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# PROCEEDINGS

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# MULTIGENERATIONAL WORKPLACES: TIPS FOR SUCCESS

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## ABSTRACT

*For the first time in history, four generations are working together in today's organizations (Lee, 2006). These generations are frequently referred to as Generation Y, Generation X, the Babyboomers, and the Matures. In addition to sharing birth years, each of these generations has beliefs, life experiences, struggles, and understandings that are peculiar to that generation. Often, these shared experiences and beliefs can lead to difficulty as the various generations attempt to work together in the organization.*

*The different generations may also prefer a different type of work environment. If organizations are to attract and retain good employees, an understanding of these generations and their preferences will be useful knowledge (Westerman & Yamamura, 2007).*

*How do managers attract and retain employees from different generations? How do they provide a work environment attractive to one generation without alienating another? What are the sources of conflict among the generations? What benefits or problems are associated with having so many people of diverse ages working together? What suggestions can be given to managers that will enable them to best recruit, retain, and support employees of these different generations so that the generations can use their particular talents most effectively?*

*The purpose of this presentation will be to answer these questions and provide recommendations for managers and others in today's organizations.*

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# WOMEN AND MINORITIES IN CORPORATE AMERICA: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION

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## ABSTRACT

*Women are typically underrepresented in executive positions in Corporate America. Research has also shown that minorities are underrepresented in influential executive positions. To this end, in the case of African American, Latina and Asian females a double jeopardy exists, in the sense that they face two disadvantages; they are women and non white. Today these three groups of women now occupy highly skilled jobs unlike the low skilled and uneducated roles they traditionally occupied in the past. Collectively, these groups of women have been making steady progress to break the 'glass ceiling' despite many obstacles along the way. In spite of this, there are several examples of women in each respective community who have been able to successfully break through the ceiling. These women have found ways to overcome obvious challenges to solidify their rightful place in a male dominated Corporate America. Recommendations in the Human Resource Management profession include increasing company mentorship programs as well as ensuring that the company's culture reflects an appreciation for women and their career advancement. In the present study we examine the "glass ceiling" with 468 male and female American Executives. A glass ceiling effect is found when controlling for performance.*

## INTRODUCTION

In pre modern times women were unemployed homemakers/ housewives and men were the breadwinners. Nowadays in the age of modern capitalism there has been a shift in traditional gender roles. Today, increasing amounts of women are deciding to be simply more than a 'mere' homemaker but rather a working professional in the same sense that men are. For years men have dominated Corporate America as women have traditionally chosen to become 'stay at home mothers' and 'housewives.' Research maintains that historically, the heavy oak doors of executive suites have shut out all but white men (Plansencia, 2006). In an effort to rise to the level of their male counterparts, many women have been moving out of the home and into the boardrooms, through educating themselves. In 2003, Giscombe & Mattis noted that "large numbers of women have enrolled in and matriculated from undergraduate and graduate business degree programs in the past two decades." Despite what progress women have made today, this traditional ideology of gender roles has shaped or is at least partly responsible for creating the glass ceiling that exists in the workplace today.

This ceiling has created a disparity in workplaces in the sense that it has impeded minorities- especially women from achieving executive positions. Essentially this glass ceiling that was originally coined as a term in 1986 has created an upward lack of mobility for women, who are the real minorities in organizations today (Giscombe & Mattis, 2009). Research suggests that "hierarchy is gendered in organizations- that is women are devalued in organizational contexts while men maintain their dominant positions" in the context of creating social structures where there are clear divisions along gender lines (Giscombe & Mattis, 2009). This overwhelming evidence supports the notion that it is nearly impossible for women to rise to the highest office in many organizations which reflects the distorted perception, but distinct reality that many women face- the glass ceiling. Many people believe that for equal work there should be equal pay. This was ideally what President John F. Kennedy intended with passing the Equal Pay Act of 1963 that was meant to close the earnings gap between males and females in the workforce (Bodfield, 1993). More than forty years later an earnings gap still exists. There is a clear disparity between pay for men and women. In fact, evidence indicates that in '79 women only earned 59.7%, in '91 it was 69.9% and in '06 women still only earned 77% of what men earn (Anonymous, 2009) ( Bodfield, 1993). LeGer in 2003 states that:

Minority women hold less than 2 percent of corporate board seats at Fortune 500 companies, though minority women managers make up 974,000 of the 5.3 million women who are managers.

This paper will examine three distinct female minority groups: African American, Hispanic and Asian American females in Corporate America. Also, the paper will address distinct challenges each minority group must face as well as ways to overcome. Additionally, the paper will highlight specific examples of women in each minority group who have found ways to break through the ceiling. Using a sample of 468 Executives and Entrepreneurs (Carland et al. 1984) we examine the actual existence of the glass ceiling and find that it is less of a problem in entrepreneurial businesses than in traditional corporations. Finally, the paper will give recommendations for the human resource profession in ensuring that minority females receive a fair and equitable chance at becoming a chief executive (Buckley, Carraher, Carraher, Ferris, & Carraher, 2008; Buckley, Carraher, & Cote, 1992; Buckley, Carraher, Ferris, & Carraher, 2001).

Mentoring is an important aspect of any thriving business person in the workplace. People who reach the top in many corporations received a lot of psychological and career support along the way (Carraher, Sullivan, & Crocitto, 2008) as are expectation adjusting techniques (.Buckley, Fedor, Veres, Wiese, & Carraher, 1998; Buckley, Mobbs, Mendoza, Novicevic, Carraher & Beu, 2002). The road to the top is not an easy one, especially if you are a minority female, which is why mentoring is increasingly important. In the African American community many say that the failure of women to advance to the highest office is the "lack of connection" to 'influential others', despite having the same percentage of mentors (Anonymous, 2009). Many African American women also feel that the lack of "similar others" and access to "mentors for people of colour" has only exacerbated the situation ( Giscombe & Mattis, 2003).

Formal compensation programs (Carraher, 1991a, 1991b, 2005, 2006a, 2006b; Carraher & Buckley, 1996; 2005; Paridon, Carraher, & Carraher, 2006) and benefit programs (Carraher, Buckley, & Carraher, 2002; Carraher & Carraher, 2005; 2006; Carraher, Carraher, & Whitely, 2003; Carraher & Chait, 1999; Carraher, Gibson, & Buckley, 2006; Carraher, Hart, & Carraher, 2003; Carraher, Mulvey, Scarpello, & Ash, 2004; Hart & Carraher, 1995; Scarpello & Carraher, 2008; Williams et al. 2008) for managers around the world (Carraher, Sullivan & Carraher, 2005) could also be used to help provide guidance and leadership for helping these women advance. LeGer in 2003 states that American Express has "formal compensation policies that reward managers for helping minority women advance" which helps to "facilitate the inclusion of minority women in succession plans." IBM's four pronged strategy that includes recruiting, developing, mentoring and networking to combat gender stereotypes in the technology industry can be utilized by any organization who wants to succeed (LeGer, 2003). In looking at recruiting, companies must hire open minded employees who have an awareness and appreciation for the cultural diversity that exists in the American workplace. Also, minority female employees must be engaged in development to learn the right skills, behavior, knowledge that is required for the organization to achieve its business strategy. Mentoring is another important aspect; minority females require more supportive coaching as the odds for failure are greater than with the majority. Also, networking is essential to give minority females access to influential people who can help them break through the glass ceiling. Collectively this four prong strategy helps to create an organizational culture that is supportive of the overall career development of minority women.

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# CORRELATES OF THE BASES OF POWER AND THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS: AN EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

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## ABSTRACT

*The purpose of this research was to empirically test the relationship between personality traits mainly agreeableness and neuroticism, and power. 150 employees working in "medium" size organizations in Lebanon filled the questionnaire. The results of the regression analysis indicated that expert, referent, reward, and legitimate powers, were positively related to agreeableness; where as, neuroticism was negatively related to referent power and positively related to coercive power. Further research could also explore the other Big Five traits and their relation to power.*

KEY WORDS: Power, personality traits**,** emotional stability**,** neuroticism, agreeableness.

## INTRODUCTION

Kotter (1977, p.125) stated that "A misunderstanding is becoming increasingly burdensome because in today's large and complex organizations the effective performance of most managerial jobs requires one to be skilled at the acquisition and use of power".

Regardless of the organization type, one of the basic roles of an organization is to transmit knowledge, opportunities, and regulations of work from a manager to a subordinate employee (Koslowsky and Stashevsky, 2005). The cost of such influence process has been explored in research and was defined as "power" (Koslowsky and Stashevsky, 2005). Power is viewed as a precious asset that many businesses try to acquire (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006) and is thought to have an effect on managements' actions and employees' reactions (Tjosvold and Sun, 2005).

