

The 2011 International Conference on Human Resource Development
**International Conference on
 Human Resource Development for Sustainability**

Agenda

Day 1 –September 28, 2011

Venue: Educational Building 2F International Conference Hall, National Taiwan Normal University
 162, Heping East Road Section 1, Taipei, Taiwan

Time	Event
8 : 50 - 9 : 20	Registration
9 : 20 - 10 : 00	Opening Ceremony & Welcome Remarks
10 : 00 - 11 : 00	Keynote Speech Topic: Value Leadership & Human resources for green industry in Tzu Chi Speaker: Rey-Sheng Her , Spokesman of Tzu-Chi Foundation
11 : 00 - 11 : 40	Coffee Break
12 : 00 - 13 : 30	Reception Lunch
13 : 30-15 : 00	Invited Speech Topic: Sustainable Interventions to Support Organizations Undergoing Change Speaker: Mr. Nicholas D. Wolfson , Senior Consultant, S4 Consulting
15 : 00-15 : 20	Coffee Break
15 : 20 - 17 : 00	Sessions A / Oral presentation 1. The Effects of Employee Training on the Relationship between Environmental Attitude and Firms' Performance in Sustainable Development <i>Ji Li</i> , Hong Kong Baptist University, China <i>Jun Huang</i> , College of Economics and Management Southwest University, China <i>Xinran Wang</i> , School of Management, Lanzhou University Lanzhou, China <i>Hong Zhu</i> , School of Business Administration Hong Kong Baptist University, China <i>Zhenyao Cai</i> , School of Management Hong Kong Baptist University, China 2. Different Choices- Cultural Values and Organizational Culture Preferences <i>C. Rosa Yeh</i> , Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan <i>Liang-Yu Wei</i> , Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan

Time	Event
15 : 20 - 17 : 00	<p>3. The impact of organizational culture in attaining a stable and productive workforce - A case study of The Gambia tertiary industry</p> <p><i>Francis Jatta</i>, Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan</p> <p><i>Chih - Chien Steven Lai</i>, Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development National Taiwan Normal University, TaiwanChina</p>
	<p>4. The "Fuzzy Concept" of Core Competence— Comparing the Strategic Management and Human Resource Development Perspective</p> <p><i>Hai-Ming Chen</i>, Graduate Institute of Management Science, Tamkang University, Taiwan.</p> <p><i>Wen-Yen Chang</i>, Graduate Institute of Management Science, Tamkang University, Taiwan.</p>
	<p>5. Key Perspective of Mongolian HR Practitioners towards to E-recruitment</p> <p><i>Khulan Ganbat</i>, Graduate Institute of International Human Resource Development National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan</p>

Day 2 - September 29, 2011

Venue: Educational Building 2F International Conference Hall, National Taiwan Normal University
162, Heping East Road Section 1, Taipei, Taiwan

Time	Event
9 : 00 - 9 : 30	Registration
9 : 30 - 11 : 20	<p>Global Human Resource Forum</p> <p>Forum Chair: <i>Zora Liu</i>, Anchor of ctiTV</p> <p>Guest Speaker:</p> <p><i>Richard Ko</i>, CEO of Round Table Professional Conference Organizer TOPIC: Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event</p> <p><i>Hsiao-Yu Tang</i>, Director of Endemic Species Research Institute, COA TOPIC: Current pressures on biodiversity</p> <p><i>Fanny Liao</i>, President Oriental Resource Development Ltd TOPIC: The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group—EcoArk and green materials as the examples</p> <p><i>Feng-Wen Chen</i>, The founder and chairman of CJCHT TOPIC: The sustainable strategy of Wal-Mart best suppliers</p> <p><i>Tzu-Shan Tseng</i>, Assistant professor of International College of Ming Chuan University TOPIC : HRM and Sustainable Development</p>
11 : 20 - 12 : 00	Coffee Break
12 : 00 - 13 : 30	Reception Lunch

13 : 30 -14 : 50	Sessions B / Oral presentation
	1. Creating Virtual Human Resource Management Learning Applications for Virtual Managers and Teams <i>Bob Barrett</i> , School of Business American Public University, USA
	2. Factors that Motivate Academic Staff to Conduct Research in Chinese Project 211 Universities <i>Xin Yan Zhang</i> , Faculty of Business & Government University of Canberra, Australia <i>Doug Davies</i> , Faculty of Business & Government University of Canberra, Australia
	3. Exploring Problem Employees: Types and Antecedents of Counterproductive Behaviors <i>Hsiu-Hua Hu</i> , Department of International BusinessMing Chuan University, Taiwan
14 : 50-15 : 20	Section C / Poster presentation
	15 : 20-17 : 00
	Section D / Oral presentation
	1. Top management team and external knowledge acquisition for sustainability in Indian startup firms <i>Eric Kong</i> , School of Management & Marketing University of Southern Queensland, Australia
15 : 20-17 : 00	2. Religion, Stigmatization and National Culture in Australia <i>Susan Scott</i> , Department of Business St. George's University, Grenada <i>S. Bruce Thomson</i> , Department of Business St. Georg's University, Grenada
	3. Relational Capital and Appropriate Incentives: A Recipe for Human Resource Sustainability? <i>Agnès Festré</i> , <i>University of Picardie Jules Verne, France</i> <i>Luca Giustiniano</i> , Department of Business and Management Luiss Guido Carli, Italy
	4. Perception of HRM Practice and its Influences in Taiwan <i>Kirk Chang</i> , Business School Oxford Brookes University, UK <i>Kuo-Tai Cheng</i> , HRM Graduate Institute National Hsin-Chu University of Education, Taiwan <i>Yi-Ping Hsieh</i> , Department of Medical Sociology and Social Work Kaohsiung Medical University, Taiwan
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Keynote Speech

Value Leadership & Human Resources for Green Industry in Tzu Chi

REY-SHENG HER

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PROFESSIONAL

Current Positions 2003 to Present

Spokesperson of Tzu-Chi Foundation

Assistant Professor of Tzu Chi University
Institute of Medical Sciences/
Department of Human Development/
Department of Communication Studies

Director of Humanity Development Department of Tzu-Chi Foundation
Chief Editor of Medicine with Humanity, a Tzu-Chi monthly magazine
Director of Communication Office of Tzu-Chi General Hospitals

2002 Senior Producer & Anchorman of Da-Ai Television which is founded by Tzu-Chi Buddhist Compassion Relief Foundation

2001 Director of News Program Center & News Anchorperson of PTV- one of the major cable news channels in Taiwan

1997-2000 News Anchorman and Producer, News Department of TTV
Taiwan Television Company -- one of the national Terrestrial TV Station.

News Producer and Program Host of "The Great Society" & "Viewpoint", report-in-depth programs on News Department of TTV, "The Great Society" --the Best News Program of Golden Bell Award, 1999.

News Program Host of "Hotline News" , a report-in-depth program on TTV

- Sep 1996-1997 Specialist to the CEO & Director of Business Development Center STV--Super Communication Inc.-
-one of the most popular cable channels in Taiwan.
- June 1995--Aug.1996 News Anchorman and Producer at STV anchorman and co-producer of the
"Investigation Report", one of the prominent news magazines in Taiwan nominated by the Emmy Award
International in the category of Best News Documentary in 1996.
- 1991 News Producer and Program Host, Los Angeles Chinese Broadcasting Co. (LACB) ,1991. Produced
Documentary--"The Miracle of Tzu-Chi Charity Foundation" 210 minutes, Broadcast on TV channel 18, KACI
LOS Angeles, May & June 1991.
- 1990 News Anchorman at China TV, "This Morning"--two hour live morning news
Program at China Television Co., one of there major networks in Taiwan, 1989&1990.
Producer and Program Host at Taipei Radio station.
- 1989 Producer and Anchorman of "Nationwide Radio Hookup: at the Broadcasting Corporation of China, the
leading radio networks in Taiwan. "Nationwide Hookup" was most influential radio news program in Taiwan;
broadcast over 30 years and over 60 channels.
- Producer and Anchorman of News Critique program "Current Topic", at the Broadcasting Corporation of
China in Taiwan, 1989.
- Instructor, Debate Club of National University of Marine & Oceanic Technology, Taiwan, 1989.
- Referee, TV Debate Contest on the topic "Construction of Nuclear Power Plants". 1989 Taiwan.
- 1987-1988 Correspondent in Congress and Executive Dept. of the program "Nationwide Hookup" at Broadcasting
Corporation of China. 1987-1988.
- News Producer and Anchorman, Music program producer and program host at Taiwan Broadcasting Company
which is the fourth largest radio network in Taiwan 1986-1988.
- 1987 Instructor, Public Speaking program for executives of major corporation in Taiwan, included Seven Eleven,
Excellent Magazine (which is top 3 commercial magazine in Taiwan) , Maunder Hair Design Co. (Top one
hair design franchise in Taiwan) , and others.

PUBLISHED

- 2008 The Practices and Philosophies of Tzu Chi Movement
- 2007 A Moment of Inspiration: My Insight to Tzu Chi Philosophies
- 2005 Great Love as a Running Water

HONOR

- 2004 Emmy Award International, Selected as Best Documentary in Pacific Asia & Africa Regions
- 1999 Golden Bell Award Winner in the category of Best News program --I am the producer and host of "The Great
Society" on TTV .
- 1997 Golden Bell Award nomination in the category of The Best News Anchorman
- Golden Bell Award nomination of the Best news program at the time that I was the co-producers and Host of
the "Investigation Report" on STV.
- 1996 Emmy Award International Nomination in the category of Best News Documentary. ,the "Investigation Report"
is one of the prominent news magazines in Taiwan
- 1996 Golden Bell Award Winner in the category of Best News Documentary on Cable Television.

- 1989 Golden Bell Award nomination in the category of "Best News Anchorman" The Golden Bell Award is the highest honor awarded to broadcasters in Taiwan.
Golden Bell Award nomination in the category of Best News Special "Chaos in the Congress".
- 1988 Golden Bell Award winner in the category of "Greatest Contribution to Society, "based on daily reports on the Executive and Legislative branches of government, and many other critical social issues.
Golden Bell Award nomination in the category of "Best Program Host."
- 1987 Golden Bell Award, nominated in category of "Best Program Host" . Taiwan, 1987, at a time when devotion to Broadcasting only half a year.

EDUCATION

- 1995 Master of Art on Communication Management, the Annenberg School for Communication of the University of Southern California, May, 1995.
Specialized in Communication Policy and Business Strategies of Communication Firms.
- 1993 Bachelor of Art, Department of Communication, Radio TV & Film, California State University, Fullerton, August 1993.
- 1984 National Taiwan Academy of Arts, Diploma, Department of Radio and Television.

ACADEMIC

1997—2009

- Lecturer of the Humanities and Social Sciences College of Tzu-Chi University, teaching Media Anthropology
Lecturer of the Medicine College of Tzu-Chi University, teaching Philosophy and Practice of Tzu Chi Humanity
Lecturer of the Communication College of Tzu-Chi University, teaching Crisis Management through Communication
Lecturer of the Communication College of Tzu-Chi University, teaching TV News & Production.

1997-1999

- Lecturer of the World Communication & Journalism College, teaching Communication Policy and Regulations.

REFEREVCE AVAILABLE UPON REQUEST

Invited Speech

Sustainable Interventions to Support Organizations Undergoing Change

Nicholas Wolfson

175 West 79th Street, New York, NY 10024

Email: nwolfson@s4consulting.com Phone: 001-917-796-3647

www.s4consulting.com



Nicholas Wolfson has worked with both profit and nonprofit companies for more than 30 years in improving profitability, quality, cycle time, and how to uniquely respond to customers. His area of expertise is helping leaders and their organizations to perform at their peak effectiveness so as to maximize business results.

Nicholas helps individual managers and executives to sharpen their focus, increase their self-awareness, enhance their personal productivity, and advance their career satisfaction and sense of well-being. His work with individuals includes private coaching and leadership development. He helps leaders to build trust and challenge their perceived limitations. He supports them in taking greater risks in order to develop management and executive skills, to embrace change and courageously address obstacles in their way. He helps them to listen and communicate-for-action, and maximize their effectiveness at producing their results through other people.

With groups, Nicholas's focus is on human performance. He assists with diagnosis, organization design, training design and delivery, team learning and the management of learning teams, plus group facilitation. Together, these support expanding business literacy and competence within the enterprise. He has led intensive indoor/outdoor courses designed to develop peak performance in individuals and their organizations. He works to build the overall capacity of the organization.

In a recent project, Nicholas helped design the framework for implementing a team structure into an organization with a traditional hierarchical structure. He co-developed the design of the team training and co-designed and delivered the training for internal facilitators. He also worked with the client's internal facilitator team as they implemented the training.

In another project, Nicholas helped to implement a Key Account Management Program in a public utility going through the process of deregulation. He provided guidance and individual executive coaching, helping to change both thinking and practices to cause key customer and supplier relationships to be treated as strategic assets.

In yet another project Nicholas designed and facilitated joint blue collar - white collar developmental sessions to transform the traditional adversarial workplace relationship and improve productivity within the highly unionized motor vehicle industry, using innovative community building principles to enhance team effectiveness and individual accountability.

Nicholas's clients include ADESA, AMEC (UK), Appryl (Alf Aquitaine), AT&T, Banc One, BP, CarProof (Ontario, Canada), Desert Regional Medical Center (Palm Springs, CA), Dupont, Mobil Chemicals, Emmaus House (Harlem, New York), Fondetha (Haiti), GTE, Hetta Institute, HOK Architects, JPMorgan, Kapawi (Ecuador), Lucent Technologies (France and Spain), Minnesota Power, Nationwide Insurance, Progressive Insurance Company, Soliya, Technip (France), The United Auto Workers Union, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Westcoast Energy (Canada), and the Columbus (Ohio) Museum of Art.

Nicholas's management experience includes being the General Manager of the Career Development Team (a human resource consulting firm), and Director of European Operations for Landmark Education Co., a training group specializing in personal effectiveness.

Nicholas has taught leadership and change management at Jones International University and has been a guest lecturer on leadership at The School of International and Public Affairs at Columbia University.

He is also is a professional artist and oil painter who shows his work in many one-person and group shows, and an actor who appears on New York' s off-off Broadway stages. A graduate of Columbia College of Columbia University, he has served as a Peace Corps Volunteer in Mauritania and Senegal in West Africa. Nicholas has been an Escort Interpreter for the United States Department of State; he is fluent in French, competent in Spanish.

Global Human Resource Forum

Forum Chair

Zora Liu

Anchor of CTI Television Inc.



Position:

The Anchor of CTITV news

Education Background:

Bachelor of Department of Adult and Continuing Education, National Taiwan Normal University

Experience:

CTITV News Anchor

CTITV Meteorological Anchor

EBC Financial News Anchor

The host of financial program in TBS TV

Host Experience:

Fashion Show

Tourist Show

Music Show

Entertainment News

Financial Program

Talk Show

Honor:

The activity for the public welfare of visually disabled (Sponsor by Standard Chartered)

Speech "the charm of voice" (In National Chengchi University)

Speech "my experience about the Anchor" (In Ming Chuan University)

Global Human Resource Forum

Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

Guest speaker

Richard Ko

CEO of Round Table Professional Conference Organizer



Educational Background:

Master of Business Management, Tongji University(China)
Bachelor of Arabic Language and Literature, National Chengchi University
Bachelor of Diplomacy, National Chengchi University

Specialization:

Conference Management. Agenda-Setting. Marketing public relations. International Etiquette

Position:

CEO of Round Table Professional Conference Organize
President of Shanghai Round Table Professional Conference Service
Executive Director of Science Park Life Hub
Associate Professor of Department of Traveling Management of Shanghai Jiao Tong University
Lecturer of New Century Professional Image Services

Experience:

Business Management Convention Center, Hsinchu Science Park Taiwan-Science Park Life Hub
Planning and organizing 525 international conferences.exhibitions and activities
Team leader of public relations of Taipei International Convention Center
News secretary of Government Information Office, Republic of China (Taiwan)
Specialist of CTCI Corporation, Saudi Arabia Branch

Qualifications:

The Diplomatic and Consular Officials Abroad (Examination Yuan of ROC)
International Information Personnel (Examination Yuan of ROC)
Tour Guide (Tourism Bureau, M.O.T.C. Republic of China)

Award:

Asia Pacific Band Festival, The service achievements (August, 1992)
The award of Taiwan famous business person (September, 1994)
32th World Skills International, The service achievements (August, 1997)
ISO9002, Round Table Professional Conference Organize (June, 2000)
International Conference of 921 earthquakes rebuilds (January, 2004)



Global Human Resource Forum

Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

Speaker:
Richard KO
柯樹人執行長

Round Table PCO

主講人: 柯樹人 先生
Richard S.J.KO

圓桌會議顧問公司	執行長
華園管理顧問公司	執行董事
中華國際會議展覽協會	常務理事
上海交通大學	副教授
北京聯合大學	聘任教授
高雄餐飲學院	客座教授

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我們能作什麼?
So, What we can do?

- 執行及營銷能力
Networking & Marketing
- 綠色會展策略
Green MICE Strategy
- 綠色會展資料庫
Green MICE Data Bank
- 綠色會展
Future Goal?
- 培育綠色會展人才?
Green MICE Leaders?

Round Table PCO

A. Greening Meetings – why and what?

Round Table PCO

會展產業 (MICE)

- Meetings 會議
- Incentive(Travel) 獎勵旅遊
- Conventions 大型年會
- Exhibitions or Events 展覽、活動

Round Table PCO

A. Greening Meetings – why and what?

- 什麼是綠色會議?
What is a green meeting?
- 為什麼要進行綠色會議?
Why green your meeting?
- 綠色會議的成功要素?
Key instruments for success

Round Table PCO

Global Human Resource Forum

Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

Our Earth

People

Profit

Planet

#減少對環境的衝擊!
#採取節能減碳的有效措施!

Round Table PCO

綠色會展定義
Definition on Green Event

綠色會議:

美國環保署定義: 為資訊交流目的, 所形成的集會或共同活動, 可以透過詳盡的事前策畫, 將對環境的負面影響降至最低, 可稱為綠色會展 (Green Meeting/Event) ”

Round Table PCO

B. Greening Your Event

1. 會展場地選擇 Venue Selection
2. 住宿飯店 Accommodation
3. 會展餐飲 Food & Beverage
4. 場地布置及印刷 Deco & Printing
5. 綠色運輸 Green Transportation
6. 會展科技及環境教育 Technology & Education

Round Table PCO

綠色會議/時間篇 Meeting Time

@ 選擇適當的時間開會
(避開節慶、旅遊旺季減輕交通阻塞、費用)

@ 開會時間不要太久 (最短時間結束會議)

Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 宣傳篇 Communication

@ 透過社群網站, 宣傳會展活動, 減少紙張印刷及郵寄, 降低碳排放。

@ 大會印刷採用光盤方式, 大會資料袋改用環保材質之提袋。

@ 籌備會議期間, 相關路線圖、宣傳品及信函應盡量電子化, 減少紙張浪費!

Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 會場篇 Venue Selection

@ 住宿旅館與會議盡量是同一場址, 或在步行範圍內

@ 選擇有環保或綠建築標章的旅館及會場

@ 在同一地點舉行全部會議及展示會

Round Table PCO

Global Human Resource Forum

Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

綠色會議/ 展覽篇 **Logistics**

- @參展商在展示結束時，自行進行回收工作。
- @展覽會場裝潢、陳列品及包裝，用可回收及再利用的材料。
- @使用省電燈泡或高效率螢光燈管照明。
- @會議、展示場所，盡可能使用自然光源。



Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 展覽篇 **Logistics**

- @在適當位置擺設 垃圾分類筒、回收筒，並標示清楚。
- @會議結束後，設立回收處集中處理所有物品：出席證、未使用、使用完畢的物品、文件等。
- @為會務人員或員工提供簡單但必須的特別訓練。
- @會議中請專家教育與會人員資源回收的觀念。
- @會場中張貼各種環保小標語，提醒與會人員。（各式分類筒名稱、回收處、回收標誌等）



Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 佈置篇 **Logistics**




大會贈品

Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 佈置篇 **Logistics**

- @會場標示海報、背景標板、會議日程表及展板搭建、地毯使用等，應考慮燈光投射方式或利用可再回收又環保材質
- @進行會議時，應盡量使用白板來取代圖紙板 (flip chart) !




Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 餐飲篇 **Food & Beverage**

- @選擇最經濟、最省時的餐飲方式。（自助式或供應餐盒）
- @與會人員自行攜帶飲料杯、筷子。
- @使用桌布或餐巾替代丟棄式的桌
- @用布、陶瓷、玻璃等材料，取代紙及塑膠



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綠色會議/ 餐飲篇 **Food & Beverage**



Seafood WATCH Website

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Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

綠色會議/ 交通篇 Transportation

- @ 規劃最適合的交通方式，簡短方便的路線圖
- @ 提供省油、高效率的大眾運輸工具，如車站、機場等
- @ 透過接駁車接送至會場、展場及搭車處



Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 教育篇 Education

- @ 為會務人員、員工或供應商提供必要的訓練
- @ 會議中請專家提醒與會人員資源回收的觀念
- @ 會場張貼環保標語，邀請與會人員參與回收（各式分類筒名稱、回收處、回收標誌等）
- @ 運用方便、省事之會展科技及事務器材



Round Table PCO

C. Meeting Hi-Tech with Sustainability
環境永續新科技

1. 會展科技產出效益！
2. 如何應用科技？
3. 會展科技的未來！



Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 科技篇 Technology

會展RFID管理系統

- a. 買家預約管理
- b. 入口門禁管理系統
- c. 展位商情交流管理
- d. 名片互動管理
- e. 定位系統管理



Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 科技篇 Technology

建立會展網站

- a. 配合影音專欄
- b. 365/24/7 (Save Time)
- c. 互動機制! (Interactive)
- d. 更動改變、貯存彙整 (Easy to restore)
- e. 建立問卷 (Survey, Questionnaire)
- f. 宣傳及預先報名機制
- g. 線上金流
- h. 線上論文繳交及審查



Round Table PCO

綠色會議/ 科技篇 Technology

視訊會議 Video Conferencing

- a. 直接面對面對話
- b. 節省時間及花費
- c. 降低旅程及成本
- d. 突破時間地點限制



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Global Human Resource Forum

Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

D. Management & Communication

- 管理策略
Management principles
- 按步就班的執行原則
Step-by-step guide to implementation
- 溝通作法 **Communication**
- 評估、管控及報告
Measuring, monitoring & reporting



Carbon and the events industry

GMIC Purpose/Mission

With a mission to transform the global meetings industry through

sustainability

What GMIC Provides...

- Education
- Research
- Leadership/Policy
- Shared Community

The business case:

Meeting you all the way!!

five

- **Environmental Impact Reductions**
- **Competitive Advantage**
- **Risk Reduction**
- **Stakeholder Satisfaction**
- **Cost savings!**

One 3-day Conference Impact

- **61 lbs/27+kgs of solid waste**
- **846 gallons/3202+ liters of water**
- **1419 lbs/643+ kgs of ghgs**

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Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

Competitive Advantage

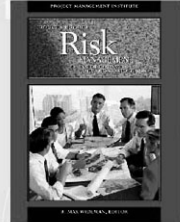
Global event sustainability certification
Conferences in Asia and Europe



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Risk Reduction

- Standards development
- Potential regulation



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Stakeholder Satisfaction

- Added value
- More convenience
- Health & wellness
- Personal satisfaction



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Employee Satisfaction

- Predictor of company excellence – employee talent
- Company's ability to attract and retain staff



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Cost Savings Realized...

- **\$11,600** Costs avoided on name badges
- **\$135,000** Cost saved by replacing existing non-sustainable with a cardboard based alternative
- **45%:** Percentage of banner signage to be re-used for future events
- 965: Number of trees saved on program*

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More Savings...

- **\$46,000** savings on water bottles
- **4 day** conference, **1,200** people
- **\$2,700** switching black plastic to bioware
- **30%** savings for choosing vegetarian menu in 2009 OOPSLA Conference

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Global Human Resource Forum

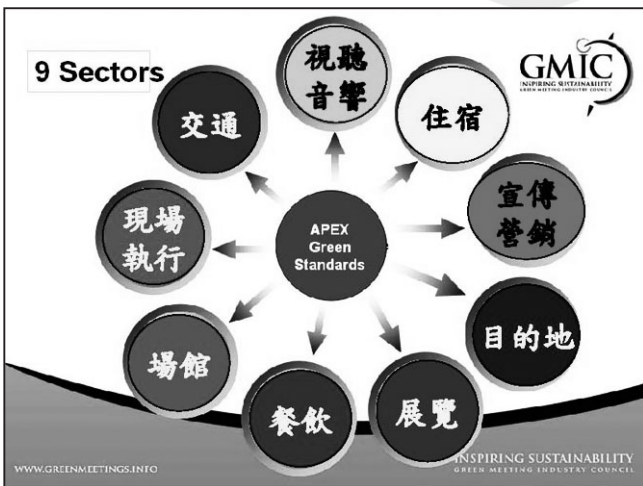
Your Next Sustainable Conference & Event

Global Trends

圓桌會議顧問股份有限公司
 Round Table PCO

Event Standards

<p>BS 8901/ISO 20121</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • UK-based System • User-determined • Voluntary or verified Adopted • One list with process elements • ISO 14001 	<p>APEX-ASTM</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • US-based Prescriptive practice • Consensus by committee • Voluntary In development • 8 categories of practices & performance • USEPA
----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------



風雲際會! 完美演出!

Wish You All the Best!

圓桌會議顧問公司 **Round Table PCO**
 電話：886-2-2508-1825
 Website: www.come2meet.com
 Email: ceo@come2meet.com

Global Human Resource Forum

Current pressures on biodiversity

Guest speaker

Hsiao-Yu Tang

Director, Endemic Species Research Institute, Council of Agriculture



PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

2007.01~ now Director, Endemic Species Research Institute, Council of Agriculture
2003.01~2007.01 Deputy Director General, Soil and Water Conservation Bureau, Council of Agriculture
2002.06~2003.01 Counselor, Coordinator for Agricultural Science and Technology, Council of Agriculture
2002.01~2002.06 Acts Director General, Department of Forestry, Council of Agriculture
2000.05~2002.01 Deputy Director General, Department of Forestry, Council of Agriculture

Education Background:

Graduate Institute of University of Aberdeen, England
Master of Department of Geography, Chinese Culture University
Bachelor of Department of Geography, Chinese Culture University

Research Field:

Ecology Diversity Protection
Soil and Water Conservation
Environment Impact Assessment

Global Human Resource Forum

Current pressures on biodiversity

品質·精準·團隊

當前生物多樣性面臨的壓力

Current pressures on biodiversity

湯曉虞
Hsiao-Yu Tang
行政院農業委員會特有生物研究保育中心
Endemic Species Research Institute, COA.

http://www.tesri.gov.tw

品質·精準·團隊

什麼是生物多樣性?

What is biodiversity?

地球上所有各式生物體及其所構成之生態綜合體的變異，包括種內、種間及生態系的變異。
The variability among living organisms from all sources including, *inter alia*, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part; this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems

Defined by the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD)

http://www.tesri.gov.tw

品質·精準·團隊

生物多樣性的重要性

The importance of biodiversity

生態系服務功能

提供	調節	文化
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 食物 ■ 淡水 ■ 燃料 ■ 纖維 ■ 生物化學物質 ■ 遺傳資源 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 氣候 ■ 有害生物 ■ 水質淨化 ■ 污染物 ■ 土壤侵蝕 ■ 降雨逕流 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 精神、宗教 ■ 休閒、生態旅遊 ■ 美學及啟發 ■ 教育 ■ 文化遺產 ■ 存在
<p>支持</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ 土壤形成 ■ 營養循環 ■ 初級生產 ■ 棲地提供 ■ 氧氣形成 		

http://www.tesri.gov.tw

品質·精準·團隊

Biodiversity: the magic of our planet!



http://www.tesri.gov.tw

品質·精準·團隊

5個主要壓力

Five principal pressures on biodiversity

- 棲息地的消失與退化
Habitat loss and degradation
- 氣候變遷
Climate change
- 過度養分負擔和其他形式的汙染
Excessive nutrient load and other forms of pollution
- 過度開採和非持續性利用
Overexploitation and unsustainable use
- 外來入侵物種
Invasive alien species

http://www.tesri.gov.tw

品質·精準·團隊

棲息地的消失與退化

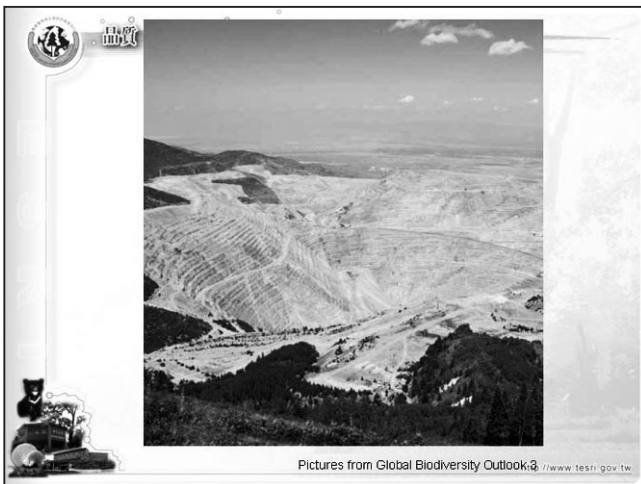
Habitat loss and degradation

- 為生物多樣性最大壓力來源
the biggest single source of pressure on biodiversity

農業和不當森林管理，城市、能源和工業的用水激增，水庫建設，海上養殖場，底拖漁法...等等
agriculture and unsustainable forest management water demands for cities, energy and industry are rapidly growing construction of dams and flood levees on rivers mariculture, bottom-trawling fishing gear

http://www.tesri.gov.tw

Global Human Resource Forum
Current pressures on biodiversity



Pictures from Global Biodiversity Outlook 3 <http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質·精準·團隊

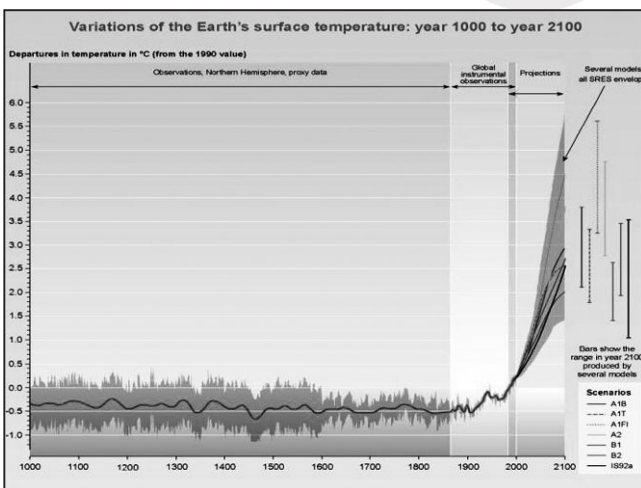
氣候變遷

Climate change

- 氣溫升高、極端天候狀況、降水和乾旱的模式不斷變化等等

warming temperatures
more frequent extreme weather events
changing patterns of rainfall and drought

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>



品質·精準·團隊

過度養分負擔和其他形式的汙染

Excessive nutrient load and other forms of pollution

- 化石燃料、化學肥料→活性氮、磷大增

burning of fossil fuels, use of fertilizers →
more reactive nitrogen and phosphorous

Pictures from Global Biodiversity Outlook 3

品質·精準·團隊

過度開採和非持續性利用

Overexploitation and unsustainable use

- 過度開採和毀滅性的捕撈

overexploitation and destructive harvesting practices

Pictures from http://www.panda.org/about_our_earth/biodiversity/threatsto_biodiversity/
<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質·精準·團隊

外來入侵物種

Invasive alien species

- 食物及棲息地競爭、掠食、基因汙染、疫病...等等

competition of food and habitat
predation
gene hybridization
pests and pathogens

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

Global Human Resource Forum

Current pressures on biodiversity



品質·精準·團隊

生物多樣性公約

Conservation on Biological Diversity

目標:保護生物多樣性,可持續利用生物多樣性的組成部分,公平、合理地分享利用遺傳資源所帶來的各種惠益。

The conservation of biological diversity, the sustainable use of its components and the fair and equitable sharing of the benefits arising out of the utilization of genetic resources.

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質·精準·團隊

CBD第6屆締約方大會(2002)

CBD-COP6(2002)

- 2010生物多樣性目標:到2010年,在全球、區域和國家各級,大幅降低目前生物多樣性喪失的速度,促進減貧,造福地球所有生物。

2010 biodiversity target: to achieve by 2010 a significant reduction of the current rate of biodiversity loss at the global, regional and national level as a contribution to poverty alleviation and to the benefit of all life on Earth.

生物多樣性的狀況仍持續惡化

Status of biodiversity continued to deteriorate

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質·精準·團隊

CBD第10屆締約方大會(2010)

CBD-COP10(2010)

- 愛知目標

Aichi Biodiversity Targets

- 強調主流化、減少壓力與永續利用、改善生物多樣性、提高惠益及強化執行工作

1. mainstreaming biodiversity across government and society
2. reduce the direct pressures and promote sustainable use
3. improve the status of biodiversity
4. enhance the benefits
5. Enhance implementation

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質·精準·團隊

我們能做些什麼?

What can we do about it?

- Peter. H. Raven (前美國總統柯林頓首席科技顧問)的一些建議,與大家分享。

Some advice from Dr. Raven to share with you.

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質·精準·團隊

- 控制全球人口數量在適存的狀態

Reach a **level global population** at a level where people can live as they wish – don't increase populations, but reach a steady state

- 在符合社會正義之下,每個人得以工作維持其適度的消費

Find **acceptable levels of consumption** per individual and, in the name of social justice, work to maintain them

- 為全球持續發展研發並運用新科技

Develop **new technologies** and deploy them for the sake of global sustainability

- 促進人人機會平等,特別是婦女與小孩


Promote **equal opportunity** for every person, especially including women and children

<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

Global Human Resource Forum
Current pressures on biodiversity

品質・精準・團隊

- 儘可能廣泛並有效的蒐集各種生物體資訊
Gather information about organisms as widely and efficiently as possible.
- 建構已知的資訊並廣泛的宣傳
Disseminate it widely and build on what we know
- 編著本土生物誌
The Encyclopedia of Life is one important approach to this problem
- 擴大國家公園和保留區，並隨時謹記全球氣候變遷
Expand parks and reserved areas, keeping the reality of global climate change in mind



<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

品質・精準・團隊

Thanks for your listening



Pictures from http://wwf.panda.org/what_we_do/how_we_work/policy/conventions/cbd/



<http://www.tesri.gov.tw>

Global Human Resource Forum

The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group– EcoArk and green materials as the examples

Guest speaker

Fanny Liao

President, Oriental Resource Development Ltd



Background:

Dr. Fanny Liao obtained her doctoral degree from State University of New York at Stony Brook in bio-organic chemistry. Within her career in Far Eastern Group, a large conglomerate in Taiwan, she covers in petrochemical new plant projects, PET bottle recycling operation, bio-medical device business unit operation, brewery setup and operation, biotechnology VC investments, bio-plastics researches and bio-PET project in the Group. She specializes in project management, licensing deals, joint venture management and business development. After various positions in Far Eastern Group including the Special Assistant to Chairman, currently she is the president of Oriental Resources Development Ltd. of Far Eastern Group.

