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# Table of Contents

**IMPROVING ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE THROUGH TERRITORIAL MAPPING ..... 1**  
Steve Brown, Eastern Kentucky University  
Ted Brown, Territorial Institute

**NAVIGATING ONLINE LEARNING THROUGH ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY..... 3**  
Peter Cowden, Niagara University  
Susan Sze, Niagara University

**DIMENSIONS OF EXPATRIATE STRESS ..... 7**  
Austin Doerr, Indiana Wesleyan University  
Aaron Cecil, Indiana Wesleyan University  
Andrea Meyering, Indiana Wesleyan University

**PLAYING NICE IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL SANDBOX: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY AS AN EXPLANATORY CONSTRUCT IN UNDERSTANDING NEGATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR ..... 11**  
Kelli L. Fellows, Pfeiffer University  
Lauren Presher, Pfeiffer University

**THE ELEPHANT IN THE LIVING ROOM: FAVORITISM IN THE WORKPLACE.... 13**  
Julie Indvik, California State University, Chico  
Pamela R. Johnson, California State University, Chico

**JOURNEY TO THE TOP: ARE THERE REALLY GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE SELECTION AND UTILIZATION OF CAREER TACTICS? ..... 19**  
Robert L. Laud, William Paterson University  
Matthew Johnson, Columbia University

**ADVANCING UPWARD? AN EXAMINATION OF CAREER TACTICS AND STRATEGIES OF SUCCESSFUL MEN AND WOMEN ..... 21**  
Robert L. Laud, William Paterson University  
Matthew Johnson, Columbia University

**GENDER (IN)EQUALITY IN KOREAN FIRMS: RESULTS FROM STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWS..... 27**  
Louise Patterson, KyungHee University  
SeongO Bae, Samsung Economic Research Institute

**PROFESSIONAL INTIMACY: EXPLORING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MANAGERS AND SUBORDINATES ..... 29**  
Natasha W. Randle, Mississippi State University-Meridian  
Kristena P. Gaylor, Belhaven University  
Christopher J. Mathis, Morgan State University

**“DYADIC MANAGEMENT”: A NECESSITY FOR TODAY’S DIVERSE WORKFORCE..... 31**  
L. Jeff Seaton, Murray State University

**BEAUTY PREJUDICE IN THE WORKPLACE ..... 33**  
Felicia A. Smith, North Greenville University

**RELIGIOSITY IN THE WORKPLACE: A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF EMPLOYEE AGE AND RELIGIOSITY ON JOB SATISFACTION ..... 35**  
Robin L. Snipes, Columbus State University  
Jennifer Pitts, Columbus State University

**PERCEPTIONS OF AMERICAN AND NIGERIAN LECTURERS AT AN AMERICAN STYLE UNIVERSITY IN NIGERIA ..... 39**  
Jelena Zivkovic, American University of Nigeria  
Apkar Salatian, American University of Nigeria  
Fatima Ademoh, American University of Nigeria  
Jim Shanan, American University of Nigeria

**THE SUCCESS OF THE ‘BIG FIVE’ PERSONALITY FACTORS: THE FALL AND RISE OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY IN ORGANIZATION RESEARCH ..... 45**  
Stephen C. Betts, William Paterson University

**STUDENT ATHLETES CAREER SITUATION AWARENESS: JAMAICAN CASE..... 51**  
Chevanese L. Samms, St. Thomas University  
Kenneth Kungu, Tennessee State University  
Ali Boolani, Oklahoma City University  
Denise Johnson-Wisdom, University of Technology, Jamaica

**THE PROBLEMS WITH MERIT PAY: ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS ..... 59**  
Neal F. Thomson, Columbus State University

**THE OVERALL MANAGMENT READINESS SCALE AND THE BIG FIVE  
PERSONALITY TRAITS: A PREDICTOR OF MANAGERIAL READINESS IN  
BUSINESS STUDENTS ..... 63**  
    **Wayne Encalarde Jr., University of New Orleans**  
    **Lillian Y. Fok, University of New Orleans**



# WORKSHOP: IMPROVING ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE THROUGH TERRITORIAL MAPPING

Steve Brown, Eastern Kentucky University  
Ted Brown, Territorial Institute

## ABSTRACT

*The purpose of this workshop is to introduce a model of human territoriality, demonstrate how it can be measured, and show how it impacts organizational performance.*

*Territoriality has its roots in multidiscipline research and theory stretching over one hundred years. The majority of the concepts for this model come from the fields of psychology and sociology. As a starting point, Sigmund Freud suggested that infants are dependent on others for survival. This creates a special relationship between the infant and its caregiver. The absence of the caregiver will create anxiety and fear in the infant. John Bowlby postulated as the child matures it develops attachments to objects such as blankets which helps sooth its anxiety. Over time the child takes ownership of the objects by learning how to exert control over them. For instance a child takes possession of a toy and decides who or who cannot play with it or posts a sign on their bedroom stating keep out. This type of behavior will likely be sanctioned in some way by the caregivers. Over time relationships are formed within the family establishing patterns of power and influence and determining what behavior is acceptable and what is not.*

*Jon Pierce extended the concepts of attachment theory to psychological ownership in the work place. Essentially people establish what is yours and what is theirs. The items an individual takes ownership of may either be physical such as a chair or non- physical such as an idea. These objects are an extension of their self-image, have a degree of stability over time and influence a person's behavior in the work place just like a child's behavior in the family. Graham Brown introduced a sociological aspect to the idea of territoriality in the workplace by suggesting people protect their territory by marking or defending what they consider theirs from the use or loss to others such as putting a name plate outside their office and locking their door.*

*Fred Luthans recently stated that the protective aspects of territoriality can lead to negative organizational behavior by limiting sharing, cooperation and communication. The model presented here takes this a step further by converting the negative aspects of territoriality to positive organizational behavior. The processes and theories of how this can happen will be discussed in the workshop.*

**WORKSHOP AGENDA**  
**TERRITORIAL MAPPING AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE**

Introduction

    Territorial Maps

Key Concepts

    Case Analysis

Developing a Family Map

    Ownership/Items

    Rules/Boundaries

    Self-Concept

    Marking/Defenses

Developing a Workplace Map

    Role

    Group/Team

    Organizational

    Multi Organizational

Applications

    Conflict Management

    Positive Organizational Behavior

    Team Building

    Leadership

    Product Loyalty

    Family Business



# NAVIGATING ONLINE LEARNING THROUGH ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY

**Peter Cowden, Niagara University**

**Susan Sze, Niagara University**

## ABSTRACT

*In this age of digital learning, educational leaders need to understand how Assistive Technology (AT) can be implemented into this type of navigation style which creates an interactive course where all students can part take in a course that is meaningful. Asynchronous digital pedagogy is often used to meet this need. It promotes student engagement and participation at times that are convenient to the students. No longer do students need to meet at the same time in order to meet the objectives of the course. The student is encouraged to participate within the confines of a flexible virtual world to discuss and reflect on their assumptions. Assistive technology is technology used by individuals with disabilities in order to perform functions that might otherwise be difficult or impossible. Asynchronous digital communication, however, fills the gap and creates an environment where communication takes place at different time intervals and/or over a certain period of time. It allows the student the freedom to be involved in the course at times significant to their lifestyle.*

## BACKGROUND

Studies on the use of Assistive Technology (AT) for people with disabilities have risen in the past decade. However, research on AT promotes greater independence is insufficient. Educational leaders need to provide a learning environment that enhances students to perform tasks that they were formerly unable to accomplish, or had great difficulty accomplishing, by providing enhancements to, or changing methods of interacting with, and the technology needed to accomplish such tasks. With the coming of age of online education, it is important for an instructor to recognize the different advantages of using assistive technology and online learning to supplement enrich and enhance student learning. It is also essential to continuously investigate not only the effects of online learning through as an assistive technology on student success and satisfaction, but also factors influencing the success and satisfaction. Ongoing research into online courses at universities has occurred for over two decades, however, there has been little evidence-based research into how key aspects of online course are internally constituted from a student perspective and how these aspects might be related to university students' learning experiences (Ellis, Ginns, & Piggott, 2009). Those that exist suggest several aspects of the student experience of online learning when it is used to support a learning-based experience. Asynchronous communication appears to have attained popularity with digital pedagogy, where digital exchanges between instructors and students are frequently enacted asynchronously rather than in simultaneous or in real time dialogue.

There are many styles and approaches to consider with the aim of providing an environment that maximizes learning within an asynchronous digital pedagogy. Some include the use of blogs, podcasts and social bookmarks; employing video podcasts; monitoring collaborative activities in computer supported collaborative learning; and participation in an educational online learning community. While the use of online courses is on the rise in academic settings, a major obstacle in the practice of this milieu is the limited understanding of learners' characteristics and perceptions about technology use. Thus there is a need to understand the relationship between students' learning styles and their preferences for instructional strategies (Saeed, Yun, & Sinnappan, 2009). Incorporating an already accepted mode of communication into an asynchronous digital transformative pedagogy brings learning into the real world environment. Hill and Nelson (2011) examined the experiences of undergraduate university students in response to the employment of video podcasts to support learning and teaching.

While there continue to be many venues to the delivery of instructional delivery of asynchronous digital pedagogy, the advantages of some need to be addressed. The use of videos in an asynchronous digital course provides a visual enrichment of lesson. Sherer and Shea (2011) stated that videos are used increasingly as part of the sudden increase of internet paraphernalia that are now offered in higher education courses. It is used to invigorate classroom discussion, connect students in their learning and meet course learning goals. That said, one should be aware of overuse, as well as, obtaining an accurate knowledge of the legal implications that may need to be considered. Universities need to determine and in-service its faculty in an understanding of any legal policy that the university may require for online courses in regards to online applications.

In preparing an online course, it is important to understand class size in order to ensure that optimum learning can occur. Once effective learning strategies occur within a course, there is the real possibility that students will flock to this course. The university needs to be cautious of overloading a course with students, due to popularity of the course or economic considerations of the university. Lynch (2010) looked at several possible disadvantages for conducting online discussions with a class size larger than 10 students. He concluded that large group discussions often cultivated different issues, creating a rambling strand that may discourage both understanding and participation. Lynch (2010) also concluded that protracted discussions discourage meaningful reflections. Thus, a smaller class size creates the proper milieu for a meaningful shared discussion. For courses which will exceed this number, instructors need to consider breaking the course into manageable discussion groups. While this may mean more work for the instructor, as it creates smaller classes within the larger class, it will allow for the greater understanding of the concepts presented.

Collaboration in an asynchronous digital course allows for individual points of view to be presented and analyzed by all members of the course. Guldberg (2008) examined how adult learners learn and develop through online dialogue. The research focused on peer-to-peer learning and the analysis of a sample of asynchronous online discussions. The data appeared to sustain the view that this approaches to learning can support the construction of knowledge and help to expand reflective skills and a sense of belonging in the group through sharing stories with one another, developing identity through the discussions and thus enabling the growth of

community. The data indicated that the learners are provided with opportunities to consider the strengths and considerations of ideas from numerous points of view and that key students play a role in enabling others to becoming participants of the group (Guldberg 2008). The more we challenge students to provide and debate their point of view, the more they are able to reflect and the more they develop a feeling of ownership and satisfaction in the course.

Using case studies to educe learning in an asynchronous digital course provides the student with a real world opportunity to reflect and apply their learning. Seung-hee, Jieun, Xiaojing, Bonk and Magjuka (2009) examined how case-based learning approaches were used and facilitated in online courses. They concluded case-based learning to be a valuable learning method for online students who are able to apply what they learned to real life situation problem solving. By bringing together theory and application using a case based approach the instructor has the potential to enhance the learning outcomes of their students.

The use of guest speakers is another educational learning instrument that can be used to augment an asynchronous digital pedagogy. Essentially a virtual environment is created where experts or practitioners in the field interact with students. Hemphill (2007) explored the impact of using guest speakers. The results indicated that higher-order thinking occurred and student involvement stayed elevated during the extent of the discussions, despite of the amount of postings and time spent by the guest speakers. The findings supported that guest speakers can be used in moderation in online discussions while still maintaining the quality of the online discussion and frequent, significant exchanges among students (Hemphill 2007). While they should never be considered to displace the instructor, guest speakers can provide a real life experience to the course

Using a sentence opener to motivate learning, allows the instructor to direct the student in the area which needs to be reflected on. It creates an organization structure to the discussion format which allows meaningful communication to occur. Teo and Daniel (2007) examined how sentence openers supported a students' creation of a point of view in an asynchronous learning milieu. Results suggest that sentence openers offer an efficient approach to support students' construction of point of view in an asynchronous learning environment. Care must be given to ensure that the sentence opener properly directs the student in a manner that is clearly understandable to everyone.