When a leader exercises power, it could lead to many possible outcomes depending on the bases of power used, the method in which it was applied, and both the leader and the subordinate's individual characteristics( e.g. personality traits) (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998). Thus, power within an organization to a great extent, is dependent on employee's behaviors and attitudes. Power resides in the individual and is independent of that individual's position (Shermerhorn, et.al., 2004).

On the other hand, personality traits are viewed as significant and powerful variables, and are perceived as the most central psychological tools for directing and controlling behavior (Heinstrom, 2003).

According to Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) the effective use of power by mangers leads to positive outcomes. However, power within managerial contexts can be positive i.e. enabling change to take place, or negative causing change or advancement to be blocked. Power can then be explained by the manager's ability to manipulate the feelings, purposes, values, and behaviors of subordinates (French and Raven, 1959). It is then imperative that we understand how personality traits influence the nature of power a person observes and uses.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Power

Power by definition, is the capacity to apply influence over others. It is the ability to get someone to do what you want done or the ability to make things happen in the way you want them to happen (Shermerhorn, et.al., 2004; Pfeffer, 1992). However, power is not a tool for altering others' attitudes and behaviors if they are not able and willing.

Power is a force that can induce change in the behavior of others. As a result, organizational development and innovation often requires obtaining the power necessary to induce change or to overcome resistance (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006).

An individual's power in the organization originates from interpersonal bases (position, qualities, and expertise), and/or structural and situational bases (i.e. control over resources, formal authority, and control over information) (French & Raven, 1959; Kanter, 1982; Kotter, 1977). French & Raven (1959) proposed that power is of five different bases: reward, coercive, expert, legitimate, and referent. Reward power originates from the individual's ability to determine who will receive the rewards valued by others (tangible benefits or status symbols) and to eliminate unpleasant sanctions that is negative reinforcement (Robbins and Judge, 2008; McShane and Glinow, 2005; Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006). Its bases can be traced to the Expectancy Theory of Motivation i.e. a direct relation exists between performance and rewards. Coercive power, stems from the expectation of punishment (Robbins and Judge, 2008), physically or psychologically, (Kreitner and Kinicki, 2004) if the individual does not act in accordance with given requirements, desires or demands.

On the other hand, legitimate power is derived from an individual's structural position that gives him/her the right to command obedience. However, it is restricted to the extent that the person who controls power is perceived as being legitimate (McShane and Glinow, 2005; Chuck, 2009). Expert power originates from the individual's own personality features, and qualities (Robins and Judge, 2008). It is the skill of influencing other individuals by having unique skills, knowledge, capability or proficiency that is of value to them (McShane and Glinow, 2005). Finally, referent power is identifying with a person you admire, and wish to be like (Ambur, 2000). It originates from the individual's possessed personal characteristics, mostly depends on his/her interpersonal skills, and expands gradually through time. In many situations, it is associated with charisma and often involves willingness to follow, trust, affection, similarity, and emotional involvement (McShane and Glinow, 2005). That is why it may dissolve rapidly if the relationship is re-evaluated negatively by followers.

It is important to note that power bases produce power only in specific situations (McShane and Glinow, 2005). These situations are obligatory since they create the extent to which power holders have influences. They include: substitutability of resources; centrality i.e. the extent to which there is interdependence between those who hold power and others; visibility; and discretion or the choice the individual has when making decisions and providing judgments without prior recognition or agreement from superior;. These contingencies are not sources of power but determine how people can control and leverage their power bases.

**Personality Traits**

Ryckman (1982, p. 5) defined Personality as the "dynamic and organized set of characteristics of a person that uniquely influences his/her cognitions, motivations, and behaviors". This concept represents behavioral and cognitive prototypes that have been proven stable through time and in different settings (Cattell, 1964). Thus, we can rationally anticipate that personality traits manipulate personal attitudes and values, as most current pragmatic studies have confirmed (Olver and Mooradian, 2003).

Personality traits have recently become both popular and an accepted means for explaining individuals' behavior, i.e. actions, manners, targets, and purposes (Llewellyn and Wilson, 2003). It helps identify the reasons for individuals' different reactions to similar situations (Cooper, 1998).

According to Havaleschka (1999) it is imperative that we understand the behavior of individuals, since the success or failure of a business relies on the make up of the personalities of both managers and employees in the work group.

In recent years, the bases that form our personality introduced by McCrae and Costa (1982), also known as the BIG Five, have gained popularity as a basic framework for identifying and classifying traits (Sodiya et.al., 2007). Research has revealed that the Big Five are strong predictors of work behavior across cultures, time, and contexts (Robbins & Judge, 2008; Barrick & Mount, 1991). These traits were presented in a model termed the Five-Factor Model (FFM) which "describes the human personality sphere in a parsimonious and comprehensive way" (Leung & Bozionelos, 2004, p.63). The model comprises the following traits: Agreeableness, Extroversion, Emotional Stability, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience (Goldberg, 1990). However, the emphasis in this research will be on the two personality traits - mainly neuroticism and agreeableness.

Agreeableness-This dimension demonstrates how individuals can relate to others, and how considerate are they of others' opinions and feelings. Without agreeableness, individuals tend to be cold, disagreeable, and aggressive. Highly agreeable individuals are warm, trusting, and cooperative. Extroversion- relates to one's ease with relationships. Extroverts are more likely to be friendly, sociable, confident, and outgoing, while introverts are reserved, quiet, shy, and distant.

Emotional Stability- Frequently, known by its opposite, neuroticism, signifies an individual's ability to resist stress. Individuals having high emotional stability are more likely to be secure, calm, and self-confident. On the other hand, individuals scoring low on emotional stability are more likely to be worried, nervous, depressed, and unconfident.

Conscientiousness- is a determinant of reliability. A highly conscientious person is persistent, organized, dependable, and responsible. Low conscientious individuals are distracted easily, unreliable, and disorganized.

Openness to experience– deals with one's attraction and interests with new things. Highly open individuals are sensitive, imaginative, inquisitive, and creative. Those low on openness to experience are conservative and are more comfortable with familiar environments.

**Personality and Power**

**Agreeableness**

Agreeable individuals tend to be sympathetic and are not hostile towards others. Agreeable individuals are pleasant, tolerant, warm, cooperative, flexible, modest, and tactful (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Those high in agreeableness are usually easy to get along with and perform extremely well in circumstances that require collaboration or interaction with others (Hough, 1992; Barrick & Mount, 1991). They tend to have less aggression and are reliable, emotionally stable, and conform (Clarke & Roberston, 2005). Agreeableness is useful in attaining and maintaining popularity. Highly agreeable individuals tend to have better interpersonal relationships (Asendorf & Wilpers, 1998). In work settings, these individuals show a higher level of interpersonal capability (Witt et al., 2002) and are more likely to collaborate effectively in groups. A study by Asendorf & Wilpers (1998) on the effects of personality on social relationships found that individuals who scored low in agreeableness compared to those who scored high, tended to use more power for resolving social conflict.

The correlation between agreeableness and work involvement imply that low agreeableness individuals tend to be more engaged with their work hoping to satisfy their ego needs by trying to advance their careers (Bozionelos, 2004). Keeping in mind that agreeableness has been positively related to work performance (Salgado, 1997), it is then possible that those with low agreeableness scores, do not display the kind of involvement needed on the job and thus their performance will suffer. From the above, we can then predict the following:

*H1: Reward power is positively related to agreeableness.*
*H2: Legitimate power is positively related to agreeableness*
*H3: Referent power is positively related to agreeableness.*
*H4: Expert power is positively related to agreeableness.*

**Emotional Stability**

Individuals with high scores on emotional stability, are more likely to be cheerful, calm, and even-tempered than low scorers (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997). These individuals tend not to display their emotions, and are less depressed or anxious. The opposite of emotional stability is neuroses. It is a form of emotional instability (McCrae & John, 1992) rather than a psychiatrical defect (Heinstrom, 2003). It includes: impulsiveness, resentment, depression, self-consciousness, and anxiety. Individuals high in neuroticism tend to have less performance and cognitive abilities (Mathews et al, 1991), experience higher stress levels, are pre-occupied with their anxieties and worries rather than with the task at hand, make more errors, and do not seek active control of their environment (Judge, 1993; Hansen, 1989).

Some of the characteristics associated with neuroticism include: insecurity, pessimism, nervous, low confidence, and tend to worry too much. Since individuals with high neuroticism tend to negatively interpret experiences and are pessimistic, they are more likely to develop negative attitudes towards their work and career. A recent meta- analytic research by Judge and Ilies (2002) concluded that work performance motivation and neuroticism are negatively correlated. In addition, Furnham and Rawles (1999) suggest that those with high scores in neuroticism tend to attach more importance to hygiene work related factors such as working conditions and security more than motivating factors, like work itself and opportunities for achievement. According to an empirical study by Malouff et al. (1990), individuals who score high on neuroticism, tend to be less goal-oriented.