Global Human Resource Forum

The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group-EcoArk and green materials as the examples

遠東集團
FAR EASTERN GROUP

The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group – EcoArk and green materials as the examples

Fanny Liao, Ph.D.
President
Oriental Resources Development Ltd.
Far Eastern Group

PET integration

1. Far Eastern Group (FEG) Overview
2. Sustainable Goals of FEG:
 - (1) Recycled PET : 3 applications
 - (2) Plant-based Green Material: Bio-PET

10 Major Sectors, 9 Public Companies

Far Eastern New Century (FENC)

FEG Revenues in 2010 ~ US\$18.2 Bn
Profits ~US\$3 Bn

- 225 subsidiaries
- 9 public listed companies
- > 50,000 employees
- Total asset US\$ 56.7 Bn

ASIA CEMENT (CHINA) HOLDINGS, EVEREST TEXTILE, ORIENTAL UNION CHEMICAL CO., FAR EASTERN INT'L BANK, U-MING MARINE, FAR EASTONE, FAR EASTERN DEPARTMENT STORES

Top 10 PET Makers in the World @KMT

Year	The End of 2010		2014			
	Rank	Company	Capacity	Company	Capacity	
	1	Indorama	1,962	Indorama	3,320	
	2	M&G	1,720	M&G	2,820	
	3	DAK	1,530	FENC	2,000	
	4	Sang-Fang-Xiang	1,200	DAK	1,960	
	5	FENC	1,150	China Resources	1,300	
	6	Invista	850	Sang-Fang-Xiang	1,200	
	7	Nan Ya	800	Nan Ya	940	
	8	KP	594	Reliance	850	
	9	La Seda	550	Octal Holding	827	
	10	SK	540	ASPET	770	
	Top 10 Total		10,848	Top 10 Total		14,557
	World Total		19,217	World Total		27,298
	Top 10 (%)		56%	Top 10 (%)		53%

Polyester & Petrochemical Business

Fully Vertical Integration

		Capacity in 2013	
		Taiwan	China
Up-Stream	PTA	2,400 thousand tons	1,600 thousand tons
	MEG*	250 thousand tons	Planning
Middle-Stream	Polyester Polymer	1,050 thousand tons	1,400 thousand tons
	PET Resin & Film	700 thousand tons	1,300 thousand tons
	Polyester Filament	110 thousand tons	44 thousand tons
	Polyester Staple	270 thousand tons	120 thousand tons
Down-Stream	Cotton Yarn	250 thousand spindles	120 thousand spindles
	Knitted Fabrics	8 thousand tons	7 thousand tons
	Industrial Fabrics	51 thousand tons	49 thousand tons
	Garments	540 thousand dozens	5,520 thousand dozens

* Not including the off-take capacity 900,000 T/y in Canadian joint venture with Dow

PET integration

1. Far Eastern Group (FEG) Overview
2. Sustainable Goals of FEG:
 - (1) Recycled PET : 3 applications

Mission and Vision:

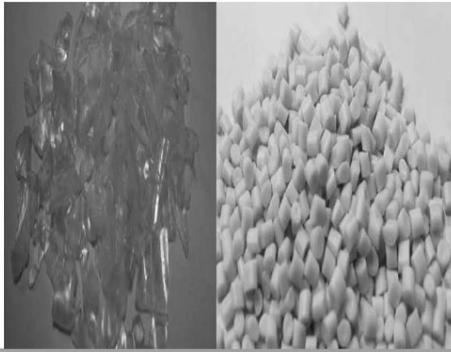
“Reduce, Reuse and Recycle”

 - (2) Plant-based Green Material :Bio-PET

Global Human Resource Forum

The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group-EcoArk and green materials as the examples

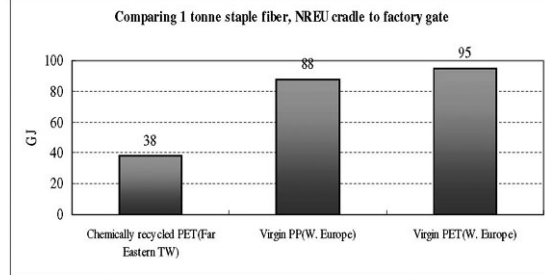
FE Recycled PET made by ORD and FENC



Clear rPET Flake

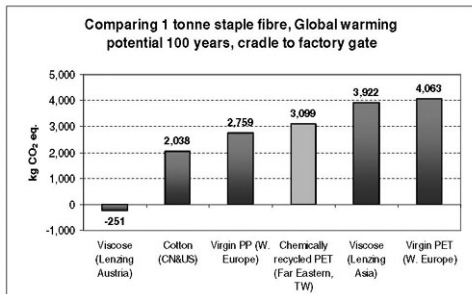
Clear rPET Resin

FE Compared with other fibres – Energy



published by Utrecht University of Netherlands in Nov. issue of Resources, Conservation and Recycling

FE Compared with other fibres – GWP



<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science?ob=ArticleURL&udi=B6VDX-50P47PK-1&user=10&coverDate=11%2F30%2F2010&rdoc=1&fmt=high&orig=search&origin=search&sort=d&docanchor=&view=c&acct=C000050221&version=1&urlVersion=0&userid=10&md5=028d5062557a681a5705430b09e90766&searchtype=a>

FE 100% Recycled Fabric of FE for World Cup



FE CoolerPak® from SBB in China

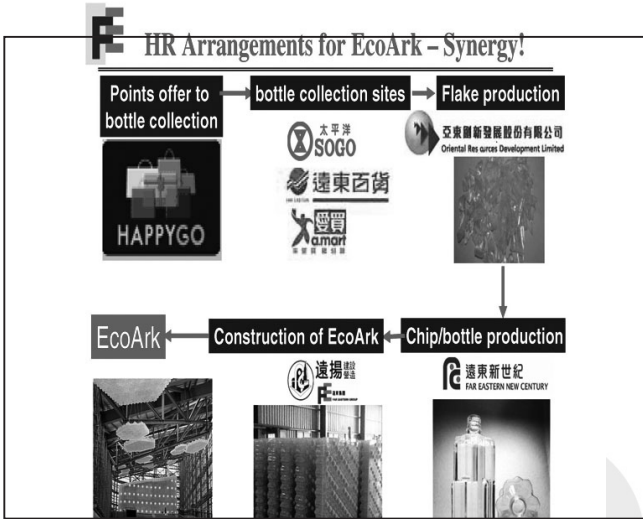


FE Top 10 Food Grade Recycled PET Suppliers

	2010 Capacity	2013 Capacity	①-MT/Y
1	Artenius (EU) 62,000	FENC(Asia) 120,000	
2	Plastipak(NA/EU) 50,000	Artenius(EU) 74,000	
3	Linpac(EU) 34,000	Plastipak(NA/EU) 65,000	
4	France Plastic Recycling (EU) 32,000	France Plastic Recycling (EU) 62,000	
5	NURRC (NA) 25,000	NURRC (NA) 45,000	
6	Polyquest (NA) 25,000	Eco Plastics(EU) 40,000	
7	PET Recycling (EU) 24,000	Linpac (EU) 34,000	
8	Imer (NA) 23,000	PET Recycling (EU) 24,000	
9	FENC (Asia) 20,000	Imer (NA) 23,000	
10	Incom (Asia) 20,000	Incom (Asia) 20,000	
	Total 315,000 (27%)	507,000(32%)	
	World RPET 1,170,000	1,550,000	

Global Human Resource Forum

The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group-EcoArk and green materials as the examples



FE EcoArk – Group HR Synergy!

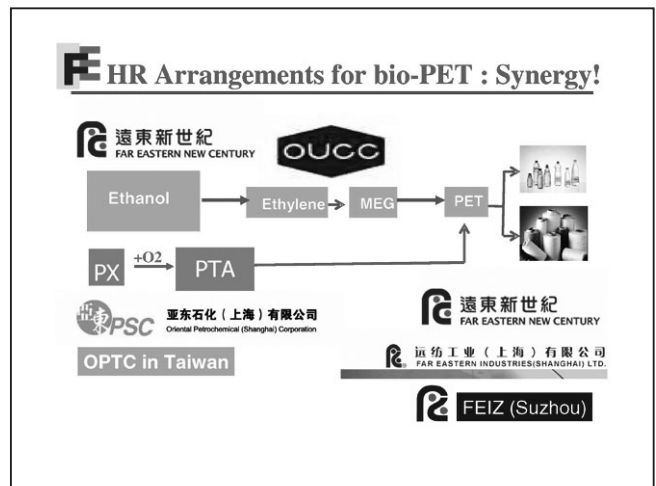
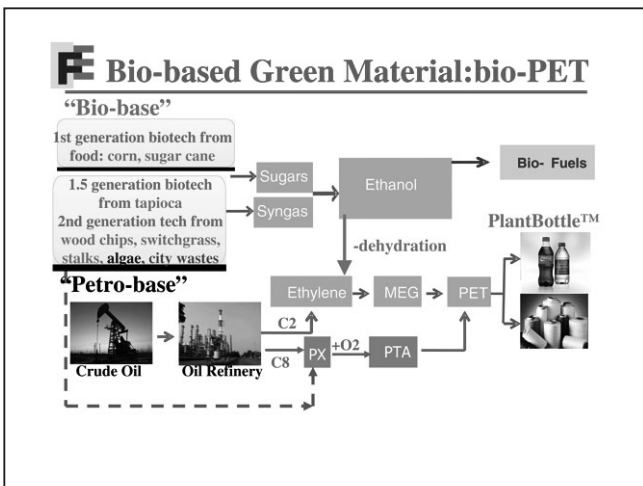
- LEED Platinum Level certified
- The environmental friendly building: built by 1.52 M recycled bottles!
- The carbon neutral building by using recycled materials and solar powered LED lights

FE Green Material: Bio-based PET

Coke & Heinz:

Volvic:

PlantBottle™



Global Human Resource Forum

The human resources arrangements for sustainable goals in Far Eastern Group-EcoArk and green materials as the examples



Acknowledgements

Colleagues in Far Eastern Group www.feg.com.tw

1. FENC: Far Eastern New Century www.fenc.com
2. HappyGo: www.happygocard.com.tw
3. SOGO Department Stores: www.sogo.com.tw
4. Far Eastern Departments Stores: www.feds.com.tw
5. Far Eastern A.Mart : www.fe-amart.com.tw
6. ORD: Oriental Resources Development Ltd. www.ord.feg.com.tw
7. Far Eastern Construction Co. Ltd.: www.fegc.com.tw
8. OUCC: Oriental Union Chemical Corp. www.oucc.com.tw
9. FEIS : Far Eastern Industrial (Shanghai) www.feis.com.cn
10. OPSC: Oriental Petrochemical (Shanghai) Corp. www.opsc.com.cn
11. OPTC: Oriental Petrochemical (Taiwan) Corp.
12. FEIZ: Far Eastern Industrial(SuZhou)

Thanks for your attention!

六十年的誠勤模慎・創新



Fanny Liao, Ph.D.

fannyliao@feg.com.tw

Global Human Resource Forum

The sustainable strategy of Wal-Mart best suppliers

Guest speaker

Feng-Wen Chen

The founder and chairman of CJCHT



Cheng Feng-wen was born in Kaohsiung, Taiwan in 1951, whose father comes from Beijing and mother is from Shanghai. She graduated from Department of Public Finance, Feng Chai University.

FOOTWEAR INDUSTRY AND GREEN INDUSTRY:

After graduated, Cheng Feng-wen was hired by footwear trade cooperation. In 1980, she started a business by herself. She is the founder of CJCHT Group, the first Taiwan footwear merchant in China. CJCHT was Wal Mart best suppliers of the year of 2008 and 2009. At present CJCHT has many related business and ZEO Taiwan Magnetic Innovation Technology is a also a member of CJCHT. TMIT is serving as the R&D lab and green technology development center for CJCHT related business, like shoes, sweaters, accessories, and furniture...

What she cares about is not only personal business and development. She is also devoted herself to art and charity. Except for being a chairman of CJCHT, Ms. Chen is also a volunteer of China Leprosy Service, Rotary International, District 3520 branch NO.5- chairman of Chinese Taipei Rotary Club of Friends of Development Committee and chairman of International Service Committee, a principal of Taiwan Cooperative Music Center, a Chief Advisor of Vienna Master Courses Asia Area, and the founder and Chairman of Vocal Asia.

ART:

Cheng Feng-Wen loves chorus performance a lot. As a result, CJCHT GROUPS consists of Shanghai CJCHT Art and Culture and Shanghai A cappella Center. These two institutions always invite musicians from Europe and America to perform. Besides, she also sponsors O-KAI Singers and BG Choirs in Taiwan and Shanghai. Although most people see Cheng Feng-Wen as an entrepreneur and chairman, she always has smile and positive attitude. Therefore, the sense of distance between employees and her is reduced.

In Taiwan, Cheng, Feng-Wen is the responsible person of Feng Chai alumni chorus. She makes big efforts on the promotion of A cappella. A cappella was got great emphasis by President Ma in 2010. It made Cheng, Feng-wen commit herself to promoting A cappella and making it popular in Taiwan. Now, she is a member of Feng Chai alumni chorus, Esca Viatorum Catholic Choir and VA Singers

CHARITY:

Cheng Feng-Wen has visited lepers in Sichuan Yunnan for a long time. She made special shoes for lepers to walk. She also helps Chang, Kim-Ko, the tallest man in Taiwan, have custom shoes to wear. Besides, Cheng, Feng-Wen also pays attention on education. She provides scholarship with students from elementary schools to graduate schools. When she was 55 years old, she got the EMBA degree from Shanghai Jiaotong University.

At present, she is planning to establish a charitable foundation for elder and children. She is committed to three mission-charity, art promotion, and education in her whole life.

Education:


EMBA, Shanghai Jiaotong University(2003-2005)
Department of Public Finance, Feng Chai University (1969-1973)
Kaohsiung Municipal Girls' Senior High School (1966-1969)
National Feng-Shan Senior High School (1964-1966)
Wen-Shang elementary School(1958-1964)
Catholic Lo-Jen Kindergarten (1956-1958)

Awards:

The bronze medal of Council for Cultural Affairs 4th Art & Business Awards
The best Supplier of the year from Wal-mart-2009, 2008, 2000
Partners in Progress from Payless Shoe Source-2003, 2002, 2001, 2000, 1997, 1996


Global Human Resource Forum

The sustainable strategy of Wal-Mart best suppliers



Chen, Feng-Wen

- The founder and chairman of CJCHT .
- born in Kaohsiung, Taiwan in 1951
- She started a business by herself in 1980.
- She is committed to three mission- **charity, art promotion, and education** in her whole life!



2011/9/21 1


2010 X'mas concert at Presidential building



2010/12/25 17:52

Education

- EMBA, Shanghai Jiaotong University (2003 — 2005)
- Department of Public Finance, Feng Chai University (1969-1973)
- Kaohsiung Municipal Girls' Senior High School (1966-1969)
- National Feng-Shan Senior High School (1964-1966)
- Wen-Shang elementary School (1958 — 1964)
- Catholic Lo-Jen Kindergarten (1956-1958)



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Experience

- A volunteer of China Leprosy Service
- Rotary International, District 3520 branch NO.5- chairman of Chinese Taipei Rotary Club of Friends of Development Committee and chairman of International Service Committee
- A principal of Taiwan Cooperative Music Center
- A Chief Advisor of Vienna Master Courses Asia Area
- The founder and Chairman of Vocal Asia



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Footwear Industry & Green Industry

- CJCHT Group
 - The first Taiwan footwear merchant in China
 - Wal-Mart best suppliers of the year of 2008 and 2009
- ZEO Taiwan Magnetic Innovation Technology (TMIT)
 - TMIT is a member of CJCHT.
 - TMIT is serving as the R&D lab and green technology development center for CJCHT related business, like shoes, sweaters, accessories, and furniture...



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ART -- chorus



- Shanghai CJCHT Art and Culture and Shanghai A cappella Center
 - The two institutions always invite musicians from Europe and America to perform.
- Sponsor O-KAI Singers and BG Choirs in Taiwan and Shanghai.
- The responsible person of Feng Chai alumni chorus.

2011/9/24

Global Human Resource Forum

The sustainable strategy of Wal-Mart best suppliers

ART---- chorus

- She makes big efforts on the promotion of *A cappella*.
 - *A cappella* was got great emphasis by President Ma in 2010. It made Cheng, Feng-wen commit herself to promoting *A cappella* and making it popular in Taiwan.
- A member of Feng Chai alumni chorus, Esca Viatorum Catholic Choir and VA Singers



2011/9/21

Charity

- Chen Feng-Wen has visited lepers in Sichuan Yunnan for a long time. She made special shoes for lepers to walk.
- She also helps Chang, Kim-Ko, the tallest man in Taiwan, have custom shoes to wear
- She provides scholarship with students from elementary schools to graduate schools.
- she is planning to establish a charitable foundation for elder and children.



2011/9/21

8

Global Human Resource Forum
HRM and Sustainable Development

Guest speaker

Tzu-Shan Tseng

Assistant professor, International College of Ming Chuan University



Educational Background:

Ph. D., University of Southern California–USC Educational Technology, USA

Specialization:

Human Resource Management, Research Methods and Organizational Behavior

Publish papers:

Tseng, Tzu-Shan (2011). An Interview Study on the Perceived Acceptability of Electronic Publishing, *International Journal on Information & Technology* (ISSN 1991-170X), 15-19.

Tseng, Tzu-Shan (2011). How do Individual and/or Team Creativity Affect the Performance of an Organization? The Mediating Role of Communication Pattern, *Journal of Informatics and Electronics*, (Accepted).

Tseng, Tzu-Shan (2011). The Influence of Customer Perceived Security on their Satisfaction in E-Commerce, *Journal of Informatics and Electronics*, (JIE – No-11-002, Accepted, in printing).

Tseng, Tzu-Shan (2011). A View and Interview on the Critical Factors Influencing Kuomintang 's 2012 Presidential Campaign 两岸青年学术研讨会, 北京联合大学台湾研究院, Beijing, Chinese Mainland.

Tseng, Tzu-Shan (2011). The Election Season: A View on Critical Factors Influencing 2012 Presidential Campaign, In the Second China and Asian Affairs Conference Meeting, Department of International Business, Proc. of the National Taipei College of Business, Taiwan.

Awards:

Best Tutor of 2007 in Ming Chuan University


2004 ING Master Thesis award

Global Human Resource Forum
HRM and Sustainable Development


What does Sustainable Development Mean for HR Managers?
A Discussion on the Importance of Connecting HRM
with Sustainable Development
Presenter:
Tseng, Tzu-Shan




The Speaker



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1. An Assistant Professor of International College and Information Management Department, Ming Chuan University
2. Vice Chairman of Taiwan Outstanding Paradigm (TOP) Association
3. Deputy Secretary-General of Management Innovation and Service Science (MISS) Research Center
4. Supervisors of China Association for the Development of SMEs

The Essence of Sustainable Development

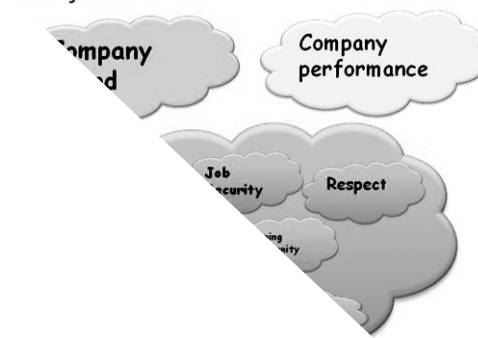
- To meet the needs of people today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs





Cartoon Illustration



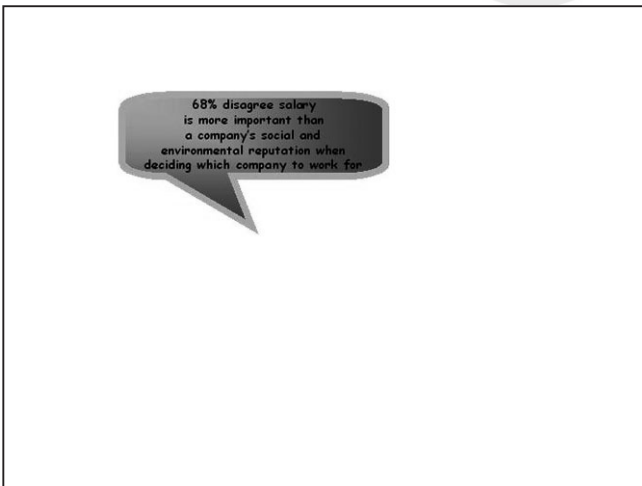
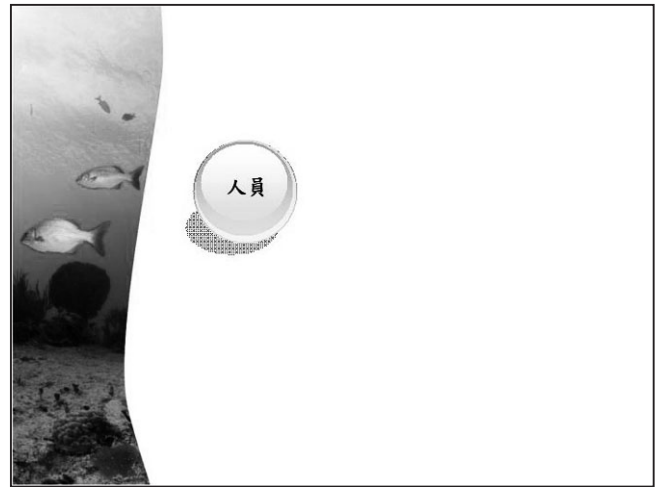
The basis of people applying for jobs



The Change of Society's Expectations on Business



Global Human Resource Forum
HRM and Sustainable Development



The Effects of Employee Training on the Relationship between Environmental Attitude and Firms' Performance in Sustainable Development

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Abstract

Should employee training influences firms' performance in sustainable development? Based on research, we predict both direct and moderating effects of employee training on the performance. Testing our hypothesis among manufacturing firms in China, we obtain empirical evidence suggesting that the relationship between a firm's environment attitude and its performance in sustainable development can be better understood by taking into account such HRM practice as employee training. With good employee training, a firm's environmental attitude is more likely to help improve performance in sustainable development. Moreover, our data suggest that employee training may also have a positive direct effect on firms' performance in sustainable development.

KEY WORDS: employee training, environmental attitude, and sustainable development

In this study, we study the effect of an important dimension of human resource management (HRM), i.e., employee training, on firms' performance in sustainable development. With the changing institutional environment today, firms and their managers is facing increasing social or political pressure to improve their performance in sustainable development, especially on the dimension of environmental protection (Gerrans and Hutchinson, 2000). In line with this development, several authors have studied the relationship between environmental attitude and sustainable development performance among firms (Wehrmeyer and McNeil, 2000; Shafer, 2006; Fukukawa et al., 2007; Gadenne et al., 2009). In spite of their research, however, the nature of the relationship between firms' environmental attitude and their sustainable development performance remains unclear. Specifically, although some authors have suggested a positive relationship between environmental attitude and performance in sustainable development, empirical studies have shown that this attitude does not necessarily translate into good sustainable development performance (e.g., Wehrmeyer and McNeil, 2000; Gadenne et al., 2009). Few theoretical and empirical explanations have been put forward to account for this inconsistency. Taking certain contingent factors such as HRM into consideration should therefore help bridge this research gap. In this study, we test the moderating effect of one dimension of HRM — employee training — on the relationship between firms' environmental attitude and their sustainable development performance. The main reason for considering this dimension of HRM is that past research has suggested it may have a significant effect on the positive performance of the organization (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Schraeder, 2009). We therefore conduct an empirical study to test the effect of this variable on sustainable development among firms.

This study should be of both theoretical and empirical significance. From the theoretical perspective, the results are expected to contribute to HRM literature. Insufficient research has been conducted on the relationship between HRM and firms' performance in sustainable development. This is especially true among firms in emerging economies. Moreover, the interactions between HRM practice and certain other variables that have more direct sustainable development performance effects — such as the firm's environmental attitude — remain unclear. Our study should thus provide new knowledge and empirical evidence for the HRM literature, especially for the literature of international HRM.

This study should also make a direct contribution to the literature on environment awareness and environmental attitude. Our literature review discussed later in the paper shows inconsistent findings on the effect of environmental attitude on sustainable development performance. Although some studies have suggested that a positive environmental attitude has a positive effect on the firm's sustainable development performance, including its environmental protection standards, other studies have failed to obtain strong evidence supporting this effect. For instance, Schaper (2002) failed to identify any significant relationship between a positive personal environmental attitude and positive environmental performance. Tilley (1999) also reported no positive relationship between the environmental attitudes of small business owners and their sustainable development performance, including their environmental protection standards. Gadenne et al. (2009) showed that environmental attitude has a significantly positive effect only on environmental support practice, but has no effect on environmental conservation practice. To understand the inconsistency in past research evidence, it should be useful to test how organizations' HRM practice such as employee training moderates the relationship between environmental attitude and sustainable development performance.

From a practical perspective, we believe the results of this study will help improve HRM and boost sustainable development performance among practitioners. In other words, the empirical findings should help practitioners to understand how their firms' HRM practice and environmental attitude may influence sustainable development performance at the organizational level. Given that all stakeholders and communities throughout the world are increasingly focusing on issues such as corporate social responsibility and sustainable development, managers with good records of sustainable development performance should find it easier to obtain support and foster goodwill, which in turn should help their managerial practice.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. We first provide a brief review of the relevant literature before proposing a theoretical model that integrates the perspectives outlined in past studies. After that, we go on to discuss we are testing the predictions suggested in the model, including such issues as data collection and data process. Finally, we report is the findings of this study and discuss their implications.

Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

A. Environmental attitude and sustainable development performance

Researchers have studied the relationship between environmental attitude and sustainable development performance among firms for many years (Ray and Hall, 1995; Schaper, 2002; Dehning and Richardson, 2002; Karim et al., 2007; Gadenne et al., 2009). Sustainable development can be defined as performance that meets the needs of organizational stakeholders without compromising environmental and community resources and interests (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002). Sustainable development practice or strategy is considered an ethical business practice in which the objective is to “go green” by striking a balance between social, economic, and environmental development interests (Sharma, 2002). Theoretically, the strategy itself could be defined as “the adoption of business strategies and activities that meet the needs of the enterprise and its stakeholders today while protecting, sustaining and enhancing the human and natural resources that will be needed in the future” (IISD, 1992: p. 116). The path to sustainable development can be understood as a continual process of change, or even as a process of evolution (Newman, 2007).

Research has identified two approaches to improving sustainable development performance: the strategic approach and the operational approach. The strategic approach focuses on cost reduction; for example, pollution prevention may be expensive and cause companies to lose money (Hart, 1995; Porter and Van der Linde, 1995). A firm can improve its performance if it can identify an effective way to reduce its cost of production (Aragón-Correa, 1998). In contrast, the operational approach involves changes made at the production level that reduce harm to the environment (Gilley et al., 2000). Firms may adopt many methods to protect the environment. For instance, they could adopt the approach of product-related development, such as packaging and eco-labeling, or that of process-related development, such as recycling waste and redesigning products in ways that will reduce waste (Gilley et al., 2000).

As noted above, several authors have suggested that firms’ environmental attitude should have a positive effect on their sustainable development performance (e.g., Naffziger and Montagno, 2003; Tallon, 2008). In line with past studies, we define environmental attitude as the firm’s view on the importance of environmental protection. All else being equal, the more positive this attitude or view, the greater the firm’s willingness to protect the environment.

Several authors have argued that environmental attitude has a positive effect on sustainable development and that this effect extends to environmental protection. For example, Naffziger and Montagno (2003) showed a significant and positive relationship between concern for the environment among firm managers and their willingness to invest more time and other resources in environmental initiatives. Gadenne et al. (2003) argued that managers who are aware of environmental issues and are concerned about the impact of their business on the environment are more likely to show environmentally friendly performance. In a study employing research methods such as factor analysis, Wehrmeyer and McNeil (2000) identified four meaningful factors based on individuals’ environmental attitudes: conscientious activism, corporate environmentalism, deep green, and technological omnipotence. Among these four factors, corporate environmentalism can be considered to represent the environmental attitude of firm management, which arguably has a positive effect on sustainable development performance. In line with the conclusions reached by all these authors, we predict that the firm’s environmental attitude will have a positive effect on its sustainable development performance.

H1: There is a significant and positive relationship between a firm’s environmental attitude and its sustainable development performance.

In addition, we predict that the relationship proposed in H1 can be moderated by firms’ HRM practice such as employee training. As discussed at the beginning of this paper, past research has obtained inconsistent empirical evidence on the relationship between environmental attitude and sustainable development performance. While some studies showed a significant and positive relationship, others found no significant relationship. We believe that the effect of environmental attitude on sustainable development performance may be better understood by taking into account firms’ HRM practice such as their employee training. In the next section, we predict the effect of employee training based on research on the relationship between this HRM practice and firm performance.

B. Employee training and performance in sustainable development

Research has suggested that human resource management (HRM) practice, including employee training, can improve firm performance (e.g., Arthur, 1994; Pfeffer, 1998; Birdi et al., 2008). In other words, “human resource management practices can help to create a source of sustained competitive strategy.” (Huselid, 1995: 636) The reason is that the HRM practice, including training, can improve the knowledge, skills and abilities of the employees, and can increase their motivation and commitment to the tasks of their organization (e.g., Jackson and Schuler, 1995; Birdi et al., 2008).

Research has also indicated that the employee training can help a firm to develop its human capital, which in turn should improve firm performance (e.g., Huselid, 1995; Schraeder, 2009). Moreover, the benefits of the training on firm

performance can be further enhanced by managerial interventions that encourage employees to undertake training (i.e., the motivation bundle (Ng and Dastmalchian, 2011: 829).

Empirical studies have provided evidence supporting the positive effects of employee training on organizational performance. For instance, employee training has a significant and positive effect on work outcomes (Russel, Terborg and Power, 1985; Dastmalchian and Blyton, 1992), on workplace and industrial relations climate (Dastmalchian, Blyton and Adamson, 1991), on the quality of customer service and productivity (Castellanos and Martin, 2011), and on firms' financial performance (Bassi, Ludwig, McMurrer and Van Buren, 2002; Castellanos and Martin, 2011).

However, few studies have considered the effect of the training on performance in sustainable development. In this study, we address this gap by conducting an empirical testing on the relationship between the training and firms' performance in sustainable development. There has been research evidence that employee training should have a positive direct effect on performance in sustainable development. The reason is that the training often helps educating employees in regard to business ethics (Weber, 2007) and responsibility (Anderson et al., 1994). The enhanced sense of business ethics and responsibility should help improving performance in sustainable development. Given the institutional environment today for business organizations, the better a firm's employee training, the more likely that the employees in this firm understand the need for sustainable development. Assuming that a firm's management has a high commitment to sustainable development, employee training should have a positive effect on performance in sustainable development. Accordingly, we predict a positive effect of employee training of performance in sustainable development.

Hypothesis 2 (H2)

Assuming the institutional demands in modern societies, there is a significant and positive relationship between a firm's employee training and its performance in sustainable development.

Also, employee training may have a positive effect on the relationship between environment attitude and performance in sustainable development. On the one hand, employee training can improve leadership development (Ladyshewsky, 2007) and employee learning (Hasan, 2006), which in turn should have a positive effect on the implication of managerial decisions or strategies for sustainable development. On the other hand, employee training is likely to result in a highly motivated work force whose goals are closely aligned with those of management (e.g., Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Accordingly, if the strategic goals of top management in a given firm are those related to sustainable development, employee training should lead to a work force that has a high commitment to the strategic goals, which in turn should improve the firm's performance in sustainable development.

Hypothesis 3 (H3)

Employee training moderates the relationship between a firm's environment attitude and performance in sustainable development. Other conditions being equal, the better the employee training, the more likely that the firm's positive environment attitude leads to good performance in sustainable development.

Method

Setting, sample, and data

We collected data from Chinese manufacturing firms in 2010 and 2011. We targeted this sample of firms for several reasons. First, although China today has the largest number of manufacturing firms in the world, relatively few business ethics studies have been conducted among Chinese firms. Thus, testing our hypotheses among this cohort of firms was thought to be more important than testing them in other economies with a much smaller number of manufacturing firms. Second, Chinese firms today generally face more challenges than their Western counterparts on many issues of sustainable development. For example, environmental pollution in China is now much more serious than in any of the advanced economies. Therefore, conducting such a study in China could provide useful knowledge that helps Chinese firms develop in a more sustainable fashion. Finally, most relevant research on the relationship between HRM and sustainable development performance has been conducted in the West so far. Therefore, studying the relationship and related variables in China could improve our understanding of the external validity of findings from past research undertaken in a Western context.

We randomly selected firms in this sample from both the north and south of China (N = 218). Among these firms, 112 were from northern China and 106 were from southern China. The largest firm employed 21,238 people and the smallest 183. Table I shows other sample data.

For a given firm in our sample, we first invited members of the top management team to respond to a questionnaire measuring the firm's environmental attitude. These managers included the firm's CEO and other top executives. We then randomly interviewed 3-5 low-level employees and asked them to assess the firm's HRM practice of employee training. In the final step of the data collecting process, we also interviewed two local government officials working in the government agency responsible for protecting the environment. We asked this official to respond to a questionnaire assessing the firm's sustainable development performance (see the next section for a discussion of the questionnaires).

Measures

Dependent variables

We measured firm sustainable development performance using an instrument adapted from past research (Chan, 2005; Bansal, 2005) to which local government officials working in the environmental protection department responded. The instrument used to test sustainable development performance consisted of six Likert scale items: (1) paying great attention to environmental protection; (2) making great efforts to promote environmental protection; (3) having great commitment in environmental protection projects; (4) frequently discussing the firm's environmental protection performance; (5) having outstanding environmental protection performance in comparison with other firms in the same industry; (6) being recognized by society for protecting the environment effectively. The scores for each item ranged from seven (representing good performance) to one. Our pre-test showed that the instrument had a good degree of reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .84.

Independent variables

We used an instrument adapted from those developed in past research (Schaper, 2002; Gadenne et al., 2008) to measure the firm's environmental attitude. This instrument comprised four Likert scale items: (1) "In this organization, we are willing to take actions to protect the environment even if our profit decreases"; (2) "In this organization, we are willing to take actions to protect the environment even if our price competitiveness is affected"; (3) "In this organization, we are willing to take actions to protect the environment even if the sales of our products suffer"; and (4) "In this organization, we are willing to take actions to protect the environment even if the firm may grow more slowly". Again, the scores for each item ranged from seven ("totally agree") to one ("totally disagree"). Our pre-test showed that the instrument had a good level of internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of .91.

As noted earlier, the top management team in each firm responded to these items. The scores from each team were then aggregated and used to measure the firm's attitude toward environmental protection.

We adopted another set of Likert scale items to measure a firm's HRM practice of employee training. These items were adapted and developed based on those the GLOBLE study testing the effect of culture on leadership and organizational behavior (see House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). To make the items more relevant to employee training, we added one or two words. These items were: 1) In this organization, employees are encouraged to strive for continuously improved performance through training (1 = Strongly disagree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 7 = Strongly agree). 2) In this organization, employees should be encouraged to attend training classes. (r) 1 = Strongly agree; 4 = Neither agree nor disagree; 7 = Strongly disagree). 3) In this organization, employees are encouraged to study for part-time degrees. We conducted a pre-test of this scale and found it had a reliability alpha coefficient of 0.87.