When developing an asynchronous digital pedagogy the instructor needs to decide on the assessment procedures to be used. While there is a need to ensure that asynchronous digital pedagogy contains frequent self-testing, and active learning experiences rich in emotion and personal relevance, as empirically supported pedagogical strategies; using reflective pedagogy as an integrated part of the course allows the teacher to visually see the student's growth. Care in choosing questions carefully is important in providing clarity and to stimulate discussion and reflective points. Similarly, while analysis and constructive feedback by one student on another or by class responses to individual submissions can be a useful tool to assist in the reflective practice, it should only be used as a formative assessment in order to help to improve the student's performance and never as part of any student grade. Forrest (2007) suggested the use of asynchronous assessment to support academic growth. The conclusion was that, while summative assessment is helpful to attain an overview of learning that has taken place, it is

inferior to formative assessments, which can allow participants to learn throughout the course instead of simply gaining a score at the finish. Whether using summative, formative or a combination, it is important that the instructor ensures that the student receives an accurate assessment of the course.

## CONCLUSION

Educators need to determine and provide clear active in-servicing for the understanding of any legal policy that the university may require for online courses in regards to this and other online applications. As universities struggle with enrollment and move towards a more user friendly online classroom environment, instructors need to examine how this new reality works and how to understand the differences that occur within this educational milieu.

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## DIMENSIONS OF EXPATRIATE STRESS

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### ABSTRACT

*Several challenges that entrepreneurs may face will be brought to light so that entrepreneurs who are interested in starting a new venture in a developing country will know what to look for. Challenges that will be addressed include: Lack of resources, technology, and financial aid, government structure and regulations, and stress components. We also added several advantages entrepreneurs can have in developing countries as well as strategies that can be taken to help increase success rates.*

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# **PLAYING NICE IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL SANDBOX: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY AS AN EXPLANATORY CONSTRUCT IN UNDERSTANDING NEGATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR**

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## **ABSTRACT**

*A plethora of terms exist designed to capture a spectrum of negative interpersonal and small group communication behavior within organizations. From organizational bullying to mobbing to sexual harassment, each linguistic representation provides a symbolic framework to group various aggressive phenomena enacted by organizational actors. Collectively, the occurrences may impact a variety of organizational outcomes including employee retention, satisfaction, morale, productivity, and mental and physical health. The existing literature reflects numerous theoretical and applied approaches which address the phenomena in the quest to identify antecedents, prescriptive measures to minimize occurrences and perpetuation, and quantitative measure development to gauge event existence and impact. As a complement and extension to this body of research, the current study explores the explanatory value of social identity theory as a conceptual framework of understanding various intrapersonal, interpersonal, and small group communicative processes within organizational contexts. Specific foci include (1) occurrence, (2) interpretation, and (3) management of organizational actors' negative behavior against other organizational members. Further, the current study posits social identity theory's potential holistic contribution to inform organizational actor's (1) sensemaking of negative events, (2) naming (of said events), (3) disclosure, and (4) rights and/or available course(s) of action governed by existing laws, organizational policies and procedures, and/or training programs.*



# THE ELEPHANT IN THE LIVING ROOM: FAVORITISM IN THE WORKPLACE

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## ABSTRACT

*Favoritism drives employees crazy. It makes every person feel as though no matter how hard s/he works, it doesn't matter. The office family with its inevitable structure of senior adults in charge, rivalrous siblings, inequitably divided resources of time, affection, and money, carries whispers of our own original families. This paper will define what favoritism is, describe the pros and cons of being the favored or unfavored child and/or adult, discuss the types of favoritism that play out in the workplace, describe the legal ramifications of such actions, and discuss what can be done to treat all employees more fairly.*

## INTRODUCTION

If there is anything that all employees can usually agree upon, it is that favoritism drives them all crazy. It is easy to explain this resentment toward favoritism, since it makes every person, no matter how dedicated to their work they may happen to be, feel as though no matter how hard they work, it doesn't matter. Instead of thinking that you can work hard until you make your way to the top, favoritism says that it's all who you know, not what you do (Employee Favoritism, 2012). Favoritism in the workplace, like favoritism within a family, can have very negative affects on the overall morale of the workplace. If your workers believe you are somehow predisposed to seeing a particular worker more favorably than other workers, productivity and cooperation are likely to take a strong hit (Favoritism in the Workplace, 2012).

While a boss' favoritism certainly stokes envy, significant favoritism in your own childhood makes you especially vulnerable to it. The office family with its inevitable structure of senior adults in charge, rivalrous siblings, inequitably divided resources of time, affection, and money, carries whispers of our own original families (Sills, 2008).

When the economy is down, our jobs are vulnerable. Behaviors we picked up as children (good or bad) are likely to be apparent in the workplace. As children, our relationships with our fathers, mothers, brothers and sisters teach us how to interact with the world. We instinctively pick up certain behaviors from these relationships, and in our relationships with supervisors and coworkers, we respond to them with those very same behaviors that we have learned since childhood. Growing up as a favorite, overlooked, or unfavored child has a strong influence on our personalities, and this shows in the workplace (Libby, 2012). Employees might be professional, qualified and experienced, but they are still human and still susceptible to emotions better left outside the workplace. Jealousy, anger, fear, sullenness and worry can occur in

business environment at any time, but these negative emotions are exacerbated when favoritism takes place (Drew, 1997).

This paper will define what favoritism is, describe the pros and cons of being the favored or unfavored child and/or adult, discuss the types of favoritism that play out in the workplace, describe the legal ramifications of such actions, and discuss what can be done to treat all employees more fairly.

### **DEFINITION**

Favoritism in the workplace means giving preferential treatment to one or more employees. Preferential treatment can be intentional; for example, the employer could assign the choicest responsibilities to the most veteran worker or hotshot upstart by explaining that his abilities justify the extra attention and tasks. Preferential treatment can also be subconscious; for example, employees might notice that an older male supervisor seems to treat young female workers with friendly smiles and encouragement while benignly ignoring male workers in the hallways (Drew, 1997).

But favoritism begins long before a person arrives in the workplace. Although Mom and Dad will say that they do not have a favorite child, they will be lying through their teeth. It is one of the worst kept secrets of family life that all parents have a preferred son or daughter (Kluger, 2011). And like parents, managers may concede that favoritism plays a big role in deciding who gets promoted, but few will admit to playing favorites (Korn, 2011).

### **PROS AND CONS**

Firstborns are often the family's favorite, and the reason is one corporations understand well: the rule of sunk costs. The more effort you have made developing a product, the more committed you are to seeing it come to fruition. There is a kind of resource capital parents pour into their firstborns. In addition, the oldest in most families have historically been the tallest and strongest, thanks to the fact that at the beginning of their lives, they don't have to share food stores with other kids (Kluger, 2011). Also, favored children are more likely to garner their parents' interpersonal and financial resources, increasing their likelihood of success as adults over that of their siblings (Sutor, et. al., 2009). On the other hand, favored children who spend their entire lives enjoying the hurrahs of their parents may be unprepared for a workplace that sees them as ordinary young adults (Kluger, 2011). In an economic slump, every employee becomes vulnerable, even darlings of the company. People who reaped the benefits of favoritism as children are confronted with the troubling reality that they are not immune to life's harsh truths.

Unfavored children may grow up wondering if they are somehow unworthy of the love the parents lavished on the golden child. But they may do better forging relationships outside the family as a result of that. In addition, unfavored children tend to be the employees who get the job done without much fanfare. They feel secure in their relationships with their supervisors and are not consumed with seeking approval for everything they do. They have learned, as children,

to trust that they will be rewarded for their efforts. Yet, they can also harbor suspicion and bitterness in the workplace, believing that their hard work will go unnoticed. As children, they learned that no matter how hard they tried, they could never gain parental approval. At the workplace, they may be burning the midnight oil, but they don't expect much acknowledgement beyond a paycheck. This may corrupt their drive and breed subtle displays of hostility (Libby, 2010).

### **TYPES OF FAVORITISM**

Favoritism can rear its ugly head at any job, whether in the private or public sector. One type of favoritism is sexual favoritism. It exists when an employer is in a sexual relationship with an employee and shows favoritism by promoting that person before more qualified candidates. Cronyism is another type of favoritism. It favors friends and business associates. Nepotism is a form of favoring family members (Laws Preventing, 2012). In addition, long-standing bodies of work point to humans' deeply wired bias for the handsome or lovely over the less so – in the family, in the workplace, and certainly in the dating market (Kluger, 2011).

Finally, the hard truth is that a boss may feel more comfortable around people who look like him or her. People are socialized to relate to each other on the basis of race, class, and religion. As a result a boss may unconsciously, or consciously, distance employees who don't have the same skin color, social class or religion (Butterman, 2007).

Not surprisingly, one of the primary effects of workplace favoritism on employees is resentment. Employees often resent the special worker, treating him/her with unkindness and gossiping about reasons for preferential treatment. Workers also resent their employer, becoming less willing to participate actively in the company mission. In addition, if employees feel that they are being passed over for new responsibilities or promotions because all goodies are funneled toward favorite workers, lower motivation results. Employees slack off, taking less care with assigned duties and being more reluctant to volunteer for additional tasks. This results in lower productivity, missed deadlines, and lower overall morale (Drew, 1997)

### **LEGAL RAMIFICATIONS**

According to Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, favoritism, in certain instances, can be considered a form of discrimination actionable by law. Sexual favoritism is particularly risky. Still, most acts of favoritism are not illegal even though they open the door to more serious allegations of misconduct. Also, it is important to be aware of favoritism because it is usually a sure sign that policies and procedures are not what they should be (Pustizzi, 2012).

Additionally, at least nineteen states have enacted employee favoritism laws and other states have conflict-of-interest laws restricting the hiring of friends and relatives. If favoritism has adversely affected an employee, or if a co-worker was forced to resign because of the favoritism, employees may have legal recourse in court (Laws Preventing, 2012).

## WHAT CAN BE DONE

There are a number of things that can be done to reduce favoritism, or even the perception of favoritism:

1. Provide your employees with an anonymous suggestion box or web-based submission form they can use to submit issues they may have at work.
2. If you are a supervisor or manager, take the time to walk amongst the staff and let the employees know you are there for ALL of them.
3. Keep an open-door policy for your employees to email you or come to your office so they can discuss any issues they have face to face (Tips for Avoiding, 2012).
4. Do everything within your power to insure that advancement, perks, and compensation are based strictly upon objective performance measures.
5. Strive to treat everyone fairly, if not necessarily the same.
6. Create an environment where any employee feels comfortable discussing a perceived injustice with management; this enables managers to nip misconceptions in the bud (Favoritism in the Workplace, 2006).
7. Create an atmosphere of trust and open communication.
8. Have clear, objective, and consistently enforced policies that cover how promotions, project work, hiring decisions, and decisions on benefits are made.
9. Make sure that policies include a method for review by senior management and human resources.
10. Educate all staff on the policies and make sure employees are following them (Fiester, 2010).

## CONCLUSION

While it is natural for certain people to have more in common than others, employees who hold positions of authority are expected to develop work relationships that are professional and free of bias. No employee should be subject to unfair treatment because of a manager's prejudice or personal inclination to favor an individual or group. In addition, experts agree that favoritism does not make bad managers. The real problem exists, not for having favorite employees, but for showing it. A good general rule is that when you are a higher up at a

company, you should try to keep a professional front towards all your employees. Think of them as you would your children. Even if one impresses you more than the others do, you don't want all your children to see this. You want to treat them all as if they are equally important to you.