Emotional stability tends to focus on behavioral skills when interacting with others i.e. interpersonal competence. Highly neurotic individuals are more self conscious, highly self-monitor (Ang et al., 2006), emotionally reactive, and would explain normal situations as threatening and slight stressors as hard (Thomas et.al., 1996). When an individual feels anxious, he/she is more likely to flee from a threatening circumstance where a history of failure exists (Revelle, 1995). Emotional stability was also correlated to low stress levels. Research indicated that in stressful situations, highly neurotic individuals' performance drop (Costa & McCrae, 1992).Thus we predict that:

*H5: Coercive power is positively related to Neuroticism*
*H6: Expert power is negatively related to neuroticism*

## METHODOLOGY

Employees working in "medium" size enterprises in Lebanon were surveyed to investigate the correlation between the two personality traits (agreeableness and neuroticism) and the bases of power. Medium size enterprises are defined in this study according to the number of employees (100>employees<500), relative to the country size and where the majority of businesses are either small or medium. Thus, in order to collect data, a purposive sampling was used. According to Zikmund (1994) the use of a purposive sampling allows the researcher to select a sample to serve the specific purpose of the study. A total of 200 questionnaire were handed out with a response rate of 75% (150 employees filled the questionnaire).

The questionnaire had three parts. The first part asked for the demographic variables i.e. gender, age, education, and years of experience. The second part included French and Raven (1959) power bases, and part three the two personality traits (agreeableness and neuroticism). The French and Raven power variables (Reward, Coercive, Expert, Legitimate and Referent Powers) were measured using a 20-item scale developed by French and Raven (1959). The two personality traits (agreeableness and neuroticism) were measured with a 12 item scale (6 questions each) from the (NEO-Five Factor Inventory) developed by Costa and McCrae (1992). The questionnaire used a seven point Likert scale that ranged from 1= strongly agree, to 7= strongly disagree, and 4 = neutral.

Every variable had its result averaged into a single variable using SPSS 15.0 statistical package. A reliability test was conducted and the result showed an overall reliability with Cronbach's Alpha equal to 0.79. The overall reliability for each of the different bases of power and the personality traits were as follows: reward power = 0.82, coercive power = 0.89, legitimate power = 0.71, expert power = 0.87, referent power = 0.88, neuroticism = 0.88, and agreeableness = 0.70.

## RESULTS

The objective of this study was to empirically test if a relationship exists between the personality traits (neuroticism and agreeableness) and French and Raven basis of power. Descriptive statistics including subscale, number of questions, mean, median, standard deviation and reliability estimates are presented below (see Table 1).

**Table 1**

| Subscale | No. of questions | Mean | Median | Std. Deviation | Standardized item alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reward | 4 | 5.68 | 5.75 | 1.11 | 0.82 |
| Coercive | 4 | 5.01 | 5.2 | 1.47 | 0.89 |
| Legitimate | 4 | 5.51 | 5.75 | 0.92 | 0.71 |
| Expert | 4 | 5.36 | 5.50 | 1.13 | 0.87 |
| Referent | 4 | 5.33 | 5.25 | 1.26 | 0.88 |
| Neuroticism | 6 | 3.50 | 3.50 | 0.77 | 0.88 |
| Agreeableness | 6 | 4.50 | 4.50 | 0.73 | 0.70 |

In order to test the above mentioned six hypotheses for a better organizational performance, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Regression analysis were computed with the bases of powers as the dependent variables and the two stable personality traits as the independent variables. (See results in Table II)

**Table II: Regression Analysis Result**

| | Reward Power | Coercive Power | Legitimate Power | Expert Power | Referent Power |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Neuroticisms | No Significance | F-Value=6.544 $R^2$=0.082 B=0.444 (0.005) | No Significance | F-Value=5.998 $R^2$=0.095 B=-0.260 (0.032) | No Significance |
| Agreeableness | F-Value= 7.511 $R^2$=0.093 B=0.403 (0.001) | No Significance | F-value= 7.731 $R^2$=0.095 B=0.393 (0.000) | F-Value=5.998 $R^2$=0.095 B=0.406 (0.002) | F-Value=3.986 $R^2$=0.051 B=0.390 (0.007) |

The above table shows support for all the six hypotheses drawn from the literature review. H1 is supported, there is a positive relationship between reward power and agreeableness; H2, a positive relationship between legitimate power and agreeableness; H3, a positive relationship between referent power and agreeableness; H4, a positive relation between expert power and agreeableness; H5, a positive relation between coercive power and neuroticism; and H6, a negative relationship between expert power and neuroticism.

This research demonstrates that agreeableness is strongly and positively correlated with referent, legitimate, expert, and reward powers. The findings also demonstrate that neuroticism is positively and highly correlated with coercive power and negatively correlated with expert power with no significant relationship with reward, legitimate, and referent powers within medium size Lebanese organizations.

The demographic variables did not show any significant relationship to neither power, nor personality traits.

## DISCUSSION

A growing body of literature shows that a relationship exists among personality variables and behavior at work (Roberts and Hogan, 2001). The objective of the study was to test the relationship between the personality traits agreeableness and neuroticism and power.

Although studies using the Big Five have become so significant that Ozer and Reise (1994, p.361) declared “Personality psychologists who continue to employ their preferred measure without locating it within the five-factor model can only be likened to geographers who issue reports of new lands but refuse to locate them on a map for others to find,” nevertheless, to the researcher’s knowledge, this is the first study that empirically investigated the relationship between personality traits and French and Raven bases of power.

Our results indicate that a relationship exists between an individual’s stable traits (neuroticism and agreeableness) and power. The results supported our hypothesis that referent and expert powers are positively related to agreeableness. According to Robbins and Judge (2008), a manager’s reference power is improved by individuality that develops his/her appreciation and generates personal desirability in relations with other individuals. These involve agreeable behavior, satisfying personality characteristics, and attractive personal appearance.

Shermerhorn, et al. (2004) and Ambur (2000) agree that referent and expert powers are personal powers which arise from the personal characteristics of the individual and are independent of that individual’s position and other characteristics.

Past research indicated that both referent and expert power correlate positively with employee’s organizational commitment, satisfaction with supervision, and their performance (Robbins and Judge, 2008). It is then logical to assume that, the higher the agreeableness trait, the higher the expert and the referent powers, and the higher the individual’s organizational commitment satisfaction with supervision, and performance.

The results also show that the formal bases of power, i.e. reward and legitimate powers which stem from the individual’s position in the organization were positively related to agreeableness. That is, individuals high in agreeableness tend to rely more on reward and legitimate powers.

Neuroticism was negatively related to referent power and positively related to coercive power. This makes sense because neurotic individuals tend to be emotionally unstable, anxious, and have low self- esteem. Employees in general will probably not look at such a person as having desirable characteristics to identify with, admire, and try to please. The neurotic individual might then resort to coercive methods to exercise his/her authority since coercive power stems from the person’s formal position in the organization (Robbins and Judge, 2008).

## CONCLUSION

This study extends the organizational behavior literature to “medium” size organizations (see definition above) and provides empirical evidence of the relationship between the two personality traits neuroticism and agreeableness with power. The regression analysis showed how the two personality traits agreeableness and neuroticism had significant impact on the different bases of power. However, since by definition, personality traits are believed to be constant overtime (Bozionelos, 2004), and the individual’s personality profile will change little after 30 years of age (McCrae & Costa, 1994) then, the researchers are positive that, causality is directed in one direction i.e. from neuroticism towards power, and neuroticism towards power, and not the other way around.

It is recommended that "medium" size organizations take into consideration the personality traits of individuals and how they related to power in their selection process. However, the results from this study can not be generalized since the sample size is relatively small (175 individuals) and carried out in Lebanon within "medium" size organizations. The researchers suggest that similar studies be carried out in different size organizations, regions, and cultures, where power and personality are deemed highly indispensable for the survival of organizations and the maintenance of competitive advantage. Further research could also explore the other Big Five traits i.e. conscientiousness, extroversion, and openness to experience, and their relation to power in order to build an inclusive and full model representing all the personality traits with the different bases of power.

## MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This study adds to research on management and managerial functions such that it will assist human resource managers in identifying the ideal candidate for a managerial or leadership job requiring power and personality type behaviors. It will also help them understand the individuals' potentials by identifying those who may exercise power regardless of their position, and those who might be unable to exercise power even though they have the appropriate position.