Control variables

We controlled for the effects of several variables that may influence the relationships among a firm's employee training, its environmental attitude and its sustainable development performance. These included firm size, firm location, firm ownership, firm financial performance, and the firm's ownership level. The first variable of firm size was measured as the natural log of the total number of employees. The second variable showed whether the firm was located in southern China or northern China, with the former being coded as one and the latter being coded as zero. The third variable indicated whether or not the firm was state-owned; again, the former was coded as one and the latter was coded as zero. The fourth variable of financial performance was measured by two Likert scale items (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree): 1) I am not satisfied with the financial performance of my company (R); and 2) I am not happy with my firm's current profitability (R). Our pre-test of the items showed that this scale had a reliability alpha coefficient of 0.89. Finally, the fifth variable showed the firm's ownership level: 1 = firms owned by the central government; 2 = firms owned by the provincial government; 3 = firms owned by the city or county government; 4 = firms owned by non-government organizations and individuals. The reason for controlling for this variable was that we wanted to test whether firms owned by higher level Chinese governments perform better than those owned by lower level governments.

Results

Table I presents the descriptive statistics and correlations for all variables tested in the study. The correlation matrix shows that multicollinearity does not threaten the validity of the data. The data in Table I show that firm financial performance has a significant correlation with employee training. The better a firm's financial performance, the more likely that the firm will have good employee training. Moreover, firms controlled by the central and provincial governments have better employee training than those controlled by lower-level government or non-government organizations. Table I also shows two significant and positive correlations: the correlation between employee training and sustainable development performance and that between environmental attitude and sustainable development performance.

Table I
Descriptive statistics

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Firm financial performance	3.53	1.94							
2 Firm ownership	.52	.39	-.09						
3 The level of firm ownership	2.04	1.88	-.05	.08					
4 Firm size	6.20	2.00	.06	-.08	-.35**				
5 Firm location	.43	.34	.04	.13*	-.04	.16**			
6 Attitude	5.56	1.46	-.08	-.09	.02	-.05	-.20**		
7 Employee training	5.92	.93	.18**	0.2	-.15*	-.11	-.11	.42**	
8 Performance in sustainable development	4.86	1.10	-.06	-.01	-.10	-.08	.00	.25**	.24**

Note: * $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed), ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.

Regarding the effects of environmental attitude and the HRM practice of employee training, Table II presents four models testing the proposed hypotheses. Specifically, Model 1 is the basic model that includes the effects of all control variables. Model 2 is concerned with the effect of environmental attitude. Model 3 deals with the effect of the HRM practice of employee training. Model 4 focuses on the interaction effect between environmental attitude and employee training.

Table II shows the results of the analysis. The results from Model 1 indicate that firms owned by the central or provincial government do better than those owned by lower level governments or non-government organizations ($\beta = -.139, p < .05$). The effects of other control variables are not significant.

Table II
The Effect of Factors Influencing the Performance in Sustainable Development

	Performance in Sustainable Development			
	M1	M2	M3	M4
Control Variables				
Firm financial performance	-.06	-.04	-.02	-.02
Firm size	-.12	-.13*	-.14*	-.14*
The level of firm ownership	-.14*	-.14*	-.17**	-.16**
Firm location	.01	.05	.04	.05
Firm ownership	-.01	.00	-.00	-.01
Independent Variables				
Attitude		.26***	.18**	-.92**
Training			.20**	-.40*
Interaction				
Attitude*Training				1.46***
R^2	.03	.09	.12	.16
ΔR^2	.03	.06	.03	.05
F	1.40	4.15***	4.96***	5.80***
ΔF	1.40	17.43***	9.01*	10.37***

Note: * $p \leq .05$ (two-tailed), ** $p \leq .01$, *** $p \leq .001$.

Model 2, which tests hypothesis 1 (H1), shows a significant and positive coefficient on environmental attitude ($\beta = .257, p < .001$). In other words, the stronger the firm's environmental attitude, the more likely the firm will display better environmental protection performance, a result that supports H1 arguing that the firm's environmental attitude has a positive relationship with its sustainable development performance.

Model 3 shows a significant and positive coefficient for employee training ($\beta = .202, p < .05$). In other words, the empirical data support H2 predicting that the firm's employee training is positively related to its sustainable development performance.

The final model, Model 4 testing hypothesis 3 (H3), shows a significant and positive coefficient for the interaction between environmental attitude and employee training ($\beta = 1.463, p < .001$). Specifically, the result suggests that the positive effect of environmental attitude is more likely to be observed when the HRM is strongly oriented towards the future (see Fig. I). In other words, the better a firm's employee training, the more likely its environmental attitude has a positive effect on its performance in sustainable development.

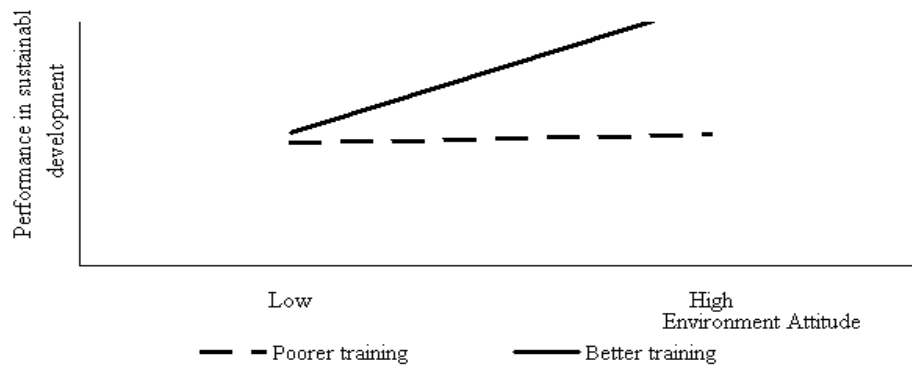


Figure I

Discussion, Implication and Future Studies

This study provides empirical evidence on the effects of environmental attitude and the HRM practice of employee training on sustainable development performance among firms in China. Specifically, it shows that the environmental attitude held at the organizational or firm level positively influences the firm's sustainable development performance. All else being equal, the better the firm's environmental attitude, the better its environmental performance is likely to be.

One point worth noting here is that to the best of our knowledge, our study is the first to test the moderating effect of employee training on the relationship between sustainable development and environmental attitude at the organizational or firm level. While the attitudes of individuals towards environmental issues have been widely studied (Wehrmeyer & McNeil 2000; Shafer, 2006; Fukukawa, Shafer & Lee, 2007), the attitudes of firms towards sustainable development performance, including environmental protection standards, have still not been sufficiently canvassed. Our study shows that the environmental attitude of the firm's top management team — which we assume reflects the environmental attitude of the wider firm — can have a significant effect on the sustainable development performance of the firm. Moreover, firms' practice of employee training can have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between the attitude and performance in sustainable development.

In addition, a firm's HRM practice such as employee training can also have a significant and positive relationship with its sustainable development performance. This finding seems to suggest the interactive effect of institutional environment and employee training. As mentioned above, the institutional environments in countries throughout the world are changing, and sustainable development, especially the dimension of environmental protection, is becoming social norm. Given this institutional development in firms' external environment, a firm that is doing a good job in employee training is more likely to have employees who understand the need for sustainable development and environment protection. As a result, the firm is more likely to have better performance in sustainable development.

Again, it should be pointed out that in contrast with past research, our study tests the effect of a HRM practice at the organizational level rather than at the individual level. By adding empirical data supporting the view that this HRM practice among organizations influences their sustainable development performance, this study makes a contribution to the literature on HRM as well as to that on sustainable development.

Implications

For academic research, our results suggest a need for more comprehensive investigations testing factors or variables that may help understanding the relationships among HRM, environmental attitude and sustainable development performance among firms. One set of such variables might be other dimensions of organizational HRM practice. Past research has not adequately addressed the effects of different dimensions of HRM practice and their interactions with other variables (such as social institutional factors). It still remains unclear how these variables and interactions may influence firms' performance in sustainable development. Further consideration should therefore be given to the effects of these variables and interactions.

The results of our study also have useful implications for managers, especially those who want to improve their firm's sustainable development performance. Firms that want to develop in a sustainable fashion may need to do a good job in such HRM practice as employee training. As our findings suggest, firms with better employee training are more likely to have better performance in sustainable development.

Limitations and future studies

The main limitation of this study is its incomplete measurement of sustainable development performance. Using only items on environmental protection to measure such performance may not fully reflect the firm's performance on other dimensions of sustainable development. For instance, the firm may not do much to protect the environment, yet it may make large donations to charity or education. Given this pattern of firm behavior, how can we assess the firm's sustainable development performance? This limitation is linked to some current theoretical issues relevant to the study of business ethics and sustainable development performance. For example, if a firm making large donations to charity is polluting the environment at the same time, should we still regard this firm as an ethically sound organization? Future studies should address this issue, and improve research methodology accordingly.

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Different Choices – Cultural Values and Organizational Culture Preferences¹

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Abstract

This study was conducted in American metropolitan areas to examine the effect of personal cultural value on the organizational culture preferences. Data were collected from 509 American metropolitan residents in mainland U.S. INDCOL and OCP scales were used to measure the focal variables. Regression analysis revealed that the hypotheses were generally supported between specific cultural values and organizational preferences in the research. That is, people with vertical value generally prefer high power distance organizational culture; whereas people with horizontal value accept organizations with more equity emphasis. However, people with horizontal values were found to significantly associate with almost all types of organizational culture. Implications of these findings were discussed.

Keywords: cultural value, organizational culture preference, OCP, INDCOL

1. Introduction

Numerous studies have been conducted to address the issue of P-O fit (J. Chatman, 1988; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, et al., 1991; Ostroff & Kinicki, 2005; Sheridan, 1992; Van Vianen, 2000). Researches indicate a significant relationship exists between person-organization value congruence (P-O fit) and an employees' intent to stay in the organization, employees' job choice decision (Cable & Judge, 1996), employees' job satisfaction (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, et al., 1991; Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002), and job performance (Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001). In addition, studies have shown that personal values may affect employees' intention to remain in an organization (J. Chatman, 1988; Lauver & Kristof-Brown, 2001; O'Reilly, et al., 1991; Sheridan, 1992). In spite of different elements of definitions and measurement, the scholars tend to concur that the organization and individual culture are two important factors regarding how well people could fit into an organizational context. The significance of P-O fit has been established in the literature, however, few studies have been done to examine how personal values affect individual organizational preferences (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002).

Fouad and Byars-Winston (2005) believe "work is a cultural construction." (p. 223). Theorists in career-related process have only recently begun to include cultural variables in their discussion (Blustein, 2001; Brown & Krane, 2000; Chung, 2003; Cook, Heppner, & O'Brien, 2002; Fouad, 2001; Hartung, 2002; Ponterotto, Rivera, & Sueyoshi, 2000; Pope, 2003; Whiston, 2003). However, despite the increased attention on cultural context, relatively little is known empirically about how culture influences vocational processes (Byars-Winston & Fouad, 2006). People made decisions and choose their work under the influence of cultural context. Thus many researchers have argued that the concept of work holds different meanings across ethnic or social groups as a function of their socio-economical, cultural, historical, educational and political experiences (Cheatham, 1990; Claes & Quintanilla, 1993; Fouad & Byars-Winston, 2005; Smith, 1983).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the probable influence of personal values on organization culture preferences as categorized by organization culture profile (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). The main objectives are 1) to examine the model of organizational preferences in the US, 2) to explore the relationship between personal values and organizational preferences in the US.

2. Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

2.1 Cultural Value

Theoretically or non-theoretically speaking, individual holds different values. To illustrate the idea, several scholars have published works concerning the different culture values beheld in individuals. Further, the multitude of values vary across cultures, and various classifications have been developed (Hofstede, 1980; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996; Triandis, 1994).

Substantial definitions have been proposed concerning cultures and values. Seminar work on defining culture was carried out by Triandis (1994), still the reference point out the foundation for virtually the majority discussion of culture.

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Rokeach's (1973) definition, the value is referring to an enduring belief of a very specific kind that guides people. In addition, Hofstede (1980) believes that a value is an individual's broad tendency to prefer certain states of affair over others; while Neal, Quester and Hawkins (2006) posited that a value is a widely held belief about what is acceptable and desirable. In Triandis's definition (1994), the culture is the composite of numerable things that have functioned in the past, such as shared attitudes, beliefs, norms, roles and values found within users of a particular language who has lived during the same historical period in a specific geographic region.

Individual cultural value can be measured through various ways. One of the popular ways to measure individual culture is the INDCOL measure proposed by Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk and Gelfand (1995) to measure individualism and collectivism. The INDCOL measure was developed by psychometric methodologies to ensure scale reliability and construct validity (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Compared with early predecessor (Hofstede, 1980), the INDCOL measure offers more extensive measurement at the individual level (Robert, Lee, & Chan, 2006). The INDCOL scale contains measurement items mainly to measure the following four dimensions: the meaning of the self, the structure of goals, behavior is function of norms, and attitudes focus on the needs of the ingroup or social exchanges.

In addition to individualism and collectivism, Triandis (1995) included the social standing, i.e., horizontal and vertical, dimension into the framework. He further stressed the horizontal and vertical dimension as an important factor to illustrate a culture value system. The hierarchy in social standing plays an important role to determine whether individual behaviors emphasize in-group authority or are more egalitarian. Furthermore, the horizontal and vertical construct are combined with individualism and collectivism to produce four cultural orientations: horizontal individualism, vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism and vertical collectivism. Horizontal individualism represents the thought that individuals are all equal in the social standing (Singelis, et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). People are more self-reliant on themselves. Vertical individualism indicates that individual may compete for different social standing (Singelis, et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). People are more competitive or self-focused. The competition among the peers is severe, and personal enjoyment is also emphasized. Individuals with high social standing are entitled to have privilege (Singelis, et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). On the other hand, the horizontal collectivism focuses on the interdependence among groups (Sivadas, Bruvold, & Nelson, 2008). People, who hold the view, feel the necessity to consult and share thoughts with others. Vertical collectivism believes that people could be ranked differently according to their social standings (Ayçiçeği-Dinn & Caldwell-Harris, 2011; Singelis, et al., 1995; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). People who hold the view may think the group functions as the family, and feel the necessity to consult with people with more authority. Certain groups may hold certain privileges in the vertical collectivism society.

2.2 Organizational culture

Hofstede proposed that "the organizational culture is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one organization from another" (1998). It is generally believed that the organizational culture is composed by the psychology, attitudes, experiences, belief and values of an organization. Organizational culture is composed by various constructs and is multidimensional. The employees' perception of the organizational culture is also emphasized in the organizational studies.

O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) identified eight types of organizational culture that companies may exhibit. They are: innovation, attention to detail, outcome orientation, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation and decisiveness. Companies with innovation culture are risk taking, experimenting and innovative. Companies with attention to detail culture are precise, analytical, and care about the detail of their work. Companies with outcome orientation culture are achievement oriented, demanding, result oriented, and have high expectations on employees. Companies with aggressiveness culture actively seek business opportunities and stay competitive and aggressive. Companies with supportiveness culture promote sharing of information among employees, praise performance and are supportive of employees. Companies with emphasis on rewards culture care about professional growth of their employees and provide high pay for high performance. Companies with team orientation culture emphasize autonomy, collaboration and are team oriented. Companies with decisiveness culture are characterized by predictability, low conflict, and decisiveness (O'Reilly, et al., 1991).

2.3 Personal Cultural Value and Organizational Culture Preference Linkage

The person-organizational congruence theories serve as strong evidence to link personal values and organizational cultures; the organizational attraction to the applicants is influenced by applicants' perception at different stages of organizational selection (Carless, 2005).

Vertical individualism (VI) emphasizes the competition among the peers (Singelis, et al., 1995). People with vertical individualism value consider the way that lead to succeed is to be recognized as the best talent among the peers; people with vertical individualism value have great concern for personal growth and stronger sense to pursue a sense of achievement (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). According to O'Reilly et al. (1991), outcome orientated organization focus on achievement and result; the organization holds high expectation and is demanding toward its employees. Likewise, the aggressiveness oriented organization focus on culture that generates aggressiveness and heed to compete with others. As a result, vertical

individualism value may predict employee's preferences of the organizational cultures such as aggressiveness and outcome orientation.

Hypothesis 1: Vertical individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an aggressive organizational culture.

Hypothesis 2: Vertical individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an outcome oriented organizational culture.

People who hold the value of horizontal individualism (HI) think that individuals are unique and can make independent decisions (Singelis, et al., 1995). People who hold the view may seek personal achievement despite their roles and the constraints of the organization. According to O'Reilly, et al. (1991), companies with innovation orientation do not focus on stability, rules, securities or organization; instead, the innovation oriented organizations emphasize on innovation, risk taking and experimenting. Likewise, companies with reward orientation focus on personal growth and high pay for performance (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). Both indicate the individualism tendency. As a result, the horizontal individualism may predict employee's preferences of organizational cultures such as innovation orientation and emphasis on reward orientation.

Hypothesis 3: Horizontal individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an innovation oriented organizational culture.

Hypothesis 4: Horizontal individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an emphasis-on-rewards oriented organizational culture.

According to O'Reilly et al.(1991), team oriented organization focus on team building and collaboration; the organization with the value do things without autonomy and likely to be controlled by the superiors in working standing. As for the people with vertical collectivism (VC) value, they are more willing to comply with the superior in-group members. In addition, people with the value find identification with group members and are more willing to perform the tasks with the in-group members. Under the tendency to be guided by superiors in social status, employees may identify with the organization characteristics such as team orientation. Likewise, the decisiveness oriented organization focus on low conflict, predictability and decisiveness (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). Therefore, the vertical collectivism may also predict the preferences toward organizational characteristics such as decisiveness orientation since the people with the vertical collectivism value are more abided by the superior authority and the group pressure. The decisiveness oriented organization lower the chances of conflict, and the organizational behavior is more stable and predictable. Under the urge to follow the predictable behavior, the employees have to find superiors to give orders. As a result, employees may identify with an organization culture of decisiveness.

Hypothesis 5: Vertical collectivism value is significantly related to the preference of a team oriented organizational culture.

Hypothesis 6: Vertical collectivism value is significantly related to the preference of a decisiveness organizational culture.

Horizontal collectivism (HC) focuses on the interdependence among the groups. People who hold the view feel the necessity to consult and share thoughts with the other group members. As Singelis et al.(1995) explain, the individuals are comfortable working with others, and maintain the group autonomy to finish their work. Therefore, horizontal collectivism value may predict preferences of organizational characteristics such as supportiveness. According to O'Reilly et al.(1991), supportiveness oriented organization focus on sharing information, being supportive and praising others' performance; the organization with the supportiveness value perform tasks with group autonomy. Therefore, the horizontal collectivism may predict the employee preferences toward organizational characteristics such supportiveness orientation.

Hypothesis 7: Horizontal collectivism value is significantly related to the preference of a supportiveness orientated organizational culture.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data Collection and Sampling

The research applies quantitative methods by using questionnaires to collect data. Since the research aims at the personal values, choices and preferences for organizations, the application of survey questionnaire to understand individual response is considered the most appropriate. Two measurement scales were applied in the questionnaire to measure participants' cultural value and organizational culture preference.

The data was collected through a U.S survey company. The criteria to select the participants were provided beforehand. Those who are not qualified to the following criteria were filtered and excluded from the research: current

professional workers and students who mainly reside in metropolitan areas in Mainland U.S.

The researchers set up a web-based survey; those who are solicited to participate would access the survey on-line. The data collection period lasted for two months in 2010. Data collection resulted in 509 valid responses from residents in American metropolitan areas. Out of the 509 samples, 243 participants are male (47.74%) and the rest are female (52.26%). There are 240 (47.15%) students and 248 (48.72%) professional workers participated in the research. Respectively 91 participants are in managerial positions and 157 in regular staff position out of the 248 professional workers. Participants are comprised of 365 single and 144 married individuals. The ethnic composition is 283 Caucasian (55.6%), 39 African American (7.7%), 73 Hispanics (14.3%) and 99 Asian or Pacific islanders (19.4%). The participants' age ranges from 18 to 67.

3.2 Measurement

3.2.1 Cultural Value

As one of the popular measures for culture values, the INDCOL measure has gone through extensive examination and validity tests (Robert, et al., 2006; Sivadas, et al., 2008); and a number of recent cross cultural researches have included the measure in their study (Ayçiçeği-Dinn & Caldwell-Harris, 2011; Hui & Au, 2001; Pinillos & Reyes, 2009; Sivadas, et al., 2008; Wasti, 2002).

The INDCOL measure is used to measure participants' cultural values. It is consisted of four dimensions: 1) Vertical Individualism, 2) Vertical Collectivism, 3) Horizontal Individualism and 4) Horizontal Collectivism. Each dimension is measured by 8 items, and using a 9-point Likert scale; 1 means "strongly disagree", 5 means "neutral" and 9 means "strongly agree". The dimension of vertical individualism measures if the person is self-reliant, with sample statement such as "I usually struggle through a personal problem by myself." The dimension of vertical collectivism assesses if one person is family-integrated. The sample question is "I want my aging parent to live with me in my home". Vertical individualism assesses if one person is competitive, emotionally distant from in-groups and hedonistic. The sample question is "I always do my best when I compete with others". Horizontal individualism evaluates if a person is interdependent and willing to be sociable. The sample question include "One should live one's life independently of others.". The cultural values were calculated through aggregating scores to each dimension. The score represents the strength of a corresponding cultural value of a person. The higher the score, the stronger the cultural value one person possesses. It is possible for a person to possess multiple cultural values at the same time with varying strengths.

3.2.2 Organizational Culture Preference

The Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) is used to measure participants' organizational preference. The original OCP contains 54 value statements to assess individuals' preference toward characteristics of organizations (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). A number of studies have been conducted to test the reliability and validity of the OCP (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Siew Kim Jean & Kelvin, 2004).

This research applied the 8-factor structure of OCP that measures individuals' preferences to 8 distinct types of organizational culture. The eight factors include: innovation, attention to detail, outcomes, aggressiveness, supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team, and decisiveness (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). O'Reilly and his colleagues avoid the social desirability bias by proposing the OCP items with neutral terms. The participants were asked to identify characteristics of the organizations that they are willing to work for with a 9-point Likert type scale, where 1 means "strongly disagree", 5 means "neutral" and 9 means "strongly agree". Item scores were aggregated to the factor level to represent respondents' preferences toward a particular organizational culture. The higher the score is, the higher the preferences.

4. Results

4.1 Correlations

Pearson correlation analysis was performed to explore the relationship among all study variables. As shown in table 1, cultural values, with the exception of vertical individualism, were found to relate to all types of organizational culture preferences. People who hold VI values do not associate with organizations that have a supportive, team oriented or decisive culture.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among all variables

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.
Mean	2.62	0.48	1.28	33.21	2.41	5.15	5.43	6.95	6.69	6.94	7.11	6.77	6.63	7.59	7.63	7.26	7.12
Standard Deviation	0.82	0.50	0.45	13.21	1.76	1.30	1.19	1.07	1.70	1.29	1.38	1.27	1.37	1.21	1.21	1.42	1.19
1.Occupation	1																
2.Your gender	.030	1															
3.Marital Status	.351**	-.024	1														
4.Your age	.600**	.017	.390**	1													
5.Ethnic background	-.149**	.027	-.128**	-.279**	1												
6.VI	-.080	.096*	-.098*	-.152**	.087	(.776)											
7.VC	-.009	.061	.037	-.029	.163**	.263**	(.719)										
8.HI	-.060	-.080	-.046	.071	-.062	.191**	-.028	(.813)									
9.HC	.015	-.062	.035	.060	.029	.076	.399**	.315**	(.837)								
10.Innovation	-.043	.031	-.052	.028	.052	.130**	.121**	.373**	.335**	(.76)							
11.AttentionToDetail	-.030	.014	.000	.008	.088*	.199**	.222**	.291**	.298**	.441**	(.845)						
12.Outcome	.034	.012	-.050	.038	.042	.282**	.227**	.302**	.357**	.511**	.587**	(.722)					
13.Aggressiveness	.008	.040	-.048	.012	.048	.321**	.144**	.275**	.328**	.472**	.468**	.704**	(.573)				
14.Supportiveness	.006	-.085	.007	.147**	.012	-.038	.147**	.392**	.460**	.456**	.445**	.408**	.354**	(.702)			
15.EmphasisOnRewards	-.044	-.096*	-.074	-.012	.109*	.162**	.184**	.386**	.441**	.505**	.485**	.548**	.690**	.690**	(.722)		
16.Team	.047	-.060	-.004	.101*	.094*	.062	.252**	.246**	.558**	.439**	.455**	.440**	.424**	.603**	.615**	(.739)	
17.Decisiveness	-.018	-.097*	-.007	.079	.145**	.079	.237**	.273**	.347**	.405**	.466**	.469**	.438**	.584**	.587**	.426**	(.504)

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Gender: male is coded 1, female is coded 0.

(): Cronbach's α

4.2 Hypotheses Testing

Multiple regression was used to test the hypotheses of the relationships between cultural values and preference for organizational cultures. The control variables, such as gender, marital status, age and ethnicity, and four personal cultural values of VI, VC, HI, HC as the independent variables are put into account. Table 2 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis.

Hypothesis 1 stated that vertical individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an aggressive oriented organizational culture. As model 1 in table 2 shows, vertical individualism does predict respondents' preference to an aggressive organizational culture with the coefficient value of .283 and p-value <.01. Thus, hypothesis 1 is supported. Hypothesis 2 stated that vertical individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an outcome oriented organizational culture. As model 2 shows, vertical individualism does predict organizational preferences of outcome orientation with the coefficient value of .209 and p-value <.01. Thus, hypothesis 2 is supported.

Hypothesis 3 stated that horizontal individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an innovation oriented organizational culture. As model 3 shows, horizontal individualism show a significant influence on respondents' preferences of innovation orientation, with the coefficient value of .292, p-value <.01. Thus, hypothesis 3 is supported. Hypothesis 4 states that horizontal individualism value is significantly related to the preference of an emphasis on rewards orientated organizational culture. As model 4 shows, horizontal individualism does show a significant influence on respondents' preferences of emphasis on rewards, with the coefficient value of .266, p-value <.01. Thus, hypothesis 4 is also supported.

Hypothesis 5 proposed that vertical collectivism value is significantly related to the preference of a team orientated organizational culture. As model 5 shows, vertical collectivism does not show strong association to respondents' preferences of team orientation with the coefficient value of .042, p-value >.05. Thus, hypothesis 5 is not supported. Hypothesis 6 proposed that vertical collectivism value is significantly related to the preference of an organizational culture that emphasizes decisiveness. As model 6 shows, vertical collectivism does show a positive relation to respondents' preferences of decisiveness, with the coefficient value of .143, p-value <.05. Thus, hypothesis 6 is supported.

Hypothesis 7 proposed that horizontal collectivism value is significantly related to the preference of supportiveness. As model 7 shows, horizontal collectivism does predict respondents' preferences of a supportive culture, with the coefficient value of .348, p-value <.01. Thus, hypothesis 7 is supported.

Further examination of the regression results shows, in addition to the hypothesized relations, HI also predicts attention to detail (P<.01), outcome orientation (P<.01), supportiveness orientation (P<.01), decisiveness orientation (P<.01), aggressiveness orientation (P<.05) and team orientation (P<.05). HC also predicts innovation orientation (P<.01), attention to detail orientation (P<.01), outcome orientation (P<.01), aggressiveness orientation (P<.01), emphasis on rewards orientation (P<.01), team orientation (P<.01) and team orientation (P<.01).

Table 2. Regression Results

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
	Aggressive -ness	Outcome Orientatio n	Innovation	Emphasis on rewards	Team	Decisive- ness	Supportive -ness	Attention to detail
Occupation	.033	.061	-.035	.006	.017	-.061	-.063	-.022
Gender	.040	-.013	.062	-.067	-.031	-.082	-.035	.023
Marital Status	-.042	-.066	-.043	-.062	-.054	-.029	-.038	.018
Age	.035	.040	.054	.011	.107	.149	.157*	.028
Ethnic group	.039	.027	.060	.102	.103*	.159**	.053	.074
VI	.283**	.209**	.043	.072	.003	-.004	-.118	.107
VC	-.046	.076	.013	.029	.042	.143*	.046	.120
HI	.134*	.186**	.292**	.266**	.082*	.199**	.290**	.225**
HC	.283**	.251**	.236**	.334**	.506**	.21**	.348**	.168**
F	15.626**	16.565**	14.324**	22.483**	28.077**	14.306**	25.037**	11.447**
R ²	.22	.23	.205	.289	.336	.205	.311	.171
Adjusted R ²	.206	.216	.191	.276	.324	.191	.299	.156

Note: *p<0.05 **p<0.01

5. Discussions and Conclusions

The study conducted an examination of two culture variables in the United States: personal culture values and preference in organizational culture among people. The application of organizational culture preferences was developed in America, using the 54-items OCP (O'Reilly, et al., 1991). Personal values were regarded as having significant impact on individual preferences to organizational culture. The study theorized and empirically tested the hypotheses on the

relationship of four personal culture values and a set of organizational culture preferences. The result shows people with vertical individualistic values prefer the outcome oriented and aggressiveness oriented organizations; people with vertical collectivistic value solely prefer decisiveness oriented organizations. Although the hypotheses of horizontal collectivism and horizontal individualism are accepted, the research found that the two horizontal values are associated with all the organizational culture preferences. People with horizontal values do not seem to have distinctive preferences concerning the organizational cultures.

People with horizontal value emphasize equality, and might be more open and liberal to diverse organizational cultures; as a result, people with horizontal value may prefer almost all types of organization cultures rather than a specific organizational culture. People with vertical value, on the other hand, have preference for very specific organization cultures. Since vertical value stresses on the authority and power, the preference for similar organizational culture is hence strengthened.

These findings have great implications for managers both in recruiting and in shaping organizational culture. Although not all of our hypotheses are supported by the data, the findings are of importance for practice in a number of ways. First, the organizational preferences of an individual indeed are influenced by personal values construction. Therefore, the nation as a whole can build up an open environment for students to detect their own culture values and find the suitable organizations to work for in the near future. Secondly, individuals holding different culture values have different organizational culture preferences. This knowledge benefits the recruiter further to attain desired talents for the organizations and help interviewees find desired organizations to work for. The recruiting process may incorporate an examination of the personal values and preferred organization culture to predict the possible work performance and people-organization congruence. Recruiters or consulting company may further develop tools to enhance the compatibility between firms and employees based on the research. However, we would caution against such an approach on the sole ground that individuals have only one preference for a single kind of organization culture. Most researches show that preferences are often multi-dimensional and that personal values may change over time.

5.1 Implications

The result indicates that culture values are associated with organizational culture preferences, which is consistent with the person-organization fit congruence predictions. Therefore, when P-O fit is concerned, the recruiters of organization are suggested to develop new strategies when it comes to recruit employees according to the research. Job applicants can be tested during the recruiting process to examine whether their individual values are compatible with specific organizational culture.

Future research might examine other empirical evidences that reflect the personal culture and organizational preferences association during recruitment to evaluate the impact of the personal and organizational culture fit. Outcome of the personal culture and organizational culture fit, such as the turnover rate reduction, employee productivity increase and job satisfaction increase, can also be examined. Such research would provide more information for managers to recruit people and the decision making process regarding the recruiting strategies.

5.2 Limitations

Although most of the hypotheses of the study are supported throughout the paper, the research design has some limitations. First of all, the sample is limited in the US, thus the research findings may only apply to a diverse, well developed and liberal society similar to the US. Second, the samples come from only metropolitan areas. People who choose to live in metropolitan areas may have held unique values of their own or are influenced by people surrounding them in the close-nit networks within a metropolitan. Thus, the findings may only be generalized to other metropolitan residents. Third, the data were collected through the service of a survey company, thus the samples are limited to those who the company had contact with. Fourth, the study emphasizes on the preferences of an ideal organizational culture rather than an actual organizational culture. A gap may exist between the cognitive understanding and the real experience of organizational culture.

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The Impact of Organizational Culture in Attaining a Stable and Productive Workforce – A Case Study of The Gambia Tertiary Industry

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Abstract

This study seeks to find out the impacts of organizational culture in attaining a stable and productive workforce in the tertiary industry in The Gambia. According to results of literature review, parameters embodied in organizational culture were divided into five dimensions namely; goals, job design, employee welfare, supervision and integrity to strategically exploit the research purposes. Six professionals in management capacities in the tertiary industry participated in the study. Data was collected from a structured in-depth interviews supplemented by secondary data searched from various sources. The researchers also make use of the triangulation method to boost the validity of the collected data. The results of the study shows that organizational culture boost employee morale and enable them to redouble their efforts, promote employee integrity, absorbs individuals with compatible values to that of the organization, foster employee relationship amongst others. On the contrary, the study highlights employee concerns which need to be address such as the appraisal system in place, irregular staff selection and a feeling of being exploited by some employees. The study thus sets light to some astonishing factors organizational culture contributes to the tertiary industry in particular and by extension the business sector.

Keywords: Organizational culture, Tertiary industry, The Gambia.

1. Introduction

The Gambia is located on the West Coast of Africa with a population of 1.7 million (United Nations, 2010). It is the smallest country on the African mainland. It has a vibrant and flourishing tertiary industry characterized by numerous players partly due to the country stability and favorable investment opportunities. The industry contributes about 67% of the Gambia's GDP. The key players comprised the financial industry, the tourism industry, telecommunication companies and the public departments just to name but a few.

Each of these players conducts their activities in distinctive manners. However, being cognizant of the fact that most of the tertiary industries operating in the country are owned by multinational companies which tend to impose certain cultures, values and norms that appear foreign to most employees, it is vital an empirical study be conducted to ascertain its impact on the staff. Since it is no secret that employee turnover in the service industry is growing at an alarming rate despite efforts to curtail this unfortunate situation (Proceedings of NESIS meeting, 2005). High employee turnovers are not only a waste of money; they also affect the quality of effective service delivery (Kramer and Schmalenberg, 2004).

Kramer and Schmalenberg (2004) also pointed out that organizational culture been a pattern of organizational life needs to be appreciated and embraced by all employees to enable them fit in the organization and render their best to minimize staff turnover as it causes a lot of financial lost as well as time and effort to organizations. As organizations can only go as far as its culture takes it, this study will enable business leaders as well as leaders of other institutes help in promoting and preserving the organizational culture knowing fully it has a vital effect to the organization's bottom line. Finally, the study is envisaged to create awareness on areas organizational culture could be a source of conflict and could de-motivated employees to management and shareholders in the tertiary industry as well as the academic community to brainstorm on ways to address the situation.

1.1 Research Purposes and Questions

The purpose of this research is to shade light on the extent of influence organizational culture has on the behavior of employees with regards to their performance; to assess the effectiveness of a well coordinated organizational culture in attaining organizational goals, and to shade light on the influence of organizational culture with respect to employee stability and turnover. Based on research purposes, this study seeks to address three research questions:

- What influence does organizational culture have on employee stability and performance?
- In what ways does organizational culture contribute to unacceptable organizational performance?
- What effects does organizational culture pose on employee dissatisfaction and displacement?