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# **JOURNEY TO THE TOP: ARE THERE REALLY GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE SELECTION AND UTILIZATION OF CAREER TACTICS?**

**Robert L. Laud, William Paterson University**  
**Matthew Johnson, Columbia University**

## **ABSTRACT**

*This investigation identifies and analyzes the tactics and upward mobility strategies utilized by men and women who successfully advanced into senior leadership positions. Although much of the leadership research over the past 50 years has focused on career success antecedents that existed prior to employment such as college reputation, intelligence, industry strength, personality traits and gender, the application of how successful individuals, of either gender, combine and manipulate different strategies to advance is not well understood. This study included 187 interviews with CEOs, presidents, managing directors and other leaders in 136 organizations using consensual qualitative research (CQR) and quantitative analysis. The research resulted in a typology of 15 key advancement tactics that supported four career strategies: Foundation Strategy, Building Self-Brand, Being Centered and Seizing Opportunity. The findings provide empirical evidence that successful males and females behave similarly on the majority of key advancement tactics. This is an important result suggesting that gender may not play as meaningful a role today as previously thought in the selection of preferred upward mobility tactics and strategies. Further, neither males nor females appeared to be burdened by gender stereotypes, but both exhibited a keen interest in competition, high levels of perseverance and desire to excel. Understanding and appropriately utilizing a range of career tactics may expand options for both genders and contributes to the discussion of career trajectories within a changing marketplace. The results bring into focus high-achieving men and women as formidable and equally-proficient career competitors. Practical implications and directions for future research are discussed.*

Keywords: career success, upward mobility, career development, gender, career tactics



# ADVANCING UPWARD? AN EXAMINATION OF CAREER TACTICS AND STRATEGIES OF SUCCESSFUL MEN AND WOMEN

Robert L. Laud, William Paterson University  
Matthew Johnson, Columbia University

## ABSTRACT

*This investigation identifies and analyzes the tactics and upward mobility strategies utilized by men and women who successfully advanced into senior leadership positions. Although much of the leadership research over the past 50 years has focused on career success antecedents that existed prior to employment such as college reputation, intelligence, industry strength, personality traits and gender, the application of how successful individuals, of either gender, combine and manipulate different strategies to advance is not well understood. This study included 187 interviews with CEOs, presidents, managing directors and other leaders in 136 organizations using consensual qualitative research (CQR) and quantitative analysis. The research resulted in a typology of 15 key advancement tactics that supported four career strategies: Foundation Strategy, Building Self-Brand, Being Centered and Seizing Opportunity. The findings provide empirical evidence that successful males and females behave similarly on the majority of key advancement tactics. This is an important result suggesting that gender may not play as meaningful a role today as previously thought in the selection of preferred upward mobility tactics and strategies. Further, neither males nor females appeared to be burdened by gender stereotypes, but both exhibited a keen interest in competition, high levels of perseverance and desire to excel. Understanding and appropriately utilizing a range of career tactics may expand options for both genders and contributes to the discussion of career trajectories within a changing marketplace. The results bring into focus high-achieving men and women as formidable and equally-proficient career competitors. Practical implications and directions for future research are discussed.*

## INTRODUCTION

There exists extensive research on career success characteristics, yet focused upward mobility studies are few and results have been inconclusive and often contested (Barrick & Zimmerman, 2009). Moreover, researchers have noted that many gender questions regarding management success have gone unanswered and have repeatedly called for comparisons of how men and women in similar career situations create their upward journeys and what differences are exhibited (Whitmarsh, Brown, Cooper, Hawkins-Rogers, Wentworth, 2007). There is little empirical or theoretical support that provides an understanding of how males and females organize and formulate their career tactics on their ascendancy. To address this issue, our

research provides empirical data specific to gender tactic selection and offers further theoretical insights into this dynamic. In addition, the findings have practical application that will contribute to the career strategies developed by both men and women.

## **CAREER SUCCESS**

There exists a wide variety of definitional constructs applied to career success. Research on predictors includes demographic data, social capital, work orientation, and industry and organizational characteristics. Success, based upon this model, would include both objective and subjective measures. The objective measures may include compensation, title, level, and number of promotions. The subjective measures are focused on both work and life satisfaction as perceived from the viewpoint of the career player. Satisfaction measures, as well as predictors, have been subject to issues of standardization and have been contested (Ballou, 2010). This study focuses on career success based upon objective criteria related to upward hierarchical advancement as determined by title and position level.

## **RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURES**

Our research required a sequential exploratory design that was comprised of two major steps. The first was a qualitative component designed to gather and understand the participants career ambitions, perceptions, and upward mobility strategies. In particular, the investigation sought to review a range of career tactics, determine male-female rank ordering of the tactics, and identify any preferences that might emerge due to gender differences. The researchers selected consensual qualitative research (CQR) as a growing and proven methodology documented in the social sciences to help provide a better understanding of the tactical decision making of our sample group. The CQR narrative method is used to draw qualitative information from interview-based samples and fosters the exploration of a greater range of information than predetermined or fixed variable testing would uncover. This narrative approach, or social constructionism, is welcome in career research where routes are not stable structures and careers and relationships are influenced by context and interactions (Hence, our CQR approach for this area of career research is the preferred vehicle and allows for a holistic perspective.

Of the interviews conducted, 107 were from industry (57%), 31 were from education (17%), 18 were governmental (9%), 18 were nonprofits (9%), and 13 (7%) were from the military. All respondents were in top, senior or mid-level management. Interviewees included 35 executives in top leadership (19%) with position titles of CEO, president, c-level officer, managing director, EVP, and chancellor; 130 in senior management (70%) with titles of SVP, VP, commissioner, principal, and director; and 22 mid-level management (11%) with titles of AVP, area manager, associate director, and military officer.

## DATA ANALYSIS

Much of the traditional research suggests that male and female managers may differ in their management style. This study sought to assess whether the upward mobility tactics selected by men and women also differed for our sample base of high level executives. The combined male-female rank order and definitions of these tactics is shown in Table 1.

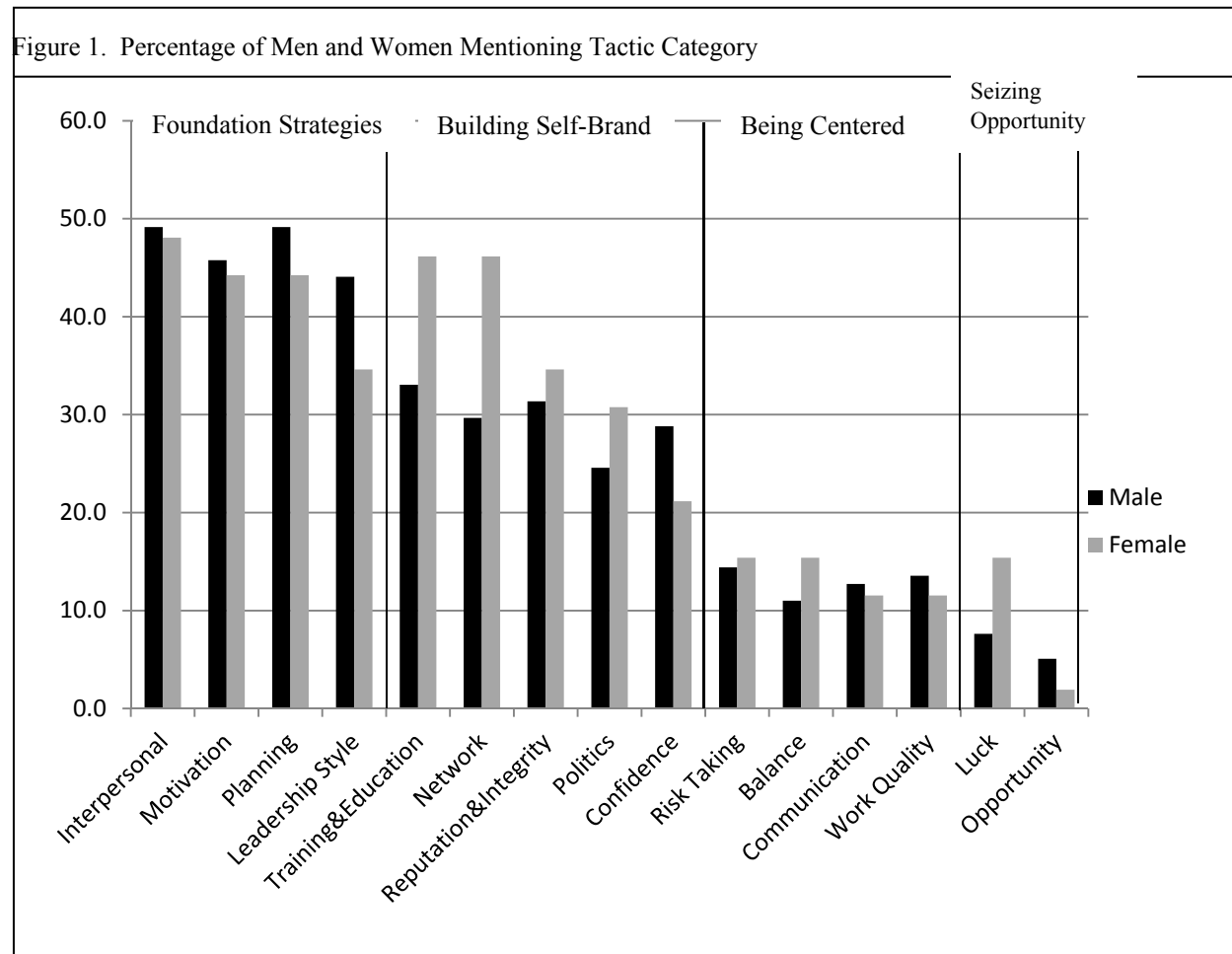
<b>Table 1. Combined gender rank order (most to least) of the typography of the 15 Tactics</b>	
<i>Tactic Categories</i>	<i>Examples</i>
1. Interpersonal	People interaction, social communications, emotional intelligence
2. Motivation	Aggressiveness, ambition, challenge
3. Planning	Goal directed, preparation, strategizing
4. Leadership Style	Influence process, motivational style, personality traits
5. Training and Education	Formal schooling, executive development, experience
6. Networking	Relationships, mentors, visibility, sponsorship
7. Reputation and Integrity	Honesty, trust, accountability, credibility
8 Politics	Diplomacy, involvement, influence
9 Confidence	Courage, Assertiveness, Initiative
10. Risk Taking	Speculate, take leaps, negotiate uncertainty
11. Balance	Work-life balance, centeredness, knowing limits
12. Communications	Persuasiveness, positioning, oral and written capability
13. Work Quality	Efficiency, competency excellence, results
14. Luck	Unforeseen circumstance, chance, unplanned occurrence
15. Opportunity	Seizing situations, creating advantage, insight
(Categories adapted from Laud and Johnson, 2012)	

Further examination revealed a framework of four distinct groupings (p-values <.005) of the tactics. The male and female rankings for the selection of the 15 advancement tactics within the four groups is presented in Figure 1 and provided the basis of our quantitative analysis of the gender comparisons.

An omnibus chi-square test was performed to determine if there were any differences between men and women across the 15 tactics. The p-value was 0.51 (chi-square =14.5, df =15). The smallest observed p-value was .054 for the networking tactic. Thus, there were no significant differences in how male and female career aspirants approached their upward trajectories even though there were some observable differences such as a greater use of networking and education for females.

This overall similarity, however, is a key finding as it provides substantial empirical weight to emerging anecdotal hypotheses that males and females utilize similar strategies without significant regard to gender bias when competing for top positions in organizations. In particular, the similarity of tactics between females and males may be partially explained as a likely reflection of the leveling effect of education, information access, cultural shifts, and the continuous influx of women at more senior levels of management. These results indicate that both genders consider individual success to be dependent upon performing in concert with the

organizational culture and that gender impact is moderated in a more equalized business environment.



## CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

Our investigation also contributes additional insights to career and gender research by providing empirical evidence that the successful males and females in our study behave similarly on the vast majority of key advancement tactics. This is an important finding suggesting that gender may not play as meaningful a role as previously thought in the selection of preferred career advancement tactics. The successful females in our study appeared not to be overly burdened by gender stereotypes, but did take advantage of opportunities when it was perceived they might gain an edge, especially through networking and education. Our anecdotal and empirical findings demonstrated that career-oriented males would seek to gain advantage with a focus on ambition and self-promotion. It appears that both genders can learn from each other. And indeed, not just the males in our study, but the females similarly exhibited a keen interest in competition, an ability to persevere and a strong desire to excel. Understanding and effectively applying the range of upward mobility tactics may expand options for both genders. These tools

can also enable career counselors and human resource practitioners in developing more prescriptive advancement strategies and choices for their counselees.