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# THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MACHIAVELLIANISM AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

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## ABSTRACT

*The intention of this study is to identify the relationship between Machiavellianism and the three determinants of career development i.e. career satisfaction, career goals, and career path. 170 employees employed by three retail companies in Lebanon were surveyed. The results from the regression analysis show that high Machiavellian orientation moderated by age and educational attainment, is positively correlated with career goals, and career path. While Low Machiavellian orientation is negatively correlated with career satisfaction and career path.*

Keywords: High Mach's, Low Mach's, Career Development, Career Path, Career Goals, career Satisfaction.

## INTRODUCTION

Many researchers have studied the different personality traits of individuals, that offered a broad explanation about their effect on human behavior (Hamer and Bruch, 1997). The most accepted and studied among them is the Big Five personality traits introduced by MacCrae and Costa (1982) that relates personality to organizational outcomes. These traits were found to be predictors of career development variables. A study by Reed, Bruch, and Haase (1997) found that career exploration which is a variable of career development can be predicted by the Big Five personality traits. For example, openness to experience and neuroticism held unique relations with all the variables of career exploration, while the trait of extraversion and conscientiousness had unique relation with only one exploration variable. On the other hand, shyness proved to impede the career development process during the college years. Also, the trait of shyness was discussed in relation to career development and the findings proved that it delays the career development process during the years of college (Hamer and Bruch, 1997).

Overall, employees' personalities, values, attitudes, norms, and behaviors affect their interactions and performance in the work place. Hence, the study of the relationship between personality traits, management, and organizational behavior is crucial. It helps managers match the right person for the right task (Chung C.Liu, 2008).

## MACHIAVELLIANISM

Machiavellianism is a personality characteristic that describes individuals who mislead and manipulate others for personal gain and success. Christie and Geis (1970) describe Machiavellian oriented individuals as charismatic, confident and smooth as well as proud, distrustful, and prone to influencing and exploiting others. On the other hand, low Machiavellians are kind, submissive, and socially incompetent. Machiavellian candidates are liable to experience negative personality, depend on their logic more than emotions and feelings, disregard personal relationships, and use their emotions to influence others in order to reach their desired destinations (Lau and Shaffer, 1999). This is why Machiavellianism as a personality trait has been regarded negatively.

Research on the relation between Machiavellian orientation and behavioral outcomes has been substantial. High Mach individuals tend to manipulate more, persuade other more than they are persuaded when compared to low Machs (Ramanaiah et al., 1994). Thus, they tend to be distrustful of others and as such, may act in an unethical way. Research suggests that Machiavellian orientation can predict unethical employee actions (Andersson & bateman, 1997).

Gemmill and Heisler (1972) studied 150 managers working in a large manufacturing firm in the Northeastern section of the United States, found a positive relation between Machiavellian orientation and job strain, and formal control. However, the relation with job satisfaction was negative, with no relation to upward mobility. A recent study by Chung C.Liu (2008) concluded that managers can predict employees' knowledge sharing willingness based on the employees' Machiavellian orientation, and that Machiavellian orientation and Knowledge sharing willingness are negatively related.

Yet with all the negative implications towards Machivallian orientation, we find that more High Machiavellian individuals are chosen as leaders since they are very effective in manipulating others and tend to be very skillful in finding a satisfying environment that fits their values and beliefs (Gemmil and Heisler). However, Hambirk and Bradon (1988) argued that Machiavellian oriented CEO's will apply a hierarchical and centralized organizational structure that will grant them power. As such, they prefer employees who are dependent (Zaleznik and Kets de Vries, 1975).

According to McGuire & Hutchings (2006), although Machiavellian thinking ignores the importance of integrity and honesty in their pursuit for power, this thinking plays an important role in understanding and managing change in a complex business environment. Leaders and teams should seize this way of thinking because it improves their dealing with change and all the related variables a business faces. This thinking also provides a precious guide for leaders and managers when facing challenges and barriers in negotiating especially when it relates to the issue of accepting or rejecting organizational change.

Lau and Shaffer (1999) based their study on social learning theories and stated that, personality traits such as, self mentoring, self esteem, locus of control, Machiavellianism, and their correlations are determinants of career success. They found that Machiavellian orientation is a predictor of job performance, and subjective and objective career success.

## CAREER DEVELOPMENT

The University of Wisconsin Adult and Student services (2007) defines Career development as an unending and active process that starts with gathering information, setting goals and making decisions. The career development process/path is defined by a model based on continually assessing, exploring, setting goals, and acting. It is a long term process that begins in early childhood and progresses through adulthood (Ginzberg & et.al, 1951).

Several studies have highlighted different approaches for defining career development process. Parson (1909) proposed the matching approach which defines congruence between career development, individuals' personality, and their occupation. On the other hand, Super's (1974) defined career development in a five stage development process with many tasks for every stage i.e. growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline. At a later stage, Holland (1997) proposed a match between job requirement and personalities, and presented six personality types (Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, social, Enterprising, and Conventional). Holland argued that a person's behavior is the interaction between his/her personality and the environment. That is why individuals should seek out environments that fit their abilities, skills, attitudes, and values. In addition, Lent, Brown, and Hackett's (1994) proposed the Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) which defined the building blocks of career development as self efficacy, outcome expectation.

Recently, there has been renewed interest in the topic of career development due to its relative importance as a competitive edge for organizations (McCarthy & Garavan, 1999). It is a useful mean for facing the social and demographic trends, and the changing nature of work and technology. Thus, the career development process is vital and should be applied by both the employer and the employee. A study by Kuijpers & Scheerens (2006), discussed the many facets that relate to career development i.e. career development ability, reflection on capacities, reflection on motives, work exploration, career control and networking, and there relation to modern career variables (mobility perspective, career support at work and private life). They conclude that increasing mobility, dynamic work environment, and career support within organizations will assist individuals' self management in developing their career.

McCarthy and Garavan (1999) indicated that self awareness is a vital component for career development. They emphasized that the more the individual understands his strengths, weakness, work approaches, and personality type, the more effective his/her training and development. Furthermore, Hamer and Bruch (1997, p.382) concluded that "the social nature of many career development tasks, roles, and personality factors that have relevance to the social realm can be expected to predict career success".

## CAREER DEVELOPMENT & MACHIAVELLIANISM

Lau & Shaffer (1999), Hamer & Bruch (1997), Lounshury, Hutchens, & Loveland (2005) agreed that a correlation exists between personality traits and career decidedness, career success, and job satisfaction. According to Reed, Bruch, and Haase (1997), personality traits should play a crucial role in promoting behavior models that could assist or delay career development behaviors such as career exploration. However, researchers have passed out examining the relation between Machiavellianism which is a personality trait and career development.

In sum, the literature review suggests that high Machs are more capable of manipulating and influencing others in various situations, and so, have an advantage over others in achieving their goals i.e. in support of their career (Ramanaiah et al., 1994; Lau and Shaffer, 1999). Gemmill & Heisler (1972) concluded after reviewing the literature that high Machs appear to be better at finding a satisfying position and in supporting their own career. On the other hand, since low Machs are good natured, trustful, sociable, and honest (Christie, 1970) they are then expected to impede their career development process. The following hypothesis can be drawn:

*H1: High Machs improve individuals' career development*
*H2: Low Machs impede individuals' career development.*

## METHODOLOGY

To test our hypothesis, a survey was carried out in Lebanon between June and August 2008. 200 questionnaires were distributed across 3 retail companies in Lebanon with a letter indicating the purpose of the survey and assurance of anonymity. The response rate was 85% or 170 individuals.

For this investigation the researchers designed a three part questionnaire. The first part collected demographic data and asked about gender, age and position (managerial/non-managerial). The second part included the MACH-IV test developed by Richard Christie (1999). It is a 20-item scale, designed to measure the level of Machiavellian orientation. i.e. high or low. This scale showed high reliability and was used by many (see e.g. Macrosson and Hemphill, 2001; Chung C.Liu, 2008).

The third part had 10 questions that asked about career satisfaction, established goals and career path (Karkoulian & Osman, 2008). All questions were measured using a seven-point Likert scale that ranged from 7= strongly agree to 1=strongly disagree and 4= neutral.

## RESULTS

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationship between Machiavellianism and career development path and whether it enhances or impedes career development.

The major demographic results were as follows: 75% of respondents were between 20 and 30 years, with females (61%) and males (39%). 70.5% held masters degrees, 18% with a bachelor degree and the remaining 10.5% high school. 58% had 1 year experience, and 19% -5 years (see Table 1 for all results).