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1.2 Definition of Key Terms

- Organizational culture: The norms, values, and beliefs concerning the organization that are shared by members of the organization (Parboteeah & Cullen, 2011).
- Tertiary industry: Also called service industry, includes industries that, while producing no tangible goods, provide service or intangible gains (Encyclopedia, 2011).

2. Literature Review

Organizational culture is increasingly becoming a popular term in organizations as well as in the management field. The concept was first introduced into the literature by Pettigrew (1979) when he alluded to “the lack of empirical study” on the area. It refers to a set of shared values, beliefs and assumptions, and practices that shaped and guide member’s attitudes and behavior in the organization (Parboteeah & Cullen, 2011; Wilson, 2001). Due to the fact that the concept of organizational culture is relatively a new phenomenon that has attracted work from researchers in various fields, definitions of this concept differ as a single definition has not yet been universally agreed upon (Sackmann, 1991). Perhaps, the best known definition of organizational culture was the one given by the renowned MIT professor of Psychology, Schein (2004:17) when he defined it as

a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

The more business leaders understand organizational culture, the implications will be favorable as they will be able to motivate their work force and keep them productive.

According to the works of Parboteeah and Cullen (2011); Schein (2004), organizational culture can be characterize as comprising behavior, values and beliefs. Behavior is the observable aspect and consists of patterns and outward manifestation of an organizational culture. On the other hand, values underlie and to a greater extent determine organisational behavior and may not be quite visible while beliefs centered on conviction at a deeper level on values of an entity. From these studies these three components could concisely captured by five parameters namely goals, job design, employee welfare, supervision and integrity. Therefore in order to accurately and fully exploit the research agenda, a review of the mentioned parameters follows:

2.1 Goals

A goal is an intent to achieve some outcome. According to Aguinis (2009) “the purpose of setting such goals is to formalize statements about what the organization hopes to achieve in the medium to long-range period”. They can also be a source of motivation and provide employee of all levels with a more realistic target for which to work towards. Studies found out that the positioning of appropriate organizational goals influence employee retention and job productivity. In the study conducted by Kim, Leong, & Lee (2005), they found out that organizational direction and support had an important impact on employee overall commitment. The whole ideology of recruitment, selection and promotion practices in organizations supports and reinforce the organizational culture by creating stronger links and bonds between those who have similar beliefs and values to the organization and systematically aligning them. This claim has received several supports from many empirical studies such as Chew, Girardi, & Entekin (2005), Cho, Woods, Jang, & Erdem (2006) and Milman & Ricci (2004).

2.2 Job Design

Job design according to the extensive work of Werner and DeSimone (2009:42) pertains to the complete “development and alteration of the components of a job (such as the task one performs, and the scope of one’s responsibilities) to improve productivity and the quality of the employee’s work life”. The same authors indicated that when tasks and functions posse’s elements that meet employee’s personal development are catered for needs which provokes feelings of “responsibility, meaningfulness, and knowledge of results,” workers are better satisfied and give their utmost. An employee’s personal values, career goals, and plans for the future must fit with the larger organizational culture and the demands of the job. The more an employee’s personal values, career goals and plans for the future fits in an organization, the higher the likelihood that an employee will feel professionally and personally tied to an organization (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erea, 2001). A reversal is a common cause of turnover studies revealed. Employees who do not experience job fit tend to leave slightly sooner than employees who fit their job. Proper job fit refers to an employee’s perceived compatibility or comfort with the organization and with the work environment (Mitchell et al., 2001). Other studies support the relationship between employees experiencing job fit and their decision to remain in the organization (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999).

2.3 Employee welfare and supervision

Organizational culture that treats people with respect retains its people and studies have showed the most common reason people quit their jobs lies with their dissatisfaction with their supervisors. According to research conducted by Kinicki and Williams (2008); Phillips and Connell (2003), “organizational culture is the most often cited reason for turnover in most industries including strained relationships with the boss or co-workers, unfair treatment, and harassment.” Employees want to feel recognized for their contributions and this component has a strong bearing with the organizational culture. Success in institutions must not be derived solely as individuals but must be realized in partnership with our teams.

According to Ossa (2001), a Kansas State University researcher, in exchange for the employability security that an organization provides its employees, employees will work harder and remain with the organization longer. A much earlier study by Kerr and Slocum (1987:103) pointed organizations with a strong culture that emphasis values such as teamwork, security and respect for individual members are able to attract and retain loyal employees. The development of shared values improves the work environment and productivity by strengthening personal effectiveness, corporate loyalty and pride, teamwork and above all ethical behavior (Kouzes & Posner, 2002:78-80). The study continued to show that organizations with these cultural values perform better than their competitors in terms of growth and profitability.

2.4 Integrity

Integrity may mean different things to various individuals based on various situations. However, this study focuses on the issue of the integrity of the employee and its bearing at the organizational level in creating and fostering a culture of integrity. Organizational culture also embodies integrity pertaining to the policies and leadership beliefs and philosophy existing in an organization. Such a culture has to emanate from the top and be seen as a tool in the conduct of activities of the corporate executives as it fosters trust and boost efficiency. An organizational culture that promotes integrity is bound to be innovative, collaborative, constructive, transparent, with high employee morale, valued customer loyalty and strong partnerships. On the contrary, an organizational culture of low integrity leads to high employee turnover, an atmosphere of suspicion and disrespect (Duggar, 2010).

These therefore call for the involvement of the corporate leadership to set light on the features of the environment appropriate for the particular business entity. It is largely assumed that all aspects of an organizational culture are beneficial for the growth of an organization which might not be the case. Certain aspects of an organization’s culture may pose adverse effect on its functioning. Therefore, it is prudent business leaders identify components of their organizational culture that are contributing to their business growth and also promoting staff welfare. Secondly, in the event of a strong national culture ingrained in some employees, studies have not shown how these affect individuals in organization. This study will endeavor to exploit fully some of these vital areas not treated or fully covered in previous studies.

As depicted in the conceptual framework below, organizational culture is characterized by behavior, values and beliefs. These are in turn divided into five parameters. Thus, the researchers will be able to better address the various components embodied in organizational culture. After a review of current literature the researchers proposed that the various components are related and the arrows buttresses this concept in the initial stage. The behavior in any organization or institution is reflected to an extent on the way goals are formulated as well as on how individuals in the workplace comport themselves. The values of any organization or institution influences how individuals and groups are treated (employee welfare). In additional, institutional values shape the manner the corporate leadership handle the daily activities of the organization and it defines issues bordering integrity. Lastly but not the least, organizational beliefs, sets the pace as to the type of goals sets as well as what is considered as proper and right behavior in the organization. Finally, the arrows go to indicate that the impact of this organizational culture has two possible outcomes depending on the way is it utilized. Thus implying it could either result in creating a stable and productive workforce or an unstable and unproductive workforce.

3. Methodology

The study is a qualitative research and the intentions are to shed light on some dimensions of organizational culture in the Gambia Tertiary Industry. The methodology for the study entails the following including the conceptual framework, see also figure 1, which outlines behavior, values and beliefs characterizing organizational culture. These concepts are further divided into five parameters namely goals, job design, supervision, employee welfare and integrity in order to determine the impact of organizational culture in attaining a stable and productive workforce.

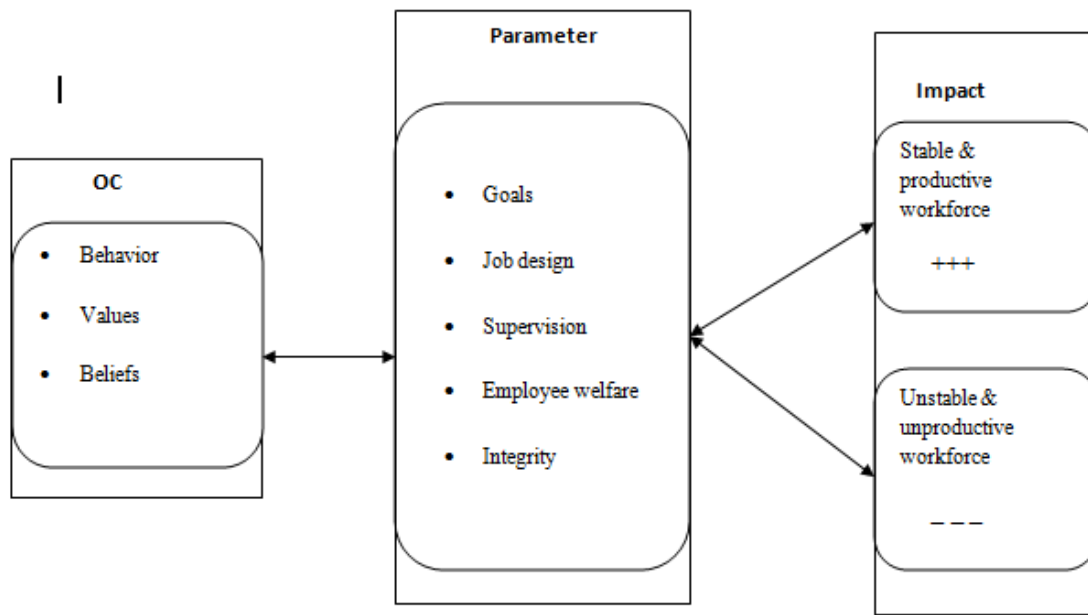


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

- **Target Population:** The research participants are drawn from the key players of the Gambian tertiary industry notably the financial service and the telecommunication industry.
- **Sampling Procedure and Size:** A number of 6 professionals (2 females and 4 males) participated in this study. Babbie (2011) postulated that at times it is appropriated to select the sample based on the researcher’s knowledge of the population, its elements, environments, and the nature of the research intentions. Thus, the participants were chosen through purposive sampling, whereby it “is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore select a sample from which most can be learned” (Merriam, 1998:61).
- **Eligibility Criteria:** For participating in the study, individuals must be in the service of a tertiary industry notably the financial service and the telecommunication industry and must be in the management cadre with a work experience of at least two years in their current organization. In this way much of the values, norms and beliefs of their respective institutions will become familiar to them. In the profile summaries below, pseudonyms were used to represent these participants.

Table 2. Profile of Study Participants

Pseudonym	Age	Level	Education level	Years of Experience in Current Position
Moses	41-45	Manager	Master Degree	4
Susan	30-35	Senior Manager	Master Degree	3
Sulayman	36-40	Middle Management	Bachelor Degree	15
Daniel	41-45	Middle Management	Bachelor Degree	3
Ida	41-45	Senior Manager	Master Degree	4
Robinson	< 30	Middle Management	Bachelor Degree	5

- **Data Collection:** The data was collected through an interview where an amount of ten open-ended questions was posed to interviewees. Before the actual administration of the questionnaires, a pilot test was conducted to

test for reliability and validity. This provided feedback on the research instrument and helped to remove ambiguity from some questions. A number of middle level management individuals who once worked in the tertiary industry and are now doing various master's programs formed the pilot group. Experts in the field of research comprising of university lecturers were consulted to verify the content, sequence, structuring, and relevance of the research items.

- **Interview Questions Design:** A structured interview questions were design largely based on the findings from the literature reviews and the input from the pilot test. The questions centered on organizational goals, staff welfare, job design, integrity, supervision and communication, impact of organizational culture on workforce stability and its effects on productivity.
- **Method of Administering the Questions:** The questions were sent to interviewees via their email addresses for them to complete and send back. Subsequently, each of them who completed the first stage was call on Skype in order to gather more information and also gather more clarification on certain concepts that were mentioned earlier.
- **Coding and Data Analysis:** The data was coded and then analyzed using the qualitative approach. In some instances Microsoft Excel was used in the course of the analysis.

4. Main Findings and Discussions

4.1 Goals

Based on the data analysis, organizations in the tertiary industry fully appeared committed in ensuring organizational goals set are vigorously pursued with the necessarily resources and manpower deployment. As a result, their operations are strategically modeled in the manner they believe is best to attain their goals and objectives. They show high commitment to these goals by setting targets for their various staffs and often do not compromise on failure to meet these targets and deliverables as Daniel asserts "meeting deliverables is no joking issue". As a follow up periodic strategic meetings are held to review and access performance with respect to the attainments of these goals. Appraisals too are grossly based on attaining these goals which are assigned various performance indicators. In addition, the organizations in this sector strongly advocate staff dedication to customer satisfactory service. The response below from one of the interviewee dilated more on this aspect:

Growing its market share and profitability is the single item the organization is committed in attaining. Staff rewards are link to meeting targets and deliverables. There are regular reviews of our positions and periodic strategic session. In fact, our survival and compensation as employees of the organization greatly depend on attaining our goals and objectives ... (Ida)

4.2 Employee Welfare and Security

Almost all the informants expressed serious reservations with this aspect of their organizational culture. It appears this area is one of the major areas responsible for most of the troubles organizations in the sector faces. Informants expressed the view that the organization tends to offer them little benefits in terms of their well being while on the other hand putting in place tough strategies and measures to ensure they put in their best for the institution in order to produce desired results. Many of the respondents have a feeling of management intentionally exploiting them while offering those little incentives such as lunch subsidies and leaving out essential needs such as health insurance cover for the employee and their immediate families. They claimed management is either slow or reluctant in addressing staff concerns no matter how small the issue is regarded. The general view is that organizations in this sector are more concern with meeting the needs of the shareholders and as a result are not encouraging their staffs by denying them several opportunities that are regarded as basis requirements in several other sectors. This leaves staff to struggle on their own and at times in very difficult situations in meeting certain basic needs which the institution would have been in a better position to provide.

The technique these organizations are said to adopt when staff solicits support is to tell the staffs that their request will be forward to the parent company. However, they are usually quick to point out that the institution is not making profit and as a result they are not in a position to meet those demands base on current situations but would do all within their reach to ensure it is provided at soon as it becomes feasible. This strategy is occurring year in year out and has becomes more like a part of the institutions culture whereby the same fake excuses and deception are created to give an impression that something is been done without no true commitment being attached to meeting staff needs despite the level of pressure staffs are made to work under .

4.3 Job Design

This is another interesting area the study shows players in the tertiary industry seem to either have it wrong or underestimate it importance in driving the goals of the organization and must work to put it in order if they must have

competent and efficient teams. Almost all informants interviewed have some form of criticism or negative comments on the ways workers in the industry are selected and assign to various roles despite there been sets of requirement or qualification for each position. Take for instance the statement on the issue made by Robinson one of the interviewees;

In my institution placement are not necessarily based on area of study at school, for instance I studied Economics at university but was however placed in finance unit. This could affect staff productivity and lack of job satisfaction in some cases.

Malpractices such as “nepotism, regionalism and favoritism” are highlighted as frequent practices in the industry. Respondents argued that most at times wrong individuals get hired through the influence of more senior employees and are put in places where they could not function properly resulting to either slow transactions or committing several errors. One of the respondents Daniel refers to these situations as putting “square pegs in round holes” as a direct indication of wrong people assign to do tasks and functions they do not have the right skills. This definitely could be a source of dissatisfaction in any institution and the Human Resources department might need to review the way they hired staff especially with the usage of referrals which is lately gaining ground in several business establishments.

4.4 Integrity

The data obtained revealed that players in the tertiary industry are very committed, firm and strict when it comes to issues pertaining integrity irrespective of the level of staff. Professional ethics such as honesty, passion and teamwork are highly valued and are portrayed to be the hallmark of all staffs in the service of this industry. Malpractices of all nature are seriously and promptly dealt with. Others such as suspicious transactions attract immediately investigation by internal control or by the compliance department in some organizations. Falsifications of document, bribes collecting or accepting gifts in order to return favor as well as sexual misconduct are regarded as serious offences and culprits usually “face serious and harsh disciplinary measures”. In fact, respondents indicated those found guilty of these acts in most cases leads to dismissal and subsequent prosecution in the courts. Drawing an estimate from the data obtained, dismissals due to integrity related factors are responsible for about 40 percent of staffs in the sector losing their jobs.

4.5 Supervision

Staffs in the sector appear to enjoy a considerable working relationship with their supervisors and superiors. This might not be quite surprising as going by the Hofstede’s dimension of power distance this appears consistent with that study. People in The Gambia generally respect and hold their supervisors’ in high esteem and avoid potential actions that could lead to confrontations with them. Therefore, they do not easily take up issues with superiors that could lead to confrontations even though a decision taken by their supervisors do not seem right and may be against their wish thus creating some amount of inconveniences. They keep quiet and endure the pain silently. The study reveals that staff at times finds decisions as well as requests made by their supervisors too demanding and at times unreasonable but yet still they tend to comply. A respondent outlined that at times they are overloaded with task by their supervisors who are actually suppose to complete such task. However, he was quick to point out the benefits he derides from such practices such as being opportune to be exposed to more challenging functions which has a positive effect on his career development and advancement .He however decried his supervisor for not shouldering responsibility anytime an issue was raise with any aspect of work she delegates to them which creates discomfort. A good practice in this sector the study unveils is staff roles are usually well spelt out and employees usually know what exactly is expected of them.

4.6 Organizational culture impact on workforce stability

Respondents indicated that the organizational culture could have both a positive impact on the workforce stability as well as a negative impact. In the first instance, the interviewees asserts since the organizations are performance driven and those who meet their targets are easily rewarded and that management empowers them with more challenging roles and are even entitled to many other privileges. Ida, one of the respondents stated her opinion by saying the organization “tends to identify hardworking staff and adequately compensating them and also according them more challenging roles”. In this manner the effect of the culture to those staff identify as performing has positive effects and they tend to be more committed to the organization, redouble their efforts and stay longer in the organizations. This appears to be a direct answer to *RQ1* which is concerned with the influence of the organizational culture on employee stability and performance.

In addition, respondents pointed out the manner recruitment and selection in the organization is conducted could have a meaningful impact on the stability of the workforce. When the organizations identify individuals with similar values and visions to that of the organization, the workforce stability is to some degree guaranteed. The argument is these individuals will find the workplace more compatible with their individual values and therefore tend to perform better. The reversal could lead to instability and lack of job satisfaction which may ultimately lead to turnover.

Furthermore, study also showed players in this industry take pride in organizing regular staff bonding to foster the spirit of relationship building amongst staff. The following response of Robinson indicates:

It also seeks to develop and empower staff members by encouraging staff development and organizing staff bonding exercises. This is in fact one of the organizations core value which is continuous learning. Another aspect is the empowerment of junior staffs so long as you prove yourself you could be given responsibilities to handle and accorded the necessary support beside management recognition.

On the contrary, the ways the biannual appraisals are conducted enable senior staffs to rate subordinates and to a great extent making them responsible for subordinate's fate in the institution. Once you are identified as a poor performer your chances for growth and advancement in the institution is seriously reduced. This is what one of the respondents Ida has to say

... it is difficult for one to truly advance in the organization as your advancement strictly lies on all those who senior you. Their judgment is what the organization upholds and you are not accorded any opportunity to defend yourself. As a result, when you are not in the good books of most of your superiors the best for you is to look elsewhere as your chances of moving up is very small.

This sends some negative feelings and does connote prejudice that an organizational culture could embodied. The frequent movement of staff to other sectors could be attributed to some of these problems as well as frustrations staff faced and as well as better offers obtained elsewhere. These points stated above and the subsequent point below adequately addresses RQ2 and 3 which pertains to ways the organizational culture could contribute to unacceptable organizational performance and its effects on employee dissatisfaction and displacement. The study revealed the fact that so long as the organization fails to prioritize staff conditions and welfare the organizational culture in general would not be able to influence the workforce stability as employees will always be on the lookout for employers would meet their basic needs besides been competitive and not only concentrating in making profit and satisfying their shareholders.

What is more, the study shows the feeling that the culture of most of the players in this sector is at the advantage of a certain group who are mostly at the top. They tend to find things in the organization easy. Once management takes notice of your performance things turn for the better for you.

4.7 Organizational culture effect on workforce productivity

Respondents have indicated in a number of ways that the organizational culture helps boost employee morale and make them to work hard. It also links rewards employees receive to meeting deliverables and targets. The implications here they noted is meeting your target means recognition as well as career growth and advancement with more challenging roles without hindrance. Due to these benefits, the study revealed employees are committed to giving their best so as to be more secured in the first place and have access to better opportunities, status and benefits. Those employees identify as performing staff tend to work harder and stay longer with the organization. As the study shows that the sector is performance driven this propels all employees to work hard. To illustrate these situation one of the interviewees stated as below:

Since it is the organization's culture of tying ones progress and rewards to ones contribution to the institution, everyone tends to give in their best. Meeting targets is highly emphasis and it is core to a secured employment. Staffs consider not productive enough are forced to resign or mandatory ask to quit their jobs. The organizational culture in this regard is providing all that is necessary for one to excel in their roles and frowns to low and average performance (Ida).

The above points yet again buttress and set more light on the RQ 1 which is concerned with the influence organizational culture does have on employee stability and performance. With theses situation in place the indications are therefore organizational culture has an enormous influence of employee's stability and performance.

4.8 Communication

The collected data indicated management in this sector in an apparent effort to have control and influence on their employees encourages frequent dialogue between them and the staff. Staffs are accorded the opportunity to freely express their views but implementation of decision raised is what doesn't easily occur. Information in the sector is also said to be pass around to all staff timely and conveniently thanks to the wide availability of intranet to players in this industry.

5. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study helps to give a better insight into the impact organizational culture have on employee's stability and productivity. It brings additional knowledge by unveiling aspects of organizational culture that needs to be nurtured, encouraged and reinforce in the workforce in the tertiary industry while carefully exposing delicate areas that requires careful handling, negotiation as well as the usage of cultural intelligence. Going by the themes the study analyzed, it has an overall impact especially in supporting organizations to attain their mission and goals.

In the relationship between supervisors' and their staff more caution needs to be taken. Since the tendency is that subordinates are likely to avoid confrontations with their team leaders or supervisors, supervisors must be reasonable enough when dealing with them. Issues such as keeping staffs beyond official working hours must not be a frequent behavior as it could lead to job dissatisfaction and turnover intentions. Besides these, individuals might not be technically motivated to do a thorough work thus their lack of enthusiasm and productivity implies a waste of additional company resources such like electricity.

Initiatives the organization frequently embarked on such as bonding exercises are an excellent means for staffs to build relationship which has a positive bearing to team work. In addition, the creation of an organizational culture of integrity is very essential. Individuals that have integrity tend to build trusting relationships with others and this serve as a healthy attitude for institutional quality performance. At the organizational level it takes individuals of integrity to develop a consensus around share values. When we talk of integrity in connection to an employee, we are referring to the character of the person and our trust and belief in this .This study reinforces that integrity both in individuals as well as in management is an excellent ingredient in the organizational culture for the long term success and organizational sustainability.

The study thus recommends that organizations place employee welfare in the centre of their strategic action programs. It is beautiful and prudent business wise that goals are attain however, the manpower behind these goals attainment must be taken well care of so as to keep the business sustainable and competitive. If the people in our organizations are not taken well care of the organizations will end up losing some of its talents and the cost of a replacement would surely not be easy. The formalities of just hearing from the work force and not making solid commitment to adequately address their needs must not be encouraged in any organization.

Secondly, there is a need for employees to undergo serious form of orientation sessions when they are appointed. Perhaps this exercise needs to be conducted biennial to enable all employees learn the core values of the organization especially those relating to integrity as the study showed many got into problems in this area and subsequently lose their appointments. Issues pertaining to integrity as an aspect of organizational culture could at times be confusing and could vary from an individual to the other and a result periodic session with employers will enable a common understanding and perspective to be gained in this direction.

Finally, employees need to be selected in line with the stated criteria or qualification drawn up by the organization and it will be ideal if the internal control or compliance department are further empowered to periodically review staff appointments to ensure the human resources department are hiring individuals with the right sets of skills in order to improve the level of the human capital resource in terms of efficiency and quality service delivery.

5.1 Research Limitations

Like many empirical studies, this study also has some limitations. The players of the tertiary industry are many in the country and this present study has been solely limited to two main players in the industry, the financial and telecommunication industries. Therefore more industries with an increase sample size could be use in a future study to see how organizational culture impact on staff stability and productivity in the industry. In additional, besides the five parameters used to conduct the studies more parameters that adequately characterized organizational culture could be included to further research upon this concept. The inclusion of more sectors of the industry and the usage of more parameters could curve a way into the development of a model in the area that could help to improve the status of the industry both financially and in the area of managing the workforce. Hopefully, this empirical research will trigger more research interest in this dimension of organizational culture and its related issues more exhaustively in the future.

Appendix

Dear Participant,

This questionnaire is intended to be use to shade light on Organizational Culture. The purpose of the study is strictly academic and all information provided will be treated confidentially .In addition, data from this research will be reported only in the aggregate. Your support will highly be solicited. If you have questions about the survey or the procedures, you can reach me by email at fmjatta@yahoo.com

Date: April, 2011

Demographic information

- I. How many years have you worked for your current organization? -----
- II. What is your job position level in the organization? A) Junior Staff B) Middle Management C) Senior Manager
- III. What is your highest educational level? a) Bachelor's degree B) Master's degree C) Doctorate degree
D) Others: Please specify -----
- IV. How old are you? A) less than 30 B) 30 – 35 C) 36-40 D) 41-45 E) Over 45

Please answer the following ten (10) questions as much as possible.

1. What is your concept of Organizational Culture?
2. In what ways does your organizational culture impact the workforce's stability?
3. What are the effects of your organizational culture on the workforce's productivity?
4. What is the position of your organization with regards to different ideas expressed by its employees?
5. How would you describe your working relationship with your supervisor?
6. What concerns do you have with the way information is circulated in your organization?
7. In what ways do you feel your organization is committed in pursuing its goals?
8. What are your stands with regards to your organization's position on its staff welfare?
9. How firm are qualities such as employee integrity held by your organization?
10. In what ways do you feel job fillings may not at times be accurately done in line with individual qualifications and competence?

THANK YOU FOR TAKING TIME AND COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. If you are interested in the research findings, please leave your email below:

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Core Competence as a “Fuzzy Concept” – Comparing the Strategic Management and Human Resource Development Perspective

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Abstract

Core competence, being the prevailing term in strategic management (SM) and Human Resource Development (HRD) literature, has confused researchers and practitioners regarding what the “core” term exactly means. In this regard, this article reviews the evolution of core competence in SM and HRD literature, and addresses their interpretations of “core.” Finally, this article based on the insights of SM and HRD redefines core competence and human competence as organizational capabilities and individual capabilities collectively bringing organizational competitive advantage. We build a conceptual framework to show the relationship between core competence and human competence, and provide some managerial implications.

Keywords: core competence, human competence, organizational context, competitive advantage

1. Introduction

Core competence has become a popular term applied in academic fields of psychology, management, education and politics (Burgoyne, 1993). However, many debates came out with core competence so as to be perceived as a “fuzzy concept” (Delamare Le Diest & Winterton, 2005; Holmes & Joyce, 1993). For example, Clardy (2008) pointed out the concept of core competence in terms of *Strategic Management (SM)* and *Human Resource Development (HRD)* have obscured from the unclear meaning of the “core” term and cross-level issue:

[T]he labeling of competencies as “core” has been operationally understood as meaning the generic or universal task proficiencies common to a set of performers in a job class.

[L]ooking for core competencies among individual performers can actually limit the opportunity to produce superior and differentiated organizational performance.

(Clardy, 2008: 389)

These unclear areas of the concept of core competence have the potential to obstruct its practice and theoretical development in HRD.

According to the SM and HRD literature, SM scholars apply “core competence” to the organizational capabilities of a firm for competitive advantage, while HRD scholars refer to “core competence” as human capabilities related to superior job performance. As to the meaning of the “core” term representing in SM and HRD, the SM rendering of “core” represents “firm-specific” attributes in contrast to “generic” attributes by HRD.

In practice, these two alternative views on “core” have caused the fallacy that “firm-specific” competitive advantage derives from “generic” competence, and methodologically encountered the controversy between perspective and approach (e.g., analyzing core competence in adopting the SM perspective, but conducting a HRD approach). For example, Clardy (2008) questioned the effectiveness of competence assessment techniques on organizational performance, which is just like traditional job analysis conducting a bottom-up approach to investigate a generic set of behavioral characteristics in a job family across firms. Hamlin (1990) pointed out that generic competences explain less than fifty percent of managerial effectiveness. Therefore, generic human competences provide less unique characteristics for firms and can be imitated by competitors.

However, the SM and HRD perspectives on core competence are not exclusive. Applying SM and HRD insights, “core competence” and “human competence” represent macro- and micro-level capabilities that collectively define competitive advantage for firms (Lopez-Cabrales, Valle, & Herrero, 2006). Therefore, we argue that core competence and human competence complement each other in the way that core competence strategically directs human competence, and human competence “makes whole” core competence. This article firstly reviews the evolution of core competence in SM and HRD literature, and then analyzes the meaning of “core” competence in terms of benefits, approaches, and attributes. A conceptual framework is proposed showing the interplay of core competence, human competence, organizational context, and competitive advantage. Finally, we suggest some managerial implications.

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2. The Evolution of Core Competence in Strategic Management and HRD

2.1 Reviewing Core competence from the Strategic Management Literature

In order to flexibly compete and promptly response to customer demand in an increasingly fast-changing environment during the 1980s and 1990s (Drejer, 2002), firms adopted the market-positioning approach of strategic management (Porter, 1980), which argues that sustained competitive advantage of firms derives from the product, production, and marketing posture relative to its competitors (Clardy, 2008). *Strategic business units (SBUs)*, stressing decentralization and independent management, were perceived as an effective program of the market-positioning approach (Unland & Kleiner, 1996). However, an entirely “new competitive landscape,” where technological life cycles in certain industries decreased and customer awareness of product demand dramatically rose (Drejer, 2002), arose in the 1990s. The market-positioning approach, which focuses more on analyzing external opportunity and threats than internal strength and weakness in the competitive environment, is questioned to hardly compete in a dynamic market (Drejer, 2002). In this regard, scholars tried to address organizational competitive advantage from the so-called *resource-based view (RBV)*, focusing the internal resources of firms.

Prahalad and Hamel (1990), through observing the phenomenon of Japanese companies (e.g., Sony, Honda, NEC, etc.) outperforming American companies across many industries, argued the overwhelming success lies to the well-integrated internal resources of Japanese companies, termed “core competence.” Prahalad and Hamel (1990) explored core competence using comparative cases: NEC (Nippon Electric Corporation) versus GTE (General Telephone & Electronics Corporation). GTE was a major player in the information technology industry in the United States in the early 1980s. However, in the late 1980s, due to GTE lacking communication and effective integration and synergies between SBUs, NEC surpassed GTE at coordinating and multiplying internal resources across individual businesses. Using these comparative case studies, Prahalad and Hamel (1990) transferred the strategic focus from outside the organization to inside, focusing on the integration of resources and realizing potential synergies among SBUs. They termed this kind of organizational capabilities as “core competence” which advantageously integrate, reconfigure, gain, and release internal resources to match or even create market change, and finally lead to organizational competitive advantage (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000).

Core competence is developed based on organizational learning (Lei, Hitt, & Bettis, 1996; Murray, 2003; Petts, 1997) and organizational culture (Barney, 1986; Håland & Tjora, 2006; Lawler, 1994). Core competence develops from “collective learning in the organization” (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990: 82) generating a set of problem-defining and problem-solving insights to create competitive advantage (Lei, et al., 1996) and acting as a vehicle for SBUs to find common interests, problems, capabilities or opportunities (Javidan, 1998). The development of core competence is an undergoing change in organizational culture, where values, beliefs, and norms make it possible to control the interactions of organizational members with external stakeholders and strategically guide their behaviors toward goals of organizations (Chen & Chang, 2010).

2.2 Reviewing Core competence from the HRD Literature

Core competence conceptualized in HRD has been termed “competence” without “core” (Clardy, 2008). The American behavioral psychologists, White (1959), introduced the term “competence” to describe those personality characteristics associated with superior performance and high motivation (Delamare Le Diest & Winterton, 2005: 31). Further, Harvard psychologist, David McClelland (1973), questioned the reliability of intelligence and the aptitude test as a predictor of job performance; instead, believing personal underlying characteristics predict performance more significantly than intelligence.

The *McBer and Company* and the *American Management Association (AMA)* following McClelland’s insights launched the competence modeling movement in the late 1970s. The AMA conducted the *Behavioral Event Interview (BEI)* to investigate the differences between exemplary and superior performers (Rothwell & Lindholm, 1999), thus firstly define competence as the underlying characteristics underpinning superior job performance. The AMA identified the psychological configuration of competence as “a generic knowledge, motive, trait, self-image, social role, or skill of a person that is causally related to superior performance on a job” (Hayes, 1979: 2). Boyatzis (1982) and colleagues at McBer initiated competence modeling. They studied over 2000 managers to derive the characteristics of superior managers across management jobs and organizations. The definition and methodology of competence by the AMA and Boyatzis have widely affected the following theoretical developments and practices.

Spencer and Spencer (1993) extended the competence modeling work by investigating more than two hundred jobs, categorized by five job families including technical/professional, salespeople, helping and human service workers, managers, and entrepreneurs. Conducting the BEI to these job incumbents derived similar behavioral patterns of superior performers among different levels of each job family, namely “generic competence models.” For example, the five main competence models of managers include behaviors of impact and influence, achievement orientation, teamwork and cooperation, analytical thinking, and initiative (Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Under the philosophy of Spencer and Spencer (1993), “core competence” exists at the individual level (Lahti, 1999).

Such “core competence” model derived from a survey of superior job performers demonstrates a generic or universal set of behavioral characteristics to accomplish similar job tasks, so these “generic” characteristics are deemed “core” in this job family (Clardy, 2008). Further, competence modeling underlying human characteristics rather than job elements contribute competence modeling to become the basis of HRM functions such as recruitment and selection, compensation, performance appraisal, and training and development (Dubois & Rothwell, 2004; McLagan, 1980; Sanchez & Levine, 2009; Soderquist, Papalexandris, Ioannou, & Prastacos, 2010).

3. Comparing the Perspectives of Strategic Management and HRD on Core Competence

As reflected in the above literature, the differences of SM and HRD perspectives on core competence are marshaled in Table 1. SM and HRD respectively define core competence as organization- and individual-level capabilities related to organizational competitive advantage and job performance. Further, the SM and HRD interpretations of the “core” term displays in aspects of benefits, approaches, and attributes (see Table 1).

Table 1. Core Competence from Strategic Management and HRD Perspective

Perspective	Strategic Management	HRD
Definition	Organizational capabilities that advantageously integrate, reconfigure, gain and release internal resources to match or even create market change and lead to organizational competitive advantage	A generic knowledge, motive, trait, self-image, social role, or skill of a person that is causally related to superior performance on a job
Benefit	Organizational performance	Job performance
Approach	Top-down	Bottom-up
Attribute	Firm-specific	Generic
Level	Organizational	Individual

3.1 Benefits: Organizational competitive advantage versus job performance

Referring to the above definitions of core competence, SM and HRD respectively pursue different benefits of core competence: “organizational competitive advantage” and “job performance.” As mentioned above, core competence in terms of SM means organizational capability advantageously deploying its resources. The causal ambiguity of the action and result for deploying resources creates barriers for competitors to imitate, and thus builds the unique position and organizational competitive advantage of a firm in the market (Reed & Defillippi, 1990). Core competence in terms of HRD derives from traditional job analysis, and identifies personal behaviorally described characteristic related to superior job performance. In this way, employees can demonstrate competent behaviors while they learn core competence derived from superior performers (Chen & Chang, 2010).

