addressing the issues can create an environment where even if an employer can win any subsequent battles with organized labor, the damage to the employee relations climate may be beyond repair. Too often today, employers confronted with unionization efforts resort to time consuming campaigns of fear and intimidation to thwart efforts by disgruntled employees attempting to form unions (Zellner, 2002 and Tellespen Pipeline Services Company, 2003). The success that employers enjoy in roughly half of all union elections is often short lived given that in many cases the employers focus on winning the election and not addressing the underlying factors that led to the election. In these cases, employers have a tendency to go back to business as usual and subsequently find themselves fighting the same situation over and over again (Imberman, 1980).

An effective employer communication strategy designed to create a positive employee relations climate must start with the design of policies and systems to facilitate a two-way flow of information. In order to determine if an organization is a potential target for union organizing, Newman suggests conducting a self audit (Newman, 2003). While Newman's audit

suggestions focus on deficiencies in wages, benefits, and general dissatisfaction, the concept can easily be extended to include the employer's communication strategy.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

While U.S. union membership coverage and density continues to decline, the American labor movement continues to mount efforts to reverse the decline. In recent years, unions have devoted increasing resources directed at attracting new members. New tactics, including the use of the internet to communicate organized labor's messages, have also been employed. Employers that wish to remain non-union must develop and maintain a positive employee relations climate. Critical to creation of such an environment requires an effective communication strategy. A strategy that must be implemented from the very beginning of an employee's association with the organization and throughout their tenure. As with any strategy, the organization must continually monitor and periodically audit the performance of their strategy. This includes achievement of internal strategic goals and benchmarking externally with competing organizations. Specifically, attention must be focused on communication tools including orientation materials, employee handbooks, and newsletters. All must be monitored for accuracy, relevance, and truthfulness. The communication skills of all supervisory personnel must be developed, assessed, and maintained. Primary supervisory duties and associated communication skills that should be addressed include performance appraisal skills including communication of expectations and feedback on performance. The use of recognition and discipline including the proper time, place and message content. Most important, organizations must help all managers develop and practice effective listening.

Engaging in proactive – positive employee relations, implemented through an effective communication strategy, will facilitate most organizations efforts to remain non-union.

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MULTIFACETED COMMUNICATION ROLES OF EMPLOYEE NEWSLETTERS

Barbara D. Davis, The University of Memphis
bddavis@memphis.edu
Roberta H. Krapels, The University of Mississippi
bkrapels@bus.olemiss.edu
Rebecca McCarty, The University of Mississippi
rmccarty@bus.olemiss.edu

ABSTRACT

In many instances the value of internal communication is often underestimated as companies concentrate more on external marketing; however, research indicates that strategic advantages result for companies that exhibit strong internal communications. Newsletters can give employees a tangible link to each other as well as to the company. A review of newsletters confirmed the positive value of in-house publications today.

INTRODUCTION

Company personnel receive most of their organizational information from the grapevine, but prefer to get it from either their immediate supervisor or from in-house company publications (Burke, 1996). Internal publications have proven to be a link to bottom-line gains ("The Best Policy, " 2004) and have established a positive relationship with perceptions of the firm (De Bussy, 2003; Grates, 1999/2000).

Employees most often request information about how to do their job, desire knowledge of where their division or department fits in the overall scheme of things, and ask questions about the company's plans in the future (Bhasin, 1999). Many experts view internal communication as an internal marketing role of selling the firm's brand inside the company. This perspective of internal communication provides a strategic advantage to the firm because learning more about the company, its future plans, and their role in the overall goals allows employees to make a powerful, emotional connection with the organization (Mitchell, 2002). All internal communication must integrate the context of corporate strategy and be directed toward meeting objectives or reporting results of employee achievement of goals (Brandon, 1997). The role of internal communication has evolved to include creating understanding among employees through clarification and translation into action, not simply distributing information (Quirke, 2003).

ROLES OF INTERNAL PUBLICATIONS

Publications provide employees with a tangible communication tool through which a range of work-related information can be relayed as well, as imply that management cares enough to provide a publication just for them. Publications result in employees feeling ownership when they can see their work as an integral role in the ultimate success of the organization (Mitchell, 2002). Newsletters consistently provide motivation, especially if employees are geographically located far from the corporate headquarters (Grates, 1999/2000).

Another role of publications is to prepare employees for and to unify them during and after times of transition such as acquisitions or mergers. Newsletter information can reinforce

that everyone belongs, which is one way of helping employees from both firms identify with the newly formed company more quickly (Fee, 2003).

Whether motivating the employees to believe in the company's mission, to achieve higher productivity, to comply with a new procedure, or to learn about updated benefits, the newsletter's central focus is providing value to employees. Within many large corporations, different types of employees need their own specific publication (Argenti, 1998), and the company intranet provides an excellent means of providing one group of employees with specific job-related messages (Sosnin, 2001). Another extremely important capacity of internal publications is making employees feel respected as a stakeholder in the firm, which can be achieved through personal content inherent in newsletters (Brandon, 1997). An in-house publication is also a means by which managers are able to lead subordinates as they relay their departmental needs to employees (Sosnin, 2001) through various media publications.

TYPES, PUBLICATION, AND CONTENT OF IN-HOUSE NEWSLETTERS

Printed employee newsletters are the oldest and most common examples of in-house publications. Even in today's technologically advanced world, most companies have chosen not to replace this traditional type of publication because of the distinct advantages printed newsletters have over their hi-tech counterparts. Organizations producing multiple internal publications rely on their printed newsletters for longer, complex stories, photos, and complex artwork (Pretzer, 1995). The tangible nature of the printed newsletter often provides for greater comprehension since employees can go back and read articles again to be sure they understand. Employees are generally receptive to printed newsletters because of the high comfort level they have built by reading daily newspapers. Printed newsletters are also able to communicate personality and a true feel for the organization. A printed newsletter is most likely received by all employees, unlike an intranet or posted employee information, which many individuals might not go online to read.

E-newsletters are similar to printed newsletters as far as content, recipients, and timing with the primary difference in their distribution, which is generally email. One drawback to e-newsletters is that most are very simplistic (little colors or graphics) in order to be accessible on any type of computer an employee may be using. E-newsletters are published more often than printed newsletters and enable companies to keep employees informed with the latest company news and/or department or job area developments. Employees can receive their newsletter wherever they have computer access, whether they are at their desk, in their home, on the road, or even on vacation (Pretzer, 1995).

Netscape estimated in 1996 that 90 percent of all Fortune 1000 companies were utilizing intranets (Schlumberger, 2002). Essentially, an intranet allows only internal users the ability to access newsletter contents. Intranets may be considered under the "in-house publication" designation because, like printed and electronic newsletters, the information on an intranet must be written and edited plus an overall layout must be designed. Companies with significant capital and technological resources, large numbers of employees, or geographically diverse locations are the most likely candidates for intranet use as their central internal publication (Mitchell, 2002). Advantages associated with intranets include cost savings, effectiveness, and instantaneous communication. Once the technological infrastructure is in place, no costs are incurred in posting and publishing information on the company intranet. Many managers and experts believe the multimedia elements (such as sound, video, and animation) that are common parts of intranets provide a more familiar medium to intrigue employees, heightening their retention and receptiveness of the communication (Busch, 1996).

Many companies choose to outsource their employee publications rather than producing them in-house. An organization must weigh the costs of resources against the cost of

outsourcing. Firms hired through outsourcing are able to provide a number of services to companies including producing an entire publication unique to the company or creating only the layout or design elements of a publication (Phang, 2003) as well as coupling web-based services along with the printed publication and providing filler material for companies to insert into their own publications created in-house (Matthis, 1996).

Typically, the employees responsible for producing in-house newsletters are housed under the corporate communication or human resources department. Many experts believe that human resources professionals should not be held responsible for publications simply because they do not have marketing and communication skills essential for effective publications, especially when an internal branding campaign is in action (Mitchell, 2002). On the other hand, a 2002 survey of leading international blue-chip companies revealed that 38 percent of internal communication heads reported to human resources, up from 20 percent in 2002 (Quirke, 2003).

Clearly with these two functions responsible for publications in management rather than journalism areas, objective reporting in company newsletters is not guaranteed (Johansen, 1995), since the content passes through a filter management deems appropriate regarding the company's stance on issues and the level of openness it wishes to sharing information with employees. Accordingly, the CEO or a top executive often requires input or censorship of publication content prior to printing, and it is best for the employee(s) responsible to be proactive (Phang, 2003).

The person(s) in charge should solicit as much input from across the company as possible (Matthis, 1996) to ensure that the total organization is well represented. The mere presence of an article communicates to employees the notion that management endorses an idea (Hanson, 2004). A common practice is to include a column written by the CEO that discusses an important point or timely factor (Matthis, 1996). If one publication is distributed throughout an organization with plants in different countries, the publication must be scrutinized to insure policies that vary among the plants are discussed carefully. Providing information not relevant to all employees can create confusion or, worse, elicit a negative response from employees who perceive their treatment to be less preferential than others.