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# **GENDER (IN)EQUALITY IN KOREAN FIRMS: RESULTS FROM STAKEHOLDERS INTERVIEWS**

**Louise Patterson, KyungHee University  
SeongO Bae, Samsung Economic Research Institute**

## **ABSTRACT**

*Through in-depth interviews with stakeholders in Korean organizations, this paper explores the under-utilization of women within Korean firms with respect to organizational characteristics, recruitment, organization of work, and treatment in the workplace. The researchers wish to find out why given mass education, equal opportunity legislation and affirmative action, discrimination persists.. The findings from stakeholders indicate that the underrepresentation of women in modern Korean firms is still based upon cultural norms and practices that may have a negative economic effect on firms. It will take time for the Korean workplace to treat everyone as equals.*

Key words: gender discrimination, culture, workplace relations; stakeholders, Korea



# **PROFESSIONAL INTIMACY: EXPLORING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN MANAGERS AND SUBORDINATES**

**Natasha W. Randle, Mississippi State University-Meridian**  
**Kristena P. Gaylor, Belhaven University**  
**Christopher J. Mathis, Morgan State University**

## **ABSTRACT**

*Organizational behavior scholars have invested significant research in exploring employee attitudes and behaviors (e.g., employee engagement, turnover, etc.). Less effort, however, has been expended exploring a very delicate relationship between a manager and a subordinate. This paper approaches the development of a new and unique construct, professional intimacy, to examine this relationship. We interpret professional intimacy as the intuitive relationship between a manager and a subordinate characterized by openness and trust that allows and promotes risk-taking and self-disclosure, all while garnering above average work effort and commitment. Examples may include: a manager sensing when a subordinate is distressed without the employee sharing that information or an employee feeling a level of comfort with a manager to discuss a personal issue which may ultimately impact work performance. Further, we offer propositions for how this professional intimacy influences employees' psychological safety, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Next steps and potential implications are also presented.*



## **“DYADIC MANAGEMENT”: A NECESSITY FOR TODAY’S DIVERSE WORKFORCE**

**L. Jeff Seaton, Murray State University**

### **ABSTRACT**

*Most of current literature associated with the effects of a more diverse workforce focus on either “the identification and justification of demographic diversity,” “the workforce discrimination associated with diversity,” or “how diversity and the lack thereof effects the bottom line.” This paper will offer a different perspective for diversity research. The current author will conceptually suggest that an increase of diversity in the workforce should result in an increase in the number of methods and styles that each manager uses to manage his/her subordinates.*

*In the past it was suggested that managers seek and utilize management styles that best lead to positive behaviors or outcomes from their subordinates as a whole. Some attention was given to a type of “contingency approach” where the situation dictated how a manager should manage his/her subordinates, however, the end result was still considered to be group management. The old style of management referred to in the current paper as “tear gas management”, suggests that similar to police managing people by tossing a canister of tear gas into the crowd, an old type manager should toss a style of management at the subordinates and, like the tear gas, the results of that style of management should lead to all inclusive and similar subordinate behaviors.*

*“Dyadic management,” described in the current paper, suggests that today’s managers should consider the needs, personalities, perspectives, goals, and bounded rationality of each of their subordinates individually. From this individual analysis the manager can then determine the management style that would best lead to a motivated, satisfied, committed and high performing employee.*

*This paper will specifically examine how a “dyadic management” style can use rewards, autonomy, communication, and relationship building to increase the positive outcomes of generational and cultural diverse individuals.*



# **BEAUTY PREJUDICE IN THE WORKPLACE**

**Fellicia A. Smith, North Greenville University**

## **ABSTRACT**

*Beauty prejudice in the workforce has become more profound. This research will explore the perception of beauty prejudice and the impact on employment, promotional opportunities, and income. Data will be collected from employees at various organizations in the southeastern part of the United States. A survey will be administered to elicit participant's perception about the existence of the beauty premium and the ugly penalty in the workplace. This research will contribute to the literature on beauty discrimination and offer recommendations to management on how to minimize the effects of this subtle form of discrimination. Limitations and directions for further research will also be discussed.*





# **RELIGIOSITY IN THE WORKPLACE: A STUDY OF THE IMPACT OF EMPLOYEE AGE AND RELIGIOSITY ON JOB SATISFACTION**

**Robin L. Snipes, Columbus State University  
Jennifer Pitts, Columbus State University**

## **ABSTRACT**

*Given the tremendous costs and related issues associated with human resources in service industries, employers have increasingly focused their attention and energy on ways to improve employee productivity and reduce employee costs. Research in the Organizational Behavior literature has shown that employee attitudes affect their work behaviors. Some research appears to support a positive correlation between employee religiosity and certain positive work attitudes, while other research has found no correlation. The goals of this study are: (1) to determine whether generational differences exist in employee attitudes toward different facets of the job; and (2) to determine the impact of religiosity on job satisfaction; and (3) to determine to what extent age may moderate the impact of religiosity on job satisfaction.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

In the last few decades the United States has transformed from a manufacturing to a services-based economy. Compared to manufacturing firms, service firms have a much higher percentage of their costs tied up in human resources. Given the tremendous costs and related issues associated with human resources in service industries, employers have increasingly focused their attention and energy on ways to improve employee productivity and reduce employee costs. It has been well documented in the management literature that the primary factors that affect human resource costs include employee motivation and turnover, which are affected by their attitudes toward the workplace (Locke and Latham, 1990).

In the United States, religious values now seem to have more of an impact on workplace attitudes and decisions. As pointed out by Bozeman and Murdock (2007), "religious values in the U.S. now seem more often in conflict with the secular ones... the social cleavage between more secular and more religious citizens affects everything from outcomes of presidential elections to immigration policies" (p. 287). The impact of religious values on attitudes toward work is mixed. Some research appears to support a positive correlation between employee religiosity and work attitudes, while other research has found no correlation. If employee religiosity is positively correlated with important work attitudes like job satisfaction, a lower level of religiosity would mean that managers may have to work harder to keep their employees satisfied.

## RESEARCH ON RELIGIOSITY AND JOB SATISFACTION

The Webster dictionary defines religiosity as “the quality of being religious, or a religious feeling or sentiment.” Studies have shown a correlation between religious faith and morality (Fry, 2003), organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). As pointed out by Ghazzawi and Smith (2009), in spite of the many religions in the U.S. and the differences between them, most “urge conscious work as a primary or secondary value of its adherents” (p. 304).

Employee job satisfaction is one of the most studied employee work attitudes in the organizational behavior literature. It is important because it has been linked to several important work behaviors that can affect the firm’s bottom line, such as absenteeism, turnover, and service quality (Snipes, Oswald, LaTour, and Armenakis, 2005; Snipes, 1996). Although the results are mixed, some studies have found a correlation between religiosity and job satisfaction. Ghazzawi and Smith (2009) postulated that, “under certain conditions, religious faith is a strengthening of, or substitution for, job satisfaction” (p. 306). In other words, a religious worker may be dissatisfied with his/her job, but still be as productive as a satisfied worker. In 1980, Vecchio found that religious affiliation accounted for a significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction. A few other studies have found a positive correlation between religion and job satisfaction (e.g., Ali, Falcone, & Azim, 1995). This may be in part because those who have religious beliefs are able to integrate negative work experiences more favorably than people with weak or no belief (Kolodinsky, 2008). Other studies have found no correlation, or even a negative correlation, between religiosity and job satisfaction. For example, a recent study of 400 women in India found that religiosity may be a negative predictor of well-being and happiness in women (Hasnain, Ansari, and Samantray, 2011). In the study, the authors postulate that religiosity may be a negative predictor of well-being because religion may be related to prejudice and could be a source of “mental ill health” (p. 439).

## RESEARCH ON AGE AND RELIGIOSITY

As the new generation of workers enter the workforce, it is important that both educators and employers gain deeper insights into the factors that motivate them. It has been argued by several researchers that this new generation (called “Generation Y” or “Millennials”) is different from previous ones in their attitudes toward work. One study suggested that Generation Y employees are, as a group, much less likely to respond favorably to the traditional authoritative type of management and more likely to respond favorably in situations where creativity and independent thinking are the norm (Qenani-Petrela, Schlosser, and Pompa, 2007). Employers should be taking note of this because much research has linked employee attitudes to work behaviors that can affect not only the quantity, but also the quality of work (Josiam et. al., 2009).

Some recent studies have indicated that young adults entering the workforce today are less religious than their predecessors. A recent survey of 35,000 Americans suggests that young adults in the U.S. are less religious than prior generations were when they were in their 20’s (2008 Pew Religious Landscape Survey). It appears that Millennials are significantly less likely

to identify with any particular religious group. If employee religiosity is positively correlated with important work attitudes like job satisfaction, a lower level of religiosity would mean that managers may have to work harder to keep this new generation of workers satisfied.

Based on the foregoing review, the goals of this study are: (1) to determine whether generational differences exist in employee attitudes toward different facets of the job; and (2) to determine the impact of religiosity on job satisfaction; and (3) to determine to what extent age may moderate the impact of religiosity on job satisfaction.

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# PERCEPTIONS OF AMERICAN AND NIGERIAN LECTURERS AT AN AMERICAN STYLE UNIVERSITY IN NIGERIA

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## ABSTRACT

*Understanding students' perceptions is critical to delivering consistent quality service at an American-style higher education institute. This paper exclusively describes an exploratory study that investigates Nigerian students' perceptions of American expatriate and Nigerian teaching faculty at an American style education initiative in Nigeria based on clearly defined faculty evaluation results. These perceptions are specific to three areas across all disciplines and schools: course, instructor and student. By evaluating these perceptions, it is anticipated that our analysis will create a starting point for examining how an American style education can be maintained and supported in a Nigerian education system.*

*Key Words* American, lecturers, student, course, instructor Nigeria, American Style University, faculty

## INTRODUCTION

In recent years there have been a number of American style universities opening campuses around the world. These universities enable local students to gain an American degree without leaving their country of origin. In order to maintain American style standards and to provide an American style teaching and learning experience to the students, these institutions will typically employ American expatriate lecturers. However, realistically, with the expense of hiring and maintaining expatriate faculty lifestyle, and in support of the local economy, locally trained lecturers are also becoming part of the American experience. It therefore becomes imperative to evaluate the students' perceptions of locally trained faculty as well as western-trained faculty.

One method used to measure students' perception and which is prevalent in American universities are the end-of course evaluations. The focus of this paper is on the student and not the lecturer or administrators. With the focus on learning, it is argued that unless there can be an evaluation process that is analyzed, then the process of learning may be in question (Marlin, 1987).

This paper describes a study carried out by the authors that investigated students' perceptions towards American expatriate and Nigerian teaching faculty at a relatively small, private, American-style university known as the American University of Nigeria (AUN). For the study, the researchers reviewed the faculty evaluations results of the fall semester of 2010 that student fill out at the end of each semester. The purpose of the study is to determine which faculty is perceived better and why in order to determine how an American style education can be maintained and supported in a Nigerian education system.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

In most colleges in the U.S today, faculty evaluation to gather students' feedback at the semester's mid/end is standard practice. These student rated questionnaires are probably the most common tool used to assess classroom teaching (Wright, 2006) and are consequently the best way to obtain the perceptions of students towards their lecturers.

To have a better understanding of the impact of the student evaluation results, the researcher must offer some insight in the conceptual definition of the term '*Perception*'. (Robins et al., 2001) presents one theory referred to as the 'Person' perception. Here the lecturers are rated as outstanding by a few students and unsatisfactory by other students despite the same course content, the lecturers' teaching behavior and classroom environment. Even though the students see the same lecturer, they perceive his/ her abilities differently. This experience by the student is measured as perceptions and rated as such.

The notion of *perception* is believed to be a series of interpretations of one's sensory impressions that provide meaning to his/her environment. (Robins et al., 2001) further states that the factors that cause an impression are labeled the '*perceiver*', the '*target*' and the '*situation*'. The perceiver in our study is the student who is affected by their own characteristics and personality such that if their needs are not met or satisfied this may arouse strong inferences in their perception of the lecturer. The *target* is the faculty member and their characteristics are being evaluated, hence influencing what is perceived. In our study, the faculty member's personality, conduct and manner undoubtedly influence perception. Finally the *situation* is the place of the activity which can play a vital role in perception. In our study, the situation is characterized as the classroom setting, temperature of the room, noise level are just a few factors that may persuade the outcome of the feedback.

Danielson and McGreal (2000) recommend that evaluation forms should measure the delivery strategies, professional behaviors and instruction of content knowledge that impinges on student learning. In our study we wish to determine the perceptions of students towards their course, instructor and themselves within the two subcultures (American and Nigerian).

## THE STUDY

The study was performed at the American University of Nigeria (AUN), Yola, Adamawa State, Nigeria. AUN was founded in May 2005. AUN is the first American-styled university in

the West African sub-region and currently has over 1500 full-time students and around 100 faculty members.

All the American expatriate lecturers in our study had taught previously in a university in the U.S prior to their appointment. Likewise, all the Nigerian lecturers in our study had taught previously in a university in the U.S or Nigeria prior to their appointment. The study took place the fall semester of 2010 and involved studying the evaluations made by students of 9 courses taught by American expatriate lecturers and 9 courses taught by Nigerian lecturers.