**Table-1: Demographic Results**

| **Gender** | # of respondents | % percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Female | 105 | 61% |
| Male | 65 | 39% |
| **Age** | | |
| Between 20-29 | 10 | 5% |
| Between 30-39 | 128 | 75% |
| Between 40-49 | 32 | 20% |
| **Education Level** | | |
| High School | 18 | 10.5% |
| BS/BA | 32 | 18% |
| MAB/MS/MA | 120 | 70.5% |
| **Years of Experience** | | |
| 1 year | 97 | 58% |
| 2 years | 9 | 5% |
| 3 years | 8 | 4.5% |
| 4 years | 8 | 4.5% |
| 5 years | 32 | 19% |
| 8 years | 8 | 4.5% |
| 10 years | 8 | 4.5% |
| Total | 170 | 100% |

The Pearson Chi-square test was used to see the association between Machiavellian variable and the demographic variables. The null hypotheses for each demographic variable are stated below:

*H1: Machiavellian scores and years of experience are not related.*
*H2: Machiavellian scores and age are not related.*
*H3: Machiavellian scores and gender are not related.*
*H4: Machiavellian scores and level of education are not related.*

The results from the null hypothesis are stated in Table 2

**Table-2: Chi-Square test results**

| **Pearson Chi-Square** | **value** | **df** | **Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)** |
|---|---|---|---|

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Machiavellian variable and years of experience | 2.016 | 1 | 0.156 |
| Machiavellian variable and age | 10.919 | 1 | 0.004 |
| Machiavellian variable and gender | 0.934 | 1 | 0.334 |
| Machiavellian variable and level of education | 12.959 | 1 | 0.002 |
| N of valid cases | 170 | | |
| Significance level=or < 0.05 | | | |

From the above chi-square table results indicate that the null hypothesis H1 and H3 are accepted, while the null hypothesis H2 and H4 are rejected. Then more analysis of the H2 and H4 among High Mach individuals is presented below:

| Number of respondents | High Mach | Low Mach |
|---|---|---|
| 170 | 90/170=53% | 80/120=47% |
| | Age =82 % (30-39) | Age=67% (30-39) |
| | Education=81% master | Education=57% master |

Among the 170 respondents, those with High Mach orientation (53%), had 82% age range between 30-39, and 81% with a masters degree.

Using SPSS package 16.0, a Pearson correlation was performed to test the relationship between the two dependent variables (High Machs, Low Machs) and the three independent variables (career satisfaction, career path, and career goal) (see results in Table-3).

| **Table 3-Correlation Table** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Career Goals | Career Path | Career satisfaction |
| Low Mach | Pearson correlation | -.001 | -.217** | -.477** |
| | Sig.(2-tailed) | .986 | .005 | .000 |
| High Mach | Pearson correlation | .288** | .256** | -.024 |
| | Sig.(2-tailed) | .000 | .001 | .760 |

The above correlation table shows that individuals with high Mach scores indicated a positive correlation with career goals (r=0.288), and career path (r=0.256), with no relation to career satisfaction.

Those with Low Mach scores had a negative correlation with career path (r= -0.217) and career satisfaction (r= -0.477), and no relation with career goals.

For further analysis the researchers conducted regression analysis. The results are presented below:

## Regression results for High Mach orientation

| **Anova table** | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | Sum of squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 | Regression | 24.340 | 3 | 8.113 | 10.219.000[a] |

| Coefficients table | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Unstanderized coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
| | | B | Std.Error | | | |
| 1 | (constant) | 2.458 | 0.363 | | 6.779 | 0 |
| | Career Goals | 0.272 | 0.066 | 0.293 | 4.091 | 0 |
| | Career Path | 0.227 | 0.06 | 0.278 | 3.798 | 0 |
| | Career Satisfaction | -0.083 | 0.074 | -0.081 | -1.112 | 0.268 |

The linear regression equation generated is:

*High Machs= 2.458+ 0.272 career goals+0.227 career path*

The two independent variables (career goals and career path) were significantly positively related to the dependent variable (High Machs). No significant relation was found between High Machs career satisfaction.

**Regression equation for the Low Mach orientation**

| Anova Table | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | Sum of squares | Df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
| 1 | Regression | 116.890 | 3 | 38.963 | 17.475.000[a] |

| Coefficients Table | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Unstanderized coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | t | Sig. |
| | | B | Std.Error | | | |
| 1 | (constant) | 7.381 | 0.608 | | 12.147 | 0 |
| | Career Goals | -0.006 | 0.111 | -0.004 | -0.056 | 0.956 |
| | Career Path | -0.179 | 0.1 | -0.124 | -1.78 | 0.004 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Career Satisfaction | -0.808 | 0.124 | -0.451 | -6.496 | 0 |
| Significance level=or < 0.05 | | | | | | |

The linear regression equation generated is:

***Low Mach's = 7.381 -0.179 career path -0.808 career satisfaction***

The two independent variables (career satisfaction and career path) were negatively related to low Machs. No significant relation was found between Low Machs and the independent variable career goals.

## DISCUSSION

This research studied the relationship between Machiavellian orientation and career development. The results support our two hypotheses in general that High Machs improve individuals' career development and Low Machs impede individuals' career development. High Machs had a positive relationship with career goals and career path i.e. the higher the Mach orientation, the clearer the career path, and the faster the career goals can be reached. This is contrary to previous research conducted in Hong Kong on bank executives that concluded, individuals with low Machiavellian scores tend to achieve higher job success, while those with a high Mach scores have a greater satisfaction with their jobs (Siu and Tam, 1995). This could be as a result of the Hong Kong banking environment being too structured as opposed to the organizational environment where the research was carried out i.e. retail sector.

Our results also indicated that High Mach orientation had no relation with career satisfaction. This is in agreement with Gemmil & Heisler (1972) who found that the greater the Machiavellian orientation of managers, the lower is the career satisfaction.

On the other hand, Low Mach orientation was negatively correlated with career path and career satisfaction, but had no relation to career goals. This result seems logical since Low Mach oriented individuals are less manipulative, are more persuaded than High Machs (Robbins & Judge, 2007), and are socially incompetent which will cause their career to suffer.

The variables age (30-39) and education (master's degree holders), were the only demographic variables that indicated a significant relation to Machiavellian orientation. Results of previous research investigating Machiavellian orientation and demographic variables are mixed. On one hand, Mudrack (1989) found no direct relation between Machiavillan orientation and age. However, researchers tend to believe that they are somewhat related since, younger individuals are likely to be less ethically inclined or less stable in their ethical judgment (Pratte et al., 1983). Also Tuner & martinez (1977), found that Macciavillan males with high education will more likely achieve success

## CONCLUSION

These results propose new additions to the theory and practice relating to personality and career development. Our findings show how career development, to a great extent, is influenced by having a high Machiavellian orientation moderated by age an educational attainment in the retail sector in Lebanon. However, since our results can not be generalized, further study needs to investigate these relationships in other cultures and sectors.

Although Machiavellians disregard ethical behavior and believe "ends justify the means", they flourish in situations that are less structured. Nevertheless, it is sometimes important to possess certain characteristics that show relevance to handling and influencing others (e.g. in negotiations) especially in leadership roles. These individuals are able to arouse emotions of love and motivate in their followers in a way that improves their own career development process, and increases the performance of the organization. We can then conclude that whether having high Machiavellian orientation is a good character, depends on the sector, and culture. We then recommended that organizations match the right job with the right personality for a better organizational performance.

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# CURRENT MISSION STATEMENT EMPHASIS: BE ETHICAL AND GO GLOBAL

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## ABSTRACT

*Mission statements are a critically important piece of business communication from an organization to all of its stakeholders. They must be constantly revised and modified in response to changes within the organization and its environment. This paper examines current mission statements found on the 2008 Fortune 500 list of companies. In an attempt to maintain a reasonable length article, the authors have chosen to analyze the top 50 Fortune firms listed on the CNN Money website located at http://money.cnn.com/magazines/fortune. The results of this study are compared with an article published in the Academy of Managerial Communications Journal in 2001 by the lead author of this paper.*

*Given the current global economic conditions, the authors attempted to determine if such conditions affected the content of current mission statements. First, it appears that many organizations are emphasizing the significance of international or global operations in their mission statements. Today it is relatively easy for even a small firm to develop a webpage and market goods around the world. A second emphasis in current mission statements involves "going green." The authors' definition of "going green" includes the concepts of ethical behavior, being socially responsible, and protecting the environment. In addition to reviewing goals and objectives discussed in mission statements, the authors also analyze the stakeholders included in a typical 2008 mission statement.*

# DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION IN ORGANIZATIONS: DEVELOPING AN INSTRUMENT FOR IDENTIFICATION OF SKILL DEFICIENCIES