In the mid-1990's, the top six topics employees were most interested in learning from management included company plans, personnel policies, productivity data, job-related information, promotion opportunities, and external information related to their employment with personal content areas such as stories about other employees and personal news ranked significantly lower (Pretzer 1994). Newsletters can also focus on relating serious issues in society and the corporate world, such as sexual harassment, diversity, or health care.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

A convenience sample of 50 firms yielded 30 in-house newsletters. Each of the authors asked friends if their employer had an in-house publication. If the response was affirmative, the person provided a copy of the publication he or she saw most often. Firms with newsletters included communications (1), retail (2), government (3), healthcare (4), manufacturing (7), and service (13). Exactly half of the firms published in each of the two primary formats, with 50 percent providing print publications and 50 percent providing electronic publications. The largest single group (50%) provided weekly newsletters; however, one company sent daily e-mail newsletters (the most frequent), while 17 percent published quarterly newsletters (the least frequent). With 73 percent of the newsletters including graphics, the most common feature was employee pictures (57%), with tables (48%) running a close second. Content of articles is shown in the table; totals exceed the number of newsletters due to multiple articles in topic areas in several publications.

One of the in-house electronic newsletters was 100% technical information, going only to individuals within a very specialized area in that firm; however, that firm published other e-mail newsletters for special groups as well as a printed company newsletter, copies of which were not received. Only healthcare, manufacturing, and service companies offered discussion of regulatory changes within their industry in their newsletters. Plus, only one manufacturing firm included a 'bad' news article—a plant closure.

Employee awards, recognition, and announcements	77
General company news	54
Community service information	31
Health and safety information or tips	22
Motivation	12
IT information	11
Policy changes	10
Employee benefit information	8
Messages from management	8
Calendar of upcoming events	7
Regulatory information	5
Diversity issues	5
Miscellaneous (ads, bad news, crosswords, comics, etc.)	28

CONCLUSIONS

Although few articles were purely motivational in content, the 'pats on back' articles established that morale building is definitely a primary intent of today's newsletters. The glossy magazine-like publications were a source of employee pride, and the payroll inserts (one was 16 pages) insured everyone received a copy. Most publications focused on information rather than employee 'brainwashing' as did company newsletters of years ago. Newsletters confirm the importance of recognizing the value of employees, defining recent decisions or policies, and contributing to employee personal and professional growth.

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THE VALUE OF HUMAN CAPITAL: SUPPORTING EMPOWERMENT STRATEGIES

Robert V. Fiermonte, Saint Leo University
Guido1@tampabay.rr.com
Kelly Bruning, Northwestern Michigan College
kbruning@nmc.edu

ABSTRACT

For many organizations, management achieves control by utilizing employees as nothing more than a conduit or tool between management decisions and task completion. The belief is that by managing every action and by reviewing and approving every decision, organizational leadership can limit the negative consequences resulting from the unpredictability of human behavior and, as a result, direct the drive toward successful attainment of organizational goals. Leaders and managers that cluster decision-making and micromanage their employees may gain control, but they lose the unique values of intelligence and experience, both of which are necessary toward long-term organizational viability and success. Conversely, organizations that recognize and properly use the knowledge and skills of their employees are more likely to be more efficient and profitable than those organizations that exert high-levels of control (Barker, 1992) (Elmuti 1997) (Kahn 1997). Of the multiple methodologies for taking positive advantage of human capital, the process of organizational empowerment is possibly the most powerful. Managers that recognize this and implement supporting empowerment strategies in their respective organizations, create an opportunity for increased productivity while also decreasing absenteeism and employee turnover. The research also indicates that supporting employee empowerment strategies could lead to enhanced customer service, more effective communication, higher job satisfaction, and may lead to positive effects in changing the organization's corporate culture.

INTRODUCTION AND IMPACT OF EMPOWERMENT

There are many variations to the definition of empowerment; however, they can all be simplified to reflect that; empowerment comes from the vesting and delegation of authority. Paul, R., Niehoff, B., & Turnley, W., (2000) equated empowerment as the process where authority and responsibility are passed to individuals at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy who have the information and knowledge necessary to work independent of managerial control. Also, Gandz (1990) explained that empowerment only results when decision-making and approval authority is moved from being solely a management prerogative and is vested in employees.

Organizations that have successfully implemented empowerment strategies have discovered improvements in productivity, customer service, quality, absenteeism, and turnover (Fullam & Lando, 1998). Individual productivity has been discovered to increase in organizations practicing empowerment (Bluestone 1992). When employees find their jobs more meaningful, they have a more proactive perception of the organization and the organization's leadership. As a result, managers have higher levels of performance and employees make better job-related decisions. In fact, the more empowerment individuals are given, the more initiative they take (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Such increases in productivity by self-managed and empowered individuals and teams have been credited with "…saving hundreds of millions of

dollars, achieving conceptual breakthroughs and introducing an unparalleled number of new products" (Elmuti 1997 p. 234).

Individuals given both responsibility and authority take the initiative to handle and resolve customer complaints quickly and then use those complaints to identify, diagnose, and correct their own quality control and customer service issues (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). When vested with decision making authority, employees are more apt to make and fulfill personal service commitments to the customer. A good example would be the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) of the United States which is using empowerment strategies to overcome real and perceived customer service issues. Kahn (1997) explains that the IRS is using empowerment to improve work processes and streamline the flow of information across the organization in a conscious effort toward higher-quality service to its customers.

Kirkman and Rosen (1999) explained that the level of empowerment individuals have relates directly to their commitment to individual and organizational goals. This occurs because individuals who are empowered find more meaning in their jobs. This results in higher job satisfaction than that of those working in traditional decision-making organizations. Elmuti (1997) believes that "When employees are involved in the creation and progress of their operations, they are more interested in their jobs. Also, they are more likely to remain involved and committed to their work" (p.236). Higher satisfaction impacts the organization on multiple levels, including a more personal commitment toward quality, less absenteeism and reduced disciplinary problems that contribute to significantly lower turnover rates (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999).

A hallmark of successful empowerment strategy is increased communication. Organizations that practice open communication have discovered a greater level of employee understanding of organizational goals and objectives. This increased level of understanding, coupled with empowerment, successfully influences how employees cope and handle change. Open communication in an empowered environment appears to influence employee change behaviors, making them more receptive and thus, more participatory in achieving stated goals (Paul et al. 2000).

These factors make the organization more competitive in not only the consumer marketplace, but in the employment marketplace as well. Prospective employees, particularly at the managerial and executive levels view organizational empowerment as a benefit and are thus attracted to organizations with strong empowerment strategies.

EMPOWERING THE EMPLOYEE BY CHANGING THE ORGANIZATION

Empowerment involves major changes within an organization because it distributes power within the organization and brings about new roles for leaders, managers, and employees. Since it is such a dramatic transition for the organization and involves commitment at every level, it is important to remove the fear normally associated with change. Organizations successfully employ empowerment strategies by understanding how empowerment affects human behavior and by taking incremental steps to ensure successful and full empowerment implementation.

A positive work attitude reflects the commitment of an individual to an organization as exhibited by their job involvement and job performance (Somers & Birnbaum, 2000). Work attitudes directly influence individual work behavior and can be predicated upon multiple factors that include, but are not limited to, age and sense of security. The foundation of Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs theory provides that the basic or most "fundamental needs" of the individual are physiological (satisfying hunger, thirst, and so forth) and safety (feeling secure) oriented (Vander Zanden, 2000). As individuals move through each successive developmental stage, the focus on these foundational elements of Maslow's hierarchy becomes predominant.

As these issues move to the forefront, job security becomes more important and job insecurity becomes a factor influencing on-the-job behavior. These issues are resolved when individuals achieve the top rung of Maslow's Hierarchy, "Self-Actualization."

Empowerment activities help individual achieve self-actualization by fostering a sense of commitment and acceptance by the organization and their peers. Empowerment activities predicate an individual's perception of self-actualization because they: (Gomez & Rosen, 2001; Fullam & Lando, 1998)

1. validate individual professional or work competence.
2. confirm through individual experience that empowerment activities directly impact organizational successes
3. psychologically corroborate that meaning is achieved from work activities.
4. allow for expansion of personal and professional control. This is achieved by garnering managerial trust by engaging in positive and productive work-related activities.
5. recognize individual contributions and risk taking

Rohan and Sturgen (1994) recommended that following steps be taken by any organization seeking to successfully implement empowerment:

Empowerment cannot take place overnight. It requires buy-in from every member of the organization. Elmuti 1997 explains that an organizationally "… strong commitment to the employee empowerment process is quite possibly the most important aspect of a long-term, successful empowerment programme" (p.240). The organization first prepares by identifying what they expect from the empowerment process and ascertain the specific level of empowerment authority, responsibility, and expectations to be granted for every position. This information can then be communicated in a non-threatening way, allowing for two-way communication. As a result, the organization makes sure everyone understands and accepts the new process by making sure information is readily available to answer potential questions and concerns. The organization will benefit from giving sufficient time to allow everyone to digest their new roles and responsibilities and thus individually prepare for the change.