The primary question that pre-occupied the mind of the researchers was whether there would be a noticeable difference in the perceptions of the students to their course, the instructor and themselves when their course is taught by American lecturers compared to Nigerian lecturers. The perceptions were collected in the form of a student questionnaire and all three ratings were summative feedback. Perceptions were scored in the range 0 to 5 where 0 indicates unacceptable and 5 indicates excellent.

To obtain the perception of the course the average scores of the following 5 criteria were made: *organization, clarity, content, fairness* and *overall perception of the course*. To obtain the perception of the instructor the average scores of the following 7 criteria were made: *organization, clarity, enthusiasm, rapport, contribution, professionalism, and attitude*. To obtain the perceptions of themselves, the average scores of the following 6 criteria were made for each student: *attendance and participation in class sessions; completion of assignments on time; learned the required information for the course; used their laptop and technology successfully in the course; used the library as part of the class; and used at least one learning support program (writing center, math lab, tutor, etc.).*

## RESULTS

To capture the perceptions, impressions and thereby gauge the positive or negative reactions of the students towards their American expatriate and Nigerian lecturers, the researchers analyzed and collated students evaluation results from the comprehensive questionnaires given out to the students at the end of their courses.

**Figure 1: Student scores given to course, instructor and student by both groups**

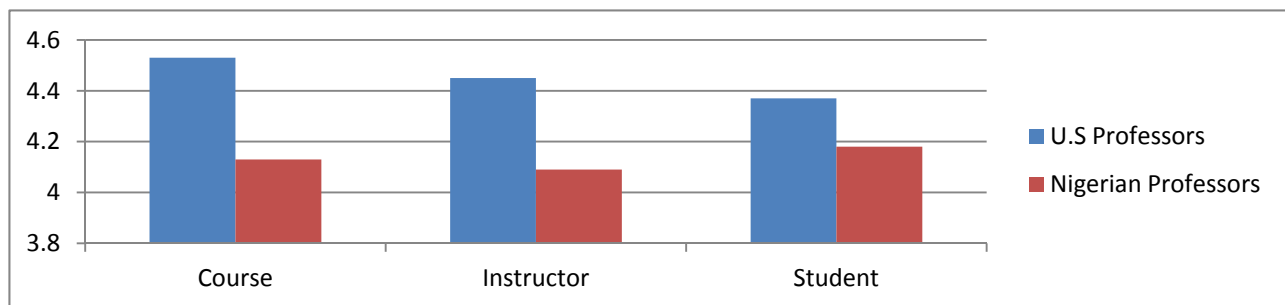


Figure 1 is a summary of the average scores given by the students to their course, instructor and themselves when their courses are taught by American expatriate and Nigerian faculty. Though both sets of lecturers scored very highly, it can be seen that for each criteria the students evaluate their American expatriate lecturers better than their Nigerian counterparts.

**Figure 2: Overall student scores given to American expatriate and Nigerian lecturers**

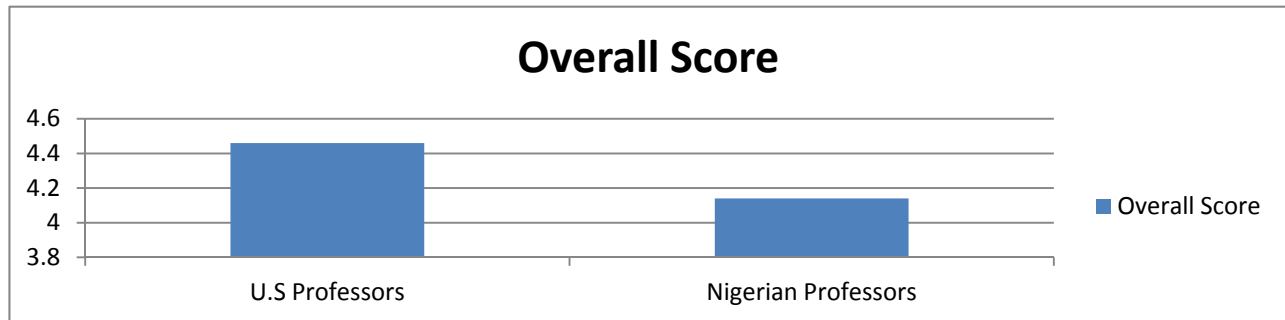


Figure 2 is a summary of the overall average scores given by the students to their American expatriate and Nigerian lecturers. Again, though both sets of lecturers scored very highly, it can be seen that the students evaluate their American expatriate lecturers more highly than their Nigerian counterparts.

## DISCUSSION

There are 4 judging impairments that influence perception that could explain our results. The first impairment is called the '*Halo Effect*' (George & Jones, 2008). This phenomenon occurs when students rate their lecturer based on a single favorable characteristic - it portrays the tendency of the student rater to form a general opinion of the lecturer being rated and then allows that opinion to influence the results. For example, if the general opinion of a lecturer is favorable then the halo effect is positive and the lecturer receives higher ratings on many items than a more objective evaluation would justify. The opposite also applies in the halo effect, if, for instance, an unfavorable opinion is formed, then this will cause a lower rating of the lecturer across all areas. As a result of this effect, student ratings make less differentiation between "strengths" and "weaknesses" than is desirable.

The second impairment that may limit more objective rating is the '*Contrast Effect*' (George & Jones, 2008). Here the students do not evaluate the lecturer in isolation; a student's rate is influenced by other lecturers or events they have recently encountered. This distorts perceptions, for example, if the student had a class and a lecturer that was mediocre and also happened to be a Nigerian, then soon after in the next class, the same student had a good experience with a lecturer that happened to be American, this experience may rank the American lecturer higher than the Nigerian.

The third impairment that may limit more objective rating is the '*Similar to me*' effect (George & Jones, 2008). The '*Similar to me*' affect records that the student will rate more



positively who share similar traits to them, than they would perceive those who are dissimilar. Here, a student's perception of their lecturer is selectively altered to align with the vested interest they represent.

The fourth impairment that may have affected our results is that students may not be deemed qualified to judge many other factors which may be used to characterize excellent instruction (The IDEA Center, 2011). For example, students may not be qualified to judge the appropriateness of the course objectives, the relevance of assignments and readings, the suitability of the content material, the grading standards. These and other dimensions of teaching excellence are important to a comprehensive evaluation, however the only tool employed in the study was the student ratings which some may argue is insufficient evidence to base any conclusions.

Possible reasons for the disposition of the sampled students towards their American expatriate and Nigerian lecturers could be varying expectations, students' background, and teacher-training. One of the possible reasons why American lecturers scored higher than their Nigerian colleagues is that AUN uses American teaching style which the American lecturers are already familiar with and they also have more experience in managing and administrating their classes than the Nigerian lecturers. Another possible reason why American lecturers received a higher mark in their course is because of their ability to integrate their experience into the course through practical activities such as group discussions, debates, and case studies. Due to poor general infrastructure, the Nigerian educational system has periled greatly with the lack of professional and qualified teaching staff, out of date books and hard to access technology, it would seem that American trained and experienced lecturers would perform at a higher level incorporating up-to-date researched teaching methods. It may also be argued that American lecturers are more experimental in their teaching approach, flexible with their personalities and behaviours which, in turn, may influence the perceiver and result in a more positive outcome.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

In this paper, the authors examined the perceptions of students in an American-style university in Nigeria towards their American expatriate and Nigerian lecturers by evaluating specific indicators such as organization, clarity, content, facilities and others. From our results, it can be seen that the American expatriate lecturers are perceived better than their Nigerian colleagues.

It is hoped that these students' opinions are used in policy changes, faculty effectiveness and course allocation. The results confirm that students' differences significantly impact perceptions of the three areas at the American University of Nigeria and these differences represent promising areas for ongoing exploratory research.

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# THE SUCCESS OF THE 'BIG FIVE' PERSONALITY FACTORS: THE FALL AND RISE OF PERSONALITY PSYCHOLOGY IN ORGANIZATION RESEARCH

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## ABSTRACT

*Performance of individuals is central to the success of organizations. Researchers looked to individual personality differences to explain differences in individual performance, but this resulted in a long history of disappointing results and conceptual confusion. Of late, however, the emergence and success of the 'Big Five' personality trait typology has caused a reversal of fortune in explaining differences in individual performance and other organizationally relevant outcomes. This presentation will be a review of past current research using personality psychology and the 'Big Five', and speculate on the future of the 'Big Five' in organizational research.*

## INTRODUCTION

Organizations are made of individuals and it is the performance of these individuals that is central to the success of the organization. Organization researchers looked to differences in individual knowledge, skills and abilities to explain inter-individual differences in performance, but these factors left significant issues in inter-individual differences in performance unexplained. Personality variables, in turn, have received increasing attention as an influence on individual performance in organizations. This interest is recent because there is a long history of disappointing results and conceptual confusion. Of late, however, there has been a reversal of fortune in using individual personality differences to explain performance and other organizationally relevant outcomes. In this paper, this recent success will be examined.

## NEEDS THEORIES AND PSYCHOLOGICAL TYPES

Needs theories were the primary contributions of humanistic and existential psychology to organization research. Although the work of Maslow, McClelland and Alderfer are intuitively appealing, there has been little development or use of needs theories in organizational research over the last 20 years. As Salancik and Pfeffer (1978, p453) state "... studies of need satisfaction seldom explain more than 10 percent of the variance". The disappearance of needs theories in organization research is most likely due to conceptual and methodological problems with the general form of the model, coupled with a lack of explanatory power.

Organizational researchers looking to personality psychology for insight into differences between individuals found it difficult to adapt the theories of the psychodynamic schools. The primary exception was Jung's (1921/1971) personality types, operationalized with the Myers-

Briggs Type Indicator or MBTI (Myers, 1962). The MBTI has found some limited use in organization research by those attempting to link psychological type to managerial effectiveness. However Gardiner and Martinko (1996) report that 90% of the studies omit reliability statistics. High quality research has not resulted from using the MBTI and high quality researchers do not utilize the MBTI because of its lack of validity and poor reliability (James, 2003).

### BIG FIVE IN ORGANIZATIONS

The growing acceptance of the Big Five facilitated the resurgence in research into the personality as a predictor of organizationally relevant outcomes (Penney, David & Witt, 2011; Digman, 1990; Barrick & Mount, 1993). Table 1 contains descriptions of the Big Five.

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Description</b>
Extroversion	the tendency to experience positive emotional states and feel good about oneself and the world around one
Neuroticism (or negative affectivity)	the tendency to experience negative emotional states and view oneself and the world around one negatively
Agreeableness (or positive affectivity)	the tendency to get along well with others
Conscientiousness	the extent to which a person is careful, scrupulous, and persevering
Openness to Experience	the extent to which a person is original, has broad interests, and is willing to take risks
Source: as adapted from McCrae & Costa (1992) by George & Jones (1996)	

**Early work.** Much of the early organization research utilizing the personality constructs in the big five addressed various types of job performance. The big five advantages over type or needs approaches. It gave individual researchers legitimate, accepted measures of personality constructs, freeing them from developing and justifying their personality measures.

Two major meta-analyses found support for the use of the big five personality variables as predictors of job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991). In one of these meta-analytic studies, the researchers successfully classified scales from 162 samples in 117 studies from the 1950's through the 1980's as being one of the big five dimensions (Barrick & Mount, 1991). This allowed them to examine the relationship of the big five to three outcome variables (job proficiency, training proficiency and personnel data) and five occupational groups (professionals, police, managers, sales, skilled/semi-skilled). 'Conscientiousness' was found to be a predictor for all groups and across the three criterion. 'Extroversion' was a valid predictor for managers and sales because the occupations involve interpersonal skills. 'Openness to experience' and 'extroversion' predicted training proficiency.

The second meta-analytic study (Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991) found the same general pattern of results for the big five as in the previous (Barrick & Mount, 1991) study, only with more positive results due to the employment of different analytical procedures and the use of confirmatory (positing specific relationships between predictor and outcome variables) rather than both confirmatory and exploratory studies.

**Recent work.** Recent empirical organizational research using the big five shows many similarities to past research, and some noticeable deviations. Until the early 1990's, a little less than half of the studies examined used students or trainees which, although consistent with past research (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Tett, Jackson, & Rothstein, 1991), brought into question the generalizability of the results. However the majority of studies over the last 20 years have been conducted in organizations (Penney, David & Witt, 2011). Many have been occupation specific, looking at such diverse fields as investment management (Mayfield, Perdue & Wooten, 2008), customer service (Delgado, De Veer, Gutierrez, Rodriguez & Lane, 2009), healthcare (Karl, Peluchette & Harland, 2007), scientists (Lounsbury, Foster, Patel, Carmody, Gibson & Stairs, .., 2012), professional drivers (Seibokaite, 2012) and technology workers (Ülke & Bilgiç, 2011). An interesting body of occupation specific work has developed around sales professionals. The attractiveness of sales as a profession to those entering the workforce has been linked to openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness and extraversion (Stevens & Macintosh, 2003). Others looked at practicing sales professionals finding extroversion and conscientiousness to predict performance and calling for improvements in occupation specific measurement methods (Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer & Roth, 1998; Warr, Bartram & Martin, 2005).