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## ABSTRACT

*The benefits of diversity in a global economy are well recognized (Allen, Dawson, Wheatley, & White, 2008). Managing a diverse workforce is a business imperative yet challenges continue to exist. Organizational members might not recognize the impact they have on others and how to build their toolkit of inter-cultural competence. As a consequence the need to develop an instrument that will identify organizational members' skill deficiency in diversity inclusion is essential. If the organizational goal of embedding an inclusive environment is at odds with the values, behaviors, attitudes and feelings of its employees, then the goal will not be fully achieved and the bottom line of the business will be impacted (Allen, Dawson, Wheatley, & White, 2008). Although practitioners and scholars have focused on organizational policies and procedures regarding diversity, less time has been spent on the "norms and values" involved in creating inclusiveness(Pless & Maak, 2004, p. 129).*

*While it is imperative to understand attitudes and perceptions of diversity (De Meuse & Hostager, 2001) the next step in organizational diversity competence is identification of skills gaps and remediation. In order to accomplish these organizational outcomes we propose the development and validation of an instrument, the Inclusion Skills Measurement Profile (ISM) The purpose of the instrument is to provide organizations with the insight and tools necessary to move diversity to the next level.*

## INTRODUCTION

The benefits of diversity in a global economy are well recognized (Allen, Dawson, Wheatley, & White, 2008). Managing a diverse workforce is acknowledged as a business imperative yet challenges continue to exist. In order to maximize and leverage the benefits of 21st century workplace diversity, companies spend time and resources on diversity training, even though the outcomes are often less than desired (Chavez & Weisinger 2008). Because organizational members might not recognize the impact they have on others, there is a need to build their toolkit of inter-cultural competence in order to insure an inclusive environment. Such knowledge is essential in today's organizations. If the organizational goal of embedding an inclusive environment is at odds with the values, behaviors, attitudes and feelings of its employees, then the goal will not be fully achieved.

While there has been a focus on organizational policies and procedures regarding diversity, less time has been spent on the "norms and values" involved in creating inclusiveness (Pless & Maak, p. 129). Indeed barriers are often created that make inclusion difficult to achieve (Pless & Maak, 2004). Despite the move in the practitioner literature from diversity to inclusion, Roberson (2006) indicates that "there is a critical difference between merely having diversity in an organization's workforce and developing the organizational capacity to leverage diversity as a resource"( p. 234). Inclusion, as conceptualized by Roberson, is distinctly different than diversity. Diversity focuses on the makeup of the population or the demographics, while inclusion encompasses involvement, engagement, and "the integration of diversity into organizational processes" ( p. 228). Chavez and Weisinger (2008) also recognized this distinct difference between diversity and inclusion and viewed inclusion as an "attitudinal and cultural transformation" (p. 331). Lieber (2008) also stresses the importance of creating a supportive environment that is not only diverse but also respectful and inclusive.

In order to accomplish these organizational outcomes an Inclusion Skills Measurement Profile (ISM) has been developed and will be validated. It is designed to assist individuals and organizations to recognize the skills necessary to embed an inclusive environment and to identify the skills gaps that need to be addressed in order to ensure a high level of success and competence. Complex systems are intricate and change only when positive influences occur at multiple levels. Therefore, these seven categories take into account intra-personal, inter-personal group, and organizational skills components needed to embed an inclusive environment in an organizational context.

The development and validation of an instrument for identifying skill dificiencies in diversity and inclusion will take place in two phases. Once the instrument has been validated in the self assessment process in phase one, the instrument testing process will be expanded. In phase two an individual will be assessed by six colleagues such as peers, supervisors and subordinates in a 360 degree approach. The two phase testing process will yield a portrait of an individual's skill level on inclusion and diversity. In addition the organization will be able to access cumulative reports to identify inclusion skills of teams or business units.

## DIMENSIONS OF INCLUSION

The ISM Profile is designed to help individuals and organizations recognize the skills necessary to embed an inclusive environment and to identify the skills gaps that need to be addressed in order to ensure a high level of success and competence. The theoretical framework within which each category resides is based on expert knowledge and research. The ISM Profile is based on the concept that all levels of a system work synergistically. Kivel (1995) argues that we need to form alliances with others who are different from us in order to become champions of diversity. He contends that in order to build an inclusive environment we need to build competence and become allies in an ongoing strategic process that involves personal, social and organizational analysis (p. 86). Each category of the ISM Profile is a building block in that process.

Key competencies are as follows: On the intra-personal level, competencies include having diversity sensitivity and integrity with difference. Inter-personal competence includes interacting with difference and valuing difference while the group level includes team inclusion and managing conflict over difference. And finally, organizational competencies will mean embedding inclusion into the culture and fabric of the system.

## DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE INSTRUMENT

**Phase I.**

Subjects. During Phase I, a minimum of 100 currently employed adults will be asked to take the ISM Profile questionnaire. All will be over the age of 18 and asked to volunteer without compensation. In addition, 20 of the original sample will be asked to take the test again three weeks later in order to assess reliability of the instrument. Students with full time jobs who attend Business School weekend classes will be asked to participate, as will others in the business community through word of mouth. It is anticipated that 120 subjects will need to volunteer to get the minimum 100 properly completed forms.

Procedure. After subjects volunteer, they will be asked to sign a consent form and then given a paper copy of the questionnaire to fill out. It is anticipated that this will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. The individuals will rate themselves on a variety of questions related to the topic of attitudes towards diversity. A copy of the full questionnaire is included in Appendix I. The completed questionnaire answers will be entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 2008) by the student employees. The data will be used to analyze the test, insure the reliability of the questions, determine the ideal length of the test, and determine whether all scales are necessary in the final instrument. The instrument will be revised based on the statistical data and the revised instrument used for Phase II.

**Phase II.**

Subjects. During Phase II, at least 100 "focus" subjects will be solicited to take part in the second phase. Focus subjects will be asked to take the questionnaire themselves and then hand out an additional 6 verification copies to supervisors and peers in their business environment. The forms will be coded so that the researchers are aware which verification copies are associated with which focus individual without knowing the identity of any of the participants. All subjects will be asked to self-identify themselves as a member of one of the diversity groups assessed by the questionnaire (gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, age and religion ) but this information will not be used to select or solicit subjects. It is anticipated that at least 50% of the focus and verification subjects will self-identify themselves as belonging to one of the diversity groups.

All of the participants will be given pre-paid envelopes to return their completed questionnaire. Focus and verification questionnaires will be identical except that the verification questionnaire will ask the relationship of the individual to the focus individual and ask them to comment on the focus individual rather than themselves. Students with full time jobs who attend Business School weekend classes will be asked to participate, as will others in the business community through word of mouth. It is anticipated that at least 150 sets of 7 tests (1 focus plus 6 verification) will be needed to get at least 100 completed sets for statistical analysis.

## E. Evaluation

### Phase I.

Phase I data will be analyzed using SPSS 16. Data for each of the scales will be analyzed for internal reliability and determining the optimal number of items for each scale. Factor analysis will be employed to identify sub-factors (if any) within each scale and their contribution to the overall attitude being measured for appropriateness in that scale. Item inter-correlations across and within the scales will be used to eliminate items which are redundant. Reliability data will be used to eliminate items which show unacceptable levels of test-retest reliability. Scale intercorrelations will be used to determine if scales are redundant or actually measuring different things. Factor analysis will also be employed to examine the relationship of the scale scores. Using this information, revisions to the questionnaire will be made with the goal of retaining the maximum information while reducing the overall number of items. Additional scales using the existing items may also be added if the factor analyses of the scales show that scales are multidimensional rather than uni-dimensional.

### Phase II

In Phase II, the analyses performed in Phase I will be repeated in order to cross-validate the original findings regarding the structure of the questionnaire. In addition, correlations will be calculated between individual answers and scale scores from the focus subject to individual answers and scale scores from the verification individuals. This information will be broken down by type of relationship to see if results are different from subordinates, peers and supervisors. This data will be used to assess the degree of agreement between self-reports and external reports. ANOVA's will be employed to analyze the magnitude of differences between the focus subjects and the verification subjects. This data will be used to determine the effectiveness of self-report about diversity attitudes and employed in designing intervention techniques to raise awareness. These analyses will also be repeated to look for differences between the assessment of focus subjects and verification subjects who self-identify themselves as belonging to one of the diversity groups assessed by the questionnaire. In additional, these analyses will be generated between focus subjects who identify themselves as belonging to one of the diversity groups and their verification subjects. It anticipated that at least 50% of the focus and verification subjects will self-identify themselves as belonging to one of the diversity groups. This will test for differences in perception which arise from membership in one of these groups.