Managers should provide the necessary information to ensure that every individual in the organization understands not just the empowerment roll-out or implementation process, but what empowerment means; how it will impact them (individuals, via their unit, department, and so forth). This can be achieved through formal training, information dissemination via organizational mail or intranet, or simply through one-on-one mentoring between managers and subordinates. Dew (1995) prefers formal training as a basis for empowerment acceptance because it provides greater latitude to change or alter perceptions and thus helps to insure new, wanted, behaviors are learned. The development of successful decision-making skills can occur when primary training is provided, experience is garnered and then follow-up training is provided to build upon that experience (Gandz, 1990).

Successfully changing the organization's culture to accept empowerment requires a firm commitment from everyone, but particularly at the executive level. Those traits expected at the lowest levels of the organization must first be role modeled at the top. Others will then seek to emulate the positive behaviors. Additionally, Gandz (1995) suggested that commitment is further solidified when the benefits derived from the successful implementation of empowerment strategies are fairly and equally shared throughout the organization.

SUPPORTING THE EMPOWERMENT STRATEGY

Empowerment success requires an organizational commitment to strategies that support and bolster it. Support strategies include training, rewards, performance evaluations, discipline

and recruiting. Without a long-term commitment by the organization to these activities, an empowerment initiative is doomed to fail (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999).

These responsibilities normally fall within the bailiwick of the organization's Human Resource (HR) department (in small organizations senior management assumes responsibility), which must take aggressive and continuous action to facilitate the empowerment activities. At a minimum, the following support activities are required:

Position descriptions must be rewritten to identify not only job performance expectations, but also specifically outline the level and type of empowerment for every employee position. Doing so not only clarifies power sharing and decision-making levels, but a written description can also have in a positive psychological impact on the employee (Paul, et al. 2000). A well-written and accurate position description is also a good recruiting tool.

One of the most significant support activities to ensure a successful empowerment strategy is training because it introduces, explains, and reinforces the organizations empowerment objectives. Empowerment training in particular must include elements that build, support, and maintain organization-employee trust (Somers & Birnbaum, 2000).

What impedes the training activity is cost. It not only costs the organization to deliver the training, but also costs the organization in terms of lost time and productivity because individuals are attending training instead of doing their jobs. Short-term results from training rarely occur, although studies show that training has a very positive and productive long-term impact on the organization. Because immediate results are often absent, training can be viewed as unproductive time. These perceptions often lead executive leadership to cut or reduce the training budget. The HR director or support activity must aggressively ensure that the funding for training is kept adequate to meet the needs of the organization.

Processes for recruiting and hiring personnel differ in an empowered organization. The support activity must develop processes to identify and select employment candidates who are not only capable of performing required task, but also have the skills to handle empowerment responsibilities (Gandz, 1990). To successfully do this, the HR activity needs to be actively involved in helping managers write accurate position descriptions. When required skills, talents and core competencies are correctly identified, initial candidate screening becomes much easier, and prospective employees identified for interview are more likely to meet the organization's needs.

Additionally, in empowered organizations, every employee can be expected to assist in the recruiting, interviewing, and selection of new team members. This activity is important because the new individual will, at a minimum be a team peer. As a consequence, many employees want to help to identify and select the individual who will best support team goals. Activities which support the inclusion of employees in the recruiting, interviewing, and selection process actively reinforce empowerment paradigms and create positive change behaviors throughout the organization..

In an empowered organization performance evaluations will need to be redesigned to accurately identify and reflect the evaluated employee's true measure of performance (Gandz, 1990). Depending upon the organization, this may include two-way performance measurements in which supervisor and subordinate evaluate each other or 360-degree measurements in which supervisors, subordinates, and peers evaluate performance. Identifying, building, and then implementing such performance measures, especially when they go counter to existing management evaluation experience, is extremely difficult and can be expensive depending upon the size and structure of the organization. Studies have shown that 360 performance evaluations support empowerment, have a greater impact on employee development, and provide a perception of equitable distribution of rewards (Fullam & Lando 1990).

EMPLOYEE CONCERNS

Organizational leadership/management must be careful not to assume that all employees will enthusiastically welcome an empowerment strategy. Sharing power and decision-making with employees only works if the employee wants it to. Employees have serious and valid concerns about empowerment that should be addressed.

Employees may be unwilling to accept or use new empowerment authority if they are afraid of arbitrary actions (discipline, loss of promotion opportunities, or loss of job for acting in good faith) taken by management when they disagree with employee-based decisions. Without protection against perceived or predicted management actions employees will not embrace the new empowerment paradigm (Paul, et al. 2000; Darling, 1996).

Employees may perceive an empowerment strategy as a way for the organization to unfairly make them more responsible without a commensurate rise in wages and salary. This is a difficult concern for management to address, but failure to at least attempt to address this issue can doom the empowerment initiative (Paul, et al. 2000).

Employees may distrust empowerment initiatives if organizational reward systems are not altered to recognize the shift in responsibility and authority (Gandz, 1990). Only when employees perceive that organizational reward processes are fair can this concern be alleviated.

Additionally, employees can often place unintended meaning into empowerment based activities. As a result, they may feel entitled to additional tangible and intangible benefits. When those expected benefits are not delivered this causes a "breach of the psychological contract between employer and employee" (Paul, et al. 2000, p. 471). Such a breach can deter expected empowerment behaviors or result in negative behaviors.

Employees may fear that an empowerment initiative is a diversion from managements true intent. For empowerment to work, organizational leaders cannot use it to hide a different agenda. Brown (2001) argued that many employers roll out empowerment programs to placate workers, while still holding back real authority and decision making at the managerial level. These false empowerment initiatives vest only limited or "monitored" authority to lower level employee. These methods routinely backfire, resulting in lower employee moral, higher turnover rates, and an embedded distrust in management.

MANAGEMENT CONCERNS

Managers are not immune to the employee concerns. In fact, managers have to be concerned not only with how empowerment impacts them personally, but also how the new initiatives will impact their work and work teams.

A predominant managerial concern during implementation is that empowerment equates to a loss of personal and position power. This may or may not stem from a change in the flattening of the organization, leading to a perception of loss of hierarchical position and the corresponding loss of position power. As a result, managers may resist, either consciously or unconsciously, any change in decision-making.

Successfully implementing empowerment initiatives is expensive. There are support, training, salary and reward costs (Paul, et al. 2000). Often leadership directs the initiation of empowerment strategies without taking into account the cost of change. Managers are then expected to successfully implement the change, without corresponding and needed increases in their budgets, and are held accountable when they are unsuccessful. Because of these expectations, managers may only "go through the motions" of executing empowerment strategies.

Organizational leadership must also simultaneously attempt to change the organizational culture by sustaining the empowerment initiative in the long- term. Kirkman & Rosen (1999) indicate that leaders can deal with many concerns and provide a foundation of success if they:

1. Make sure everyone, leaders, managers, and employees are trained to exhibit and practice those behaviors which encourage individual problem solving
2. Ensure managers set high individual and team expectations and then allow team members the freedom to achieve set goals and reward appropriately
3. Increase the responsibility of individuals and team members in service delivery. Allow the person dealing with the customer to diagnose the problem and deliver the solution.
4. Provide access to the information and resources necessary for empowered individuals to do their jobs and make decisions.
5. Mandate and then budget for initial and follow-up training. Train every empowered individual in those skills they are expected to use in decision-making.
6. Make sure wages and reward systems are fair.

This list provides a foundation for managers to implement to deflect the erosion of confidence of the empowerment initiative. Competition is driving the organization to change, to become more efficient, more productive, and to be more responsive to client/customer concerns. Of the many strategies an organization can use to be competitive, empowerment remains the most significant. When empowerment strategies are correctly defined, the factors necessary to success are in place, and the concerns of employees at all levels reviewed, managed and resolved, the pieces are in place for a potential organizational paradigm shift. When empowerment works, the organization becomes more competitive, thus making it more attractive to investors, leading to increased capitalization, and in turn, providing the impetus for growth.

CONCLUSION

The concept of empowerment and its respective benefits is relatively easy to understand. While many large organizations claim to be interested in empowerment, or even go so far as to claim to actively practice it; the facts shows otherwise. It can only be assumed, from digesting the research evidence, that centralized authority, or simply the limiting of decision-making is the preferred method of management for many of these organizations. The reluctance of an organizations leadership to transfer and vest power and authority in their employees can cause ripple effects that negatively impact the organizations competitive position.

The way business is conducted is also rapidly changing requiring employees to respond rapidly in their decision making. Empowerment aids in reducing time needed to make decisions and/or get approval from upper management. In addition new technologies are shrinking the global marketplace. These technologies are allowing many small organizations to effectively compete with large corporations and multinational conglomerates on relatively equal footing. One of the primary reasons small businesses are able to successfully compete is that the size of their organization naturally forces decision-making authority to the lowest possible level. In larger businesses the complexity of the organization and its inherent bureaucracy are often the substitute for a "…effective and serious response to a major strategic issue (Piercy 1994). The aversion of managers and executives to implement empowerment initiatives may come from the fear of losing status as the result of losing authority, in other words; "Power by itself does not corrupt, but possibly the fear of losing power corrupts" (Yudhoyono 2001).