The greatest departure from the past was that less than half of the studies used the big five to predict performance. Organizational citizenship behavior (Elanain 2008; Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ & Lingl, 1995; DeLuga, 1998), gender issues (Nyhus & Pons, 2012; George, Helson & John, 2011; Furnham, 2005), coping strategies (Watson & Hubbard, 1996), self-efficacy (Thoms, Moore, & Scott, 1996), job and life satisfaction (Furnham, 2005; George, Helson & John, 2011; Nyhus& Pons, 2012;), fun (Karl, Peluchette & Harland, 2007) and job involvement (Eswaran, Islam & Yusuf, 2011) are a few of the outcome variables that the big five were used to predict. These variables often are themselves linked to performance. This indicates a shift in the role of personality constructs, and suggests models with mediating variables between personality constructs and performance.

In the late 1990's mediated and moderated models began to be explicitly examined (Gellatly, 1996; Graziano, Hair, & Finch, 1997; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998) with researchers calling for an 'interactionist' approach (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Witt, 2002). Researchers heeded these calls in the past decade with many moderating variables being examined, such as empathy (Taylor, Kluemper & Mossholder, 2010), job scope (Raja & Johns, 2010), frame of reference (Smith, Hanges & Dickson, 2001), organizational politics (Witt, Kacmar, Carlson & Zivnuska, 2002) and work environment Westerman & Simmons, 2007; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005). Many of these studies departed from the practice of using correlation and regression analysis and used structural equations modeling, more appropriate for such analysis.

Leadership research has used the big five to explain both the emergence and selection of leaders (Hirschfeld, Jordan, Thomas & Feild, 2008; Fine, 2007; Ilies, Gerhardt & Le, 2004) and their performance (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2012; Bartone, Eid, Johnsen, Laberg & Snook, 2009; Strang & Kuhnert, 2009; Den Hartog & Koopman, 2005). Scholars have also used the big five in examining the personalities of successful entrepreneurs (Ciavarella, Buchholtz, Riordan, Gatewood & Stokes, 2004; Zhao, Seibert & Lumpkin, 2010), sometimes examining specific

fields such as 'biotech' (Yim & Weston, 2007) or 'social entrepreneurship' (Koe Hwee Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010).

There continues to be a fragmented literature dealing with group and team concepts. Researchers attempted to aggregate individual personality scores into a 'team personality' (Levine & Jackson, 2002; Neuman, Wagner & Christiansen, 1999), but met with little success and this approach has not been developed. Others have looked at personality in team selection (Kichuk, S. L., & Wiesner, W. H., 1997), roles within the team (Manning, T., Parker, R., & Pogson, G., 2006), team processes (Barrick, Stewart, Neubert, & Mount, 1998), self-managed teams (Thoms, P., Moore, K. S., & Scott, K. S., 1996) and the potential for each member to lead the team (Hirschfeld, R. R., Jordan, M. H., Thomas, C. H., & Feild, H. S., 2008).

Two controversies dealing with the use of personality measures in organizational research that have received considerable attention deal with the issues of bandwidth and response bias. Although they are both important issues, the response bias issue is effectively resolved whereas the bandwidth issue is far from resolution. Response bias was the most frequent criticism of the use of personality tests for personnel selection (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Reiss, 1996). Two specific criticisms that have been addressed empirically involve social desirability bias and bias due to belief in (and reactions to) personality tests. Empirical studies (Barrick & Mount, 1996; Hough, Eaton, Dunnette, Kamp, & McCloy, 1990) have effectively settled the response bias controversy by showing that although response bias can occur, it does not affect the predictive ability of the personality measures.

The 'bandwidth dilemma' is the question as to whether broad factors such as the big five or narrow traits, such as individual facets of each factor, are superior for selection purposes. There has been reasoning and evidence for the superiority of wide factors (Ones, 1996; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1996) as well as studies indicating that narrow traits, including the individual traits associated with specific factors of the big five, were better predictors of specific behaviors (DeYoung, Quilty & Peterson, 2007; Dudley, Orvis, Lebiecki & Cortina, 2006; Paunonen, 1998; Ashton, 1998). The most promising approach to resolving this issue seems to be one that seeks to use theory and match the performance criterion with appropriate predictors, either broad or narrow (Hogan & Roberts, 1996; Schneider, Hough & Dunnette, 1996).

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Despite the considerable theoretical development of needs and type theories from the humanistic and psychodynamic schools of personality psychology, there was a lack of empirical support for the theories. This lack of empirical support made it difficult for organization researchers to use their ideas. A resurgence of interest in personality psychology was ignited by the emergence of a consensus among personality psychologists that human personality consisted of 5 factors, referred to as the 'big five'. This trait perspective had the strong empirical support that the psychodynamic and humanistic research lacked. The high validity and reliability of the measures, and simple model relating the big five factors directly to outcomes led to significant explanatory power.

In the preceding pages we outline the success of the big five in organization research. Initial studies linked them to performance directly and subsequent studies incorporated mediating and moderating constructs. The continued theoretical and empirical development is very impressive so far and holds great promise for the future.

There are four likely paths for future organizational research using the big five. First, conscientiousness should be further explored as a predictor of performance. The second area for future research stems from the 'bandwidth dilemma' questioning whether to use broad factors or narrow traits. It has sparked promising research into matching personality factors and traits to specific performance criteria. A third promising stream of research involving the big five is the use of them as antecedents of organizationally relevant outcomes. Given the early success of this approach, it may encourage a great deal of research. The relationship of other constructs to personality can be explored, such as managerial influence strategies, organizational commitment, social loafing, self-handicapping behavior, tactics for increasing personal power, and risk propensity. Further research in this area would involve going beyond mere correlational analysis and content models into the development of process models of how personality affects performance directly and indirectly through these mediating constructs. The relationships between organizational socialization, culture and personality is a fourth area for future research, and it is largely unexplored.

After years of disappointing results, the trait approach and the big five have finally begun to realize the promise of personality psychology ideas as applied to organizational management. The recent success of the big five has legitimized its use and the existence of productive current and promising new streams of research signals that there will be a place for personality constructs in organizational research for years to come.

#### **REFERENCES (*AVAILABLE ON REQUEST*)**





# STUDENT ATHLETES CAREER SITUATION AWARENESS: JAMAICAN CASE

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## ABSTRACT

*This study examined the career situation awareness of student athletes enrolled in two Jamaican colleges and universities. One hundred and ten respondents completed an adapted version of the Student Athlete Career Situation Inventory. Since the questionnaire was being used in a different cultural setting, the data was subject to an exploratory factor analysis. This study reported on the students overall level of their career development, and on linear relationships and differences in that score based on selected demographic characteristics.*

## INTRODUCTION

The challenges faced by student athletes over and above those faced by regular students have been posited in many studies as affecting their level of academic success and career aspirations and maturity. According to some authors (Gilgunn, 2010; Staurowsky & Sace, 2005), "...college student athletes face all the challenges experienced by non athletes (social adjustment, career exploration, intellectual growth)" (p. 7), and in addition they have to go to their classes and take part in campus events, attend to the demands of their sport, which include multiple practice sessions per week, group and individual therapy, extensive travelling for games, playing in multiple games in a short time, memorizing team plays (Watt & Moore, 2001). They have to make many other sacrifices in playing their sport and balancing academics. This presents barriers that affect their capacity to plan for careers after college and life after sports.

Whereas many studies have investigated this phenomenon in the United States, this remains an understudied issue in Jamaica. Labeled "the sprint factory of the world," many Jamaican athletes are highly sought after athletes and are recruited from their early years in high school. Based on the informal process, some are sometimes carted off to Junior Colleges where, after two years of competing and becoming academically eligible, they are *fed* to four year colleges. According to statistics supplied by the NCAA (2008), they help to make up the almost 70% of foreign born athletes enrolled in Division I universities and colleges. However, only a small proportion of athletes advance to play competitive sports either in Jamaica or abroad. Many of them end up having to take up regular jobs, which they may be disproportionately disadvantaged in their preparation owing to the barriers they face and the plans they have for playing sports. Career exploration and planning thus ought to be encouraged for all student athletes.

Though much current research can be cited about the student athlete in the United States (Eckard, 2010; Gayles, 2009; Lally & Kerr, 2005; Sturm, Feltz & Gilson, 2011) and international student athletes in sports programs in the United States (Abbey-Pinegar, 2010; Popp, Hums & Greenwell, 2009), the body of literature is still sparse concerning student athletes from specific cultural environments. With relatively few studies in this area in Jamaica, this study aims to contribute to filling this gap by investigating the career development of student athletes in Jamaica.

## PURPOSE

The main purpose of this study was to assess the level of career development/career situation awareness of student athletes enrolled in two institutions of higher learning in the Jamaican context. Additionally, the underlying factor structure resulting from using an adapted version of the Student Athlete Career Situation Awareness Inventory (SACSI; Sandstedt, Cox, Martens, Ward, Webber & Ivey, 2004) in a different cultural context was assessed. Linear relationships and differences in the overall career situation awareness scores based on selected demographic variables were also investigated.

## METHODOLOGY

### Population/Sample/Data collection

The population used in this study was student athletes enrolled in two public institutions of higher learning in Jamaica; a college dedicated to physical education and sports, and a leading national university with a student population of 11,000. This population is largely English speaking, and the university uses English as the primary language of instruction. Voluntary participation was sought from student athletes of diverse majors in those institutions with the help of their coaches. All participants gave their permission to be a part of the study, after which the researchers explained the purpose of the study, and then administered a pencil and paper version of the adapted Student Athlete Career Inventory (SACSI) to them. A total of 110 students participated in the study. The respondents mean age was 21.2 ( $n = 108$ ,  $SD = 2.86$ ). The majority of the students male (68.2%), freshmen (41.8%), were in sports related majors (43.6%), played one sport (89.1), came from a single parent household (49.1), and both parents had a high school educational achievement. *Table 1* displays the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

### Instrumentation

The student athlete career development/career situation awareness was measured using an adapted version of the Student Athlete Career Situation Inventory (SACSI). The instrument was originally developed by Sandstedt, Cox, Martens, Ward, Webber and Ivey (2004) as a 30 item measure to specifically to measure student athlete career situation which they defined as “the

extent one's career development and preparation is characterized by the sophistication of one's career attitudes, beliefs and interests" (p. 82). The instrument overall had a high internal consistency ( $\alpha = .83$ ) and a factor analysis revealed five underlying factors which all returned high internal consistency scores namely: Career Development Self Efficacy, Career vs. Sports Identity, Locus of Control, Barriers to Career Development, and Sports to Work Relationship.

**Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%<sup>a</sup></b>	<b>Variable</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%<sup>a</sup></b>
<u>Academic Majors</u>			<u>Gender</u>		
Sports Related Major	48	43.6	Female	35	31.8
Business & Allied Majors	18	16.4	Male	75	68.2
Engineering & Construction	16	14.5	<u>Parents' Marital Status</u>		
Science & Allied	8	7.3	Single, Never Married	51	46.4
Education and Humanities	14	12.7	Married	39	35.5
<u>What Sports Do You Play</u>			Separated	12	10.9
Basketball	28	25.5	Divorced/Widowed	7	6.3
Hockey	4	3.6	<u>I Come from a</u>		
Netball	13	11.8	Single Parent Household	54	49.1
Track and Field	27	24.5	Two Parent Household	48	43.6
Volleyball	16	14.5	<u>Father's Level of Education</u>		
Other	21	19.1	Less Than High School	18	16.4
<u>Classification in College</u>			High School	42	38.2
First Year	46	41.8	Bachelors Degree	12	10.9
Second Year	26	23.6	Masters Degree	4	3.6
Third Year	17	15.9	Doctorate or Professional Degree	3	2.7
Fourth Year	18	16.8	<u>Mother's Level of Education</u>		
<u>Number of Sports Played</u>			Less Than High School	14	12.7
One Sport	98	89.1	High School	48	43.6
More than one sport	11	10.0	Bachelors Degree	22	20.0
<u>Alcohol Consumption (Times per Week)</u>			Masters	8	7.3
0 or None	81	73.6	Doctorate or Professional Degree	1	0.9
1 – 2 Times	20	18.2	<u>Number of Siblings</u>		
3 – 5 Times	3	2.7	0	6	5.5
More than 5 Times	3	2.7	1	11	10.0
<u>Birth Order</u>			2	24	21.8
First Born	36	32.7	3	23	20.9
Middle Child	46	41.8	4	17	15.5
Last Born	22	20.0	5 or more	28	25.5
<b>Variable</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>Min</b>	<b>Max</b>
Age	108	22.21	2.86	17	31
No. of Major Injuries	110	1.58	1.27	0	6
No. of hours spent reading/week	107	10.21	9.99	0	50

<sup>a</sup>Percentage not equal to 100% due to missing data points

Later, a study by Cox, Sadberry, McGuire, and McBride (2009) led to the conclusion the factor structure for the SACSI was different for males and females. Their analyses led to revision of the scale leading to a different survey and factor structure solution for male (25 items; five factors) and female (23 items; four factors) student athletes. For purposes of this study, 20 questions from the revised survey by Cox et al. (2009) which were common to the male and female versions of the survey, and which closely aligned with the objectives of this study and the population being studied were selected and used. A high degree of career development with regards to ones career situation would be indicated by a high total score on the SACSI (Sandstedt et al., 2004).