3.2 Approaches: Top-down versus bottom-up

The approach to assess core competence has been contentious. SM and HRD conduct core competence through different approaches: a strategically oriented top-down approach, and an empirically oriented bottom-up approach (Capaldo, Iandoli, & Zollo, 2006; Schaper, 2004). The strategically oriented top-down approach from the SM perspective recounts the development of core competence from the planning of strategic workshops organized by the top and upper management downward to all members of the organization (Schaper, 2004). This approach explains core competence convey the organizational mission and strategic intent (including sense of direction, sense of discovery, and sense of destiny to all members)(Hamel & Prahalad, 1989), direct organizational members as to what needs to be done in the future (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2006), and explicate how to fulfill strategic goals and deploy organizational resources (Clardy, 2008; Lado & Wilson, 1994; Schaper, 2004).

In terms of HRD, core competence derives from an empirically oriented bottom-up approach following the philosophy of Spencer and Spencer (1993). This bottom-up approach surveys the characteristics of superior job performers and elicits a set of generic profiles of competence models. The bottom-up approach focuses on the actual state of relevant job competence (Schaper, 2004) and attempts to standardize the scales and profiles of competence models to apply across various contexts and work situations (Capaldo, et al., 2006). However, due to the high survey costs, HRD practitioners

apply the bottom-up approach in a deductive sense (Capaldo, et al., 2006). That is, the competence models of firms are mainly adapted from competence codebooks (e.g., Spencer and Spencer's competence modeling).

3.3 Attributes: Firm-specific versus generic

According to the aspects of definitions, benefits, and approaches, SM and HRD describe “core” competence essentially mean “firm-specific” and “generic.” Because core competence in terms of SM is deeply embedded in organizational culture (Barney, 1986) and socially complex interactions (Barney, 1991), core competence demonstrates distinctive, value-creating, firm-specific, and inimitable characteristics in the competitive market (Capaldo, et al., 2006). The four noted criteria, VRIS, *valuable*, *rare*, difficult to *imitate*, and difficult to *substitute* screen the capabilities qua core competence (Ambrosini & Bowman, 2009; Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000; Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). While meeting the VRIS criteria, core competence can create competitive advantage for firms.

Labeling competence as “core” in terms of HRD lies in competence modeling garnered from the generic characteristics of superior workers who proficiently perform job tasks (Clardy, 2008). Competence profiles represent a standard professional figure common to a set of performers in a job class, which can appear across organizations in terms of person-job match. Competence profiles are independent from the organizational context (Capaldo, et al., 2006). Therefore, “core” in terms of HRD implies “generic” or “universal” behavioral characteristics.

4. A Conceptual Framework of the Relationships among Human Competence, Core Competence, and Competitive Advantage

Although SM and HRD treat “core” competence differently, their insights explained “core competence” at the organizational level as organizational capability and “human competence” at the individual level as people capability (Bergenhengouwen, Horn, & Mooijman, 1996; Cardy & Selvarajan, 2006; Garavan & McGuire, 2001; Lahti, 1999). Applying the SM and HRD perspective, “core” competence implies “firm-specific” capabilities creating organizational competitive advantage (Lopez-Cabrales, et al., 2006), wherein human competence of intellectual capital is presumed as the most critical element complementing core competence (Chen & Chang, 2010). The Figure 1 shows not only the relationship of core competence and human competence but also how these concepts interact within the organizational context and affect organizational competitive advantage.

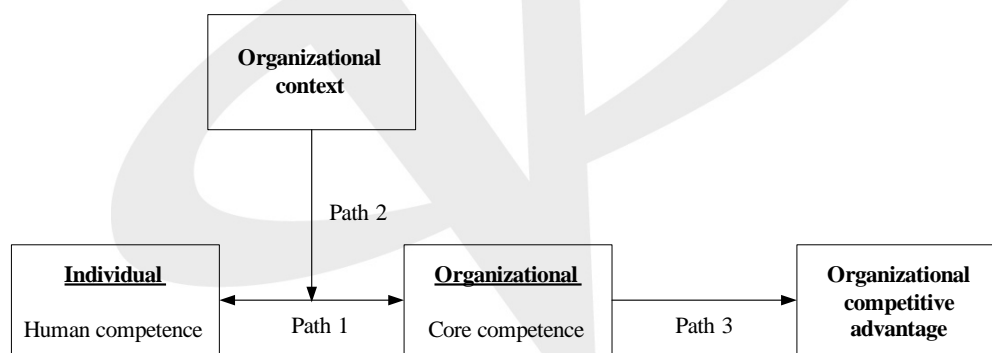


Figure 1. A conceptual framework of the relationships among human competence, core competence, and competitive advantage

Although past studies have addressed the relationship between core competence and human competence; however few researchers pointed out the form of this linkage (Chen & Chang, 2010). This article proposes that core competence reciprocally interacts with human competence, shown as Path 1 in Figure 1. Core competence directs the development of human competence, and requires personnel with certain characteristics to “make whole” it (Garavan & McGuire, 2001; Lahti, 1999). Core competence is detached in job requirements of human competence, referring to the discrete dimensions of the professional requirements of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2006; Tovey, 1994), to match candidates whose KSAs characteristics fit these job requirements. Thus, core competence is psychologically akin to human competence bearing similar KSAs characteristics (Chen & Chang, 2010). On behalf of this type of intellectual capital and intangible assets, human competence creates the inimitable characteristics of core competence which are the main source of competitive advantage (Clardy, 2008).

As Path 2 shows in the conceptual model, organizational contexts moderate core competence and human competence. The interaction between human competence and core competence manifests in a person-to-organization adjustment (Chen & Chang, 2010), generated within the organizational contexts manifesting organizational culture, vision, mission, strategy, and values (Bergenhengouwen, et al., 1996; Håland & Tjora, 2006; Lahti, 1999). These organizational contexts facilitate human competence and organizational core competence to reach the same base (Lahti, 1999), such as shared values, mutual trust, and mutual investment (Chen & Chang, 2010), creating shared mindset in understanding and reaching the goals of an

organization (Ulrich & Lake, 1990).

Path 3 showing that core competence as the “proxy variable” of competitive advantage (Lopez-Cabrales, et al., 2006) has been heavily address by SM scholars (e.g., Leonard-Barton (1992) and Teece et al. (1997)). However, Lopez-Cabrales, and Valle and Herrero (2006) further presumed that core competence and human competence could collectively define organizational competitive advantage. This presumption explains human competence can be the source of competitive advantage if managers effectively develop organizational core competence that aligns with, builds, deploy, and renew employee competence in difficult ways for other organizations to imitate. Lopez-Cabrales et al. (2006) further proposed human competence in relation to core competence for reinforcing organizational culture, strategic vision, obtaining employee potential, innovation, quality orientation, and company-customer loyalty.

5. A Strategic Approach to Align Core Competence and Human Competence

The approach to assess core competence has been the heated issue. As mentioned above, the bottom-up approach and top-down approach deriving from the philosophy of HRD and SM are deemed the main identification techniques to assess core competence. However, Clardy (2008) argued the bottom-up approach is similar to the traditional KSAs identification analysis, job analysis of a specific job or task by assessing individual characteristics in relation to that job, regardless of organizational context and the specific needs of a firm. So, the “core” competence derived from bottom-up approach actually means “generic” competence, which limitedly contributes to organizational performance.

On the other hand, “firm-specific” competence deemed helpful for organizational competitive advantage derives from top-down approach. As mentioned above, this firm-specific competence generates from the tight alignment of core competence and human competence. According to the conceptual framework (as Figure 1 demonstrated), in order to create competitive advantage, organizational core competence plays a predominate role to develop human competence and make human competence mesh into core competence. In this regard, the top-down approach stressing the alignment of core competence and human competence is presumed to be suitable to generate “firm-specific” competence for competitive advantage.

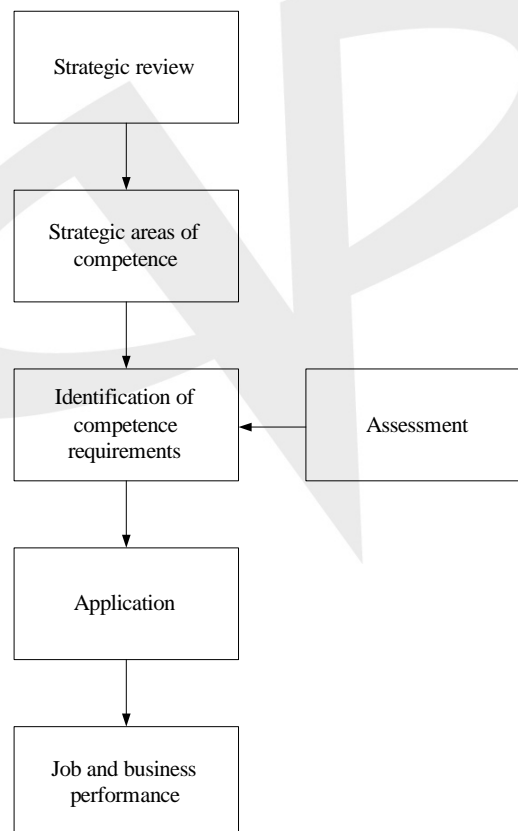


Figure 2. A strategic approach to competence assessment¹

The aforementioned theoretical alignment of core competence and human competence can be practically fulfilled by Tovey’s (1994) strategic approach to competence assessment, representing a top-down approach. The assessment procedure of Tovey’s (1994) demonstrate as Figure 2 starting from *the strategic review*, gaining a clear understanding of

¹ Source from Tovey (1994)

the business mission, strategy and environment. The strategic review is the basement to define the *strategic areas of competence* (synonymous to core competence in this article) which represent the competitive position of the firm in the market (e.g., the capabilities of the firm to integrate internal resources and articulate the strategic vision throughout the organization (Lado & Wilson, 1994)).

Then, the strategic areas of competence are detached as the *competence requirements*. The competence requirements, synonymous to human competence, refer to the discrete dimensions of professional behaviors, knowledge, skills and other requirements. The competence requirements derive not only from the source of job itself, but from business strategies and organizational culture, which align the competence requirements with the strategic areas of competence to the same base. Besides, the identification of competence requirements provides a reference point for assessing the extent to whether the competence requirements are possessed by employees. Further, according to the assessment result of human competence, a series of the *application* of human resource activities is initialized, including the selection of suitable employees, the assessment and development of the employee's potential, and succession planning. The performance of activities finally affects the *job and business performance*.

6. Discussions

Core competence has become the "buzz word" in the disciplines of SM and HRD. In light of the contentious definitions of the "core" term, this article arrays the nuance of the SM and HRD perspectives on "core" in aspects of benefits, approaches, and attributes. In terms of SM, core competence is a "firm-specific" capability to create competitive advantage for firms through the top-down approach. In terms of HRD, core competence is "generic" characteristics of superior job performers across firms investigated through a bottom-up approach.

In addition, this article contributes to the competence concept by redefining organizational "core competence" as organizational capability and "human competence" at the individual level as people capability. We propose a conceptual framework, illustrating the relationships among variables of core competence, human competence, organizational context, and competitive advantage. This framework highlights the role of core competence and human competence to access core competence in the following discussions.

In addition to being the "proxy variable" of competitive advantage (Lopez-Cabrales, et al., 2006), core competence, built based on the mission and strategies of the organization, plays a strategic role in directing the development of human competence in the organization. Human competence "makes whole" core competence, both collectively defining competitive advantages for firms. The more deeply human competence meshes into core competence, the greater the possibility to achieve competitive advantage.

Organizational contexts such as organizational culture, vision, strategy, and mission facilitate the connection between core competence and human competence. Organizational contexts provide a conceptual bridge between micro and macro levels of analysis and facilitate a person-to-organization adjustment (Chen & Chang, 2010). These interactive contexts not only align core competence and human competence and develop human competence as firm-specific, but also facilitate all organizational members to share mindsets in understanding and reaching organizational goals (Ulrich & Lake, 1990).

Based on the relationship between human competence and core competence, the conceptualization of human competence has changed from "job context" to "organizational context" and its attribute has changed from "generic" to "firm-specific." Because past competence assessment in adoption of traditional job analysis cannot react to a dynamic environment (Clardy, 2008), human competence should be conceptualized within the organizational context. As mentioned above, human competence conceptualizes within the organizational context and aligns with core competence to develop as firm-specific. Human competence developed in the organizational context demonstrates that employees share the same mindsets with the organization (Ulrich & Lake, 1990), create tacit knowledge to carry out job tasks, and thus build imitation barriers to competitors. This argument is based on person-organization fit, explaining that human competence is a characteristic not only of a person but also of a context (Delamare Le Diest & Winterton, 2005). Therefore, human competence varies according to organizational context, and is endowed with strategic status, vertically integrating organizational strategies with HRD and affecting organizational sustained competitive advantage (Cardy & Selvarajan, 2006; Dubois & Rothwell, 2004; Lawler, 1994; Shippmann et al., 2000).

Referring to the strategic linkage between core competence and human competence, we propose that the top-down approach is adequate to access core competence. Clardy (2008) argued that the bottom-up approach is similar to the traditional KSAs identification analysis, job analysis of a specific job or task by assessing individual characteristics in relation to that job, regardless of organizational context and the specific needs of a firm. Therefore, "core" competence derived from the bottom-up approach actually means "generic" competence, which contributes to limited organizational performance. According to the conceptual framework, core competence embedded in organizational contexts facilitates a shared mindset between organization and employees toward future goals. Human competence meshes into core competence, develops as firm-specific, and thus creates competitive advantage. In this regard, the presumption that core competence directs the development of human competence suggests a top-down approach. This top-down approach is exemplified by Tovey's (1994) strategic approach, starting from the strategic review, the strategic areas of competence (core competence), the identification of competence requirements (human competence), the application of human resource

activities, and finally the job and business performance.

7. Managerial Implications

The issue regarding what “core” exactly means for core competence has confused researchers and practitioners. By reviewing the evolution of the concept of core competence in literature, we explained the SM and HRD perspectives on “core” in aspects of benefit (competitive advantage vs. job performance), approach (top-down vs. bottom-up), and attribute (firm-specific vs. generic). This clarification help researchers and practitioners avoid problems such as analyzing core competence in adopting an SM perspective but conducting a bottom-up approach.

The insights of SM and HRD apply “core competence” in the organizational level as organizational capability and “human competence” in individual level as people capability. Further, human competence should align to core competence and collectively define competitive advantages for firms. Thus, the proposed conceptual framework might help HRD practitioners understand how human competence interacts with core competence and how this interaction leads to a firm’s competitive advantage. Besides, the alignment of core competence and human competence can be practically achieved by Tovey’s (1994) strategic approach to competence assessment. This approach demonstrates a top-down procedure, which starts from the strategic review, the strategic areas of competence (core competence), the identification of competence requirements (human competence), the application of human resource activities, and the job and business performance.

We also provide some theoretical and empirical implications. In addition to the interaction effect of human competence and core competence on organizational competitive advantage (e.g., Lopez-Cabrales, et al., 2006), the proposed conceptual framework might propose future researches to further investigate the moderate role of organizational contexts (e.g., organizational culture, vision, mission, strategy, and values) in the relationship between human competence and core competence. Because traditional job-based approach analyzing human competence of “generic” attribute has suffered from several conceptual and practical limitations (Capaldo, et al., 2006), this article argues that human competence should be firm-specific, conceptualized in an organizational context rather than in a job context. Therefore, future research could propose a *competence-based approach* manifesting the firm-specific attribute of human competence.

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Key Perspective of Mongolian HR Practitioners towards to E-Recruitment

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Abstract

Advances in technology have transformed the way recruitment can be handled, and the past decade has seen a marked trend towards Internet-based recruitment (Anderson, 2003; Ferguson & 2003 McManus). Currently, however, little is known about reaction to E-Recruitment procedures because research has only begun to explore this issue (Anderson, 2003; Brown, Cober, & Keeping, 2004). Bartram (2000) noted that, 'The topic of study is relatively new. This paper examines the perception of E-recruitment approach in 6 Mongolian organization through their HR practitioners. Qualitative research approach based on the interview was implemented to investigate 1) E-Recruitment approach scale in organization, 2) benefits of E-Recruitment to organization and to HR practitioners itself, 3) future plans towards E-Recruitment approach. Researcher based on the literature review assumes that E-Recruitment approach might have high potential usage in Mongolian organizations. Findings supported initial assumption of the researcher.

Key Words: E-Recruitment, Recruitment

1. Introduction

To be sustainable in today's highly competent and technologically innovative environment, organizations must utilize new approaches, which are introduced by advance technology and internet progress (Santoz & Kuzmits, 1997). One of the successful approaches of the E-business is E-Recruitment. By implementing E-Recruitment, organization can benefit in diverse ways. For example, they can save cost, reduce time for process, widen the labor pool market, and attract sufficient talent regardless of time and location constraints (Lai, 2001). For an isolated and land-locked country like Mongolia, implementing E-Recruitment might reduce enormous costs of recruiting expatriates from other countries and reduce difficulties of finding successful candidate within country. According to Atlantic Research Technologies L.L.C with the implementation of the Oyutolgoi and Tavantolgoi strategic mining projects, the demand for skill and knowledge of expatriates has been increasing rapidly, in recent years. Therefore, to fully utilize all diverse benefits of E-Recruitment in future, it is important to identify current the scale of the E-Recruitment implementation in Mongolia.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Recruitment and E-Recruitment

The ultimate goal of any organization is success. The key factor to achieve goals, in any type of organization, is a skilled and highly motivated staff. In a high technological and economic development era, competency between companies to pool talents from the labor market is becoming more and more crucial. A talented workforce can lead the company to higher achievement and success. Therefore, recruitment is one of the Human Resource Management activities that most critically impact the organization's success (Barber, 1998). Recruitment is described as a set of activities and process used to legally obtain a sufficient number of qualified people at the right place and time so that people and organizations can select each other in their own best short and long term interest (Schuller & Randalls, 1998). During this process, efforts are made to inform the applicants fully about the qualification required to perform the job and the career opportunities the organization can offer its employees. Whether or not a particular job vacancy will be filled by someone from within the organization or from outside will of course depend upon the availability of personnel, the organization's HR policies and the requirements of the job to be staffed. Most of time certain jobs require specialized training and experience cannot be filled from within the organizations and must be filled from the outside (Bohlander, Snell & Sherman, 2001). Some main sources of outside recruitment are advertisements, college recruiting, executive research firms, professional associations, want ads, direct application, private employment agencies, public employment agencies, union and perhaps the most trendy and quite common way that we will emphasize in this paper- internet or web site based recruitment. Recent years market shortage and recruitment difficulties have led to a more competitive recruitment market in the last decade. Lievens (2002) asserted that the 'war for talent' meant that the emphasis in the organizations moved from the selection to the attraction of employees. Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD) (2007) reported that 84 % of organization experienced recruitment difficulties, indicating the continuing tight labor market conditions and the need to choose appropriate ways to access labor markets.

Information technology is changing many traditional ways of making or doing things. One such way in which it is doing so is by means of the e-phenomena, which are e-communication, e-learning, e-business, e-commerce and so on (Boydell, 2002). The HR field, as well as many other fields, is also following the e-craze by turning to electronic ways of conducting business or simply by relying on the internet for much of what it does (Birchfield, 2002). One of the activities of HR, which rapidly shifted to "E," is recruitment, or E-Recruitment. The use of online recruitment has grown rapidly over the past ten years, and the Internet is now a widely adopted by both recruiters and job seekers across the world (Parry & Tyson, 2008). Arthur (2001) found that 96 % of US companies use online recruitment, with spending on electronic advertising expected to rise from 48USD million in 2001 to 460 USD million by 2006. More recently, Cober and Brown (2006) found that 50 % of new hires in the USA were from online sources. The internet plays a vital role in the attracting and recruitment process (Bartram, 2000). By extending Barber's definition, we define E-Recruiting as a hiring process that utilizes a variety of electronic means and technologies with the primary purpose of identifying, attracting, and selecting potential employees. In addition, E-Recruiting technologies are defined as web-based technologies that help recruiters and job applicants to complete their tasks more efficiently and effectively by automating recruiting processes and providing the information necessary for making appropriate decisions. These technologies include career web sites, applicant tracking system, job search agent, prescreening/self-assessment tools, and talent management system. The motivation for introducing computer-supported selection of applicants first lay in its ability to save time as well as to improve the quality of the selection process, which is intended to be achieved by a combination of computer-based selection procedures with conventional processes such as, for example, job interviews.(Laumer & Stetten, 2009). The increased use of the Internet by companies resulted in job-seekers recognizing the web's potential (Bartram, 2000; Konradt & Sarges, 2003). Studies of the use of the internet to support HRM have been conducted for areas such as online recruiting (Cappelli, 2001; Feldman & Klaas, 2002), personnel selection (Mohamed, 2001) and pre-employment testing (Mooney, 2002). Online recruiting is one of the worldwide trends for HR functions (Bussler & Davis, 2001; Kumar, 2003; Kuzmits & Santos, 2003; Lin & Stasinskaya, 2000).

2.2 Benefits and advantages of E-Recruitment and internet application

The Literature review emphasizes the advantages of E-Recruitment from the organization and applicant's perspective. This paper is more concerned about the organization's benefits and advantages of implementing E-Recruitment from the perspective of the HR practitioner. First of all, as mentioned before, the very first motivation to implement E-Recruitment is because it can save cost, according to the Employee Management Association, the cost per hire though internet is about 377 US versus 3295 US per hire using print media. E-Recruitment can result in financial savings of up to 90% of the costs of traditional recruitment methods and considerable time savings as the hiring cycle is reduced by almost 25% (Cappelli, 2001; Cober, Brown, Blumental, Doverspike, & Levy, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Lievens & Harris, 2003). For example, according to the Wayne Cooper, president of Kennedy Information LLC, Fitzwilliam, N. H. (widely known as leading information source for the corporate and third-party recruiting industry) "We pay 800 USD for an advertisement in the Sunday paper, whereas a Web slot cost 150 USD and runs for 30 to 60 days." It is very obvious that when we are implementing the E-Recruitment approach we don't spend money on advertisement, external agency, publication and printings, design and placement of advertisement, printing on wanted ad, radio or television advertisement. According to the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development CIPD (2006) survey respondents used E-Recruitment to reduce recruiting cost, 60% to broaden the selection pool and 47% to improve the time to hire.

Lee (2000) wrote:

According to the Aberdeen Group cost savings in hiring depends on the number of positions that a company needs to fill. Results of the study indicate that savings in one company that hires 10,000 new employees in a year averaged \$900 per hire and total savings reached \$9 Million. Recruiting cycle time also dropped by 50% to 63% in the companies studied. The study reported that job advertising costs for one company dropped from \$27,000 a year to less than \$2000. Another study also shows conservative savings due to reduced employee turnover, reduced staffing costs, and increased hiring-process efficiencies. The authors reported that these cumulative savings yielded a return on investment of 6.0 to 1 (i.e., a return of \$6.00 for every \$1.00 invested in the e-recruiting technology). They argued that the system coupled with the planned enhancements should increase greater hiring efficiency, employee quality, and cost savings.

A Second benefit of E-Recruitment is time saving. After completing careful forecast and need assessment, HR managers can upload, to their web page, available job vacancies, listing specific requirements, which will be visible to job seekers immediately after completion of upload. Uploaded advertisement will be available for job seekers for 24/7. Applicants can fill the CV or required information on webpage and immediately apply for possible vacancy regardless of time and distance. In the traditional way, managers will wait for publication day and after it will take several days for job seekers to post or send their application via post or fax. When organizations implement E-Recruitment, the procedure of announcing and screening is much easier and more flexible in terms of timing for the both sides' (organization and

applicants). E-Recruitment webs and software, which are programmed to screen appropriate candidate from thousands of applicants, reduce HR managers work load. Also, the database of the applications makes it possible to review application for future possible vacancies. Additionally, with E-Recruitment organizations don't need to spend time to find the proper agency and other external recruitment resource.

The third benefit of E-Recruitment is that it encourages passive job candidates. Despite location and time, people all around the world who are willing to change their position for better appraisal, incentive, or bonus might find the available open vacancy and try their luck by sending their CV or filling necessary information. For the recruiter, this approach increases the chance to recruit experienced and talented staff. The talent pool market will increase despite location and time difference of the countries. Web based recruitment is an appealing method for job seekers (Lievens & Harris, 2003). Applicants can do their own search about the organization that they are interested in, which will provide adequate expectations about future work condition. Job seekers, without leaving their homes, can apply for several vacancies, which increases the chance to be hired much faster than the traditional way. Also, e-interviewing and e-testing can be held before the face to face interaction, which will result in accurate expectations on both sides. E-Recruitment is best solution for large scale organizations, especially when multinational organizations, need workers with specific skills or background. Regardless of differences in time, vacancy announcements will be delivered and will be available in the national and international scope, which will increase the chance to have more sufficient applicants for available vacancy.

Table 1. Comparison of E-Recruitment and Traditional Recruitment

E-Recruitment vs. Traditional Recruitment	
E-Recruitment	Traditional Recruitment
Cost savings	High expenditure
Shorter recruiting cycle time	Time consuming
Reaches a wider range of applicants	Limited access to public
Better quality of response	Inconvenient ways to reach recruiter
Gives the company a more up-to-date image	Recruiter and job seekers have less specific expectations for each others
Opportunity to address specific labor market niches	
Attract the passive job-seeker	Cannot reach some possible candidates
More chance to attract qualified and skilled job seekers	

2.3 Mongolia

By introducing new approaches and technologies, HR practitioners must lead organization to success. Santos and Kuzmits (1997) wrote:

HR professionals cannot afford to miss out on the benefit of using internet. HR practitioners must utilize available new sources which support HRM activity especially if the new approach and technology are beneficial to organization and to HR practitioner work load.

Therefore for the Mongolian HR practitioners, E-Recruitment might open convenient ways to recruit expatriates from different countries and within the country. Because soon Mongolian capital Ulaanbaatar will be a real urban city, with internationalized dwellers from all around world. Most of them will be the expatriate who will work for mining, real estate, tourism, consulting, transportation, high class apparel, high technology, and machinery firms. According to the IMF, the country's GDP rate will double in 5 years and quadruple in a decade (International Monetary Fund, 2009). Oyu tolgoi and Tavan Tolgoi, two mines in the south, of Mongolia are expected to provide much of the new wealth. According to the World Growth Organization, Oyu Tolgoi will produce 500,000 tons of copper and 330,000 ounces of gold a year for the next 45 year, making it one of the largest mines in the world. Those two projects will require huge

investments, over the duration of the project companies' estimate to invest a total of 7.5 billion USD in real terms. Investment will be not just in the mining sector, besides that, other sectors like infrastructure-transportation, communication, construction etc, education, retail, other related business and sectors will boost with it.

In addition, Mongolian Foreign Investment Law allows foreign investors or organizations to invest individually or jointly with Mongolians and confirms the status of such investment and protecting them against confiscation by the state. Investment can be in an agreed currency or in the building, equipment, facilities, patents, technology, know-how or technical service. The law provides for different tax rate on profit, up to maximum of 40 percent and for three year tax holiday. It allows foreign investors to transfer their share of profits abroad, and exempts them from custom duties for the export or import of materials needed for the production process (East Asian Executive Report, 2010). Mongolian Scholars from the Mongolian Institute of Economy note that there are many sectors that will be preferred as targets for foreign investment including industries that would use Mongolian raw material, produce products to replace import goods and boost exports in agriculture and food, tourism and high technology. All reasons mentioned above will attract individual foreign investors to multinational companies to invest or open plants and subsidiaries in Mongolia.

Investment and development will require highly skilled expatriate professionals of all level in all sectors. Because Mongolia is one of the recently opened countries to the foreign market, Mongolians do not have enough experience of running large scale and international business in different fields. Also, during the transition period, many highly educated middle age Mongolians, who graduated in the Former Soviet Union, left to find better working conditions and higher salaries in developed countries like the US, Great Britain, Japan Australia Korea etc. Approximately 200,000 Mongolians are living and working in 60 different countries. (www.Open-Government.mn) official web site of Mongolian Government. According to the Atlantic Research Technologies L.L.C Senior Management Executive Search and Recruitment World Wide positions that will be in demand in Mongolia for Expatriates are: CEO's, COO's, CFO's, VP's, Presidents, Managing Directors, General Managers, Country Managers, Sales and Marketing Directors, National Sales Managers, Financial Controllers, M&A Specialists, Plant Managers, Manufacturing Directors, Supply Chain Directors, Sourcing Managers, and others. It is inevitable that Mongolia will need high skill and knowledge of expatriates and their participation in all level of industry and business. It is obvious that Mongolian HR practitioners must recruit large amount of expatriates from different country. According to the literature review, in such a case, E-Recruitment will be the most sufficient approach to handle the recruiting activity. E-Recruitment will reduce the amount expenditure of recruiting expatriate. Through online application, screening and additionally e-testing, e-interview organization will have higher chance to recruit suitable candidate.

3. Research Method

To describe the practice of E-Recruitment in-depth in Mongolian organizations, the study used qualitative approach. To interpret the E-Recruitment trend for Mongolian HR practitioners, in terms of advantages and benefits, the researcher used Qualitative approach based on the interview. Researcher chose this method because E-Recruitment is one of the new trends in HR and does not have prosperous use among all organizations it is somehow limited to execute large scale quantitative survey methods (Bogdan & Taylor, 1975). The second reason why the researchers choose a qualitative research approach is because access to the sample is complicated. The researcher did not have wide access to Mongolian HR practitioners through Skype. Six to ten units of analysis, which provides reliability in qualitative study, is very convenient for the researcher to implement research (Barksdale, 1992). To describe and analyze the motivation of HR Practitioners, implementing E-Recruitment ethnographic strategy based on interview were chosen, because ethnography methods is considered to understand the culture, phenomena from and insider and outsider perspective (Mertens, 2005). The population for this study comprises the private companies in Mongolia. The convenience and snowballing sampling implemented to gather data. Convenience sampling means that the people participating in the study were chosen because they were readily available (Henry, 1990; Patton 2002). Snowball sampling is used to help researcher find out who has the information that is important to the study (Mertens, 2005). Five semi-structured interviews were conducted with HR Practitioners from Mongolian organizations. The interviewees were senior HR or resourcing managers with responsibility for recruitment. Interviewees were asked to discuss their E-Recruitment approach implementation experience, the reasons for their initial adoption of the method and level of success that they had experienced with the method. They were also asked for their opinions on why their use of online recruitment has been successful or unsuccessful.

3.1 Data Analysis

Each interview was transcribed. All the interviews were conducted in Mongolian language, researcher translated into English and double checked. For confidentiality reason, the actual names of the participants were replaced by Interviewee#1, Interviewee#2. Different perceptions of the interviewees were categorized and re-categorized and grouped to main groups: by users of E-Recruitment and by level of implementation. The transcribed interview were

manually coded and analyzed by the qualitative inquiry by the researchers. The results are presented in a detailing of numbers of interviewees that has experience of implementing E-Recruitment in their organization.

The process of coding and analyzing the interview data, like the data collection itself, is something of a selective process in terms of a determination of what to add in and what to leave out. Coding provides an efficient method for data-labeling and retrieval, the process is eclectic and there is no right way (Tesch, 1990). Overall basic information about interviewees presented in following chart.

Table 1.2 Basic information about participants

Participants	Age	Company name	Work experience	Email Address
I1	38	IBTC Co., Ltd	15years	ibtcl@gmail.com
I2	25	Landbridge	3years	N/A
I3	28	Nomin Holding LLC	1years	training@nomin.net
I4	38	Tengri group	5years	serdaram@hanmail.net
I5	26	MSPA	3years	nergui_gl@yahoo.com

All the responses from the participants were compared and analyzed in the three main research questions: 1) E-recruitment approach scale in organization, 2) benefits of E-recruitment to organization and to HR practitioners itself, 3) future plans towards E-recruitment approach.

3.2 Difficulties

The process of finding the participants or Mongolian HR practitioners who are willing to share their experience of implementing E-Recruitment was complicated. Second obstacle is most of the experienced Mongolian HR practitioners did not accept interview though skype or yahoo messenger. Reason that they denied were: not appropriate to respond during the working hours when co-workers around, no access to skype and yahoo messenger at home. To not miss experienced HR practitioners' perspective research provided open ended interview questions on word file through email to be filled. But in data analysis and in the findings part those returned interview responds were not included. Because initial purpose of this research was to interview HR practitioners in-depth therefore return responds were excluded.

3.3 Limitations

This paper has number of limitations. The very first one is research doesn't have rich experience of doing research therefore research might made some simple mistakes on paper writing process. Second one is due to the high cost of calling from Taiwan to Mongolia researcher had short interview with respondent. Third limitation is sample size initially six to ten participants were planned to interview unfortunately researcher could not find six participants and conducted interview with five Mongolian HR practitioners. The most considerable limitation was shortage of the literature review related to Mongolia and especially to Mongolian HR field. Additionally E-Recruitment itself new issue comparing to other HR field issues. Most of literatures mention that there are still very less literature review on E-Recruitment issue. Finally the major limitation of the study is it did not include negative or disadvantage of the E-Recruitment. This study only emphasized positive and beneficial side of E-Recruitment.

4. Result and Analysis

The purpose of the data collected from the interview process was to gather and analyze the perception of the Mongolian HR towards E-Recruitment. The result presented in following three major categories: 1) E-Recruitment approach scale in organization, 2) benefits of E-recruitment to organization and to HR practitioners itself, 3) future plans towards E-recruitment approach.