To implement an empowerment strategy, it is important that the organization not only be fully aware of the potential benefits of empowerment, but also those issues that may create

roadblocks toward success. The reluctance of management to give up authority is only a small part of the empowerment equation. Organizations need to also consider the reluctance of employees to accept additional authority and decision making. Some employees may see the additional responsibility as an unfair burden considering their position and salary within the organization. Fortunately, research indicates these employee concerns are in the minority.

The organization seeking to make empowerment a part of their core culture needs to develop methods to build trust between employees and management, most particularly, that management trust employees to make the right decisions. One way for the organization to build trust is to promote and encourage leadership styles that foster and encourage the act of empowerment. If the very top levels of the organization not only encourage transformational and democratic leadership styles, but actively pursue and use them as well, those styles will more likely be emulated throughout the business.

Empowerment success cannot be predicated on a top-down implementation approach. It also requires the commitment of those employees who will be empowered. As indicated above, some employee may not want the additional responsibilities and those that do, may expect additional compensation or rewards. Employee concerns and issues about empowerment should be dealt with on an equal basis as management concerns.

The support of an empowerment strategy clearly has positive effects and benefits for the organization. The key is long-term and honest commitment to the empowerment initiative by every member of the organization. Without true organizational commitment empowerment strategies will serve only as a well-defined, well-studied, and theoretically popular process rather than a cost-effective, competitive reality. Managers that implement supporting empowerment strategies in their respective organizations create an opportunity for increased productivity while also decreasing absenteeism and employee turnover. Empowerment strategies could also lead to enhanced customer service, more effective communication, higher job satisfaction, and contribute to positive effects in changing the organization's corporate culture.

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STUDENTS' KNOWLEDGE OF OFFICE POLITICS: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

Catherine G. Green, The University of Memphis
cggreen1@memphis.edu
Lillian H. Chaney, The University of Memphis
lchaney@Memphis.edu

ABSTRACT

Office politics, which is actually a game, goes on in most work environments. Students need to learn the rules so that when they enter the workplace they will be prepared to reap the rewards to which they are entitled. To determine students' knowledge of the rules of office politics, a survey that included ten statements related to office politics was administered to 481 university students. The area of office politics in which students were most knowledgeable related to dressing appropriately, while the area in which students were least knowledgeable related to truth telling and gossip.

INTRODUCTION

Office politics, as defined by Rozakis and Rozakis (1998), is "the strategies that intelligent people use in both public and private organizations to gain or maintain a competitive advantage in their careers" (p. 14). Cole's (1999) definition is similar; she says it is "about knowing and understanding how things are done and how to get things done" (p. 483). Getting things done will necessitate building relationships with the people with whom one works since careers are made or damaged on the basis of relationships (Frankel, 2004).

Another rule of office politics is that of showing loyalty and support for the supervisor. DuBrin (1990) points out that one's accomplishments are often a team effort that should be shared with one's supervisor. Making one's supervisor look good could result in a move up the corporate ladder as the supervisor moves up (Hawley, 2001). Employees with strong work skills who do not show support for their supervisors are less likely to succeed than are employees (even those with meager work skills) who support their supervisors (Bragg, 2004; Fisher, 2002).

Employees who have issues with some of the concepts of office politics need to understand that their ability or inability to use office politics effectively can advance or impede their careers (Beagrie, 2004). In fact, employees who are inept at office politics may be perceived as people who are not team players and not good candidates for promotion; they may also be viewed as persons who are untrustworthy and lack social skills and common sense ("FastCompany's Five Rules," 2003).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of the literature on office politics includes self-promotion, honesty and truth telling, flattery, gossip, favors and hidden motives, attire and grooming, and business socializing and etiquette.

Office politics involves self-promotion; perceptive employees know that they must make sure that their efforts and accomplishments are recognized (Kuzmitz, Sussman, Adams, & Raho, 2002). The best advice for self-promotion is to document all accomplishments; this will add strength when making a case for promotions and salary increases (DuBrin, 1990; Hawley, 2001).

Bixler and Dugan (2001) maintain that self-promotion should be an everyday consideration and should include such basics as maintaining integrity by keeping commitments, sending letters of appreciation and congratulations, being accessible, and having business cards readily available when meeting others. Watson (1999), too, recommends self-promotion, always taking into account what subordinates think about it, remembering to share rewards and express appreciation to subordinates for their work. Office décor, including a display of awards and certificates of achievement, can be used for self-promotion as long as it does not include a child's artwork and accessories that belong in one's home. According to Bixler and Dugan (2001), one's office décor should convey a message that is congruent with the person's business image and with the manner in which he or she wishes to be perceived.

Part of playing the game of office politics is making decisions on the extent to which one feels compelled to tell the truth in all situations. Honesty and truth telling, according to Cole (1999), should be a way of life in the workplace; however, being ruthlessly honest to the extent of trampling on other people's feelings is not recommended Gauging how much to tell requires skill and necessitates choosing words carefully and politically (Hawley, 2001).

Compliments (giving sincere praise in recognition of the efforts and accomplishments of others) are always appreciated (Mitchell, 1998). When it comes to the office politics game, however, Rozakis and Rozakis (1998) maintain that "flattery (excessive or insincere praise) will get you everywhere – if it's used properly" (p. 171). They further state that flattery is effective in influencing others and "creates a more pleasant office environment for everyone" (p. 171).

While office gossip in years past has not been considered in a positive light, it is currently being taken more seriously and is seen by some as a socializing force that improves employee morale. According to DuBrin (1990), "gossip fits directly into its use as a vehicle for building peer relationships" (p. 96). People who spread gossip must remember, however, that it is unwise to pass along negative information about someone unless it is factual and would soon be public knowledge (DuBrin, 1990). Employees who gossip, according to Beagrie (2004), may have hidden agendas, such as needing to fit into a group, so office colleagues should take such information at face value; however, those who spread gossip may find themselves ostracized (Dobson & Dobson, 2001). Gossip may be personal or professional. Responses to personal gossip should be noncommittal and limited; silence is an even better response. Such gossip should not, of course, be repeated (Bragg, 2004; James, 2003; Reed, 1999). The most valuable professional gossip – often 80 percent accurate -- includes job changes, while the least valuable gossip is related to personal affairs (DuBrin, 1990). Sharing professional gossip with one's supervisor is simply part of office politics (Rozakis & Rozakis, 1999). Information should be shared with one's supervisor before one's colleagues (Hawley, 2001).

Cole (1999) maintains that favors are "the absolute bottom line of what politics is all about" (p. 484). DuBrin (1990) states that "*quid pro quo* arrangements with others in the workplace are a standard way of getting things accomplished" (p. 93) and adds that granting favors is especially effective when favors are done with no expectation of receiving anything in return. Such generosity is usually remembered later when promotion decisions are made. Holden (2003) also emphasizes the importance of doing favors to building successful work relationships. Further, the person requesting a favor should remember that once another person has done the favor, he or she is owed a favor in return (Cole, 1999; "Fast Company's Five Rules," 2003). Holden (2003) recommends being open in one's dealings with other people; otherwise, people may sense a hidden agenda involving a lack of complete honesty and creating a reluctance to trust others. Regardless of hidden motives, doing favors is implicit in the workplace politics game.

Clothing is a powerful communicator and makes a difference in how individuals are perceived (Cole, 1999). One connection people often make is between a person's manner of dress and performance: "sloppy dress, sloppy mind, sloppy work" (Holden, 1998, p. 70).

Dressing appropriately for the job enhances one's corporate image, lends credibility to one's ideas and accomplishments, reflects the company culture, is appropriate to the stage in one's career (DuBrin, 1990). If the corporate culture is casual, employees should remember that it is wise to invest in high-quality casual clothing with high-quality accessories as well (Rozakis & Rozakis, 1998). According to Dobson and Dobson (2001), employees can make themselves more promotable by following the dress standards set by their organizational leaders. While some persons would consider conforming to the company's dress codes as a form of dishonesty, others know that doing so is simply good office politics. Employees on the way up should avoid dressing better than their supervisors (DeLuca, 1999). People who are well groomed, in addition to being well dressed, convey the message that they pay attention to detail. Good grooming supports an expensive outfit; a lack of good grooming destroys the overall image (Holden, 1998). Authors of books on office politics agree with DuBrin (1990) that, "Looking good when accomplishing something is as important as the accomplishment itself" (p. 23).

The people with whom one socializes in the organization can have an influence on one's career. Networking during business meals can cement relationships; deals are made during business meals (Rozakis & Rozakis, 1998). Hawley (2001) advises employees to accept and reciprocate invitations, especially those from those of higher rank. One should remember, however, not to bring up business at social events as this would be considered pushy (DeLuca, 1999). Business lunches provide employees with opportunities for showing their good manners and can, therefore, afford some political edge in the future. The right food and beverages at the right table in the right restaurant are all aspects of the power lunch that contribute to making a favorable impression; however, as DuBrin (1990) points out, the nonverbal message being conveyed by eating at one's desk says that the employee's work is too important for him to "engage in the frivolity of eating lunch out" (p. 81).

Using good table manners during business meals can send positive nonverbal messages about a person just as poor table manners can send negative nonverbal messages, giving the impression of carelessness about details (Cole, 1999). According to DuBrin (1990), using proper table manners will be noticed; using poor table manners will also be noticed but unfortunately in a way that could block career advancement.