An additional questionnaire solicited responses on demographic variables suspected to influence career development/situation awareness. Such included demographic variables such as age, gender, academic major, number of hours spent studying; sports related variables such as type of sport and number of sports engaged in; and family background variables such as parents educational attainment, parents marital status, number of siblings, and birth order.

## FINDINGS

### Overall Career Situation Awareness Score

Prior to any analysis, scores for reverse scored items were changed to the appropriate direction. The overall score for a respondent's career development/situation awareness ranged from 54.00 to 92.00. The mean SACSI score was 73.49 out of a possible 100 points. To determine how to categorize scores on the scale, points on the scale were divided into quartiles. Thus individuals high in their career situation awareness scored more than 75 points (>75th percentile), moderate career situation awareness scored between 26 and 74 points (26th-74th percentile), and lowest on the scale scored 25 and below. In this case, though the mean was very close to high career development, student athletes scored in the moderate career situation awareness.

### Reliability

The internal consistency test for the 20 item adapted SACSI returned a Cronbach alpha estimate of 0.627. Though lower than the internal consistency of the original survey, for exploratory studies, the cut off point for acceptable Cronbach alpha is 0.60. There was no item for which deletion would have increased the Cronbach alpha significantly.

### Factor Analysis

Since the version of the SACSI used for this study was a reduced version, was used in a different culture and with a new population, an exploratory factor analytic investigation was deemed necessary to investigate its underlying factor structure. On a 5 point scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*, item means ranged from 2.61 (SD = 1.14) (Item: The

time I have spent being an athlete has kept me from doing other things that might help me explore possible careers) to 4.33 (SD = 1.05) item mean (Item: Excelling in academics is as important to me as excelling in my sport).

The data was deemed factorable since it returned an acceptable Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (547.660;  $df= 190$ ;  $p < .001$ ) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy score of 0.677. Consistent with previous studies (Cox et al., 2009; & Sandstedt, et al., 2004) Principal Axis Factoring extraction with promax rotation was undertaken. The following criteria were used in determining factors to retain: Kaiser Criteria (factors with Eigen value greater than 1), percentage of variance criterion (percentage of total variance extracted by successive factors  $> 5\%$ ), and Cattell Scree plot examination. Consideration was also given to Pett, Lackey, and Sullivan's (2003) suggestion that the solution arrived at should not be based solely on statistical criteria but also theoretical sense, factor interpretability and usefulness.

An initial factor solution, forced four factor solution and a forced five factor solution were considered. The initial factor solution resulted in six factors with an Eigen value of more than one and the total value extracted by successive factors exceeding 5%. However the scree plot suggested four to five factors. Both the six factor and five factor solution did not have sufficient items loading on them to contribute meaningfully to the solution. Considering the criteria discussed above, the four factor solution was found to be parsimonious yet inclusive, making it the appropriate choice for this study. This was not consistent with past studies, even though this could be attributed to the shortened nature of the survey and the fact that it was used with a new population. The four factor solution explained a total cumulative variance of 48.52%. Table 2 shows the four factors, their Eigen values and variance explained, while Table 3 shows the inter factor correlations.

**Table 2: SACSI Four Factor Solution**

	<b>Factor 1</b>	<b>Factor 2</b>	<b>Factor 3</b>	<b>Factor 4</b>
<b>Items</b>	4	5	7	4
Eigen Values	3.909	2.411	1.722	1.661
Variance Explained	19.54%	12.06%	8.61%	8.31%

The first factor consisted of 4 items mostly reflecting the *Sports to Work Relationship* factor found by Sandstedt et al. (2004). This captures the respondent's ability to recognize valuable skills learned from sports that can transfer to career settings. An example of an item includes: "I believe that being an athlete makes me more suitable for certain careers".

The second factor consisted of 5 items mostly reflecting the *Barriers to Career Development* factor found by Sandstedt et al. (2004). This captures factors inherent in an athlete role that may act as barriers to career development. An example item includes: "My athletic involvement limits me from exploring potential careers until my season is over".

Factor three consisted of 7 items mostly reflecting the *Career Development Self-efficacy* factor similar to Sandstedt et al. This reflects the degree of confidence a student athlete has in carrying out career development tasks. An example of an item includes: "I am confident about my ability to find a satisfactory career".

Lastly, factor four consisted of 4 items which mostly address aspects of *Career versus Sports Identity* similarly found by Sandstedt et al. An example includes: “I am an athlete first, student second”.

**Table 3: Inter factor Correlations**

Factors	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	-	0.19	0.40	-0.75
Factor 2	0.19	-	0.12	0.28
Factor 3	0.40	0.12	-	0
Factor 4	-0.08	0.28	0	-

Note.  $p > .05$  for all correlations noted

Even though the factors were not reproduced in exact fashion as was in previous studies in terms of number of factors and items within the factors, there was great similarity in terms of how items coalesced around previously defined factors.

### **Relationships and Differences in the Overall Career Situation Awareness Score Based on Selected Demographic Variables**

An investigation of the linear relationship between the overall SACSI score and the variables of age, number of hours spent reading and number of major injuries did not reveal any significant correlations.

A one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was undertaken to investigate if there were significant differences in the SACSI overall score based on the following demographic variables: academic major; classification in college; type of sports played; number of sports played; how often they consumed alcohol in a week; number of times they consumed alcohol in a week; fathers level of education; mothers level of education; number of siblings; birth order; and parents marital status. Even though there were differences observed in overall scores based on these variables, none of those differences was statistically significant except for one variable. There were significant differences in the overall SACSI score within groups based on the sports they played ( $F_{5, 103} = 2.510, p = .035$ ). The Levene's Test of Homogeneity of Variance revealed the presence of equal variance between the different groups based on sports they played ( $F_{1, 103} = 1.825, p = .114$ ). The Tukey's post hoc analysis revealed significant differences in the overall SACSI score between those who reported playing “volleyball” and “netball”, with volleyball having a higher mean (mean difference = 8.00962).

### **CONCLUSION**

Career situation is defined as “the extent of one's career development and preparation characterized by the sophistication of one's career attitudes, beliefs and interests” (Sandstedt et al., 2004, p. 82). Students reporting high scores in this measure would indicate a readiness to engage in career exploration and prepare for a career role in a student athlete sports environment. The results indicated that the respondents have a moderate to high career development or career

situation awareness. There are no studies assessing the career development of student athletes in a Jamaican environment that the authors are aware of that could be compared with these results. Future studies could try and incorporate a qualitative segment by way of open ended questions in the survey or face to face interviews in the methodology to try and capture career development issues or concerns of student athletes that may be specific to student athletes in this region.

A shortened form of SACSI was used in this study and was applied in a different cultural setting. The results were an acceptable reliability estimate, and a four factor solution. Even though the number of factors and the items within each factor found in previous studies were not exactly reproduced in this study, this study lends some support to previous studies in that items coalesced in similar factors found by Cox et al. (2009) and Sandstedt et al. (2004). However, the results of this study indicated a lower variance explained by extracted factors (less than 50%), much lower than previous studies. Differences may have arisen from using a shortened version of the survey and probably different contextual factors peculiar to the sports environment in this region or these particular schools. Future studies should use the full version of the survey and target to broaden the sample to include more respondents and schools.

There was no significant linear relationships and difference in the overall SACSI scores based on selected demographics, save for the type of sports played. Future studies may try to investigate if this difference cuts across different schools in the regions and if so, find out why volleyball players tend to have higher career situation awareness than netballers.

There is definitely a need to investigate the understudied career development of student athletes in various contexts, especially in contexts where prospects of making a living out of sports are minimal. Student athletes in these contexts face competing demands from their athlete role and academic roles which may act as barrier to career development, whilst they face a dimmer chance of making a living out of sports careers.

## Limitations

This study only focused on two schools and used a convenience sample of voluntary respondents to the survey. Thus the population and sample size used limits the level of generalizability of the results of the study. The study also used a shortened version of the original survey which limits the extent to which results of this study can be compared with previous studies.

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# THE PROBLEMS WITH MERIT PAY: ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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## ABSTRACT

*In the United States, merit pay has become as prevalent as to be ubiquitous. Most workers expect a “merit raise” of some sort with each annual evaluation. This paper examines the concept of merit pay, as well as a number of problems that it can create. Alternatives are presented, with rationales for their use as alternatives to traditional merit pay.*

## INTRODUCTION

The term merit pay is often generically used to describe many types of pay systems, ranging from commission pay to bonus systems. However, for the purposes of this paper, merit pay is defined as individual, performance-appraisal based increases to the base rate of an employee’s pay, consistent with the definition used by Milkovich and Wigdor (1991) in their comprehensive review of performance based pay. Other types of performance-based pay will be referred to as incentive pay, or by their individual names. This article will examine the phenomenon of merit pay, discuss some of the inherent flaws with this system of compensation, and will suggest alternatives.

## HISTORY OF MERIT PAY

Performance based pay has been tried in many types of work and throughout many centuries. For example, according to an article by Solmon and Podgursky (2000), England attempted pay for performance for their teachers as early as 1710, with disastrous results. However, it is widely held that pay for performance gained popularity during the “scientific management” era, in the early 20<sup>th</sup> century, advocated by management pioneers such as Frederick Taylor. Taylor’s preferred method, referred to as piece-rate pay, involved paying employees per unit of production, instead of by the hour or day (Taylor, 1911). This eventually evolved, through the motivation literature in the 1960s, into a boom in the popularity of merit pay that peaked in the 1980s (Ballau & Podgursky, 1993; Malanga, 1991). According to Martocchio (2011), “merit pay is one of the most commonly used compensation methods in the US.” With the continued widespread use of merit pay in the compensation of employees, the question has to be asked: “Is it effective?”

## EFFECTIVENESS OF MERIT PAY

Research into the effectiveness of merit pay systems has suggested mixed results. While Authors such as Steven Malanga (2001), cite the sophistication of modern merit pay and

performance evaluation systems, others, such as Michael Beer (2003), point to large scale merit pay failures, such as the efforts of Hewlett Packard, to suggest that merit pay does not work. There is no clear consensus among the empirical examinations of merit pay. While the empirical data are unclear, there are some conceptual objections that need to be discussed.

### CONCEPTUAL ISSUES WITH MERIT PAY

The problems with merit pay as a form of performance based pay are numerous. In this paper, the following issues will be examined: Time lag between behavior and outcome; continued reward for historical performance, time multiplier effects and high net present value of future rewards. Alternatives are suggested to reduce the impact of these effects.

The traditional merit pay system is based upon an annual performance evaluation system. Upon completion of the performance evaluations, employees are given a “merit raise”, typically a percentage of their base pay, permanently added to their base, beginning the next pay period. This means that the employee is rewarded for behaviors that may have occurred as many as twelve months before the evaluation was done. The academic literature on OB mod (Organizational Behavior Modification) clearly shows that for a reinforcement to have an impact on desired behavior, it must be close in temporal proximity to the behavior exhibited, as well as clearly linked to (contingent on) the behavior (Luthans and Stajkovic, 1999). Merit systems do not meet either of these criteria, as the reward initially occurs as much as a year after the behaviors that triggered it, and may continue for decades (through an increased base salary), regardless of whether or not the behavior is repeated.