4.1 E-Recruitment approach scale in organization

Researcher had the following of criteria for the participants; to be interviewee Mongolian HR practitioners

must implement E-Recruitment approach in some level. Therefore all the interviewee had an experience of implementing E-Recruitment approach in their organization. All five responded expressed during the interview that attraction phase of recruitment process made through internet. Five responded homogeneously answered that open, new vacancies are placed on the company website or public advertisement website, all expressed that Attraction phase made through internet save time and expenditure, very convenient for HR practitioners in terms of usage no any fee for publication, no limitation for wording, delivering to diverse public. CV and applications are received through internet. Respondent mentioned receiving CV, application also reduce time for the recruitment procedure and ease work load of the HR Practitioner and provide detailed information about applicants. For the organization benefit from E-Recruitment also same way saving cost, time saving, convince in procedure and higher chance to recruit sufficient staff. For example:

Two years ago our company started to use E-Recruitment in certain level. Most of time open vacancies are announced on Tengri group official website and also our IT team designed application uploading system in our website, so applicants can fill immediately if they decide to be a part of our company. Also sometimes in emergency situation or during high season I personally check advertisement website to recruit part time or temporary workers like (driver, translator, camp manager). www.biznetwork.mn, www.humanfortus.mn, www.mhr.mn web sites are very useful in that occasions. Of course I benefit from E-recruitment but implement E-Recruitment approach entirely to complete Recruitment process is impossible, I think we need to use in certain aspect where it can be beneficial to all the participants sides. E-recruitment speed hiring process and reduce some expenditure also I like receiving CV cause sometimes you can see by the designing of CV and writing style ability of the that person using PC and internet. I know some of my friends who post open vacancies though their social network page or yahoo messenger for example: Guys need good manager with fluent English! High salary! Comfortable working environment!!! Anyone? Interviewee#4

4.2 Benefits of E-recruitment to organization and to HR practitioners

All five responded answered that they are benefit from E-Recruitment as a HR practitioner. First they mentioned that they don't go to special place where Mongolians need to go if they want to give announcement and advertisement to newspaper. Convenience of E-Recruitment is the main motivator to implement E-recruitment. By placing and receiving CV, resume first save time of the HR practitioners. Respondents mentioned: recently job seekers check more advertisement website and announcement rather than news paper, because people more and more use internet in daily life and especially people who are looking for the work check website of the company that they are more interested so it means that HR practitioners will have a higher chance to recruit right candidate. In the end responded mentioned that CV, resumes are received by the internet are very clear and deliberate, easy and comprehensive to check and got through. For Example

Sometimes it is very difficult to ask candidates to come and fill the application in office because many people came same time and they disturb working environment, some of them filling wrong and asking to give new application form so I prepare online application and CV, resumes send by internet is most of time neat and comprehensive. Interview#2

You know that to place advertisement in our popular daily news paper you must go to newspaper kiosk and fill the form pay for each word and if it has some logo extra fee charged and wait for days for publication. Comparing to old way E-Recruitment is really convenient and save my time gives me higher chance to have a public attention. Also you can place as long as you want till you find the right person. Interviewee#3

4.3 Future plans towards E-recruitment approach

All five respondents answer Yes and of course to question if the will be opportunities to use E-Recruitment in future are you willing to utilize? Most of them expressed that convenience, saving time, expenditure and research engine are the main reasons that motivate HR practitioners to implement E-Recruitment approach. For example:

Our company will increase number of employee in coming two years we are really considering Human Resource issue in our company from now. We would like to hire and recruit young people with high potential, high skill. So we think first we will attract young people by introducing our company in our website: benefits of working in our organization and available vacancies so young people can see requirements if they like it they can fill required information. So I am sure that in coming new years we will implement E-Recruitment more than now. Interviewee#1

5. Findings

From research data analysis and result we can see that even though E-recruitment is a new trend all around the world Mongolian companies and HR practitioners enthusiastic about E-Recruitment approach. HR practitioners and their organization are willing to benefit from the E-Recruitment approach. All the respondents expressed positive attitude toward to E-Recruitment. HR Practitioners all expected to increase their use of both corporate and commercial websites during coming years. This suggests that they are seeing E-Recruitment as being a successful method in the future, thereby creating an upward trend in its overall use. To question do u know other organizations that implement E-Recruitment? All respondents answered YES. It means that there are many more organizations who are implementing E-Recruitment. Most of organizations recognize its benefit with regard to cost, ease of use and access to candidates, therefore supporting the previous research into this aspect (Capelli, 2001, CIPD, 2006). One of the interesting and unexpected findings is Mongolian HR practitioners use TV advertisement in attracting phase of recruitment and also they use to look for sufficient candidates. Responded mentioned that TV advertisement are very comfortable to use especially after working hours when they at home they can still look for candidates from TV advertisement. From the respond we can see that online application, receiving CV, Resume, and online announcement are the main recruitment phase of the recruitment which is implemented trough internet in current days in Mongolia.

6. Appendix



National Taiwan Normal University,

Institute of International Human Resource Development

Dear Sirs/Madam:

I am student from IHRD, now I am doing research; Mongolian HR Practitioners Perspective towards E-Recruitment. Here I would like to have your assistance to answer in following interview questions. By providing answer to my interview questions responds are contributing to my research process and assisting to identify scale of E-Rrecruitment approach in Mongolian organizations. Please try to answer to each question in detail and deliberate way. All the information that you provide will be highly confidential, no second hand use in future without respondents' permission. Thank you for your cooperation and time. Good Luck

<Demographic >

1. Organization name /Байгуулгын нэр
2. Position of the responded /Таны албан тушаал
3. Work experience / Ажлын туршлага
4. Age/ Нас
5. Email address /Емайл хаяг

Question1. Асуулт 1

1. Does your organization use internet in recruiting process? Since when?

Танай байгуулагаа ажилтан шалгаруулж авах үйл явцад интертет ашигладаг уу?

Хэзээнээс ашиглаж эхэлсэн бэ ?

2. Which phase of recruitment process internet is more widely involved in your organization? (Attraction, Recruiting, Selection)

Ажилтан шалгаруулах үйл явцын аль шатанд (зар түгээх, намтар CV хүлээж авах, сонгон шалгаруулах) аль үе шатанд интернет ашигладаг вэ?

3. Please describe in details how do you utilize E-recruitment approach in your organization?

Танай байгуулагаа интернет ашиглаж ажилтан шалгаруулах үйл явцыг хэрхэн хэрэгжүүлдэг вэ?

Question 2/ Асуулт 2

1. What is the future plan of your organization towards E-recruitment?

Ирээдүйд танай байгуулагаа ажилтан шалгаруулж авах үйл ажиллагаанд интернет ашиглах төлөвлөгөө байгаа юу ?

2. Do you know other Mongolian organizations that widely implementing E-recruitment approach?

Монголд интернет ашиглаж ажилтан шалгаруулж авдаг бусад байгуулагуудыг Та мэдэх үү?

Question 3/ Асуулт 3

1. What is your personal opinion about E-recruitment?

Интернет ашиглаж ажилтан шалгаруулж авах арга Танд ямар санагддаг вэ ?

2. Do you see any benefits of E-recruitment to organization itself?

Ажилтан шалгаруулж авах үйл ажиллагаанд интернет ашиглах нь танай байгуулагаад ямар нэгэн давуу тал бий болдог уу?

3. If there will be opportunity to use E-recruitment in future are you willing to utilize?

Интернет ашиглаж ажилтан шалгаруулах үйл явцад хэрэгжүүлэх нөхцөл бүрдвэл Та ашиглах уу?

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Creating Virtual Human Resource Management Learning Applications for Virtual Managers and Teams

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Abstract

Virtual Management consists of the daily management of both the virtual team and workflow. As virtual teams are created, there is no guarantee that all members will be productive, trustworthy, and/or technologically savvy. However, a good Human Resources Department should take the time to explore various learning approaches to help ensure proper virtual training to help new virtual team members to experience the virtual learning environment through the offer of online learning, as well as virtual exchanges. As a result, this type of approach involves the strategic, as well as the managerial, skills of the Human Resources department, as well as the input of the Hiring Manager. While not everyone will be a “perfect fit” for a virtual team, proper testing and training will help organizations to determine the eligibility and potential success of virtual candidates. Thus, this paper will look at how one instructor creates online learning applications to enable Human Resources Managers to take advantage of online learning opportunities to help create online learning opportunities for virtual team members. As a result, these online learning opportunities have been taken a step further to help show virtual team members how they can use technology to communicate, interact, and manage projects in a virtual environment with team members throughout the world. Finally, this paper will show how Human Resource Managers can use online learning to help best prepare future expatriate employees to learn more about the culture, customs, business practices, and other pertinent information prior to their departure to their overseas work location.

Keywords: Human resource management, online learning, virtual HR, virtual management, virtual learning

1. Introduction

Global economies change, many entities are starting to go global even more today than ever before. While many organizations rush to open overseas locations, they are still faced with the realities of dealing with overseas locations in terms of different time zones, cultures, business practices, and customs. Thus, many businesses are relying more on virtual technology, and there appears to be a growing need for more training education. As a result, many companies are looking towards virtual learning to help bridge the gap between traditional training in order to meet different work hours, business commitments, as well as other external factors which may hinder the traditional approach to training. In particular, as more companies rely on the training and transfer of expatriates to overseas locations, there is a growing need for better training applications to help in the creation and implementation of such training opportunities. Neal and Miller (2006) defined distance education as “education that takes place independent of location, in contrast to education delivered solely in the classroom, and that may be independent of time as well (para. 4). The American Society of Training and Development (ASTD), an education/training & development professional organization, noted that “distance education can be characterized as an educational situation in which the instructor and students are separated by time, location, or both. Education or training courses can be delivered to remote locations via synchronous or asynchronous means of instruction (Neal and Miller, 2006).

We can see that virtual learning (also referred to as e-learning) has been increasing in volume and publicity, both domestically and globally. Conceptually, virtual learning has become a part of the learning culture in many countries. In particular, virtual (online) learning has developed into a vital part of both the educational and business fields. Virtual learning in the United States, as well as in other countries, has grown quite rapidly. As of the end of 2006, 38 states in the United States have established state-led online learning programs, policies regulating online learning, or both. Also, 25 states have state-led online learning programs, and 18 states are home to a total of 147 virtual charter schools serving over 65,000 students (<http://www.nacol.org>). While online learning, or E-Learning, is not for all students, it has afforded many companies a chance to creating learning opportunities for employees, both domestically and globally. Many organizations have sought after key training companies and trainers to meet their growing needs, but yet some companies have looked towards the assistance of institutions of higher learning as another resource.

Consequently, many universities have been creating and implementing different practices and procedures in order to prepare all students to compete for quality and meaningful employment. Since technology has provided a powerful infrastructure, the emerging technologies have allowed educational institutions, educators, and students to achieve education on a much higher playing field – in a virtual learning environment. Thus, more students with disabilities are

enrolling in online (virtual) courses. We can see that one reason for this increase is due to online learning environment allowing for more barrier-free opportunities for all students to take advantage of this new learning environment, rather than being forced to meet at given times and dates in a physical classroom. Therefore, many companies have been directing their Human Resources and Training Departments to seek various learning opportunities to meet the needs of their employees in all locations.

Since many organizations and companies have embraced the idea of online learning, there still is some hesitation on the behalf of some Human Resources Managers in terms of determining the level of trust gained by virtual managers in terms of the management of virtual teams and its virtual members. What is virtual trust and how does it differ in the virtual environment? Let us examine different types of trust. Uslander (2001), noted that “Trust has a *moral dimension*—of ethically justifiable behavior as expectations. General trusters tend to have a higher ethical sensibility” (p. 579). Another type of trust is called swift trust. “*Swift trust*” tends to be unstable, fragile. This is when people (like adult learners) need to establish quick trust patterns with instructors, as in the online environment. In the virtual business environment, virtual team members need to establish trust with their virtual manager, as well as their virtual team members. This trust may not be easily gained, and there could be a growing need for team building exercises and interpersonal communications skills if the team members are not able to establish a reasonable amount of virtual trust and communications flow. As a result, this paper will focus on the creation of potential learning applications to help assist the virtual manager and his or her virtual team.

What is virtual management and its impact in today’s organizations? Virtual Management consists of the daily management of both the virtual team and workflow. As virtual teams are created, there is no guarantee that all members will be productive, trustworthy, and/or technologically savvy. However, a good Human Resources Department should take the time to explore various learning approaches to help ensure proper virtual training to help new virtual team members to experience the virtual learning environment through the offer of online learning, as well as virtual exchanges. As a result, this type of approach involves the strategic, as well as the managerial, skills of the Human Resources department, as well as the input of the Hiring Manager. While not everyone will be a “perfect fit” for a virtual team, proper testing and training will help organizations to determine the eligibility and potential success of virtual candidates. Thus, this paper will look at how one instructor creates online learning applications to enable Human Resources Managers to take advantage of online learning opportunities to help create online learning opportunities for virtual team members. As a result, these online learning opportunities have been taken a step further to help show virtual team members how they can use technology to communicate, interact, and manage projects in a virtual environment with team members throughout the world. Finally, this paper will show how Human Resource Managers can use online learning to help best prepare future expatriate employees to learn more about the culture, customs, business practices, and other pertinent information prior to their departure to their overseas work location.

2. Demographics of Online Learning

As more technology has become available in many parts of the globe, a new type of student population has emerged. The traditional student image of higher learning has been somewhat limited in many countries, but given the impact of the Internet, this traditional “student body” has changed to online communities. In the field of business and management, educators have recognized the demographical changes of the student population. In a virtual environment, the student is not the same traditional student seen in classrooms in previous years, but rather one that reflects a vast array of cultural differences and needs that require educators to help build “new learning paths” towards the creation of virtual learning communities.

The number of students taking at least one online course continues to expand at a rate far in excess of the growth of overall higher education enrollments. The most recent estimate, for fall 2007, places this number at 3.94 million online students, an increase of 12.9 percent over fall 2006. The number of online students has more than doubled in the five years since the first Sloan survey on online learning. The growth from 1.6 million students taking at least one online course in fall 2002 to the 3.94 million for fall 2007 represents a compound annual growth rate of 19.7 percent. The overall higher education student body has grown at an annual rate of around 1.6 percent during this same period (from 16.6 million in Fall 2002 to 18.0 million for Fall 2007 - Projections of Education Statistics to 2017, National Center for Education Statistics). As the following table illustrates, over one-fifth of all higher education students are now taking at least one online course (Allen & Seaman, 2008).

Today, we can see that many traditional teachers have experienced the impact of economic crises, on a global scale, many students have started to move away from traveling to and from the “physical” on-ground classroom and opting for online courses. Also, schools have seen an increase in their student populations, and they are faced with the growing dilemma of lack of physical classroom space. Thus, the need for additional online courses has risen as a result of these

ever-increasing student enrollments. Further, many traditional teachers have been considering or reconsidering the option of transitioning over to the online learning environment, as opposed to limiting their career possibilities solely to the on-ground teaching experiences. Finally, many current and potential instructors are seeking training in order to obtain proper online instruction to prepare them for online teaching.

Thus, as more people consider online learning to be a new academic endeavor, one must also consider the next step for college graduates – the world of work. In this regard, the corporate environment may differ from the academic setting; however, the need to learn and grow is equally important in the world of business and academia. While online learning has been focused more on the academic setting, many companies are learning that online learning has many benefits in the corporate/business environments. Thus, many companies and organizations are focusing on the “learning” element of their employees’ daily work lives, as well as helping to build their knowledge management with a concentration on helping the organization learn from previous and current experiences. Thompson (1995) stated that “organizational learning involves the acquisition of new information and the ability to analyze that information creatively, learn from it, and apply that learning in useful ways” (p. 236). As organizations realize that there is a need to “capture” and “utilize” this type of learning, they also realize the need for the organization, as a whole, to concentrate on building up this learning element to include everyone in their respective organization, as well as setting up informal and formal learning center or circles. While organizations and communities view the impact of online learning in the U.S., we also have to look at how type of learning is impacting the world and our global capital. Thus, educators need to reflect on the historical changes in distance learning in order to better understand how technology can enhance their virtual teaching – as well as helping them to adapt from their traditional “framework of teaching” into a more modern and culturally diversified way of teaching. Thus, let us look at the current growth in the virtual learning environment.

3. Current Growth in the Online Learning Environment

Sokolowska (2006) noted that “if we look at learning organizations we can see two types of trends . . . such organizations are understood in dynamic organizational categories that are oriented at their development, searches for new chances on the market and continually increases their effectiveness, efficiency and flexibility. The second group of learning organizations consists of such entities that choose growth through development of their employees.” (p. 158) Along with looked at these learning organizations, we need to also focus on the need to develop core competencies, as well as being innovative. InCaS (2010) stated that “Market-oriented innovation, transparent structures as well as a strategic development of core competencies are therefore essential preconditions for sustainable growth and future competitiveness. Intellectual Capital (IC) forms the basis for high quality products and services as well as for organizational innovations. So far, conventional management instruments and balance sheets do not cover the systematic management of IC.” (p. 4) In this context, we can examine how online learning is growing and changing, as well as the need to examine more closely why innovation will be a major factor in the growth of this industry and its intellectual capital. Finally, Sokolowska (2006) commented that if we look at learning organizations we can see two types of trends. She stated that “such organizations are understood in dynamic organizational categories that are oriented at their development, searches for new chances on the market and continually increases their effectiveness, efficiency and flexibility. The second group of learning organizations consists of such entities that choose growth through development of their employees.” (p. 158)

Further, Greer (2010) noted that “Online college education is expanding—rapidly. More than 4.6 million college students were taking at least one online course at the start of the 2008-2009 school year. That's more than 1 in 4 college students, and it's a 17 percent increase from 2007.” (para. 1) In 2006, 38 states in the United States have established state-led online learning programs, policies regulating online learning, or both. Also, 25 states have state-led online learning programs, and 18 states are home to a total of 147 virtual charter schools serving over 65,000 students (<http://www.nacol.org>). In 2001, 56% of traditional learning institutions offered distance learning programs. An additional 12% of schools stated they planned on adding distance learning programs to their curriculum within the next three years (National Center for Education Statistics, 2003). Thus, more secondary- and post-secondary level teachers will need to seek additional education in order to obtain and master quality online teaching skills and strategies. As a result, more universities are offering online education courses and teacher training in order to help recruit and hire more online instructors. Thus, there is a growing need to increase the number of online instructors to teach at educational institutions. In the next section of this paper, the focus will be at examining how technology has been growing and how it has affected instructors and their need to update their skills.

4. Technology, Faculty, and Staff

Some instructors have not embraced online learning, and perhaps it may be due to their lack of technology or understanding of online education. CDW Government, LLC prepared the 21st Century Campus Report which showed how college faculty have been lagging far behind IT staff in their rating of online technology. According to the report, surveyed

1,000 students, faculty members, and IT professionals, they found the following.

- 68 percent of IT staff view virtual learning as an important element in higher education, while only 35 percent of the faculty feels the same.
- 72 percent of IT pros say online collaboration software is essential; 31 percent of faculty agreed.
- 61 percent of the schools surveyed offered online virtual learning.
- Students list lack of professor technology knowledge as their number one concern (named by 24 percent). Faculty and IT staff list this as their number two concern, behind budget cuts.
- Students increasingly value and expect 21st Century technology in higher education, with 93 percent of high-schoolers saying technology is important in their college choice (63 percent of current college students agreed). (Geteducated.com, 2010, para. 3-7)

Since more technology has become available in many parts of the globe, a new type of student population has emerged. The traditional student image of higher learning has been somewhat limited in many countries, but given the impact of the Internet, this traditional “student body” has changed to online communities. In the field of business and management, educators have recognized the demographical changes of the student population. In a virtual environment, the student is not the same traditional student seen in classrooms in previous years, but rather one that reflects a vast array of cultural differences and needs that require educators to help build “new learning paths” towards the creation of virtual learning communities.

5. Virtual Learning and Its Global Impact

If we look at the world of business, when “a brand expands its reach around the globe, it achieves favored perceptions that are greater than the sum of its national parts” (Holt, Quelch, and Taylor, 2004, p. 191). This branding, known as global branding, relies on the input of the various stakeholders and how their cultural differences can enhance the quality and acceptance of such a brand. In the field of education, one needs to understand how these new virtual learning communities have created a new type of global branding of education in terms of linking various stakeholders throughout the world into a stronger and more diversified learning environment. Contextually, one can see a new, global branding of course management systems, which affects and supplements the needs of growing, virtual learning communities. Thus, this leads us to the next part of this paper’s focus, the European and American approaches towards Intellectual Capital.

6. Technological Advancements in Learning

As a result of technological advancements in the online environment, online students must have a different type of skills sets in order to compete in today’s online learning environment and workplace. As a result, universities must create and implement different practices and procedures in order to prepare all students, especially students with disabilities, to compete for quality and meaningful employment. Thus, this paper helps to provide an open forum for the reader and others to determine if there is a need for change. If so, it also provides a chance for further research to be conducted to help examine how various schools of business, both traditional and online, can approach the career development segment of their course offerings and programs.

Consequently, as more technology has become available in many parts of the globe, a new type of student population has emerged. The traditional student image of higher learning has been somewhat limited in many countries, but given the impact of the Internet, this traditional “student body” has changed to online communities. According to Preece (2000), these online communities “consists of people who interact socially as they strive to satisfy their own needs or perform special roles; a shared purpose that provides a reason for the community; policies that guide people’s interactions; and computer systems to support and mediate social interaction and facilitate a sense of togetherness” (p. 10). In the field of business and management, educators have recognized the demographical changes of the student population.

While technology has provided a powerful infrastructure, the emerging technologies have allowed educational institutions, educators, and students to achieve education on a much higher playing field – in a virtual learning environment. As a result, more students with disabilities are enrolling in online courses. One reason for this increase in online enrollment is due to online learning environment allowing for more barrier-free opportunities for all students, especially for students with disabilities. Therefore, we need to consider the technological changes in the virtual learning environment.

7. Technological Changes in the Virtual Learning Environment

While many educational reforms have started to make changes in the classroom, so did technological advancements. Educators and administrators started to see instruction methods moving from a sheet of paper to the computer. The role and function of the technological evolution in terms of the introduction and placement of personal computers in the classroom made a major impact in the field of education. As more technological advancements started to appear, schools started to find that computers had a larger storage capacity; were cheaper to purchase; easier software was being developed to navigate; students were starting to learn computers at an earlier age; and adaptation of course materials to the computer environment was being made easier for instructors.

As a result of many technological advances, schools systems still had to face other problems due to poor planning and budgetary constraints. The number of computers also limited the number of users. In addition to budgetary problems, sometimes there was a limited use of software licenses due to the amount of budgetary investment. Further, the limited training given to some instructors did impact how many students would receive instructions. On the other hand, some computers were not fully accessible for students with disabilities. Finally, some instructors were not trained to teach students with certain types of disabilities wishing to learn and operate computers and various computer software packages. These problems represented only a few reasons why many school systems sought additional funding to increase e-Learning opportunities for all students.

Thus, we need to realize that E-learning is not for all students, and some students may still pursue face-to-face classes. However, for students with disabilities, the many facets or approaches that e-Learning offers more opportunities than ever before. For example, visual learners were able to benefit from applications in PowerPoint and Flash Multi-Media technology. Auditory learners could benefit from online classrooms with auditory lectures, Podcasts for students, as well as live chats. From a blended-approach perspective, some online programs offer both auditory lectures, as well as PowerPoint slide presentations. Also, live chats (both auditory and visual – i.e., Elluminate, Horizon Wimba, etc) offer more opportunities for a variety of learners. As a result of this changing technology, many classes are moving away from paper portfolios. Instead, they are introducing the use of electronic portfolios. The use of electronic portfolios, also known as e-portfolios, has allowed the instructor more technological applications in which to assess a student's development. Further, these e-portfolios have also provided better learning applications, and samples of a student's work to share with others (i.e., future job interviews). In the following sections, a discussion of what these portfolios are, as well as potential learning applications will be discussed.

8. Electronic Portfolios (E-Portfolios)

First, let us examine what are electronic portfolios and their function in today's learning environment. Electronic Portfolios (e-Portfolios) have been defined in many different ways in terms of how they are designed and developed, as well as implemented and evaluated. The University of Berkeley (2004) noted that "An e-Portfolio functions like a file cabinet with file drawers and file folders. Students store personal, educational, career, skill assessment, non-academic/work experience, certification, and rewards information in their portfolios. The information placed in an e-Portfolio is referred to as an artifact." (<http://bearlink.berkeley.edu/ePortfolio/page5.html>)

As a result, educational institutions are starting to employ very extensive and developed e-Portfolio software systems, others educational organizations may want to consider their own creation and implementation of an e-Portfolio system (evaluative project). Goldsby and Fazal (2001) noted that student-created portfolios are commonly "used in teacher preparation programs to demonstrate teaching skills and expertise. This practice was introduced as test scores alone lack the comprehensive scope needed for effective assessment and evaluation, portfolios can be implemented to interpret/make decisions regarding learning of teaching competences" (pp. 607-608). On another note, eportconsortium.org noted that the role and function of an E-Portfolio was:

"... [to] facilitate[e] and captur[e] the evolution of concepts and ideas through revisions of work and interactions with instructors, mentors, classmates and friends, electronic portfolios can be much more than a Web site that simply organizes and presents final projects. They can foster learning spaces where the author can gain insights and a better understanding of him/herself as a learner." (Electronic Portfolio White Paper, eportconsortium.org)

Further, we can ascertain that there are many different needs to be considered here in terms of determine how an e-Portfolio system/project can be used and eventually evaluated. In any event, it is ultimate role of the educational institution to determine if there is a need and how it can be met in terms of an e-Portfolio approach.

9. The Role and Function of E-Portfolios

We will now take a look at e-Portfolios and examine their role and purpose in terms of a learning application in today's

courses. In order to understand why e-Portfolios are used, one needs to look at its role and purpose in today's learning environment. Can educational institutions evaluate a student's skills and ability, as well as help them prepare for potential career development opportunities? Many universities are turning towards the creation and implementation of e-Portfolios. These e-Portfolios serve several purposes, but the final outcome is whether the e-Portfolio itself can be seen as a true measure of what the student has been able to achieve – as well as serve as an indicator of their potential skills and abilities. Thus, the key goal of the e-Portfolio is to help highlight the student's ability to create a collection, selection, and reflection of their online works that best demonstrates their skills and abilities. One needs to look at the evaluative purpose of e-Portfolios. In the next section, the author will look at the general approach to e-Portfolio applications to help provide a contextual framework for this particular evaluative process.

Therefore, e-portfolios can serve as a showcase of a collection of selected “created” academic achievements, they can also demonstrate a student's writing and researching skills. Educators today have seen the movement of transforming today's classrooms from a teacher-centered approach to one of a learner-centered approach – the instructor helps to facilitate and guide the student through the e-portfolio process; however, it is the student that ultimately selects their best work and begins his or her journal to develop his or her own e-portfolio. As a result, e-portfolios serve not only in the academic achievement process, but they are also used as interview portfolios for students to share with potential employers. The application of e-portfolios in the academic environment has been increasing over the decades. Finally, with the onset of the technological evolution, the use of computers in the academic setting has enabled many instructors, administrators, and staff members to create and implement a variety of educational applications. Rather than focusing on only one single final course project, the e-portfolio serves as a replacement for the final course project, as well as enhancement of the learning experience. Now that we understand the role and purpose of this type of learning assessment and application, let us examine how we can incorporate them into the learning experience.

10. Incorporating E-Portfolios into Training Courses and Programs

The following section is based on a graduate-level course that is focused on Human Resource Development. In particular, this course is focused on the training and development aspect of this field. As students start to learn the basic concepts of designing and developing a training program, they will begin their research on a potential training program idea for a particular organization. As the course covers various topics, each student has a series of tasks and assignments to research and create as part of their training program project. Their final training program is then incorporated into the student's personal consulting portfolio (or E-Portfolio). The E-Portfolio Training Program consists of the following components:

- Letter of Transmittal
- Needs Assessment Chapter
- Design and Development Chapter
- Implementation Chapter
- Evaluation Chapter
- Appendices

Throughout this course, the student will discuss the various elements of their training program with their classmates in weekly discussion boards, as well as formal chat sessions with their instructor. This interaction helps to strengthen the learning community, as well as encourages each student to share information about their training program interests and challenges. Overall, this helps the instructor to cover key points in the course content, as well as motivate and guide students as they prepare their individual training programs. Thus, the training program serves a two-fold purpose. First, the Electronic Consulting Portfolio (ECP) serves as a final evaluative assignment for the instructor to evaluate the student's ability to create such a portfolio and supplement it with course content material. Second, the ECP serves as a portfolio of the student's work in the course. While the role and function of higher education is to focus on academic endeavors, the business world has been and will continue to require the field of academia to do more. As a result, this approach to this particular HRD course is now reinforced with an application project that requires students to focus on their course content, research related material, and create a training program. Thus, when the student completes the course requirements, they will also be walking away with another part of their person electronic portfolio to show prospective employers (or perhaps open up their own potential consulting practice).

In another Human Resource Development course, entitled Organizational Consulting, the students create a potential consulting practice. As they prepare for this final assessment project, they are to create a consulting company in a field or area that they have experience or a strong interest in for such a consulting project. They are instructed to create and document their progress in the course project via the use of an e-Portfolio. Thus, the e-Portfolio for this Consulting Project consists of the following components:

- Brochure

- Web Page (in many cases this is the student's first attempt to design a web page)
- Business Plan
- SWOT Analysis (which helps the student to understand how a niche market is created).

Further, students turn in their work in intervals during the course so that they can discuss their progress and receive valuable feedback from their instructors. After all work has been preliminary reviewed by the instructor, the students will work on edits and additional changes to the overall e-Portfolio project to prepare it for the final submission. In both courses, the instructor helps the students to understand the importance of technology and project management work.

11. Conclusion

One can see that technology has increased the possibility of more adult learners to participate in taking online courses, in light of various family, business, and personal constraints, changes still need to be done to help student not only to learn new technology, but to apply it to their course work. One way of combining, or blending, technology and content knowledge is the use of certain online applications. As examined and discussed in this paper, the creation and implementation of a training program in a HRD course has been useful in evaluating student's content knowledge. Further, the incorporation of the student's training program into their academic/career electronic portfolio is yet another way educators are meeting academic, business, and career objectives. The use of e-portfolios can serve in a two-fold manner. First, it serves as a vehicle for assessment and demonstrates to the academic community the educational talents, skills, and abilities of the student. Second, it helps to add value to educational institutions in demonstrating the value of education, displaying the student's various works, as well as serving as an academic artifact (or record) for future assessment purposes. Thus, the use of e-portfolios is appearing increasingly in the online learning environment. Finally, as these changes appear in both the online and face-to-face learning environments, educators need to be proactive in making appropriate changes in the curriculum to help strengthen course offerings, as well as incorporating teaching strategies and technique that meet the needs of the course objectives, as well as motivating and encouraging the adult learners to want to learn even more.

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Factors that Motivate Academic Staff to Conduct Research in Chinese Project 211 Universities

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Abstract

The higher education institutions compete with each other for resources, and being known as a research institution is becoming increasingly important. To face the national and international challenge and competition, the Chinese Ministry of Education and leaders in Chinese universities are trying a number of different approaches to motivate academics staff with the aim being to improve their research performance. Through examining literature on the factors that motivate academic staff to conduct research, we establish a draft model of those factors.

The main purpose of this study is to probe the insights of motivation, especially in the 211 universities in China, to provide better understanding of the behavioral intention (motivation) of staff's devotion to research at different professional levels. Recommendations can be suggested to policy makers in Chinese universities in terms of developing a long term substantial motivation strategy.

Keywords: Academic Staff, Motivation, Research

1. Introduction

Universities and other academic institutions have constantly served as feeder institutions to the overall development of nations through scientific research (Uzoka, 2008). National governments and a number of organizations have invested huge amounts of money in the development of research in universities. Some countries rank higher education institutions according to their research performance (Williams & V.D 2008). According to Brewer's (1990) research finding, thirty – seven of the schools in his sample use research productivity as a factor of determining faculty raises in their colleges of business. On Ramsden's (1999) paper, he said research performance is possibly the most important factor for assessing the standing of the modern university. Therefore, higher education institutions compete with each other for resources, and being known as a research institution is becoming increasingly important.

The staffs of higher education institutions are the key research resource. Academic staff, in particular, account for a significant component of the budget of higher education institution and have played an important role in achieving the objectives of the institution (Rowley,1996). Well motivated academic staff can build a national and international reputation for themselves and the university. Such a profile may have a significant impact on the ability of the university to attract more students, research funds and consultancy contract.

Akinyokun & Uzoka (2007) concluded that there is a strong relationship between academic research output and the staff motivation. Staff Motivation relates to how behavior is instigated and inspired by the expected outcomes of that behavior defined as goals, aspects of success, performance or in other ways (Hendriks & Sousa2008). In modern education research, motivation has gradually attracted institution's attention. Therefore, it is important and valuable to understand what motivates academic staff to conduct research.

To face the national and international challenge and competition, the Chinese Ministry of Education and leaders in Chinese universities are trying a number of different approaches to motivate the academics with the aim to improve their work performance. Research productivity in particular has received a great amount of attention and concern (Chen 2001). Research effort and output form a very distinguishing part of the definitional character of the university; as a consequence, that leading a workforce where there is a lack of motivation is a problem (Dundar & Lewis 1998). It occurred to the managers and administrators that motivation is key factor although it is not the only factor (Lach & Schankerman, 2008). Thus, the management of motivation stands at the very heart of successful management of people with Chinese universities. (Chen, Gupta & Hoshwoer 2006)

Project 211 (*211 gōngchéng*) is a project of National Key Universities and Colleges in the 21st century. The figures of 21 and 1 within 211 are from the abbreviation of the 21st century and approximately 100 universities respectively. (People's

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daily, 2008)The main purpose of this study is to probe the insights of motivation, especially in the Project 211 universities in China, to provide better understanding of the behavioral intention (motivation) of staff's devotion to research at different professional levels, and the main factors influence staff research productivity. Recommendations can be suggested to policy makers in Chinese universities in terms of developing a long term effective motivation strategy. The finding would also have the potential contribution to improve competitive capacity of educational organizations.

2. Literature Review

The development of project 211 universities in China

In the planned economy era, the functions of Chinese universities were generally limited to education. Only a few leading research universities participated in Research &Development (R&D) such as Tsinghua University and Peking University (Huang, 1986). China's higher education system went through dramatic changes after 10-year Cultural Revolution. National governments and a number of organizations have invested huge amounts of money in the development of research in universities. With the development of China's economy, more and more universities started to carry out R&D, and the university system conducted around 10% of national R&D in the last decade. R&D expenditure in universities increased from 3.9 billion Yuan in 1994 to 20.1 billion Yuan in 2004 (Tien, 2008).

With the aim of facilitating university teaching and research development, the Chinese Ministry of Education established Project 211 from 1995. Inclusion in the project means that universities have to meet scientific, technical and HR standards and to offer set advanced degree programs. The project aims at cultivating high-level elite for national economic and social development strategies(People's daily, 2008).

The "Project 211," China's key construction project, officially started construction in 1995. It is also the State's only key construction project in the area of education during the "Ninth Five-Year Plan" and "Tenth Five-Year Plan" period. China now has more than 1,700 standard institutions of higher education, and about 6 percent of them are Project 211 institutions. Project 211 universities take on the responsibility of training four-fifths of doctoral students, two-thirds of graduate students, half of students from abroad and one-third of undergraduates. They offer 85% of the state's key subjects, hold 96 percent of the state's key laboratories, and utilize 70% of scientific research funding. (China Education Centre, 2009)

Zhao Lu(director of the Education, Science and Culture Department under the Ministry of Finance) at the news conference held by the Ministry of Education said that as the State's financial resources grew, the State continued to increase investment into the " Project 211." In the first phase of the project, China earmarked 2.2 billion yuan in special funds, as part of the repayment for this expenditure, the papers included in SCI, EI and ISTP of the universities within "Project 211" increased by 94% during the same period; and in the second phase, allocated 6 billion yuan. For the project's third phase (2007-2011) of construction, the Ministry will set aside 10 billion yuan. He also said that the funding for education shows a daily rising trend, whether it is seen from the growth in China's education funds or from China's investment into the "Project 211." (Li, 2004).

Motivation

There are many theories about motivation which have evolved over the last 80 years. Adler's earlier views described" an innate, paramount, dynamic, motivating force that drives or at least predisposed movement in a certain direction" (Wood, 1998). He conceived of motivation as a drive to overcome feelings of inferiority. Lockwood (2005) defined motivation as it represents the forces acting on or within a person that cause the person to behave in a specific, goal-directed manner. Because the motives of employees affect their productivity, one of management's jobs is to channel employee motivation effectively toward achieving organizational goals. Although job performance involves the factors more than motivation, motivation is an important factor in achieving high performance. (Chen, 2001) A key motivational principle states that performance is a function of a person's level of ability and motivation. This principle is often expressed by the following formula: $Performance=f(Ability \times Motivation)$ (Tien,2007). According to this principle, no task can be performed successfully unless the person has ability and motivation towards completing the job. The multiplicative formula suggests that ability and motivation are important.