## LIMITATIONS, FUTURE RESEARCH AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Self assessment and 360 degree assessment tools are subject to personal bias and the halo effect of the participants. In addition, when working with diversity and inclusion challenges, feedback is also filtered through the perceptions and frame of reference of the individual's primary social identity group experience. i.e. seeing the world as a man or a woman, as a caucasian or person of color. This will inevitably bias perceptions and skew feedback through these filters. A third limitation could arise as the result of the organizations motivation for having its employees use the assessment tool. If morale is low and people feel pressured to complete a Diversity and Inclusion assessment tool the results can be skewed by the presence of other organizational issues. Another limitation to the use of a Diversity and Inclusion 360 Assessment as a tool to embed inclusion, will be the extent to which the organization using the tool will implement follow up actions as a result of the feedback. Failure to follow up would result in individuals gaining insight and yet the organization would be at risk of maintaining the status quo.

Implications for management include the design and evaluation of specific interventions to create a connection between diversity and productivity. The implementation of a tool to identify diversity skills gaps can be a first step in this process.

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# ORGANIZATIONAL HOSTILITY TOWARD WHISTLEBLOWERS

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## ABSTRACT

*This paper examines hostile reactions toward whistleblowers who report violations of laws, rules, or regulations. This is an inherent organizational characteristic. We punish those who tell the truth if it causes embarrassment to the organization or exposes it to punishment. Some studies have tried to determine why members of organizations react in this manner. Others have suggested that the best way to avoid embarrassment by whistleblowers is to have a strong compliance program within the organization to react positively to such reports.*

## INTRODUCTION

There are various methods of discouraging those who wish to report an act that is a violation of a law, a regulation, or a rule. The easiest way is to order them not to speak or make a statement. If the order is ignored the supervisor can make an example of the whistleblowers by taking adverse actions against them. These adverse actions are noted by others in similar positions as a warning not to take similar actions in the future.

## RETALIATION

Lucia Paccione worked as a sales representative for Cephalon Inc., a drug manufacturer. She claimed she was fired for expressing her concerns to her immediate supervisor regarding the illegal off label marketing of drugs. Off label marketing is the selling of drugs for purposes not approved by the Food and Drug Administration (FDA). Despite the FDA's letter, sent to Cephalon in 2002, which warned the company not to continue to promote one of its drugs off label, the company continued to do so. Prosecutors contended in court papers filed against the company that it trained its sales personnel to disregard FDA restrictions and structured its sales quota and bonuses so that sales representatives could not reach their sales goals unless they sold the drugs for off label uses (Duffy, 2008)  The company agreed to pay $375 million to settle False Claims Act claims by Medicaid and Medicare and pay $50 million in fines. In addition, it paid Ms. Paccione over $46 million. She in turn agreed to split the sum with three other whistleblowers (Duffy).

John Marti, the first assistant prosecutor for the U.S. Attorney in Minnesota, was demoted for reporting his boss, Rachel Paulose, for careless handling of classified homeland security reports. In retaliation, Paulose had Marti removed as her first assistant and demoted to Assistant U.S. Attorney. The Office of Special Counsel confirmed Paulose's actions and awarded Marti back pay, a lump sum payment and any negative references removed from his personnel records (Karnowski, 2008).

In 2006, the United States Supreme Court ruled that a public employee could be disciplined for doing his job. Richard Ceballos was a supervising deputy district attorney for the Los Angeles County District Attorney's Office. He had been employed there since 1989. He was a calendar deputy in the Pomona branch with some supervisory duties over other attorneys. In February 2000, a defense attorney asked him about incorrect descriptions in an affidavit used to obtain a search warrant. Ceballos claimed that it was normal for defense attorneys to ask calendar deputies to look into elements of pending cases. The defense attorney had already filed a motion to challenge the warrant.

After reviewing the affidavit and visiting the location described in the affidavit, Ceballos concluded the affidavit had made critical misrepresentations. What the affidavit described as a long driveway, Ceballos thought should have been described as a separate roadway. He also doubted the affiant's assertion that tire tracks led from a derelict truck to the premises to be searched because the surface of the roadway made it difficult to leave visible tire tracks (Garcetti, 1955).

After speaking by phone with the deputy sheriff who had applied for the warrant and not receiving an explanation with which he was comfortable, Ceballos informed his supervisors and prepared a memorandum in which he recommended dismissal of the case. Ignoring his recommendation, his supervisor proceeded with the case. At a hearing on the defense motion to challenge the warrant, Ceballos was called by the defense to testify as to his conclusions about the affidavit. The motion was denied.

Following these events, Ceballos claimed he was subject to retaliation by his employer. These actions included reassignment from calendar deputy to trial deputy, transfer to another courthouse, and denial of a promotion. He filed a grievance which was denied because he had not suffered any adverse action by his employer. He then sued in federal district court alleging his employer had violated his First and Fourteenth Amendment rights by retaliating against him based on his memorandum. In answer, his employer responded that all actions were due to staffing requirements and that his memo was not protected speech under the First Amendment. The district court granted the employer's motion for summary judgment concluding that Ceballos wrote the memorandum according to his employment duties which were not protected speech under the First Amendment. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals reversed holding that Ceballos's allegations of defects in the affidavit in his memorandum were protected speech under the First Amendment. By a 5-4 vote, the Supreme Court reversed the Ninth Circuit, holding that when public employees make statements arising under their official duties, the employees are not speaking as citizens for First

Amendment purposes and the Constitution does not protect their words from employer discipline (Garcetti, 1960).

On a 60 Minutes broadcast, Anderson Cooper interviewed Joe Darby, the soldier who turned in the pictures of prisoner abuse at Abu Ghraib. Mr. Darby was from Appalachia, where he joined the Army Reserves to become an MP. His local unit was sent to Iraq and assigned to Abu Ghraib. He discovered the pictures of prisoner abuse because one of his unit members gave him CDs on which they were stored. Darby decided he had to turn in the pictures, but he wanted to do it anonymously, because he knew a lot of his unit members would regard him "as being a stool pigeon or …a rat" (Cooper, 3). Even though he was promised confidentiality by a CID investigator, his name was broadcast nationwide when the Secretary of Defense, testifying before a Congressional committee, mentioned he was the source of the pictures of prisoner abuse. He did get support from his unit, but not back home in Cumberland, Maryland. There they felt he had betrayed his unit members. The commander of the local VFW post related what people were saying. "He was a rat. He was a traitor. He let his unit down…"(Cooper). Then the commander added his own belief. "I agree that his actions …were no good and borderline traitor…"(Cooper, 4). To prevent the soldiers in Iraq from retaliating against him, the military command sent Darby home early, ahead of his unit. However, when he arrived stateside, he was informed that the Army Reserve had done a security assessment of his home town and concluded it was not safe for him to return. Mrs. Darby received phone calls telling her Joe "was a dead man. That he was walking around with a bull's-eye on his head" (Cooper, 5). Both sides of their families have turned against them. They cannot go home and cannot say where they are currently living for their safety. (Cooper, 6-7).

Reporters for the Washington Post printed a story about the neglect of outpatient wounded soldiers at Walter Reed Army Medical Center. Even though top military officials at Walter Reed knew of the neglect from complaints of Congressmen, their spouses, wounded soldiers, and their families, no action was taken. Last October, a woman who had volunteered many times to help at Walter Reed with outpatients, brought the wife of then Defense Secretary Donald Rumsfeld to a weekly meeting at which wives, girlfriends, and mothers of soldiers exchanged stories and offered support. At the end of the meeting, Mrs. Rumsfeld asked one of the staff members whether she thought that the soldiers picked to meet her husband had been chosen to paint a rose colored picture of their time there. The answer was yes. When Walter Reed officials discovered that Mrs. Rumsfeld had secretly visited, they told the friend who had brought her that she was no longer welcomed at Walter Reed (Hull, 2). In February of this year, the wounded soldiers who had spoken to reporters were told that there would be early morning room inspections and that further contact with reporters was prohibited. Some soldiers viewed these actions as retaliation for speaking to the press (Hull, 3).

In 2007, the Supreme Court made it harder for whistleblowers to collect a share of the fines collected for fraud by government contractors. By a 6-2 vote, the Court ruled that James Stone, a retired engineer, could not collect anything for his role in exposing fraud at the Rocky Flats nuclear weapons facility northwest of Denver. Stone was not eligible to collect a fee from the $4.2 million fine for fraud because he was not the original source of the information that led to Rockwell International being ordered to pay the fine (Sherman). The company, supported by defense, energy, and pharmaceutical interests, wanted the Court to restrict when a whistleblower can collect for suing on the government's behalf. The Bush administration supported Stone because it would encourage whistleblowers to uncover fraud against the government. The False Claims Act permits persons, acting on behalf of the government, to bring fraud suits against companies that have contracts with the government. If they win, they get to receive a percentage of what the contractor pays the government. The issue in the case was whether Stone provided the information that the jury used to find fraudulent claims filed by Rockwell. Stone claimed he was the original source. Rockwell said he could not have been because Stone was laid off a year before it began submitting false claims relating to meeting goals of treating low-level radioactive wastes at the former atomic weapons plant. The title of the case is Rockwell International v. U.S., ex rel Stone.