The continuation of reward, through an increased base salary, regardless of subsequent performance, is an important issue for two primary reasons, equity and cost. Equity theory says that employees compare their compensation (outcomes), along with their inputs, such as level of effort and differences in education, to others, called referents, in order to determine whether their pay is equitable. The determination of equity is a ratio of outcomes per input, and the desired state is an equality, so that those who do more are paid more (Adams, 1967). Merit pay can result in problems in equity. Consider a case in which two employees are hired on the same day, both to do the same job, at a salary of \$40,000. Employee A performs very well for the first three years, and receives a 10% raise each of those years, beginning the fourth year with a salary of \$53,240. Employee B, while not a bad employee, was average and received a 5% raise each year, beginning year four with a salary of \$46,305, a difference of \$6,935 dollars. If, at that time, Employee A scales back his performance to merely average as well, his inputs would be the same, but his outcomes would continue to be higher. Eventually, the historical differences would be forgotten in the minds of employees A and B, and they would perceive inequity. Even worse, since their continuing raises would be calculated off their base, in dollar terms Employee A would continue to receive larger raises, even if both received the same five percent each year. In five years, Employee A would have a salary of \$67,949.2, while Employee B would have a salary of \$59,098.2, the difference having grown to \$8851, in spite of the fact that Employee A did nothing during that 5 year period to earn larger raises. This difference would continue to grow, the longer both employees work for the company.

The second reason that the continuation of reward is a concern is the cost to the company. If an employee is given a bonus, that bonus has a known cost to the company equal to the dollar value of the bonus. A merit pay increase, on the other hand, costs the company for the entire term of the employee's employment. The \$4000 raise Employee A got in year one of the above example costs the company \$4000 for every year the employee stays with the firm. Therefore, the cost to the company at the time the raise is given would be best expressed as the net present value of the expected future expense. With a five percent discount rate and 10 years of payments, that \$4000 raise has a net present value of -\$32,431. Since a five percent discount rate might be high in the current environment, it was also calculated with a very conservative rate of one percent. At that rate, the NPV was \$38,263. In either case, it would be far cheaper for the firm to give a bonus that is larger in cash value, but does not have the future obligations attached. Part of the reason for this is that people generally discount the value of future rewards to a much greater degree than they should (Warner and Pleeter, 2001). In the previously cited study, Warner and Pleeter found that military retirees were willing to accept seventeen cents per dollar in a lump sum payment instead of an annuity. A more recent study in Illinois found a similar pattern in valuation of employee pensions, at eighteen cents on the dollar (Brown, 2011). Assuming this ratio is relatively stable, employers could offer a reward with the same perceived value to employees, for less than one fifth of the cost. It would also motivate employees more because of the greater contingency between behavior and outcome.

## CONCLUSIONS

The concept of pay for performance has both good and bad points. Critics of the process suggest that it creates a short-term focus and causes competition between individuals and units that should be cooperating. On the other hand, there have been numerous case studies that show benefits to pay for performance systems. (Solmon and Podgursky, 2000). However, even if one chooses to decide to support the concept of performance based pay as part of their compensation system, annual merit pay increases do not seem to be an effective way to implement pay for performance. It is very costly, does not directly link pay to behaviors and waits too long after performance is completed to reward it. Periodic bonuses tied to specific performance related outcomes would be a better way to implement performance-based pay. The costs would be much lower for the company, while the effects on motivation would simultaneously be larger.

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# **THE OVERALL MANAGMENT READINESS SCALE AND THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS: A PREDICTOR OF MANAGERIAL READINESS IN BUSINESS STUDENTS**

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## **ABSTRACT**

*In this research, we examine the relationship between Overall Managerial Readiness (OMR) and the Five-Factor personality model (FFM) and performance using a student sample. Comparisons were between undergraduate and graduate students. We find evidence for differences in school classification. The preliminary analysis also supports relationship between OMR and FFM and performance but finds no statistical differences in OMR and FFM between undergraduate and graduate students.*

## **INTRODUCTION**

We are conducting a follow up study on the Validation Studies on a Measure of Overall Managerial Readiness of the Chinese by Dr. Harry Hui, S. Tess Pak and Kevin H.C. Cheng (2009). We want to test the Overall Managerial Readiness Scale (OMR) to see if we can reproduce the same findings but with a group of (American & International) Business undergraduate and graduate students (MBA) from the University of New Orleans.

### **Overall Managerial Readiness**

The OMR was originally designed to assess Chinese managerial candidates for management positions; this was due to the increase in competition from firms for competent managers. The OMR measures a wide range of attitudes and interest across a multitude of activities required by current managers (Hui et al, 2009). We want to know if the OMR is also a valid predictor of managerial readiness in non-Chinese students being that the OMR was validated using the Big Five Personality traits.

### **Five Factor Model**

Salgado (2002) states that the Five Factor Model (FFM) is the most empirically studied model of personality. "The FFM summarizes traits of individual differences into five

dimensions”; Extroversion, Openness, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism/Emotional Stability (Digman, 1990; cf. Hui et al., 2009).

### **Extroversion**

Extroversion is one of the five personality traits of the FFM and according to Barrick, Stewart, and Piotrowski (2002) describe individuals who exhibit extroversion to be, energetic, communal, bold, confident, lively, and adventurous. Barrick and Mount (1991) study found that extroversion was a valid predictor of worker performance for managers and sales personnel ( $p=.18$ ). Hui et al (2009) stated that the OMR is embedded with components that correspond with the traits of extroversion thus predicted that the OMR will be positively correlated to extroversion.

### **Conscientiousness**

Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) describe conscientious individuals as typically displaying characteristics of, dependability, responsibility, carefulness, and perseverance. Conscientiousness has been one of the most consistent predictors of performance across occupations more specifically job performance (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Salgado, 1997; Hertz & Donovan, 2000). Hui et al. (2009) OMR scale requires that individuals be engaging in activities such as, “making long-term plans, setting challenging goals, and managing time well” (Hui et al, 2009 pg. 129) which all require high levels of conscientiousness. Thus Hui et al (2009) predicted that the OMR will be positively correlated with conscientiousness.

### **Neuroticism/Emotional**

Stability Salgado (2002) states, “Emotional stability would be defined by irritability (low), insecurity (low), and emotionability (low)”(pg.122). Barrick and Mount (1991) adds that the traits of depression, anxiety, anger, embarrassment, insecurity, etc. all fall under emotional stability, stability, emotionability, and/or neuroticism. For example, Hui et al (2009) states that emotional stability and low neuroticism synonymous to one another. The OMR scale measures specific traits such as decisiveness, resilience and self confidence which are needed in managers but are also descriptive of the traits of emotional stability. Thus Hui et al (2009) predicted that neuroticism would negatively correlate with the OMR.

### **Openness**

Openness is defined by Salgado (2002) as intellectual, imaginative, creative, and perceptive. Barrick et al. (2002) characterizes open individuals as having the following traits: imagination, sophistication, and inquisition. Hui et al (2009) states that openness to experience and the OMR have traits that overlap. Hui et al (2009) predicted that due to these overlaps that openness to experience has with the OMR that they would correlate positively.

## Agreeableness

According to Barrick et al (2002) agreeableness is characterized as a trait of unselfishness, kindness, generosity, fairness, cooperative, and communal individuals who typically seek harmony rather than competition with other individuals. The same traits found in agreeableness can be found in the OMR although Barrick et al (2002) explain that individuals who are agreeable tend to be self-sacrificing as a means of dealing with stressful situations. Agreeable individuals seek to be harmonious with others rather than superior to others. Thus, they predicted that agreeableness would have a positive but not as significant correlation with the OMR (Hui et al., 2009).

## OMR and FFM linkage

The OMR study by Hui et al., 2009 results were clear that the OMR was positively correlated with all of the Big Five (O  $p=.22$ , C  $p=.21$ , E  $p=.31$ , A  $p=.15$ ) except neuroticism (N  $p= -.30$ ). They conducted 5 different studies with different samples and methodologies to more accurately validate the OMR as a predictive measurement of performance. Hui et al. (2009) states that the OMR is designed to measure the preference for managerial activities but is not a personality trait itself, it is merely an “expression” of personality.

## HYPOTHESIS/PREDICTIONS

We hypothesize that we will have similar results to that of the original study done by Hui et al (2009) in regards to the validation of the OMR. Thus we predict that OMR will have positive correlations with Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Openness, Agreeableness, as well as negatively correlate with Neuroticism (low emotional stability).

*Hypothesis 1a: OMR would be positively related to openness to experience.*

*Hypothesis 1b: OMR would be positively related to conscientiousness.*

*Hypothesis 1c: OMR would be positively related to extraversion.*

*Hypothesis 1d: OMR would be positively related to agreeableness.*

*Hypothesis 1e: OMR would be negatively related to neuroticism.*

Our initial prediction is that the graduate students should score higher on the OMR than the undergraduate students. The rationale is that an MBA program is designed to prepare an individual to assume the responsibilities of management. While an undergraduate degree is designed to give a general overview of a subject with little specific expertise in that subject. Not to mention that Graduate students (MBA) would be older and have some significant experience in the workforce. Generally speaking undergraduate students are younger and have had limited opportunities in the workforce or specific management training therefore they are not as prepared to undertake management positions. As stated before being emotionally stable is a pre-requisite of managerial readiness and that low neuroticism is synonymous to emotional stability (Hui et al., 2009). Graduate students (MBA) should be higher in emotional stability thus score lower in

neuroticism due to more life experience and graduate studies. Graduate course work and work experience lowers general anxiety (which is the key component of the Neurotic trait according to Costa & McCrae, 1988, p.259 cf. Hui et al., 2009) of management duties. This should suggest that undergraduates should score lower on the OMR due to the lack of emotional stability in contrast to their graduate counterparts who should score higher.

*Hypothesis 2: Graduate students would score higher than undergraduate students in OMR and FFM.*

## METHODOLOGY

### Subjects of the Current Study

Subjects in the sample were approximately 90 undergraduate and 40 graduate students in the College of Business of a public university in the Deep South. The students were roughly 58% female, 82% were working part-time or full-time, and 76% were born in the US. Approximately 28% of the students were between 18 to 22 years old, 45% were between 23 to 27, and 18% were between 28 to 35. Despite 82% of them are working, they also were taking a full load at school.

### Instrument

#### OMR

The OMR scale is based on previous research (Hui et al., 2000, 2009). The scale is a collection of to-do things that an effective manager or leader is predisposed to do. It focuses on assessing what one would do, rather than on what one can do. The OMR scale is comprised of 30 pairs of forced-choice statements. If the OMR statement within a pair of statement is chosen, it will yield one point to the overall score, and therefore, OMR score could range from 0 to 30.

#### FFM

The FFM scale is adopted from the Digman (1990) study. The scale summarizes personality traits in five dimensions: openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Hui et al. (2009) reported Cronbach's alpha for the Big Five in the range of 0.78 to 0.91.

### Performance

Objective measures, such as homework grades and exam grades, are used to assess student's performance or classroom productivity.



## **RESULTS**

Our first hypothesis suggested that OMR will have positive correlations with Conscientiousness, Extroversion, Openness, Agreeableness, As well as negatively correlate with Neuroticism (low emotional stability). The correlation results showed significant positive relationships between OMR and Conscientiousness and Extroversion ( $r = 0.417$  and  $0.386$ ). The results also showed significant negative relationships between OMR and Neuroticism ( $r = -0.389$ ). This provides strong support for three out of the five relationships between OMR and the Big Five traits. Openness and Agreeableness ( $r = 0.166$  and  $0.228$ ) correlations were the weaker but still positively correlated with the OMR. Hui et al. (2009) study in experiment one showed similar results: positively correlating Extroversion ( $r = .32$ ) and negatively correlating Neuroticism ( $r = -.33$ ). Although Conscientiousness in experiment one was significantly lower than in our study ( $r = .25$ ). As predicted by Hui et al. (2009) Agreeableness positively correlated with the OMR but only moderately ( $r = 0.24$ ). Although Hui et al. correlation for Openness ( $r = 0.29$ ) was significantly higher than our correlation. Our second hypothesis is that the graduate students should score higher on the OMR than the undergraduate students with respect to OMR and FFM. MANOVA results were not significant which means there is insufficient amount of evidence to support differences between undergraduate and graduate students in OMR and FFM. This could be due to the fact that most of the undergraduate students in the sample are non-traditional students. They are older (72% were older than 22) and have years of working experience (82% were working).

## **CONCLUSION**

The OMR is another tool that can be used to assess managers coming into the workforce or switching jobs and/or departments. We have found a positive correlation with the OMR and the Big Five Personality traits (FFM). Some elements of the FFM have been proven to pre