How are people motivated?

Prior to the analysis of motivating academic staff in Chinese universities, the literature review will firstly focus on what affect people's motivation and how to motivate them. Universities policy makers who seek the answers will often look to motivation theory for assistance. Currently various human motivation theories have been delved into from the perspectives of social psychology and social behaviorism.

Maslow (1970) is well-known for his hierarchy of needs. When he examines human needs, he divides human needs into

five levels: Physiological, Safety/Security, Belonging/Social, Self-esteem/ego, Self-actualization. These needs are arranged in the form of a pyramid with the physiological need at the most basic level. Maslow's theory highlights the hierarchy of needs on the assumption that behavior is motivated by unsatisfied needs and lower level of needs must be satisfied before higher levels of need. However, a gap exists between the theoretical ladder of needs and the practical situation of needs especially in education. Research is quite different from other social activities. Actually, academic staff have basic human needs that should be satisfied. Unlike factory workers, universities academic staff's higher level of needs may be fulfilled even if they are under poor working conditions or lack the sufficient basic salary to live on because of a high level of intrinsic motivation through love of research for its own sake.

Under these circumstances, McGregor's Y theory (1960) which is drawn on Maslow's model can be applied to practice. According to the Y theory, academic staff are self-motivated and are committed to research because of rewards attached to achievement. Motivation happens when the high levels of self-esteem and self-actualization are fulfilled. Yet, it is not likely that all academic staff are self-motivated. Some are concerned only about physical conditions or financial reward. McGregor's X theory (1960) can explain explicitly why people only pursue lower levels of satisfaction. As a result, leaders or decision-makers cannot generate a basket of one-fits-all measures to motivate all the academic staff in an university.

Adam's equity theory (1965) is based on the belief that whether individuals in an organization are motivated depends on to what extent they feel satisfied with the way they are treated in comparison with that of the others. Perceived inequity is the source of motivation to act to restore equity of fairness in the exchange. Equity theory has been successfully applied to study consumer dissatisfaction, brand and retailer switching, consumer complaining behavior, negative word of mouth communication, and several other marketing and social exchange situation. (Chen, 2001)

Expectancy theory has been recognized as one of the most promising conceptualizations of individual motivation. Expectancy model are cognitive explanations of human behavior that cast people as active, thinking, predicting creatures in their environments. They continuously evaluate the outcomes of their behavior and subjectively assess the likelihood that each of their possible actions will lead to various outcomes. Based on Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) that the overall motivation of faculty members to conduct research is the summation of the products of the attractiveness of various individual outcomes associated with research and probability that research will produce those outcomes.

What affects people's motivation?

In the context of education, many factors impact on academic staff motivation: working conditions, reward and pay, chance of promotion, and so on. Within one organization, academic staff demonstrates diversity of personality. Some may show high performance by a decent pay; others may be eager to get recognized by management, colleague and society. The implementation of performance reviews have created a competitive atmosphere among staff. Yet it can also cause stress which decreases teacher motivation. Herzberg (1996) developed a two factor theory when he perceived work motivation from the angle of the causes of job satisfaction. On the one hand, motivators are intrinsic to the job itself. They are closely linked to job content such as desire for achievement, sense of responsibility, performance recognition, job potential, job significance, personal growth. On the other hand, hygiene factors are extrinsic to the job. They generally include working conditions, organizational policies, leadership and management, supervision, salary, social status, job security, interpersonal relations. These two distinct factors have different effects on people's motives at work. The absence of factors that lead to satisfaction does not necessarily lead to dissatisfaction, whereas the removal of factors that lead to dissatisfaction does not necessarily result in satisfaction.

Factors motivate academic staff to conduct research:

As the development of Chinese economy, motivation approached in education has experienced decades of changes. It keeps changing with the variation of personnel system. Prior to the 1980s, university staff held "iron rice bowls" (life time employment and welfare system). They were self-motivated or impelled forward by the ideal of communism. The motivating means had nothing to do with money and tangible reward. After the Culture Revolution, Chinese government shifted its emphasis from revolution to growth in the national economy. On its way to the "Socialism with Chinese Characteristics", fundamental reforms in the personnel system have been conducted since 1992. The introduction of labor contracts, performance related pay, various type of bonus, non-monetary reward and insurance reform resulted in profound changes in educational management. (Lee, 2000)

In Yining & Gupta (2006) research she concluded that personal motivational factor that drive academic research can be divided into two category: extrinsic factor (such as income increase, tenure, promotion), and intrinsic factor(such as personal satisfaction from solving research puzzles, contributing to the discipline, achieving peer recognition). Saleh and Grygier (1969) defined intrinsic factors as "those directly related to the actual performance of the job" and extrinsic factors as "those related to the environment in which the job is being performed. Deci (1971) says, however, intrinsic

factors are those “mediated by the person himself”, while extrinsic factors are “externally mediated by someone other than the employee himself. Sansone & Harackiewicz (2000). says that “All the intrinsic factors are internal feelings, while extrinsic factors are external situations.”

Extrinsic factors:

Financial rewards

Financial rewards are probably the oldest-and certainly the most fundamental –applied performance practice in organization settings. However, financial rewards do much more than pay employees for their contribution to organizational objectives. They are a symbol of success, a reinforcer and motivator, a reflection of one’s performance, and a source of reduced anxiety. (Hendriks and Sousa, 2008). Culture values seem to influence the meaning and value of money. People in countries with high power distance (such as China and Japan) tend to have a high respect for money and make it a priority, whereas people in countries with a strong egalitarian culture (such as Australia, New Zealand and Scandinavian countries) are discouraged from openly talking about money or displaying their personal wealth.(Furnham, Kirkcaldy& R,1994)

Applied to productivity, this means that: “Scientists who are rewarded are productive, and scientist who are not rewarded become less productivity.” (Lockwood, 2005) He also found that specific, difficult goals consistently led to higher performance than urging people to do their best. The usual strategies for financial motivation are performance-related pay and promotion. People’s motivation then can be controlled largely by offering or withholding financial rewards (Rowley1996). According to Brewer’s (1990) research, forty –two of the responding deans in his sample believe that the presence of a merit pay system can and /or does increase faculty research productivity. According to Luthans and Stajkovic’s (1999) survey that 90.7% reported that there is currently some type of merit pay system at their universities that at least in part determines faculty salaries. And 59.1% of the responding deans believe that the presence of a merit pay system can increase faculty research productivity.

Li (2004) stated the stipend of academic positions in China is notoriously low, especially considering the fact that the majority of Project 211 Chinese universities are located in national and provincial capitals where living cost is rather high. To attract and retain researchers, two open secrets of stimulating research activities is a certain level of discretion of allocating research fund and direct monetary rewards for research output.

Zhongshan University established a series of research rewards policy to motivate academic staff to conduct research in 2003. If the research paper is published on “Nature” or “Science” the authors will be awarded ¥50,000; if the research outcome has strong influence on the society or has significant contribution to the relative area the authors will be awarded ¥20,000; if the research project receives “National Social Science Grant” the university will allocate the same amount grant to that project. (Zhongshan University, 2003)

Shandong University has a few financial rewards approaches for motivating academic staff to conduct research. According to the university policy of research award, the authors will be awarded ¥10,000 for the publication on “Nature” or “Science”; the authors will be awarded ¥5,000 for the paper which are collected in SCI or SSCI, \$3000 for EI or ISTP; if the research outcome is awarded the first or second prize of “National Science Development Award” or “National Natural Science Award” the contributors will be awarded ¥150,000 to ¥300,000. (Shandong University Web,2006)

In China, each university has their own financial rewards to facilitate research activities. Financial rewards approaches are written in each university research policy means it is an efficient and popular way to encourage and motivate staff to conduct research and produce high quality research outcome, and also it has strong influence on academic staff research behavior.

Wodarski (2001) argued that although money can be used occasionally, it should not be the main incentive. Even though most people, in most circumstances, like money, it provides limited reinforcement for the cost. Money is soon spent and the memory of it soon fades. Whereas other tangible incentives are kept longer and act as a constant reminder of some accomplishment.

Promotion

In management, promotion is one of the reinforces of the rewards system to help motivate employees. Some scholars believe that promotion has a motivating effect on research productivity: for instance, Lockwood (2005) suggested that higher education institutions can influence academic staff research behavior through the manipulation of the reward structure for promotion. Lai (1990) also consider promotion an effective way of encouraging staff to conduct research. In Sansone & Harackiewicz’s (2000) study a faculty respondent commented about research publications: “Half to three

quarters of what I read, if I asked myself why this was written, the answer normally is 'promotion'."

Generally in China, promotion leads to higher salary, higher social status, better work conditions, more administrative power, more respect from colleagues and students, and etc. Academic rank is directly related to the income and benefits of university faculty in China. Most importantly, higher rank increases basic wages and the number of housing points to which one is entitled: housing points, in turn can help to acquire or improve one's housing condition. There are obviously other issues associated with academic rank, such as status, and political power (Lee, 2000). Some scholars believe that promotion has motivating effect on research productivity as research output is most important indicator in academic promotion assessment.

From the behavioral reinforcement theory's perspective, Cargle & Bublitz (1986) thought as a reward, promotion has the greatest motivating effect when it is contingent upon performance; as a reinforcement schedule, the introduction of, and the removal of promotion rewards influence publication rate and shape of the productivity curve. According to Tien & Blackburn's survey (1996), the expected publication rate remains low in the early period of the interval in rank because no promotion reward is conferred. Toward the end of the rank interval, the nearer the time of promotion, the higher is the publication rate. Tien & Blackburn(1996) also agreed that the promotion system can be regarded as a fixed reinforcement interval schedule because the desirable academic staff behavior will not be reinforced until the passage of a specified period of time.

Similarly, Rowley(1996) views that the motivation effect of promotion is dependent on an individual's need for promotion. If a person does not value a promotion, she or he will not work (publish) hard for it. Same as Tien' finding (2000), that it is expected that among academic members who need promotion, those who attach more importance to promotion will publish more than those who do not.

Tenure

Chen, Gupta & Hoshower, (2006) concluded that the tenured faculty members are motivated more by intrinsic motivation rewards, whereas untenured faculty are more motivated by extrinsic rewards. Tenure and promotion are potent motivators of staff research productivity, whereas pay raises are insufficiently linked to research productivity to be a good incentive. According to his study, a number of journal articles published in the 24 months were positively related to tenured status.

For academics generally, tenured employment provides satisfaction of the lower order needs; their prestigious and autonomous work enables them to a much larger extent than is possible for the general population, to fulfill higher order needs, esteem needs and needs for self-actualization. Recently, of course, the closing down of institutions and departments, attacks on tenure and longer probation periods make untenured academics have a fear of job loss. Therefore, the higher order need for job security will possibly motivate academic staff to put more effort on teaching and research.

Performance evaluation

Most universities have clear written documents of performance requirement set for academic staff. The annual workload of lecture and research publications varies from one university to another (Lee, 2000). The assessment of academic staff professional performance is conducted every academic year from both departmental and individual perspectives. The assessment outcomes are normally tied to financial rewards, promotion and other benefits such as training opportunity, travel opportunity, professional development opportunity and so on. When Performance Review Development was newly introduced in educational field, academic staff was greatly inspired. They are paid according to their professional titles in combination with their professional performance (Luthans & Stajkovic 1999),.

The requirement for certain number of publication has been written in Academic staff performance evaluation standards in most Chinese universities, if academic staff can't meet publication requirement, they will face some negative outcome such as supervisor's criticism, demotion or even dismissal. Therefore, staff need of satisfaction with professional performance review is highly increased (Oishi & Diener 2003).

Internal factors

Finkelstein (1984) concludes that the publication does not stop at the full professor level when a promotion reward is no longer present. Therefore the intrinsic rather than extrinsic motivation plays the preeminent role for publishing. According to Lee's study (2000), abstaining social respect and recognition are also important factors that motivate staff to conduct research especially for the higher academic rank staff.

Some researchers have insisted that academics publish not for external rewards but because they enjoy the process of inquiry (McKeachie & New, 1978). As they also mentioned that academic staff enter college and university because of the enjoyment they receive from scholarly pursuits, stimulation from colleagues and students, and the satisfaction of being appreciated and respected by others. Academic indeed find their work intrinsically satisfying, they value the

complexity of the work, their autonomy, the relationship with and responsibility for other persons. But according to Brewer's (1990) research finding, nonmonetary rewards and recognition were viewed as the least important factor in motivating faculty to engage in research and were cited as being used less frequently than some of the other methods.

3. Framework and Methodology

According to Wang (2006)'s finding that most universities in the People's Republic of China adopt a four-level academic rank system: full professor, associate professor, lecturer, and teaching assistant. Most PhD graduates will be appointed at the lecturer level initially and be promoted to associate professorship after two years of teaching. However, people holding a doctorate from Western universities and with some working experience overseas will normally be appointed at a higher level, sometimes at the full professor level directly.

Based on the prior literature review, the external factors and internal factors are quite relevant to academic staff motivation of doing research work. But few researches have done the analysis of the differences of those factors at different academic level in Chinese Project 211 Universities. The framework below was developed to examine the differences of those factors at each academic level.

In order to test those factors, we have conducted a few pilot interviews with some Chinese University academic staff in Canberra. The factors that motivate them at different academic level are various and also the tendency was found at each academic level. The research approaches to be taken in this research will involve a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Eventually, we will offer suggestions to the policy makers in Chinese Project 211 Universities. The finding would help the Higher Education Institute develop a long term effective motivation strategy.

Framework:

Extrinsic Factors:

Promotion,
Financial Rewards
Seeking tenure
Satisfying performance standards
Peer & Social recognition
Social respect.

Intrinsic Factors:

Sense of achievement
Satisfying interest & curiosity
Contributing to society
Sense of responsibility
Scholarly pursuit
Autonomy. & Flexibility

Motivate

Academic Staff:

Assistant Lecturer
Lecturer
Associate Professor
Professor

Conduct Research

4. Conclusion

This paper has examined some of the literature on motivation and performance, both generally and in Chinese universities. The goal of many of the Universities in China is to increase research output, to assist with the economic growth of China. To this extent, the Chinese government and the Universities are both placing on emphasis on research productivity.

Based on the literature and some initial interviews, a draft framework has been devised. Future research will be further test this framework to determine its effectiveness as a tool to assist not only Chinese Universities to recognize and provide staff needs to achieve productivity increases in research.

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Exploring Problem Employees: Types and Antecedents of Counterproductive Behaviors

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Abstract

The counterproductive behaviors of problem employees can impose enormous cost on organizational performance. Thus, it is critical to understand the nature and dynamics of problem employees in order to prevent the occurrence of such counterproductive incidents. The aims of this study are to explore, describe, and categorize problem employees, and then to model the antecedents facilitating counterproductive behaviors of problem employees. Both existing studies and field interviews are utilized to categorize the types of problem employee, denoting organizational member who intentionally or unintentionally, overtly or covertly decreases productivity and negatively affects the organization and customers. Field interviews reveal that informants accepted the frequent occurrence of problem employee behaviors and claimed to have witnessed problem employee incidents. A typology of problem employees is forwarded and a range of antecedents are proposed. This study concludes with a series of implications.

Keywords: problem employees, counterproductive behaviors, exploratory study, qualitative method, human resource

Introduction

Any organization likes to possess only ideal employees who are capable, productive, honest, highly self-motivated and with positive behaviors. They are enthusiastic about their works and proactive, never complain or make unreasonable demands, and always great teamwork within or across departments with no conflicts between members. Obviously, such ideal workplace rarely exists. An organization cannot be one hundred percent effective with only ideal employees, and usually has more or less some problem employees. Apparently, most organizations have some so-called deadwoods, naysayers, or backstabbers who can negatively influence others and frustrate the company goals. Thus, no matter how carefully the screening and hiring process are structured, a selected satisfactory employee may still later perform at a less than acceptable level. As one rotten apple eventually spoils the whole barrel, problem employees can afflict organizational members in the workplace and create a complicated workplace.

"Problem employee" means organizational member whose behaviors cause counterproductive problems. If an employee becomes emotional temporarily, has complaints or opinions occasionally to his/her department or organization, or has a short-term performance drop, he/she is not considered a problem employee. A true problem employee is one whose behaviors are frequently, continually, habitually or persistently counterproductive in a serious of unethical incidents or episodes.

Research indicates that "problematic" behaviors of problem employees exist prevalently in the workplace. Considerable studies mentioning such undesirable behaviors of problem employees negatively impact on organizational moral or performance; meanwhile premise on the assumption of "intentional" counterproductive behaviors (e.g., Griffin and O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Hoel, Faragher, and Cooper, 2004, Pearson, Andersson, and Porath, 2005; Robinson and Greenberg, 1998; Vardi and Weitz, 2004). However, the issues of "unintentional" and implicit counterproductive behaviors seem to be largely ignored.

In the context of this study, the emphasis is on a broad range of intentional and unintentional behaviors that conflict with espoused organizational norms and that in turn affect on organizational moral and performance. Frequency increase of problem employees in the workplace can lead to harmful consequences that are costly to organization in terms of lower morale and productivity, and even psychological and physical injury (Griffin and O'Leary-Kelly, 2004; Hoel, et al., 2004; Pearson, et al., 2005), and thus is worthy of continuing academic and practical concerns.

Counterproductive of Problem Employee

In the workplace, employees are expected to carry out their tasks/responsibilities productively and not to engage in counterproductive behaviors in any way which may harm the organization, other members, or even customers. "Counterproductive behaviors", viewed as one facet of job performance, is distinguished from "counterproductivity", with the latter viewed as a tangible outcome of counterproductive behaviors (Sackett, 2002). In this study, the counterproductivity of problem employees at the most general level refer to any behavior on the part of an organizational member viewed by the organization as illegal, immoral, or deviant in the sense of being contrary to its performance and legitimate interests. Studies show that problem employees in the workplace are prevalent (e.g., Boye and Jones 1997; Boye and Slora, 1993) and find their counterproductive behaviors ranging from a small to an unbelievable staggeringly extent (Gruys, 1999; Slora, 1989).

Problem employees appear in the workplace in many overt or covert forms, including rule breakers, troublemakers, conflict creators, underperformers, psychosomatic person as well. They can induce inefficiency, reduce productivity, increase turnover, and even lose customers. Such behaviors can classify into numerous types. The long history of research into the issues of counterproductivity (e.g., Boye and Jones, 1997; Detert, Treviño, Burris, and Andiappan, 2007; Marcus and Schuler, 2004) can explain the variety and breadth of terms and phrases used to describe problem employees, such as "noncompliance" (Puffer, 1987), "employee vice" (Moberg, 1997), "incivility" (Andersson and Pearson, 1999), "deviance" (Hollinger and Clark, 1982, 1983; Robinson and Bennett, 1995, 1997), "delinquency" (Hogan and Hogan, 1989), "bullying" (Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper, 2003; Rayner and Hoel, 1997), "retaliation" (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997), "aggression", "violence" (Baron and Neuman, 1996), and "workplace depression" (Kline and Sussman, 2000).

Namie (2003) conceptualized a ten-point continuum of counterproductive behaviors regarded to different forms of problem employees. According to Normie (2003), scores from 1 to 3 with lower intensity and intentionality of counterproductive behaviors such as continually interrupting, ignoring, and rudeness (Normie, 2003), similar to the notion of "noncompliance" (Puffer, 1987), "employee vice" (Moberg, 1997), and "incivility" (Andersson and Pearson, 1999). Reflecting scores 4 to 9, counterproductive behaviors cover mild to severe intensity and intentionality on interference of legitimate interests, including habitually and purposely name calling, bullying, verbal aggression, verbal harassment, verbal abuse, and physical violence (Normie, 2003), much the same as the views of "delinquency" (Hogan and Hogan, 1989), "bullying" (Einarsen, et al., 2003; Rayner and Hoel, 1997), "retaliation" (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997), and "aggression" (Baron and Neuman, 1996). The highest score is reserved for homicide which grinds work completely to a halt (Normie, 2003), near the idea of "workplace violence" (Baron and Neuman, 1996).

The preceding part shows various conceptualizations of problem employees. Apparently, the term "problem employee" refers to individuals at work whose behaviors to managers, coworkers or customers are so skewed persistently. Though such employees are often able to perform the basic job functions, but they with negativity, animosity or poor attitudes can result in frustration, a decrease in morale and a definite loss of productivity, which have a detrimental effect on organization and customers.

Furthermore, problem employees arising from incidental troublesome workers often stem from particular roots. For such incidences of problem employees, many organizations often go unnoticed or ascribe to mere accidents or misfortune. However, the roots cause of counterproductive behaviors of problem employee vary considerably. In this regard, extant knowledge related to intentional or unintentional, overt or covert problem employee behaviors are underdeveloped. Driven by the limitations of existing studies, the aim of this study is to disclose this inattention through the exploration and categorization of the nature and dynamics of problem employees whose behaviors impose a significant impact on organizational morale and performance.

Research Design and Methods

Given the insufficient understanding of the intentional-unintentional and overt-covert nature and dynamics of problem employees, and the need to clarify concepts and deconstruct research questions into definite and precise research propositions, a qualitative approach is deemed appropriate at this juncture to bring out an initial step and add significant insights to the understanding of the human dynamics in the workplace (Eisenhardt, 1989).

In this study, given exploration of macrocultures of specific industry, qualitative evidence is gathered from a single industry (Abrahamson and Fombrum, 1994). Thus, this study is an in-depth qualitative exploratory research of four separate international commercial banks located in Taiwan. Each profile of the four selected banks has at least 100 its branches in Taiwan and 20 representative offices or branches abroad. Meanwhile, the four selected banks are similar in terms of staff numbers, organizational structure/processes, industrial performance and the types of customers they competed for in their regions. This study was conducted over a period of approximately one year.

A purposive and snowball sampling technique is adopted to recruit the informants due to the sensitive nature of the topic of problem employees under investigation. The field research comprised 166 in-depth interviews with 56 executives and senior managers, 94 branch managers, and 16 human resource professionals/managers from different branches of selected banks to ensure that qualitative evidence was obtained from a wide range of perspectives from management within each bank. The selection of four sources reflects the need to gain comprehensive understandings and is consistent with the suggestions of Eisenhardt (1989).

All interviews followed a prescribed interview schedule and process to ensure all of the issues were discussed. Obviously, the mutual trusting and understanding between the interview partners is crucial for the quality of the qualitative exploratory study. After given confidentiality assurances, a general introduction to the study purpose, and the definition of problem employee, informants were asked the following main issues:

1. What organizational norms (including service norms) does your company advocate? How does your company communicate the norms to employees?
2. Is there any subordinate frequently, continually, habitually or persistently to break organizational norms (including service norms), cause counterproductive problems, and further negatively affects organizational moral, performance, legitimate interests and reputation? Why? In what ways? And how often?
3. Can you think of any critical incidents within the last six months in your bank in which your subordinates behave like "problem employees"? Why do you think they acted that way?

4. Under what circumstances did those critical incidents happen? Why couldn't your subordinates avoid deviating from norms?

While qualitative method was used to drill deep holes into the field to yield the evidence necessary for in-depth understandings, the above semi-structured questions were designed to initiate interaction on broad topics rather than to evoke targeted or signal desirable responses. That is to say that the above questions were used to initiate free flowing and open-ended narratives. Meanwhile, interviewer can also employ probing questions to encourage the informants to report further details and reflections. Surprisingly, informants' comments on the issues of problem employees permeated multiple areas of discussions. These discussions allowed the interviewer to ask more specific tailored questions, and also allowed informants to provide detailed narratives, examples, and other broader insights. The interviews were conducted individually and lasted between 50 and 90 minutes.

Given the nature of problem employees under discussion, informants were always concerned about confidentiality. Many informants worried the information they provided, if made public, could have detrimental consequences on individual or organization. Care was taken not to disclose identity or any sensitive information. After formal guarantees of all complete organizational or individual anonymity, all interviews were audio recorded and subsequently transcribed verbatim. An interview guide was created by the interviewer prior to initiate data collection (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

Data analysis follows a systematic process of transcript-based analysis which is a form of the iterative processes outlined by Turner (1981), and utilizes both inductive reasoning and comparative method. According to Yin's (1994) suggestions, the systematic processes of data analysis always try to improve the validity and reliability of the findings. As mentioned above, I employ selective coding processes to emerge the subcategories and the identification of linkages and relationships (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The findings of field interviews provide insights into the nature and dynamics of problem employees. In an attempt to avoid quotations due to word count limit, the article presents only illustrative outlines of informants' comments.

Research Propositions

Figure 1 presents a conceptual framework of problem employee behaviors, in which comprises the two dimensions and four types of problem employee. Following is a discussion of this framework and the propositions based on existing studies and field interviews.

Interpretation of Problem Employees

In this study, a problem employee, including management or non-management position, is defined as one whose behaviors are intentional or unintentional, overt or covert, significantly or potentially violates organizational norms and damages the interests of organization, other members, or customers. It is important to note that problem employee behaviors with malicious or unmalicious persistently intent are discerned or witnessed by management. Field interviews showed that such counterproductive behaviors of problem employee are prevalent at work and are accepted as part of the working lives of most organizational members. In other words, informants accepted the frequent occurrence of problem employee behaviors and claimed to have witnessed problem employee incidents.

Consistent with existing studies of counterproductivity of problem employee (e.g., Andersson and Pearson, 1999; Baron and Neuman, 1996; Hogan and Hogan, 1989; Hollinger and Clark, 1982, 1983; Moberg, 1997; Rayner and Hoel, 1997; Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997), the analysis of field interviews found that problem employees in an organization vary along two dimensions: intentionality and openness of problem employee behaviors. Behaviors with high intentionality are individuals that attempt to harm the target actively or intentionally and in turn decrease productivity, whereas behaviors with low intentionality only hurt the target or violate organizational norm ambiguously or unintentionally. Covert behaviors (low openness) are implicit, private, or are not targeting at any particular individuals or customers; whereas overt behaviors (high openness) are explicit or public to organizational members or customers.

The dimensions lead to the construction of a 2x2 matrix emphasizing the following types: unintentional-covert, unintentional-overt, intentional-covert, and intentional-overt problem employee (Figure 1). Before the forwarding of propositions concerning the antecedents of problem employee behaviors, the four-type problem employees require further discussion.

Unintentional-Covert Problem Employee

The first type of problem employees refers to the ones whose persistently problematic behaviors are unintentional, concealed, and not willfully aiming at any particular target in nature. When asked to describe the most recent problem employee incidents, 10% of informants identified their cases of problem employees were in this type, and the problematic behaviors discerned to be caused by their mental illness (e.g., major depression), physical illness (e.g. cancer, serious diseases, or disabilities), illness of employee family members, or issues of domestic troubles (e.g. marriage or financial problems). The unintentional and covert behaviors of this type problem employee can be discussed in three aspects.

First, such problem employees are associated with higher accident rates and result in lower productivity. Frequently concentration difficulty may be one prominent issue interfering employees' ability to perform their jobs well. For

instance, a depressed employee may be unable to think clearly, process information well, or contribute effectively in groups (Breuer, 1995; Turner, 1995). Since they have persistently difficulty focusing on jobs, they often fall into a series of mistakes unintentionally. Thus, they are perceived by their managers as less capable and require more supervision and help to complete assignments. Second, such problem employees are likely to be more pessimistic and less enthusiastic; they usually find themselves in a debilitating cycle. Such debilitation produces anxiety, depression, and hopelessness, which in turn exacerbate disorder and increase the likelihood of ongoing failures. Third, such covert problem employees are not targeting at any particular individual or group but rather are driven by intrinsic feelings of frustration. Problem employees of this type appear to be especially destructive to themselves. Such problem employees are unlikely to deliver productive performance at work. Many managers choose to accept such employees as an unfortunate but inescapable part of their companies.

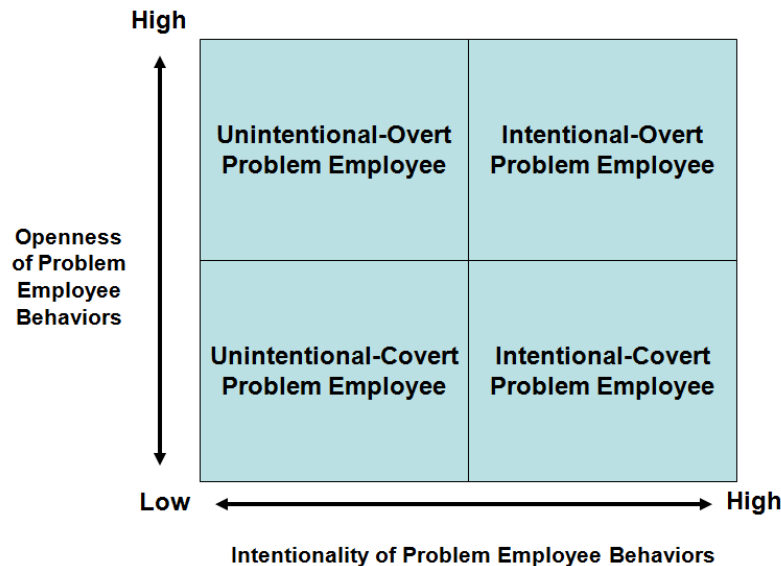


Figure 1: The Dimensions and Types of Problem Employee Behaviors

Unintentional-Overt Problem Employee

Moberg (1997) indicated that employee vice is a result of overt personal character flaws but unintentional behavior. Meanwhile, Puffer (1987) and Andersson and Pearson (1999) emphasized that noncompliance and incivility are low-intensity behaviors with ambiguous intention. Thus, the second type of problem employees focus on the overt natures of noncompliance (Puffer, 1987), employee vice (Moberg, 1997), and incivility (Andersson and Pearson, 1999), with low or ambiguous intention treated as unintentional in this study.

According to the field interviews, unintentional-overt problem employees are common and regarded by informants as frequent behaviors in the workplace. This type of behaviors is public but without serious intention to harm individuals or groups (Moberg, 1997). 39% of informants report this type of problem employee incidents. A numerous examples of problem employees can be classified into this type, such habitually behaviors at work including gossiping to cause trouble, trying to look busy while waste time on job, using demeaning language, sending flaming emails, complaining about company or coworkers, belittling supervisors' or coworkers' opinions, ignoring coworker requests, blaming others for his/her own mistakes, arguing with customers.

In fact, unintentional-overt problem employee has a visible target at organizational members or customers. First, unintentional "conflict creators", frequently demonstrates ignoring, interrupting, gossiping, or rudeness to organizational members, are usually considered self-serving problem employees in this type. Analysis of field interviews indicates that such problem employees are common and do only the bare minimum, going through the motions and unintentionally less putting heart and soul into their work. They spend long hours on activities they enjoy but performance next to nothing on the critical tasks. They never display a sense of urgency to help coworkers on their team. Second, overt "service sabotage" of problem employees frequently display a lack of civility, modesty and reasonableness when serve to customers (Harris and Ogbonna, 2002, 2006). This type of service sabotage is less common while informants describing such behaviors. Such publicly inhospitable actions, an appearance of personal character flaws, can gradually affect the quality of customer service in a manner opposite to what desired by customers.

Unintentional-overt problem employees are hard to avoid in organizations, the existence of such employees create organizational and individual role alienation. Meanwhile, their self-serving biases are antisocial demonstration perceived as delinquent behaviors by both management and customers (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1997).

Intentional-Covert Problem Employee

The third type of intentional-covert problem employees refer to employees' behaviors are rule breaking and clandestine deliberately, and have become ingrained into the harm of the organizational norms. 21% of informants identified various forms of such behaviors. That is, intentional-covert problem employee deliberately and covertly bends or breaks regulations, rules, and procedures, and further negatively affects organizational legitimate interests and reputation. Habitually behaviors of this type includes accepting kickbacks, money laundering, embezzlement, destroying or falsifying company records or documents, providing the organization with forged or misleading education and experience to obtain a position, stealing customer's possessions, etc.

In addition, this type of problem employees, like avengers, motivated by what Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) labeled, arouse the intentions of retort in return. Informants indicate that frequently incidents of intentional-covert problem employees are illegitimate and unreasonable reactions to unfairness demands from managers or organizations. In other words, such behaviors vary extremely but characteristically center on the covert erosion of management espoused provisions, echoing in existing studies (e.g., Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960; Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007).

Analysis of field interviews also indicates that support for studies of individual resistance to the process of organizational change as well as support for existing research into the irrational counterproductive behaviors (Reichers, Wanous, and Austin, 1997; Wanous, Reichers, and Austin, 2004). Such problem employees, like cynics, are unwilling to open new technology, new procedures or any new way of performing tasks. They always complain that the company's new policy is a waste of time and will fail. If an existing process or system is bogged down, they complain about it to their coworkers privately instead of suggesting new ways to improve and advance. When new ideas are presented, they invariably try to shoot them down covertly.

Intentional-Overt Problem Employee

The fourth type of problem employees refers to intentional or aggressive behaviors but different in that such behaviors are overtly displayed to organizational members most frequently. This type is more common than the covert form of aggression, with 30% of informants who identified this form of problem employees as the most recent incidents. The behaviors of intentional-overt problem employees are conducted when organizational members witness such frequently behavioral displays (e.g., yelling or shouting insultingly, threatening or bullying other coworkers, making unwanted sexual advances to customers or other members, fighting with coworkers, and routinely refusing to take orders from superior supervisors).

There are always problem employees who thrive on creating unnecessary conflicts in those field interview companies. Sometimes they create conflicts because of personality clash. Regardless of the reasons, they cause tremendous problems for all involved. Such employees create anxiety, anger, intimidation, blame and resentment, morale problems, and decreased productivity. Often these frequently behaviors of conflict creators or rule breakers are very subtle. They always intensify problems, challenge decisions, make accusations to managers, display "territorialism", and even try power plays. When they are in managerial positions, they often demonstrate micro-management or depreciating (even yelling at) subordinates.

Overall, the counterproductive behaviors of these four types problem employees will cauterize morale and ultimately productivity. Moreover, analysis of field interviews indicates that problem employee behaviors vary in the extent to which such counterproductive acts are intentionally or unintentionally, and covertly or overtly displayed.

Antecedents of Problem Employee Behaviors

The behaviors of problem employees must be habitually and persistently counterproductive, and negatively affect the organization or customers. The antecedents to problem employee behaviors are those factors that facilitate problem employees to behave that ways. Analysis of extant literature coupled with insights gained from field interviews indicates that the following antecedent factors appear especially worthy of attentions. These factors can be classified into two categories: individual differences and situational variables (Figure 2).

According to field interviews, many individual differences based on the propensity and nature of counterproductive behaviors emerge as critical factors to facilitate problem employees. These individual differences are related to various forms of problem employee behaviors. Five particular factors appear to exert profound and pervasive as the antecedents. These factors are neuroticism, impulsiveness, risk taking, integrity, and gender.