Displaying good manners in other situations can project a positive image of oneself and the organization (DuBrin, 1990). Remembering names when mingling at corporate events (Rozakis & Rozakis, 1998), standing when visitors arrive, making appointments instead of dropping in unannounced, being diplomatic and sensitive to other people, and using bias-free language are all marks of a well-mannered person and are important qualities for a person with career aspirations who desires to play the office politics game successfully (Hawley, 2001). Bragg (2004) suggests that office politics includes getting along with everyone, exhibiting teamsmanship, avoiding whining and complaining, being seen, demonstrating good work skills, and being courteous and polite.

PURPOSE, PROCEDURES, FINDINGS, AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this research was to determine students' knowledge of office politics. Self-assessment exercises developed by DuBrin (1990) and Rozakis and Rozakis (1998) were the basis for a survey containing ten statements related to office politics. The 481 students at a large Mid-South university of approximately 20,000 students who responded were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement or disagreement with each of the statements provided using a five-point scale with five representing *Agree* and one representing *Disagree*. Demographic information on gender, age, student classification, and major (business or nonbusiness) was also requested. Slightly more than half (50.3%) of respondents were female,

73% were under age 25, 91.5% were classified as undergraduates, and 68.8% were business majors.

The statement on the survey with which the largest number of students agreed was *Dressing appropriately for the job is important since appropriate attire lends credibility to your ideas and accomplishments (mean of 4.55)*. (This response indicates agreement with office politics mavens.) The statement with which most students disagreed was *Tell your supervisor the office gossip, even when you are not sure it is true (mean of 3.75)*. (Office politics authors recommend passing along office gossip to one's supervisor, so this response by students represented a lack of knowledge of office politics.) The determination of whether statements were correct or incorrect was based on books on office politics by authors Dobson and Dobson (2001), DuBrin (1990), Holden (1998, 2003), and Rozakis and Rozakis (1998).

Students' mean responses were in agreement with selected office politics authors on questions related to the importance of appropriate attire, the necessity of playing the office politics game, the correct behavior when questioning someone's hidden motives, the importance of using correct table manners, and the advisability of helping someone who cannot return the favor. Students were less sure (means of 3.07, 3.09, and 3.43) about the importance of practicing self-promotion, using flattery, and doing favors for one's supervisor. Students' mean responses were not in agreement with authors of office politics books on statements related to truth telling and sharing office gossip with one's supervisor.

SUMMARY

In summary, areas of office politics with which students were most knowledgeable related to dressing appropriately; students were less knowledgeable about truth telling and gossip. While some individuals are comfortable with the game of office politics, others are unwilling to participate in it. To reap the rewards to which they are entitled, employees would be wise to recognize that working hard and performing well on the job may not be enough to gain career advancement. Playing the office politics game, especially in some organizations, could mean the difference between career stagnation and advancement.

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COLLEGIALITY IN HIGHER EDUCATION: TOWARD AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE FACTORS INVOLVED IN COLLEGIALITY

Robert D. Hatfield, Western Kentucky University
bob.hatfield@wku.edu

ABSTRACT

Collegiality is quickly becoming the "fourth" criteria in tenure and other evaluations relating to faculty performance at many institutions of higher learning. The explosion of electronic courses and telecommuting is helping to drive an interest in organizations to safeguard elements of higher education associated with collegiality that some fear may otherwise disappear. While the traditional performance criteria of teaching, research, and service have their own ambiguities, the debate over the appropriateness of using collegiality is heating up nationally. Courts have generally upheld the right of colleges and universities to use collegiality as a factor in cases of tenure, promotion, and termination. Yet, collegiality has been labeled a "tenure battleground" and the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) recently adopted a statement urging the end of the use of collegiality as a performance element in higher education. The proliferation of acceptance set against the ferocity of opposition makes the concept of collegiality one of the hot issues in higher education.

If we are going to argue about the appropriateness of collegiality then we need a better understanding of the concept. Few tenure standards or other performance documents give a decisive definition of the term. We need a standard better than the old definition of pornography once used by the Supreme Court "I know it when I see it." This conceptual paper attempts to define the nomological net surrounding the concept of "collegiality". How is it different from congeniality, collaboration, cooperation, shared values, responsibility and other related concepts? This paper reviews the literature in an attempt to identify areas of convergent and discriminant validity relating to the concept of collegiality. Further research is called for in this article and an outline for empirical study is proposed.

WORKPLACE CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: THE TEST OF AN ORGANIZATION-LEVEL MODEL

Kathryn Jones, University of Louisiana at Monroe
kjones@ulm.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper reports the testing of a theoretical model of organization-level strategies for managing workplace conflict. In the Mintzberg tradition, an organizational strategy for managing conflict is viewed as a pattern in a stream of decisions related to conflict in the workplace. Based on earlier works, the synthesized model introduces the dimensions of engagement and adversarial conduct. A sample of 580 respondents was utilized to test a behavior-based measure of the four-factor model. Results confirmed the four strategies and demonstrated scale reliability coefficients ranging from .85 to .93. Implications and recommendations for future research are discussed.

CONJECTURES ON CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

Andrew J. McCarthy, William Paterson University
mccarthya@wpunj.edu

ABSTRACT

In this brief review of the intriguing subject of Charismatic Leadership, the author takes a stab at this question: What is Charismatic Leadership and how can Charismatic Leaders keep their works going after they have died or retired? Providing a short synopsis of what is in the literature and discussing various views on charisma, the author subsequently hones in on the pros and cons of Charismatic Leadership. Most importantly, the writer makes an effort to get at the reasons why organizations so often splinter after Charismatic Leaders leave their flocks. Said another way: Charismatic Leaders often leave lousy legacies. With this in mind, suggestions are offered as to how present and future Charismatic Leaders can keep their organizations at peak performance long after they have left.

INTRODUCTION: VIEWS ON CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP

Many researchers view leadership as split between two types: Traditional (Transactional) and Transformational (Charismatic). The literature (Betts 2004; Tichy and DeVanna 1986; Zalesnik 1977; Gerth 1947; Weber 1930) divides these leadership designs into distinct forms in which the practices of leadership and/or management are implemented by starkly different methods.

Traditional Leadership

Traditional, or transactional, leaders are managers who "changed little; they managed what they found and left things pretty much as they found them (Tichy & DeVanna 1986; Betts 2004). Essentially, the Traditional leader is never your flamboyant type who leads and encourages his charges and underlings with pizzazz and a dramatic wave of his hand. Moses parting the Red Sea with his wooden staff he or she certainly is not; instead, the Traditional leader "attempts to maintain the status quo and encourage their followers to incrementally improve their effectiveness and efficiency. Encouragement is in the form of contingent rewards such as the exchange of money, jobs, and security for compliance to organizational goals" (Bass 1985; Betts 2004). In addition, they behave according to existing norms, rarely shaking or going against the status quo. They arguably are not one-dimensional, but they certainly aren't full of flair (and ego) as their Transformational counterparts are.

Transformational Leadership

There is no shortage of adjectives with which to describe Transformational (Charismatic) leaders. For example, Charismatic leaders feature "strategic vision, unconventional and countercultural management practices and tactics involving personal risk, and inspirational management practices." (Conger 1988; Betts 2004) Charismatic leaders rule from a distance and have as their primary goal a definitive and measurable change in their followers' behavior and subsequent outcomes. (Betts 2004)

Weber wrote that Transformational Leadership was based on the personal qualities of the leader. (Pugh, Hickson 1997) The term charisma is Greek and is interpreted as "set apart from

humanity" and "endowed with supernatural and superhuman powers." The prophet, messiah, or political leader, again, governs from a distance and his or her followers (disciples) mediate between the leader and the masses. Examples of this can be found in the management and leadership styles of Christ Jesus, Adolph Hitler, Yasir Arafat, Lenin, Moses, Mother Teresa, Abraham, Henry Ford, Mohandas Gandhi, and Mohammed. That is, the charismatic leader designs a goal of change and necessity based on emotion and the greater good. He or she then allows a roster of carefully selected disciples to handle the flock and to spread the message or "gospel" in specific ways imparted to them by the charismatic leader.

It can be divined from the names heretofore mentioned that instances of charismatic leadership usually are religious or political in nature and occur as revolutionary social movements. These social movements begin small, then gain momentum and, in some cases, can change the world (i.e., Christianity, Islam, Protestantism, etc). Although Charismatic Leaders are gifted with excellent people and communication skill sets (articulation, body language, ability to inspire and motivate, etc), it's important to remember that this type of organization features built-in instability. (Pugh, Hickson 1997) Although the revolution (change) is strong and well defined while the Charismatic Leader is on the scene, the question of succession always arises and can grow into a colossal dilemma after the "Superhuman One" departs. History is full of examples: The splintering of the Christian Churches after Christ; The squabbling of the Jews in the desert after both Abraham and Moses; The splintering and internecine warfare among Arab tribes after Mohammed; and today, with the Palestinian question of who will lead now that Arafat has died. In most cases, the followers split (as seen with Ishmael and Isaac after Abraham) and claim to be the "true heirs" of the Patriarch or Matriarch. Thus, the original lessons, messages, and goals of the Charismatic Leader are lost or least deluded over time.