## THEORIES

A number of studies have examined why organizations retaliate against whistleblowers. Shahinpoor and Matt note that today's working students in undergraduate business classes still find their bosses act just like feudal lords obsessed with maintaining their own order. They use a model that rewards conformity, obedience and loyalty to bosses, and avoiding blame. Questioning is seen as disloyal and insubordinate and dealt with in a hostile manner (Shahinpoor, 37).

Hassink, de Vries, and Bollen examined whistleblowing policies of European companies and compared them to national whistleblowing regulations similar to the United States Sarbanes-Oxley Act. They concluded that the policies at the corporate level seemed to be more effective (Hassink, 2007).

Monin, Sawyer, and Marquez examined the hostile reaction to whistleblowers. They did a series of studies involving college students. From their studies they concluded that reactions to whistleblowers fall into three categories. Uninvolved observers will be inspired, coworkers will be hostile because it calls into question their own obedient behavior or silence toward the wrongdoing, and coworkers not directly involved will be passive (Monin, 2008).

## CONCLUSION

It is human nature to punish those who do not follow the crowd. We have done it since the beginning of recorded time. When we told our parents that our siblings were violating a rule, we were invariably told it was not nice to tell on others. The rule was implanted early in our psyches. The current Supreme Court seems to mirror that rule. The Court could easily have sided with Ceballos. The majority chose to ignore a great deal of evidence. It is interesting to note that this case was argued twice; once, while Justice O'Connor was on the bench, and a second time after Justice

Alito replaced her. It looks like O'Connor had voted with the dissent and her replacement turned the minority opinion into the majority opinion. So the Court upholds punishing a deputy district attorney who does what the California Code of Professional Conduct for attorneys requires, i.e., that he disclose exculpatory evidence to the defendant. If he had not, he risked having his license to practice law suspended or revoked (Garcetti, 1962).

Joe Darby and his wife cannot return to Cumberland, Maryland, their birthplace and home of their parents and grandparents and cousins. Why? Because Joe Darby did what he was required to do. He reported a violation of duty by MPs guarding Iraqi prisoners at Abu Ghraib. Even though it involved only seven out of two hundred MPs from his unit, the townsfolk regarded him as the traitor, not the seven who violated the code of military conduct. They are the heroes who can return home after they get out of prison. But Joe Darby who testified for the prosecution at their trials cannot. He is the one under witness protection.

What can companies do to prevent whistleblower embarrassment? Implement a policy which reacts positively to internal reports of violations. Promulgate a compliance program which includes a corporate integrity program with periodic training for employees. Review and update the compliance program. Keep records of compliance audits, employee training, and disciplinary measures taken. Address problems when they arise rather than sweeping them under the table. If the company values the employee who reports a problem and acts on it, they are less likely to go outside the company to report it. Maintain good employee relations to avoid unhappy employees reporting to outside agencies (Sinatra, Jr. 2009).

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# LINKAGES AMONG EMPLOYEE PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT TO THE GREEN MOVEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, AND THEIR PERCEIVED IMPACTS UPON

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## INTRODUCTION

In this research, we consider how employee perceptions of the organization's commitment to the "green" movement and employee perceptions that the organization has implemented green practices in a high quality manner. A stimulus for our work has been widespread recent discussion of the need to shift attention to issues of *sustainability,* a concept which is central to the green movement.

### The Green Movement

Recent events, and especially rising gasoline prices, a depressed housing market, and instabilities in the world economy, have led to considerable discussion of the current status of the "green movement", a phenomenon which has appeared over the past 20 years (Stafford, 2003). It encompasses areas such as "green buying" by consumers (Mainieri, et al., 1997), Environmentally Preferable Purchasing (EPP) by government agencies and ultimately by organizations in the private sector (Elwood & Case, 2000), Environmentally Benign Design and Manufacturing (EBDM) (Newsdesk, 2006), and Socially Responsible Investing (SRI) (Blodget, 2007). In each case, discussion has centered on purchasing, manufacturing, and investing in ways which are environmentally beneficial. Historically, emphasis has been placed on insuring that EPP products are attractive to consumers (Ottman, Stafford & Hartman, 2006; Dale, 2008) and insuring that organizations have sufficient incentives to behave in environmentally-constructive ways (Elwood & Case, 2000).

In contrast, a second stream in the literature has suggested that the "green movement" may be in decline. Specifically, one of the "Current Issues in the Greening of Industry" (July 2007) suggests that the current "new-found environmental ethic" may be somewhat ephemeral and that "… corporate greening could go bust" in ways analogous to other recent fad-like phenomena. Moreover, Stafford (2003) points out that "… green issues as a whole appear to be taking a back seat to concerns of terrorism, war, and the economy." However, Dale (2008) points out that, with soaring energy prices pushing up the price of mainstream goods, green products are becoming just as -- or even more -- affordable these days. Stafford also notes that concerns about oil could lead to a movement to reduce dependence on oil in the U.S., and thus foster this aspect of the green movement.

During this unsettled period, one important set of questions centers upon consumers, who, themselves are employees as well and the issue of determining the extent of their commitment to the green movement. We have recently (Li, Hartman & Zee, 2008) reported our initial work to design a scale to measure commitment to the green movement. Our emphasis was on development of an instrument which would tap the key concerns of the green movement. Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia, points out that the Green Movement originated from Green Politics, a political ideology. Greens, the supporters of the green movement, advocate green politics and place a high importance on ecological and environmental goals. The greens share many ideas with the ecology, conservation, environmental, feminist, and peace movements; civil liberties, social justice and nonviolence are the issues they focus upon as well. We reported encouraging initial findings which suggest that the instrument can be used to examine consumer/employee commitment.

Environmental friendliness and sustainability are the major concerns of green products, green manufacturing and service, and green organizations (Liu & He, 2005). All of the green activities, such as reducing waste, using harmless materials, and providing organic food can be placed under the umbrella of greening. Providing a clean, ethical and safe environment to human beings and all creatures is the goal of green movement, and is one which potentially requires the efforts of all the people, industries and governments on the earth (Grewe 2002; Holden 2004; Patulny & Norris, 2005; Tiemstra, 2003).

## Organizational Culture and Sustainability

In this research, we also speculate that *organizational culture* may impact employee perceptions of the green movement and its importance to the organization and to them personally. Moreover, culture may impact perceptions about outcomes as well. Note, however, that the impacts between the culture and the perceptions may move in two directions. Specifically, as organizations become *greener*, we should see a move toward a more empowered, employee-centered, and customer-centered culture. Additionally, however, a culture which is supportive of the green movement should lead to better outcomes and, perhaps in part through self-selection, to employees who, themselves, are more supportive of the green movement.

Several researchers have also speculated that sustainability is being fueled by pressures to insure long-term survival under increasing emphasis on globalization. See especially Dervitsiotis (2001) and Wilkinson, Hill and Gollan (2001). Finally, and relating closely to our ideas about culture and employee attitudes toward the green movement, work by Rapp and Eklund (2002) calls for employee involvement with emphasis on suggestion systems. Daily and Huang (2001) point to the importance of human resources management and especially in HR leadership in developing programs such as those fostering commitment (see also Matta, Davis, Mayer & Conlon, 1996). Underscoring the importance of employee personality, and our thoughts on self-selection, Ahmad and Schroeder (2002) have called for selection efforts centering on identifying applicants with potential fit.

In this research, we extend the examination of these issues to consider employee perceptions of organizational commitment to the green movement and the relationships which may exist between personal and organizational commitment and perceived outcomes.

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# WORK LOCUS OF CONTROL AND THE MULTI-DIMENSIONALITY OF JOB SATISFACTION

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## ABSTRACT

*This study furthers the research on work locus of control (WLC) and job satisfaction by examining the relationships between these variables using multiple dimensions of job satisfaction. In particular, we employ Herzberg Two-Factor theory to hypothesize WLC as a predictor of satisfaction with work on present job, predictor of satisfaction with present pay, predictor of satisfaction for opportunities for promotion, predictor for satisfaction with supervision, predictor for satisfaction with people at work, and predictor for the job in general. Further, we suggest WLC will have impact differences on the WLC-job satisfaction dimensions relationships. We examine these proposed relationships in a sample of 114 accountants in the southeast part of the United States. In general, our results provide strong support for the proposed associations. Conclusions, limitations, managerial implications, and directions for future research are offered.*

*Keywords: Work Locus of Control, Job satisfaction, Two-Factor Theory*