CHARISMATIC LEADERSHIP: PROS AND CONS

Modeling Charisma

Charisma has been studied as a trait (Weber 1947) and as a set of behaviors (House 1977; House and Howell 1992). Researchers assert that these leaders feature visionary, energetic, unconventional, and exemplary abilities. In addition, some investigators view Charismatic Leadership as an impression management process (Gardner and Alviolo 1998) enacted theatrically in acts of framing (cognitive views for followers; parables), scripting (development of directions for the scene), staging (adding affects for drama and impression such as guns or other props), and performing (enacting sometimes scripted dialogue and using props for symbolic effect).

Pros

Obviously, charismatic leadership can be useful and effective. For example, when a nation is down (the USA in 1932), controlled by others (Cuba in 1957), or when a populace is generally directionless and hopeless (Judea and Palestine in AD 30), a charismatic leader can appear out of nowhere (this is usually the case—from out of left field) and provide a unified goal and message for disparate groups. For the most part, Charismatic Leaders provide the following to their followers and their organizations:

A unifying and galvanizing presence
A common goal for formerly splintered groups
A reason for living or working
A role model for people

An organized structure
Hope

As seen with Christ Jesus and Moses, each Charismatic Leader appears suddenly and commands his own (and his adversaries) to change their ways, repent, and re-think how they live their lives. Instead of working at odds with one another, both Jesus and Moses persuade his respective flock to focus on the greater good, sacrifice selfish designs, and replace hopelessness and despair with a vision and goal of reaching a "promised land."

In similar ways, all other Charismatic Leaders do this: Whether "good" or "evil" (defining these terms and which charismatic leaders are good or evil is controversial and grounds for another paper) designs drive them (i.e., Hitler, Stalin, Jesus, Elijah, etc), the Transformational Individual seeks to change the scene they enter in dramatic and revolutionary ways. These changes go against the status quo and are more or less sweeping, with specific events highlighting or symbolizing their modus operandi (Christ driving the moneychangers out of the temple; Moses bringing the 10 commandments down from the Mount; Gandhi preaching nonviolence; Martin Luther King, Jr. marching on Selma, etc). These behaviors are positive in that they provide tangible action for disciples and demonstrate a willingness to implement change.

Cons

As discussed by many researchers, including Weber, Charismatic Leadership features one huge negative: usually there is no plan for a successor. Even in cases when a successor is nominated, a split in the organization sometimes ensues, leaving the discipleship confused and chaotic. This is not a minor problem! Charismatic Leaders spend a great amount of time and energy changing a culture. Many times the culture reverses itself after the Leader leaves, wasting any progress.

Many leadership experts believe that Charismatic Leaders often deliver poor leadership and weak long-term results. From a business standpoint (as opposed to, say, a religious one) it is, in fact, very risky to look to a Charismatic Leader for results. Studying 1,435 companies' performance over four decades, author Jim Collins and his team of researchers found that none relied on charismatic saviors. Collins published his findings in the book Good to Great (HarperCollins 2003). He asserts that most charismatic leaders "are good at rescue" but lousy at "long-term success and management." He cites Lee Iacocca of Chrysler in the 1980s and Michael Armstrong of AT&T as two "superstar" leaders who made "big splashes" in the short run but failed to deliver over the long haul.

HOW TO IMPROVE A CHARISMATIC LEADER'S LEGACY

Improving the lasting legacy of the Charismatic Leader is the prime goal of this brief discussion. There are many positives and negatives intrinsic to Charismatic Leadership, some of which have been mentioned. This author suggests several small, practical steps can be taken to improve the long-term performances of an organization that has lost its charismatic chief.

1. Delegate. Many charismatic leaders forget that they will one day disappear from the scene. If proper delegation of responsibility isn't addressed with specific mention made for how things will run after the leader is gone, then chaos will reign.

2. Name a Successor. In her book, Leadership Secrets From the Bible (Barnes & Noble 2003), author Lorin Woolfe suggests that Jesus did his flock right by naming Simon Peter

as "the Rock upon which I will build my church." She suggests that Jesus looked to Simon Peter as his "deputy" from the beginning and never wavered from that nomination. Although followers of Christ have splintered many times since Jesus went to Calvary, the Acts of the Apostles demonstrates that, in the days and months after Christ's Crucifixion, the disciples were relatively coherent as an organization.

3. Lead With Smaller Egos. In many cases, Charismatic Leaders get so swept up in themselves and their causes that they forget to share power and responsibility. A recent example is the Palestinian Liberation Organization, which had some minor quarrels after the death of Yasir Arafat. Although elections are imminent, power struggles will probably ensue at some point. In Arafat's case, he hogged the power and was always jealous of anyone who challenged his authority.

4. Teach Humility. This is easier said than done. Ms. Woolfe describes Moses as a "charismatic, but reluctant, leader who was more humble than anyone." Perhaps if Charismatic Leaders loosen the reins a little while they're in power, they can somehow teach the younger, future leaders to maintain their humility, renounce ego and hubris, and see how the future can be.

5. Motivate, Inspire, and Encourage. Jesus did this more effectively than many other Charismatic Leaders. He continually implored his followers to have faith, hope, and charity after he had "gone to His father." Although the disciples had no clue what he meant, after He left them they immediately got busy and matured in their own right.

(references available upon request)

PROCEDURAL JUSTICE AND VOICE EFFECTS

Paula W. Potter, Western Kentucky University
paula.potter@wku.edu

INTRODUCTION

Procedural justice research emphasizes that individuals pay particular attention to and place importance on decision-making procedures. Moreover, procedural justice theory predicts organizational participants will make fairness judgments about decision-making procedures, which subsequently affect individuals' attitudes and behavior. Research has consistently shown that granting individuals the opportunity to voice their preferences and opinions during the decision-making process increases fairness judgments. The present research is devoted to the study and development of procedural justice with special emphasis on voice effects.

The procedural justice literature contains references to positive and negative voice effects. Numerous studies support that voice enhances perceptions of fairness in procedures (positive voice effects). Few studies have investigated negative voice effects resulting in an incomplete view of voice. A body of research involving only one side of a phenomenon, such as voice effects, limits our perspective and knowledge of procedural justice.

Two negative voice effects, sham and frustration, are used interchangeably in the procedural justice literature. Inconsistencies in the use of these terms create confusion for researchers inside and outside the field of organizational justice. Because of the limited research devoted to negative voice effects, it is difficult to distinguish between and understand these two effects. Investigating sham and frustration could prove beneficial to this body of knowledge and open the door to further development of these constructs.

Researchers may have assumed negative effects are rare. The present study questions this assumption. Investigating the possible existence and determinants of negative voice effects has the potential to extend procedural justice knowledge.

Researchers invoke voice as an employee's opportunity to offer input by expressing his or her opinion. Studies show the organization benefits when employees are given voice in procedures. Employees are more inclined to trust supervisors and are more committed to the organization.

Two models offer two opposing explanations of why voice impacts outcome fairness judgments. Researchers attempted to explain the importance of voice through the self-interest and group-value models. The self-interest model suggests that people want the opportunity to provide their side of the story to ensure favorable outcomes for themselves. The model explains the importance of voice from an instrumental perspective because participants use input as a means to an end. The group-value model proposes that the opportunity to offer input has value regardless if it influences the outcome. The value-expressive component, the basis of the group-value model, contends the importance of voice comes from the value people perceive in the opportunity to express one's views.

Considering the positive effects organizations can accumulate by offering voice, such as employee compliance and satisfaction, some organizational decision makers may be tempted to engage in a sham. Perhaps the decision maker's contemplation of using a sham is suppressed by high ethical standards or fear of consequences when participants detect they have been victims of a sham. However, it may not be uncommon for organizational decision makers to attempt sham. Currently, procedural justice research neither verifies nor refutes either of these possibilities.

This research study required a method of investigation that allowed detection of both positive and negative voice effects. The underdeveloped level of knowledge regarding negative

voice effects does not yet permit it to be tested empirically due to lack of identified variables. Rather, this research study focused on establishing the necessary theoretical background.

Researchers determine the appropriate method of analysis by choosing the one that best fits the phenomena under investigation. In this study, the phenomena of interest are voice effects. Although past research included a variety of methods to detect and analyze positive voice effects, little research is available to guide the choice of method best suited for the study of negative voice effects. For example, numerous studies test procedural justice theory in an experimental setting by manipulating voice. However, method weakness in past experiments was noted when subjects were not given the opportunity for full expression of their views, opinions, and values thereby making findings of the frustration effect difficult to explain.

Given the goal of establishing theoretical background and weaknesses in the few quantitative research studies, qualitative research methods appear to be best suited for this investigation. This research study includes the use of the critical incident technique, depth interviews, purposive theoretical sampling and narrative analysis.

Narrative analysis takes advantage of the rich data available in depth interviews. Narrative analysis places importance on the interpretation of the participants' description of their experience regarding the subject under study. A narrative is defined as talk organized around consequential events and privileges the interview participant's story. The narrative promotes communication because it is a way of transforming knowing into telling. Narrative analysis takes the story told by a participant as the object of investigation.

The results of a preliminary interview revealed an instance of an organizational participatory decision making procedure that facilitated this investigation of voice effects. A depth interview included a discussion regarding participatory decision making in an organization involving several participants, all receiving the same outcome. Interestingly, the interview revealed that dissimilarity existed between participants' experiences of voice effects that resulted from the decision making process. The description of the situation indicated some participants experienced positive voice effects while others experienced negative voice effects. The dissimilarities between participants' experiences of voice effects offered an interesting contrast revealing how individuals' perceptions of voice effects differed.

The narratives were filled with stories as participants described their participatory decision making experiences in the depth interviews. Narratives can be found in everyday communication as humans learn at an early age that telling stories is an easy way to describe experiences. An experience described through the process of telling a story is referred to as a narrative genre, a type of narrative that contains certain persistent conventional elements and engages the listener. Other genres are termed hypothetical events that did not happen, and habitual, events that happen over and over with no peak in the action. The story is the dominant genre evidenced by participant narratives in this study. Participants told a total of 55 stories, with an average of 4 stories per interview.

Narrative analysis of the transcribed depth interviews resulted in two levels of interpretation. First, each interview was analyzed based on the narrative structure examining the similarities and differences between each participant's narrative. In particular, interviews were inspected to search for the participants' fairness judgments of the process and the outcome. This level of interpretation revealed factors that identified differences between narratives containing negative rather than positive voice effects. Narrative excerpts are used to illustrate the factors derived directly from the participants' descriptions of their experiences.

The second level of interpretation yielded themes that were identified through a process of iteration between the factors and relevant theory. The first level of interpretation revealed factors related to negative voice effects. The organizational justice literature was searched to develop theoretical insights. In this study, themes captured a common element shared among the factors. Past justice research provided substantial guidance for the initial development of the

themes that reflected the essence of the factors. Research in social psychology further illuminated themes and contributed new insight to establishing sham as a distinct process from the frustration effect.

The overriding theme that captures participants' general reactions prior to the meeting and the meeting itself is suspicion regarding the decision maker's motivations and the extent to which participants' input would be considered in the final decision. Participants' suspicion emerged from four categories of perceived decision maker's behaviors, two of which were identified at the announcement of the meeting (the expression of ulterior motives and the creation of barriers to participation), and two of which were identified during the meeting itself (impression management and distortion). The overriding themes that capture participants' general reactions in response to the final decision are antagonism and reconciliation; some participants expressed frustration over the final decision whereas others were able to reconcile events that occurred earlier in the process with the final decision. Participants' antagonism emerged from two categories of perceived decision maker's behavior, disregard for employees' input and contract violation. Participants' reconciliation also emerged from two categories of perceived decision maker's behavior, acceptability and reasonableness.

One goal of this research was to rectify definitional problems in justice work that focuses on voice effects. Results of the narrative analysis suggest definitions for two constructs that have been referred to interchangeably in previous research, sham and frustration. In addition, the analysis suggests a new voice effect that has not been the focus of previous work: discrepant justice.

Sham may be defined as suspicion that a decision maker's stated reasons for soliciting voice are not accurate. Evidence from the narrative analysis suggests participants' suspicion may be aroused before or as they are providing input. The sources of suspicion that were salient for participants differed depending on the stage of the decision making process. At the announcement of the meeting, participants' reactions were more speculative and seemed to rely on previous experience with the decision maker and on information obtained through informal means (i.e., the grapevine). Participants' reactions during the meeting were shaped by perceptions of the decision maker's behavior as well as by reactions they had prior to the meeting.

Frustration may be defined as participant's feeling of antagonism associated with what they perceive to be an unfair decision. Whereas sham involves perceived violations of fundamental rules of procedural justice prior to the disclosure of the decision, frustration occurs after the decision is disclosed. Consistent with referent cognitive theory, frustrated individuals experience two aspects of resentment: resentment reactions resulting from beliefs about procedures that could have been used to attain outcomes and reactions of dissatisfactions resulting from the relative outcome themselves.

The narrative analysis revealed evidence of a voice effect involving discrepancies between procedural and distributive justice. Most work in the procedural justice literature is based on the assumption procedural justice is important to people because fair procedures, compared to unfair procedures, are more likely to result in fair outcomes. The present study suggests participants in some decisions may sympathize with decision makers who try to balance the needs for achieving procedural fairness and outcome fairness when those aims conflict. The verbatims suggest several participants believed the decision maker recognized that achieving procedural justice (by genuinely soliciting and using participants' input) could have resulted in an outcome unacceptable to other constituents. These participants did not seem troubled with the outcome even though they believed the decision maker was more strongly committed to an a priori decision than in achieving procedural fairness enroute to the decision. One legacy of this process was suspicion regarding the decision maker's trustworthiness with respect to future decisions.

A manager's trustworthiness may be damaged when participants perceive unfairness in the decision-making procedure. As this study revealed, this holds true even in the instance of discrepant justice when the outcome is perceived as acceptable or reasonable. Indeed, some researchers contend a decision maker who does not consider participant input may provoke more severe perceptions of unfairness than if participants had no opportunity for voice. Perhaps managers should more fully understand the inherent responsibility of offering voice to employees before soliciting participant input. Managers can convey that participant input is considered by offering a true opportunity for voice, assuring participants the decision is not already made, and listen attentively to the employees' opinions and preferences.

Longitudinal research may determine how employees deal with suspicion in organizations in the long run. Studying the long-term implications of sham, frustration, and discrepant justice may shed light on how employees react or adapt to single or repeated violations of procedurally created unfairness. It may also be interesting to ascertain the relationship between suspicion and the organization's history of participatory decision-making procedures. In addition, investigating to what extent, if any, employee suspicion can be undone may further determine the effects of sham.

This research makes an important contribution to the literature in two ways. Definitions of sham and frustration have been clarified; and a new voice effect, discrepant justice, has been uncovered. Prior justice research has used the terms sham and frustration interchangeably; the results of this study make a distinction between these two voice effects. Discrepant justice results when participants experience the ramifications of procedural injustice despite favorable outcomes. This finding underscores the importance of fairness in procedures to employees in light of satisfaction with the outcome.

This study takes a preliminary step toward establishing the necessary theoretical groundwork to increase understanding of negative voice effects. The results of this study revealed the role suspicion plays in participants' fairness perceptions and introduced suspicion to the arena of justice research. Although providing participants the opportunity to offer their input can produce positive effects, managers should exercise care when soliciting voice to avoid negative effects. Perhaps a participant in this study said it best, "if you're going to go out and ask for input, then it ought not to be just window dressing, it ought to be a real ask."

THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLE ON SUBORDINATES PERCEPTIONS OF DECISION EFFECTIVENESS: A PARTIAL TEST OF THE VROOM-YETTON MODEL

Daniel A. Sauers, Winona State University
Jeffrey C. Kennedy, Nanyang Business School
Simon C. Holland, Lincoln University
dsauers@winona.edu

ABSTRACT

To investigate if a manager's basic leadership style moderates subordinates' perceptions of decision effectiveness, an experiment involving 258 students was conducted. Leadership style (transformational or transactional) and decision-making behavior ("consistent" or "inconsistent" with the Vroom-Yetton contingency model) were manipulated. Managers profiled as transformational leaders were rated significantly higher than those in the transactional and control conditions were, even when they engaged in autocratic behavior when the Vroom-Yetton model prescribed a group approach to decision making.

PARADIGMS OF LEADERSHIP IN THE TELEWORKING ENVIRONMENT: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

David S. Taylor, Sam Houston State University
davidtaylor@shsu.edu
Joseph K. Kavanaugh, Sam Houston State University
Mgt_jkk@shsu.edu

ABSTRACT

This paper explores those personal dimensions of leaders and followers and the teleworking environment already identified by research, and develops a tentative model for leader effectiveness in the virtual environment.

The emergence of communications technology has created work environments that challenge well-established paradigms of leadership. Teleworking and virtual office environments have redefined the relationships between the employee, the supervisor, and the conditions of the workplace. Among the variables considered are manager and employee role acceptance, anxieties related to new role performance/behavior, and the importance of self-management, goal commitment, satisfactory communication, and work/life balance in the definition of satisfactory role acceptance. New contingency models of leadership are needed to better define the qualities and characteristics of leader effectiveness in the leader-follower relationship where direct personal contact is no longer the primary mode through which influence is conveyed.

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is one of the world's oldest preoccupations (Bass, 1990). In the last fifteen years, though, there has been a trend towards leaderless organizations. Distance learning, virtual office, teleworking, etc. have all emerged. The enablers are primarily technological; inexpensive personal computing and high speed transmission of data to and from virtually every home, office, or other work location anywhere around the world.

According to a survey sponsored by AT & T as of October 2001 there were something under 30 million people in the US teleworking (Venkatesh & Johnson, 2002). Gartner predicted that 137 million workers worldwide would be involved in some form of remote work by 2003 (Manoochehri & Pinkerton, 2003). These figures do not include the 43.2 million (Holub, 1999) self-employed people who work out of their homes

According to Chaudron (1995) a successful teleworking program requires the "right reasons", the "right job", and the "right employee". The right reasons means that management should not just view it as an accommodation or benefit to the employee but should also expect increased productivity. The right job is one that involves individual versus team contributions. Although team projects can be accomplished with a mixture of at-home and in-office work, the right employee is one whose personal traits will be suitable for teleworking. To these three R's must be added the "right manager" and the "right environment". The personal traits of the manager are just as important as the employee's traits. The manager's anxieties and inability to lead can undermine the potential benefits of a telework program. Environmental concerns include the at-home workplace distractions and available resources, the in-office

accommodations, and the formal and informal communication channels. This paper will focus on the right employee, the right manager, and the right communications.

TELEWORKER CONSIDERATIONS

According to participants at an ACM forum (1995), working electronically kills the most human qualities of an employee – the ability to interact both socially and professionally. These statements reflect the isolation that can occur in a teleworking environment. However, teleworkers and managers who are part of a program to interact informally, develop interpersonal organizational networks and create synergistic relationships have shown reduced feelings of isolation (Kurland & Cooper, 2002). Other findings regarding the effects of teleworking included reduced amounts of feedback received from supervisors, coworkers, and clients (Huws, 1984); loss of the stimulation of exchanging ideas with colleagues (Hamilton, 1987); and the fact that any feedback will be lower quality because of the reduced nonverbal cues (Norman et. al., 1995).

Another area of major concern to the telecommuter is the balance between work life and family life. Researchers have found that professional workers who were telecommuting had a tendency to become "workaholics" when they were highly involved in their jobs (Olson and Primps,1984); a negative relationship between family relationships and satisfaction with telework (Hartman, Stone and Arora, 1991); the flexibility of telework allowed employees to balance their home/work responsibilities (Jenson, 1994); and that the flexibility in work arrangements could empower the employee with the ability to integrate and overlap work responsibilities and family responsibilities leading to positive spillover and achieving a healthy work/family balance (Galinsky et.al.1993).

The "right employee" suitable for a telecommuting job is results oriented, self-disciplined, well organized, a good time manager, satisfied by the challenge of the job not from managing others, and is trusted by the manager (Murphy, 1996). In other words, they are model employees who have the ability to get as much done at home as they would in the office.

In the collaborative work environment of today self-management may neutralize traditional concepts of leadership or render them ineffective or redundant (Castaneda, Kolenko & Aldag; 1999). In a similar vein, Manz and Sims (1980) have defended self-management as a substitute for leadership. Manz (1986) points out that the ultimate control for managing behaviors is to encourage employee's self-control systems rather than imposing organizational controls. Self-management by an individual involves using self-goal-setting, self-observation, self-reward, and self-punishment to control behaviors (Tsui & Ashford, 1994).

Clearly, the leadership paradigm for the teleworking environment must include aspects of self-management. Additionally, the "right employee" must be one who is capable and desirous of self-management. When employee reactions are negative to the concept, resistance to self-management can result (Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997).

TELEWORK MANAGER CONSIDERATIONS

Research has shown that managers facing a new telecommuting environment can have uncertainties and resistance to the change. Managers often perceive a threat of loss of power, influence and importance as they realize that their subordinates are becoming, to a large extent, self-managers. Managers also recognize that their own leadership skill sets may be on the verge of obsolescence (Manz, Keating & Donnellon; 1990).

In order to work effectively in a teleworking environment, it is important for the manager to develop a sense of trust in the teleworker. Trust is a dyadic relationship involving the attributes of both the trustee and the trustor (Jarvenpaa, Knoll & Leidner; 1998). The trustor

must have the propensity to trust. This trait is a result of cultural, social, developmental experiences, and personality type (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman; 1995). The trustee attributes are his/her perceived ability, benevolence, and integrity (Jarvenpaa, Knoll & Leidner; 1998).

In self-managed situations the role of the leader "is to provide the individual with clear task boundaries within which discretion and knowledge can be exercised" (Slocum & Sims, 1980:201). The manager is assisting the self-managed employee to engage in a form of self-leadership (Manz, 1986). A leader's role in a self-management situation lies in facilitating the development of self-controls by employees so that they can successfully manage their work with fewer organizational controls (Cohen, Chang & Ledford; 1997). According to Leifer and Mills (1996: 119) self-management "develops as one's cognitive map or schema is changed and organized to be consistent with the values and beliefs of the organization, thus resulting in behaviors consistent with organizational goals."

The effective teleworker manager works with the telecommuter to establish goals. The manager no longer manages attendance, but must manage performance. Goal setting is widely recognized as a powerful motivational technique (Locke & Latham, 1990). Goals should not be viewed as an ends, but as collaborative milestones by which progress can be measured. They should be a collaborative agreement between the manager and the employee (Randolph, 1995).

The "right manager" in the teleworking equation is someone who (1) is capable of trusting the employee's integrity and abilities, (2) can manage by objectives, agreed performance standards and deadlines, (3) can evaluate performance by results and not attendance, (4) can reconstruct the conduct and self-image of employees by encouraging them to acquire the capacities and dispositions that will allow them to become self-managers (du Gay, Salaman & Rees; 1996), and (5) is generally flexible and understanding of employee needs to balance work and family life.

TELEWORK COMMUNICATIONS CONSIDERATIONS

In a qualitative study, Weiner and Hill (1995) found that telecommuting had a negative influence on communication and peer interaction with coworkers and managers. Ramsower (1985) found that full-time telecommuters engage in less upward, downward, and horizontal communications.

The teleworker's feelings of isolation and anxiety can be exasperated by having to rely on electronic communication channels. E-mail has been shown to be not as rich a communication medium as face-to-face interaction (Ngwenyama & Lee, 1997). The social cues cannot be conveyed electronically (Norman et.al., 1995). A study performed by Kraut et. al. (1998) indicated that social interaction via e-mail was positively related to social isolation, loneliness, and depression.

Leadership research has also suggested that organic systems (i.e. face-to-face) involve more two-way communication, more managerial information, advice-giving rather than orders, and decisions than non-organic (electronic) systems (Weick, 1987). Generally it is a leadership style that more resembles consultation rather than command (Courtright, Fairhurst, & Rogers, 1989).

MODEL OF TELEWORK LEADERSHIP

Combining all of the constructs identified in the literature review produces a schema of the leader role, subordinate role, and the leadership function and is available from the authors.

The ultimate goal of an alternative work arrangement, such as teleworking, is to improve productivity, or at least not reduce it, while either improving worker job satisfaction and/or reducing organizational costs. Organizational constraints, economics, nature of tasks performed,

dedicated resources at home and at the office all play a role in the overall job performance of the teleworker. However, this model is focused strictly on the leadership aspects. As such, the only antecedents to teleworker performance represented in the model are the level of acceptance by the teleworker with his/her role and the level of acceptance by the manager with his/her role in the telework environment.

Teleworker role acceptance is partially a function of the ability to deal with anxieties over feelings of isolation and concern for career advancement. Additionally, the teleworker must attain a level of satisfaction with the ability to balance the work life and family life aspects. Successful teleworking requires the teleworker to have both the desire for and the ability to self-manage. The degree to which this is accomplished is also a predictor of role acceptance. The importance of communication channels between the teleworker and the manager as well as with coworkers has already been discussed. The extent of satisfaction with the amount and richness of communication is also a predictor of role acceptance.

The telework manager role acceptance is also a function of the perception of satisfaction with the communication channels with the teleworker. In addition, the manager must deal with his/her own anxieties over perceptions of loss of power and resistance to new leadership techniques. Another important antecedent to manager role acceptance is the manager's propensity to trust the teleworker. The manager must feel comfortable with the teleworker's abilities, integrity, and dedication to the task. The adoption of certain leadership styles or attributes also will affect acceptance. The manager must be goal oriented rather than attendance oriented, must be understanding of the teleworker's need to balance work and family lives, and must be able to accept the concept of employee self-management.

In order to fit the pieces together, performance goals must be mutually agreed upon by the teleworker and the manager. The worker must be committed to attaining these goals and the manager must be committed to using them as the means of evaluating employee performance.

TESTING AND RESULTS OF THE MODEL

In order to test the applicability of the model to the actual teleworking environment, a grounded approach was undertaken utilizing interviews of teleworkers and their managers. The interviews substantiated the model almost entirely. However, there were two other unexpected results that also came out of the interviews. The first has to do with productivity and the second with the effect of the extent of teleworking. All but one of the interviewees felt that telecommuting had not increased their productivity; for them, it was an issue of satisfaction and retention. The other area of unexpected findings concerned the amount of time spent away from the office and its impact on the telework model. Based on the interviews, it was found that if a person teleworks sixteen hours a week or less there are no real feelings of being in a teleworking mode on either the part of the teleworker or the manager.

CONCLUSIONS

No existing theory of leadership is designed to directly relate to the teleworking environment. Although most areas of this leadership relationship are the same as in the face-to-face work arrangement, there are some unique areas that add a new dimension. Primarily, these areas deal with the anxieties that both the manager and the teleworker face in this new management environment.

Finally, the entire model of telework leadership needs to be tested qualitatively and empirically. Hopefully, with proper validation, it could serve as a starting point for exploring this emerging relationship.

References and a schema of the telework leadership model are available upon request of the authors.

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