Neuroticism is a personality trait characterized by instability, anxiety, and aggression (Watson, Clark, and Harkness, 1994). Neuroticism reflects the extent to which an individual perceives and experiences the external surrounding threatening or distressing. Individuals who score highly on this trait are more likely to report intense and frequent negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, depression, and anger), and suffer from a wide variety of problems like experiencing higher levels of stress and feeling inadequate or inferior (Watson, et al, 1994). Field interviews informants emphasized that individuals with higher neuroticism are more likely to exhibit hostile behaviors in an overt fashion, reflecting in the behaviors of both unintentional-overt and intentional-overt problem employee (e.g., blaming others for his/her own mistakes, yelling or shouting insultingly, and threatening or bullying coworkers). The argument is consistent with Folger and Skarlicki's (1998) study that individuals with high neuroticism might be more likely to exhibit hostile behaviors, blame others for negative workplace outcomes, and manifest "sinister attribution errors" or "organizational paranoia"

(Kramer, 1995). In addition, such individuals are particularly sensitive and more likely to have poor health as a result. For instance, neuroticism is related to covert chronic illnesses (Goodwin and Friedman, 2006) and reflects in the behaviors of unintentional-covert problem employees (e.g., major depression).

Proposition 1: Individual's level of neuroticism will be positively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

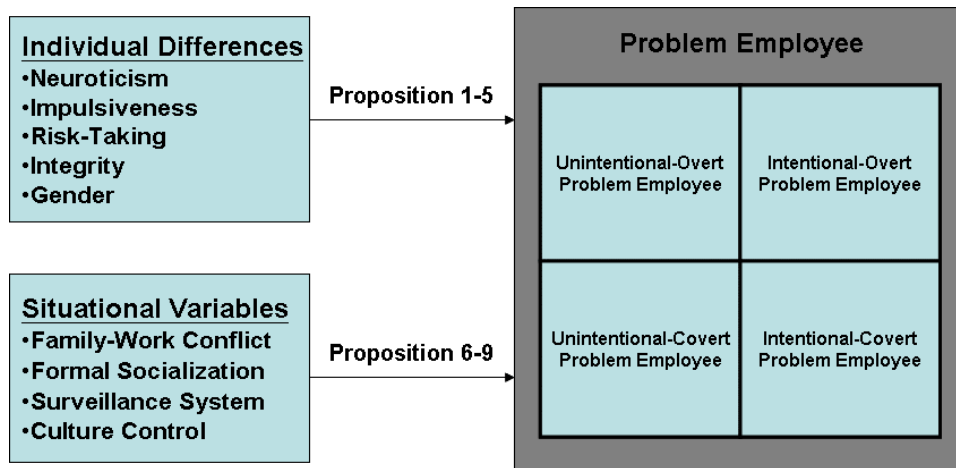


Figure 2: The Antecedents of Problem Employee Behaviors

Individual Different

Impulsiveness, a critical personality, predicts antisocial behaviors or poor social relationships (Barratt, 1994). Given the characteristic of impulsiveness in counterproductive behaviors, extent of impulsiveness clearly should be taken into account as a factor in the expression of aggression verbally or physically. Likewise, impulsiveness is associated with both the relatively minor form of aggression and the more serious and overt aggressive behaviors (Barratt, 1994). In field interviews, informants emphasized that impulsiveness is a key factor to understand not only severe forms of aggression like fighting behaviors with coworkers or threatening or bullying coworkers but also less serious aggressive behaviors such as making unwanted sexual advances to customers or coworkers, reflecting in the behaviors of intentional-overt problem employees.

Proposition 2: Individual's level of impulsiveness will be positively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

Risk-taking proclivity is defined as the tendency or preference of individual to take risks or be adventurous (Raju, 1980). Harris and Ogbonna (2002) disclosed that people with greater risk-taking tendency are more likely to be involved in deviant acts of sabotage. Meanwhile, field interviews informants consistently support the idea that individual with a higher risk-taking orientation is more likely to demonstrate counterproductive behaviors in a covert fashion, reflecting in the behaviors of unintentional-covert problem employees (e.g., falsify company records/documents, money laundering, accept kickbacks, embezzle company funds, provide the organization with forged or misleading education and experience to obtain a position, steal customer's possessions, etc). The findings are also consistent with existing literature which indicates that problem employees are risky in taking intentionally destructive actions, and the employees have to face ignominious dismissal and even criminal charges if discovered (Ackroyd and Thompson, 1999).

Proposition 3: Individual's level of risk taking will be positively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

Field interviews showed that integrity is another variable related to counterproductive behaviors of problem employees. Low integrity is associated with a wide variety of counterproductive behaviors covering stealing, violence, and disciplinary problems (Hogan and Hogan 1989; Ones, Viswesvaran, and Schmidt, 1993). Discussions of the construct of integrity have argued that it includes the notions of reliability, agreeableness, emotional stability, and conscientiousness (Ones, et al., 1993; Sackett and Wanek, 1996). Field interviews informants consistently stated that individuals with low integrity are more likely to break rules and exhibit the counterproductive behaviors in an covert fashion form, reflecting in the behaviors of intentional-covert problem employees (e.g., falsify company records or documents, money laundering, accept kickbacks, embezzle funds, provide the organization with forged or misleading education or experience to obtain a job, steal customer's possessions, etc).

Proposition 4: Individual's level of integrity will be negatively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

Analysis of field interviews supports the extant literature that males are much more likely to express overt aggression reflecting in the behaviors of intentional-overt problem employee (e.g., shout or yell insultingly, deliberately bend or break a rule, or physically abuse customers) than females (Eagly and Steffan, 1986). A possible explanation for the

relationship between gender and aggression is the well documented finding that males demonstrate hostile attribution biases more often than females and that those who manifest hostile attribution biases are more aggressive than those who don't (Douglas and Martinko, 2001; Neuman, 1998). The findings of field interviews also support the studies that males generally display higher self-serving biases reflecting in the behaviors of unintentional-overt problem employees (e.g., frequently blame others for own mistakes, belittling supervisors' or coworkers' opinions, arguing with customers, etc) than females (Dobbins, Pence, Orban, and Sgro 1983).

Proposition 5: Male is much more likely to express a counterproductive behavior of problem employee than woman.

Situational Variables

Analysis of field interviews also disclose that another four situational variables associated with nature and dynamics of counterproductive behaviors of problem employees are especially worthy of attention. These variables cover family-work conflict, formal socialization practices, surveillance system, and culture control.

According to the traditional view of role conflict, conflict is expected to occur when too many demands are placed on one's limited time and energy (Sieber, 1974). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested that role conflict arises from time pressures, exposure to stress, and behaviors requirement. The conflict may cause to one role make it difficult to comply with expectations from the other role, lead to tension, fatigue, and irritability which affects one's ability to perform in the other domain, or is incompatible with the behaviors needed in the other role. Scholars conceptualized role conflict as occurring bidirectional including work to family and family to work (Wayne, Musisca, and Fleeson, 2004). In this study, I like to only discuss family-work conflict, which is the negative interference from one's family role to his/her work role. Field interviews indicated that the counterproductive behaviors caused by mental or physical illness, family members' sickness, or other domestic troubles are incompatible with job requirements and further affect work performance. This factor reflects in the behaviors of unintentional-covert problem employees.

Proposition 6: Individual's level of family-work conflict will be positively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

The variable influencing the counterproductive behaviors of problem employees focus on the nature of socialization procedures. A social learning perspective can be proposed for understanding counterproductive behaviors of problem employees (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Glew, 1996). Social learning theory suggests that the one learns from experiencing certain outcomes as a result of behaviors in which they have engaged (Bandura, 1977). In other words, individuals learn from the behavior and outcomes of the behavior of others. If the one engaging in the counterproductive behaviors is not punished, other people reviewing the situation may learn that this can also be the case if they choose to engage in such behaviors (O'Leary-Kelly, et al., 1996). Socialization is the process of internalizing organizational norms (Gough, 1987). Since studies support a link between socialization and counterproductive behaviors of problem employees like disciplinary problems, theft, sexual advances, and embezzle funds (Douglas, Davidson, and Schwartz, 2001; Sarchione, Guttler, Muchinsky, and Nelson-Gray, 1998). Field interviews revealed that organizational formal socialization practices are negatively associated with the intention of intentional-covert problem employees (e.g., accepts kickbacks, embezzles funds, money laundering, etc). That is, if management conduct formal ethical-oriented trainings for staff continually may counter to occur or form problem employees. The findings are reflected in existing study (Douglas, et al., 2001) that highlights the dangers of an unethical judgment on informal socialization procedures.

Proposition 7: Organizational formal socialization practices are negatively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

In addition, field interviews disclose that surveillance system and the culture control mechanism associated with behaviors of problem employees. These two variables share the common themes of managerial controls (Bandura, 1969, 1977; Cravens, Lassk, Low, Marshall, and Moncrief, 2004; Hofstede, 1985; Lebas and Weigenstein, 1986) in that the extent and effectiveness of surveillance system are key determinants of personalized and output control (Hofstede, 1985), whereas effective culture control mechanisms are central to culture intervention and domination (Cravens, et al., 2004; Lebas, and Weigenstein, 1986).

The deterrence paradigm of surveillance system is one way in which counterproductivity can be reviewed. If employees considering to engage in the counterproductive behaviors will not receive severity by organization, then they will be more likely to engage in such behaviors (Hollinger and Clark, 1983). In other words, if management tends to publicize the existing of a surveillance system on organizational members, the members are less likely to engage in the counterproductive behaviors (e.g., embezzle company funds, money laundering, accept kickbacks, gossip to cause trouble, send flaming emails, provide organization with forged or misleading education/experience to obtain a job, falsify company records/documents, steal customer's possessions, etc), reflecting in the behaviors of both unintentional-overt and intentional-covert problem employees. Therefore, the effectiveness of surveillance system exerts a powerful influence on problem employees and is broadly consistent with extant studies of counterproductivity that supports that overt or covert counterproductive behaviors will be discouraged by surveillance (Crino, 1994; Harris and Ogbonna, 2006).

Proposition 8: The effectiveness of surveillance system is negatively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

Devoting substantial efforts at culture management is sufficient to impede the formation or development of problem employee behaviors. That is, internalization of control through culture control mechanisms will lead to affect in self-management of behavior without the need of extensive management controls (Cravens, et al., 2004). Field interviews uncover insights into a link between culture control mechanism and problem employee behaviors as well. Counterproductive behaviors can be related to culture control mechanisms which are practiced by the organization. This idea is consistent with the behavior modification approach of psychology. It is assumed that employees engage in some behaviors for which positive reinforcement is received (Bandura, 1969), that is, employees will discontinue counterproductive behaviors which are punished (Cravens, et al., 2004; Harris and Ogbonna, 2006; Hofstede, 1985).

Proposition 9: The effectiveness of culture control mechanism is negatively associated with counterproductive behaviors of problem employee.

Conclusions and Implications

The purpose of this study is to explore the counterproductive behaviors of problem employees. The propositions developed raise a series of implications for both theory and practice. In this study, 92% of informants have discerned or witnessed counterproductive behaviors of problem employees within six month prior to the interviews. The field interviews highlight problem employees are prevalent across a wide range of organization members in different functions and positions. Overt behaviors (69% of cases) are comparatively more common than covert behavior (31% of cases). In this regard, overt counterproductive behaviors are unexpectedly more than double as many as covert counterproductive behaviors. The frequency of occurrence and the diversity of counterproductive behaviors at work show that management control over employees' behaviors is ineffective. These findings also imply that organizational members who work with problem employees may suffer from low morale, a declining commitment to works, decreased job satisfaction and greater levels of stress and frustration. That's why it's critical for organization to understand the types of problem employees and antecedents that facilitate them.

From a traditional impression, problem employees are thought to exit in non-management positions mostly. In this study, field interviews suggest problem employees indeed cover a much wider range of organizational members. The findings indicate that in some cases management also involved in counterproductive behaviors. Problem employees, in non-management or management positions, can intensify problems, challenge superior's decisions, make accusations on organizational changes, and play politics and power game. When they are in management positions, they tend to micromanage projects or talk down to their subordinates. Earlier research has given attention to the issues of problem employees from management perspectives. This study further provides valuable insights into the importance of examining on problem employee from a wide range of management perspectives. However, this is not to claim that the views of non-management employees are not consequential. In future research, the interpretations of problem employee can add insights from non-management employees and customers to complete a more comprehensive understanding of the whole spectrum of problem employee.

This current study establishes a framework and identifies a range of antecedents of individual differences and situational variables which facilitate problem employees. The breadth of these antecedents suggests that a wide range of contingencies affects the nature and prevalence of problem employees. Therefore, problem employees elicit significant managerial issues that deserve attention. Though academicians and practitioners devote much energy and resources to management-espoused culture-change programs (Crino, 1994; Cravens, et al., 2004; Harris and Ogbonna, 2006), comparatively little attention has been devoted to what facilitates problem employee behaviors. In this regard, the findings of this study have implications in both hiring practices and development of a performance-oriented culture to minimize the occurrence of problem employees.

The main contribution of this exploratory study is the forwarding of a typology in terms of openness and intentionality of problem employee behaviors. The current study constitutes the first step to elucidate four types of problem employees, further research is undoubtedly needed. The findings of this study also raise a number of significant issues that are pertinent to understandings of the human dynamics in the workplace. Furthermore, the following two issues are especially worthy of consideration. First, there is a need to apply conceptualization of problem employee to different industries and different types of organizations (e.g., manufacturing sectors). Second, this study examines counterproductive behaviors of problem employees; future studies could further explore the interaction dynamics between problem employees and customers more closely to understand the detailed and complete impacts of problem employees.

In this current study, I clarify the organizational phenomenon of problem employee through supplying a definition and typology of problem employee behaviors, and then design to act as a foundation for future studies. Furthermore, analysis of field interviews in this study leads to the highlight of a series of individual differences and situational variables that act as antecedents to facilitate problem employee behaviors. The propositions forwarded is exploratory in nature but firmly grounded in both existing studies and insights gained via 166 field interviews. The aim of the study is to provide a definitive description and typology of problem employees and also serve as the first tentative step toward subsequent empirical testing. That is to say that a typology of problem employees is forwarded and a range of antecedents are proposed and the next stage of propositions testing is left for future studies.

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Changes of Organizational Identity and Identification after Cross-Border Acquisition: The Role of Top Management Teams and Communication Intervention Strategy

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Abstract

By integrating the literature on organizational identity, mergers and acquisitions and international management, we develop a model for multiple organizational identity and identification changes after cross-border acquisition. Our model includes the role of the top management team (TMT) membership change in the target firm after cross-border acquisition, which influences multi-foci identities and identifications at the organizational and individual levels. Our model also includes the effect of communication intervention strategy used by the TMT that facilitates the process of organizational identity change. Theoretical and practical implications of our model and the directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: cross-border acquisition, organizational identity, top management team, communication intervention

1. Introduction

Mergers and acquisitions increasingly occur around the globe. As business and economy is globalizing, a growing number of multinational companies (MNCs) of various countries of origin use cross-border acquisitions to expand, diversify, or consolidate their businesses. Value can be created through the integration of the target and acquiring firm's organization activities (Birkinshaw, Bresman, & Håkanson, 2000). However, about 80 percent of cross-border acquisitions are reported as unsuccessful (KPMG, 1999; Moeller & Schlingemann, 2005). Research on mergers and acquisitions has traditionally been conducted in the fields of strategic management and finance (Larsson & Finkelstein, 1999) and only recently extended in areas such as organizational behavior and human resource management (Aguilera & Dencker, 2004; Krug & Hegarty, 2001; Stahl, Mendenhall, & Weber, 2005).

One of the most critical human resource issues in post-acquisition integration is the change of organizational identity and identification in the target firm (e.g., Colman & Lunnan, 2011). Especially distinctive in cross-border acquisition is that after acquisition, an originally domestic target firm becomes the subsidiary of the acquiring foreign MNC. For the target firm, this could cause a significant change about "Who are we?" as a firm and "Who am I?" as an employee working for the firm. That is, for employees, the nationality of their employer changes after the acquisition such that the domestic firm they worked for yesterday will become a foreign firm tomorrow. In addition, because the parent MNC as an acquirer plays a dominant role in the post-acquisition integration, the parent MNC is likely to be more influential in determining the shape of the target firm. Whereas, there is less discontinuity in the identification of the acquiring MNCs, there can be a great discontinuity of organizational identity for the target firm.

This article integrates organizational identity literature, mergers and acquisition literature, and international management literature to develop a model of multiple organization identities and identifications in a target firm after a cross-border acquisition. Our model includes multi-level theorizing such as organizational-level, individual-level identities and identifications. The model also includes a multi-foci framework such as local subsidiary and global MNC foci as targets of identity and identification. Moreover, we discuss the role of communication intervention strategy in the process of post-acquisition integration because past research suggests that communication strategy is important for organizational identification and especially the process of organizational identification change (DiSanza & Bullis, 1999; Riordan & Weatherly, 1999).

2. Multiple Identities and Identifications in Organizations

Extant research suggests that there are multiple identification levels of foci in organizations. As a unit of analysis, organizational identity and identification can be classified into individual and collective constructs. Organizational identification at the individual level is commonly defined as the extent to which an employee experiences a sense of oneness with a group such as an entire organization (e.g., Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Organizational identity at the collective level can be defined as organizational members' understandings and claims about what is central, distinctive, and continuous over time about their organization such as "Who are we as an organization?" (e.g., Albert & Whetten, 1985). The individual level organizational identification and the collective level organizational identification are

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distinctive constructs and are interrelated. For example, organizational members can share the sense of “what is central, distinctive, and continuous over time about their organization”. However, at the same time, employees may or may not experience a sense of oneness with the collective organizational identity. In addition, organizational-level identification may influence individual-level identification and vice versa.

In the literature, both individuals and organizations have been conceptualized as having many “selves” (Albert & Whetten, 1985; Ashforth & Mael, 1996; Markus & Nurius, 1986; Pratt & Foreman, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Therefore, there are different foci of identity within individuals and organizations. In general, MNCs are much more complex than domestic firms (Vora & Kostova, 2007). In our research context, the target firm after the cross-border acquisition may have identity plurality as a foreign-based MNC operating globally and as a local subsidiary that manages and operates its main business in a single country. Employees of MNCs are simultaneously members of local subsidiaries and global organization within the entire MNC. In fact, these different foci of organizational identity are nested in a sense that the local subsidiary as an independent entity is a subgroup of the entire MNC that is the larger entity. In some cases, these two identities in a “nested collectives” are compatible with each other, while in other cases, these identities conflict with each other such as the tension between the focus on local responsiveness and the focus on global integration (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1998).

At the individual level of organizational identification, employees in the local subsidiary of MNCs could have at least two distinct identifications at the same time, one with their local subsidiary and the other with the global organization. Identification literature, largely based on social identity theory and self-categorization theory (e.g., Hogg & Terry 2000; Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), theoretically and empirically suggests that individuals are capable of identifying with two or more entities at the same time (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; George & Chattopadhyay, 2005; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Examples of multiple identifications include the identification with a work group and the organization as a whole (e.g., Christ, van Dick, Wagner, & Stellmacher, 2003; van Knippenberg & van Schie, 2000) which, in our research context, corresponds to the subsidiary and the MNC (Reade, 2001a, 2001b).

Because organizational identification is a root construct that is related to the questions of “Who am I?” and “Who are we?” it influences a number of employee and organizational outcomes. Identification leads to activities that are congruent with the identity (Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000; van Knippenberg, 2000). Consequently, higher levels of organizational identification are associated with a higher likelihood that employees will take the organization’s perspective and will act in the organization’s best interest (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton et al., 1994). Identification has been proposed to lead to in-group cooperation (Kramer, 1991; Tyler, 1999), organizational citizenship behavior (Dutton et al., 1994), support for the organization (Mael & Ashforth, 1992) and to a lower turnover (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998; Mael & Ashforth, 1995; Tyler, 1999).

3. The Identification Change Process in Cross-border Acquisition

Our research context has distinct characteristics regarding the issue of organizational identity and identification. Before a cross-border acquisition, the target firm identifies itself as an independent domestic firm and its employees only need to identify with their employing organization as a domestic firm. However, after the acquisition, the target firm becomes a subsidiary or a subgroup of the larger global organization that is more complex than the domestic firm was before. Consequently, employees of the target firm may need to simultaneously identify with the global organization as an entire MNC as well as with the local subsidiary operating in a single country, a situation far more complex than the pre acquisition domestic firm. In short, significant changes in organizational identity and identification can occur in the target firm during cross-border acquisition.

Several researchers have developed the process model of organizational identity change in the context of organizational and strategic change resulting from mergers and corporate spin-off (Corley & Gioia, 2004; Clark, Gioia, Kechen, & Thomas, 2010). Such research can also apply to the cross-border acquisition process. What is common in these process models is that organizational identity ambiguity arises during the organizational identity change process. Identity ambiguity sometimes occurs at the level of meanings, as old identity labels still exist yet no longer apply and new identity labels have yet taken on meaning of members (Corley & Gioia, 2004). Identity ambiguity would be a necessary step toward the establishment of new organizational identity in the organizational change process. However, it can cause stress for employees working in an organization. It is said that uncertainty rather than change bears a stressful element for employees and managers at target firms. Freud has stated it as “unheimlich”, etymologically “unfamiliar”, or “uncanny”, having the notion of not being in the “Heim”, home (Freud, 1955). This does not suggest that employees are not capable of grasping the changes and strategies initiated by the new parent firm but that anxiety emphasizes predominantly the changes as an emotional experience, where no employee feels safe.

Clark et al. (2010) proceed further in the theorizing of organizational identity change process and proposed the concept of transitional identity as a facilitator of organizational identity change. According to these researchers, transitional identity is defined as an interim sense held by members about what their organizations were becoming, and they argue that it is critical in moving the organizational identity change process forward. Transitional organizational identity is a temporal identity that retains some sense of current identities, while simultaneously facilitating progress toward a drastically changed state (Clark et al., 2010). It is optimally ambiguous or ambiguous enough to allow multiple

interpretations to find common ground among employees of the new firm. In this way, transitional identity serves the bridging role between old and new organizational identity.

Integrating the constructs of identity ambiguity and transitional identity, it can be assumed that the process of organizational identity change is accompanied more or less by organizational identification ambiguity followed by transitional organizational identity before the establishment of new organizational identity. Organizational identity ambiguity will be modified to the appropriate form to become transitional organizational identity such that the degree of ambiguity will be facilitated if identity ambiguity is too small and it will be lessened if identity ambiguity is too large.

4. Top Management Team and Communication Intervention

We focus on the role of TMT of the target firm in our research context for several reasons. First, in the cross-border acquisition, the MNC as an acquirer firm will take initiative in the post-acquisition integration process. In this process, restructuring of the top management team in the target firm often is the first step. Second, as TMT has a strong impact on the characteristics of organizations (Hambrick, 2007; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Sekiguchi & Yamao, 2011) the extent of change to the TMT membership will generate a strong signal about whether and to what degree the strategy, management systems, culture and climate of the target firm will change in the process of post-acquisition integration. For example, the TMT membership change in the target firm is related to the degree of control the parent firm will exert to the target firm (Bebenroth, Li, & Sekiguchi, 2008). Thus, employees in the target firm will obtain the cue about whether the firm will be kept independent of the parent MNC or its business and operation will be strictly controlled by and tightly integrated into the entire MNC after acquisition. Moreover, the change of the TMT membership is one of the most visible events in the cross-border acquisition process and almost every employees of the target firm will pay attention to it. We, therefore, assume that the TMT membership change will be strongly related to the change process of multiple organizational identifications during cross-border acquisitions.

We argue, based on the identity literature, that in the process of organizational identity change in post-acquisition integration, sensebreaking and sensegiving may be provided by the top executives of the target firm (Ashforth et al., 2008). Sensebreaking involves a fundamental questioning of who one is when one's sense of self is challenged (Pratt, 2000). Sensegiving refers to processes that top managers use to influence others' constructions of meaning in attempting to create some preferred (re)definition of organizational reality (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Pratt, 2000; Maitlis, 2005; Maitlis & Lawrence, 2007). Sensebreaking and sensegiving highlights top-down processes that organizations use to manage organizational identification process (Ashforth et al., 2008). Sensebreaking accentuates the knowledge gaps among employees, which motivates further identity exploration. In other words, sensebreaking creates ambiguity about the major direction of the firm characteristics in post-acquisition integration. Sensegiving then attempts to guide the meaning construction of others toward a preferred redefinition of organizational reality (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991). That is, sensegiving reduces ambiguity by clarifying the direction of the firm characteristics in post-acquisition integration.

The systematic and visible form of sensebreaking and sensegiving activities provided by the TMT of the target firm is the communication intervention strategy. In a communication intervention strategy, formal announcement and information is used for sensebreaking and/or sensegiving initiated by TMT of the target firm. In various studies, the importance of communication is emphasized as an antecedent of organizational identification (DiSanza & Bullis, 1999; Riordan & Weatherly, 1999; Smidts, Pruyn and Van Riel, 2001) as well as successful post-acquisition integration (Szulansky, 1996). However, insight into how communication influences identification processes is still limited (Smidts et al., 2001; Wiesenfeld, Raghuram, & Garud, 1999). We therefore include the effect of communication intervention strategy in our theory development.

5. Theory Development and Propositions

As stated earlier, the aim of this paper is to develop a model of multiple organizational identity and identification changes after cross-border acquisitions. Figure 1 illustrates our proposed model. Our model includes both organizational-level and individual level of analysis on identity change process and both the local subsidiary and the entire MNC as multifoci targets for identity and identification. The model also includes cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm and communication intervention strategy provided by the new TMT of the target firm as important variables related to the process of identity and identification changes. As shown in Figure 1, we focus on the role of the new TMT in the target firm during cross-border acquisition process.

We conceptualize the change of TMT membership as the addition of new top executives coming from or appointed by the parent MNC and the departure of old top executives from the original firm. In the extreme case, no significant change of TMT membership could occur even after cross-border acquisition. In the opposite extreme case, all of top executives from the target firm will leave and the new TMT will be dominated by executives who are sent from the parent MNC or introduced by the parent MNC.

5.1 Organizational-level Identity Change

It is considered that organizational identity of the target firm can become distinctive, meaning that the organizational identity is based on the image that the acquired firm's characteristics such as management systems and organizational culture are different from the rest of the acquiring MNC. Alternatively, organizational identity of the target firm can become overlapped or diffused, meaning that the organizational identity is based on the image that characteristics of the acquired firm are almost the same as the rest of the acquiring MNC (e.g., Vora & Kostova, 2007). In the former case, we argue that the target firm will likely develop subsidiary-oriented identity in which characteristics of subsidiary most affects the organizational level identity in the target firm. This kind of identity also reflects the image that the target firm is relatively independent of the entire MNC. In the latter case, the target firm will likely develop MNC-oriented identity in which characteristics of MNC as a whole affects the organizational level identity of the target firm. This kind of identity also reflects the image that the target firm is tightly integrated into the entire MNCs. As discussed earlier, these subsidiary-oriented identity and MNC-oriented identity can be compatible with each other or can conflict with each other depending on the situation.

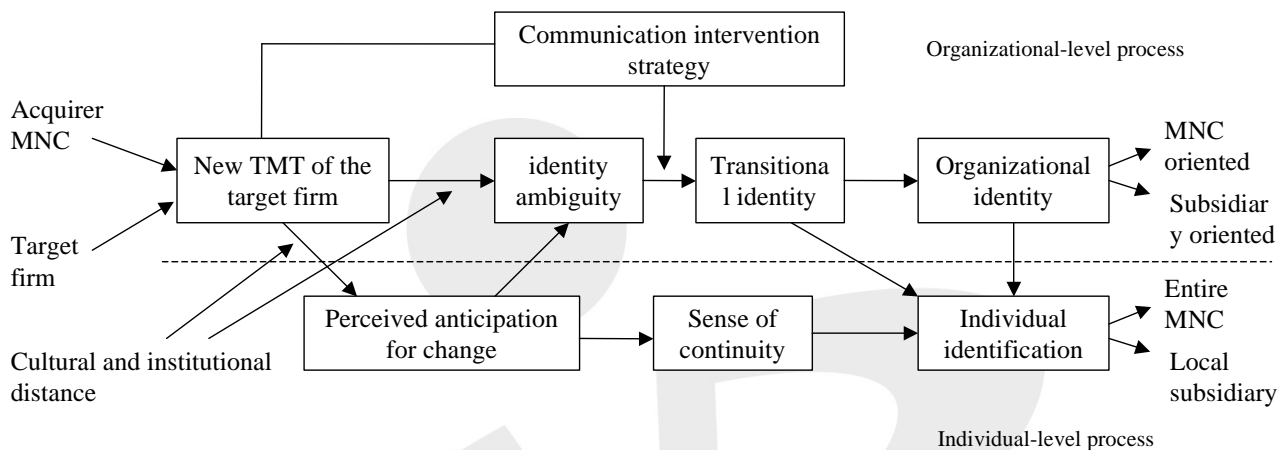


Figure 1 Proposed Theoretical Framework

Employees of the target firm will obtain the signal from the TMT membership change about the potential future direction of the firm characteristics and develop organizational-level identity based on the signal. If the TMT membership change is small or insignificant, in other words, when top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT even after acquisition, then the employees in the target firm are more likely to perceive the continuity of the strategy and operation of the firm between pre-acquisition and post-acquisition. For example, they may anticipate that the new firm will be kept relatively independent of the parent MNC in terms of their business, operation, and management systems including human resource management policies. Likewise, they may anticipate that the organizational culture and climate of the new firm may also be kept relatively unchanged. On the other hand, if the number of new top executives sent from the parent MNC is large and the departure of the old executives from the target firm also large then the employees in the target firm are more likely to anticipate drastic changes to the strategy, operation and management systems of the new firm.

We predict that the target firm will develop stronger subsidiary-oriented organizational identity when employees at the firm anticipate the continuity and independence of the firm even after cross-border acquisition. On the other hand, the target firm will develop stronger MNC-oriented organizational identity when employees at the firm anticipate the discontinuity of the target firm and integration into the entire MNC. It is because, for the employees, characteristics of their firm after post-acquisition integration will become almost identical with those of the entire MNC.

Proposition 1: The target firm will develop stronger subsidiary-oriented organizational identity than MNC-oriented organizational identity when top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT after acquisition. Alternatively, the firm will develop stronger MNC-oriented organizational identity than subsidiary-oriented organizational identity when top executives from the acquirer MNC dominate the new TMT.

As discussed, organizational identity ambiguity may arise during the process of identification change. We argue that identity ambiguity will be largest when it is unclear whether the target firm will likely be independent of the parent MNC or it will likely be integrated into the entire MNC. If the new TMT of the target firm is dominated by top executives from the target firm, that is, if no significant change in the membership in TMT occurs, employees in the target firm will have a relatively clear idea of continuity in organizational characteristics and anticipate that subsidiary-oriented identity will likely be developed. On the other hand, if the new TMT is dominated by new top executives from the parent MNC, employees may also have a relatively clear idea of discontinuity in organizational characteristics and anticipate that MNC-oriented identity will likely be developed. However, if the situation is in between, employees in the target firm are less clear about the future direction of the target firm as a subsidiary of the MNC. It is possible that the target firm with a

mixture of top executives from the target firm and the parent MNC will develop subsidiary-oriented identity, MNC-oriented identity or the hybrid form of these two kinds of organizational identity, depending on the resultant characteristics of the new firm. Nevertheless, it is not clear merely from the TMT composition which type of organizational characteristics and organizational identity will emerge. Therefore, employees in the target firm will feel ambiguous about what the new organizational identity will be. Thus, we predict the following.

Proposition 2: There is an inverted U-curve relationship between the proportion of new top executives sent from the acquirer MNC in the target firm and identity ambiguity of the target firm such that identity ambiguity is lowest when top executives from the target firm or ones from the MNC dominate the new TMT and highest when there is a mixture of top executives from both entities in the new TMT.

Subsidiary-oriented organizational identity and MNC-oriented organizational identity can be compatible with each other or can conflict with each other depending on the situation. If cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is small, these two identities are more likely to be compatible and can coexist easily. On the other hand, when cultural and institutional distance between these two countries is large, these two identities are more likely to conflict with each other, making coexistence difficult to achieve. In the latter case, when the target firm develops stronger subsidiary-oriented or MNC-oriented organizational identity, the other type of organizational identity will inevitably become weak, suggesting that the Proposition 1 holds true especially when cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is large. On the other hand, when cultural and institutional distance between these two countries is small, subsidiary-oriented and MNC-oriented oriented identities could become both strong although the one could be stronger than the other.

In the case of organizational identity ambiguity, we argue that identity ambiguity would become larger when cultural and social distance between MNC and the target firm is large, with other conditions being equal. For example, the mixture of top executives from different cultural and institutional background leads to the more ambiguous situation about the future characteristics of the target firm in terms of its strategy, operation, management systems and organizational culture and climate. Employees in the target firm cannot obtain clear cues about how the characteristics of the new firm will be. Therefore, we propose the following.

Proposition 3: Propositions 1 and 2 will hold more strongly when cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is larger.

5.2 Individual-level Organizational Identification

Multiple organizational identifications at the individual level can be understood as relative strengths or absolute strengths with different foci in organizations. Relative strengths of multiple organizational identifications in our research context mainly concern about which is stronger, an employee identify with local subsidiary or the MNC as a global organization without considering the absolute strength of identification. On the contrary, in the case of absolute strengths, an employee could identify strongly or weakly with both local subsidiary and the global MNC at the same time.

As discussed, organizational-level identity and individual-level identification are related. When the target firm develops stronger subsidiary-oriented identity because top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT after acquisition, employees are also more likely to identify themselves with local subsidiary rather than the global MNC. Likewise, when the target firm develops stronger MNC-oriented identity because top executives from the parent MNC dominate the new TMT, employees are also more likely to identify themselves with the global MNC rather than the local subsidiary. Note that this argument only refers to the relative strength among multiple organizational identifications and is not concerned with the absolute strength. It is possible that both types of identifications are weak however one may be relatively stronger than the other.

Proposition 4: When top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT after acquisition, employees in the target firm will identify with the local firm more strongly than with the entire MNC. On the other hand, when top executives from the acquirer MNC dominate the new TMT after acquisition, the employees will identify with the entire MNC more strongly than with the target firm.

With respect to the absolute strength of individual identification, employees in the target firm in general will easily identify with the new firm after cross-border acquisition if they anticipate from the new TMT composition that the characteristics of the firm do not change dramatically. This is because the employees feel a sense of continuity in the organizational characteristics. Research suggests that an employee's sense of continuity is positively related to organizational identification after merger (e.g., Bartels, Douwes, Jong & Pruyn, 2006). This empirical evidence may also apply to the context of cross-border acquisition. Therefore, when top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT after cross-border acquisition, the employees will perceive the sense of continuity and thus identify with the local subsidiary or the target firm which they have been working for more strongly than in other cases. In addition, when cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is large as well as top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT, employees in the target firm will also perceive the large

difference in firm characteristics between their local subsidiary, which is relatively independent, and the rest of the MNC. Thus, whereas the employees will strongly identify with the local subsidiary, they will less strongly identify with the entire MNC. On the other hand, when the cultural and institutional difference is small between the two countries and top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT, the characteristics and identities of the local subsidiary and the entire MNC will be more compatible for the employees, which will increase the possibility that the employees will identify strongly with both the local subsidiary and the entire MNC. Therefore, we predict the following.

Proposition 5: When top executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT after acquisition, cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is negatively related to the possibility that employees in the target firm will identify strongly with both the local subsidiary and the entire MNC.

Next, it will be more difficult and challenging for employees of the target firm to identify with the new firm if they anticipate from the new TMT composition that there will be dramatic changes in characteristics of the firm. Research suggests that when organizational change threatens valued identity of a premerger organization, employees tend to have negative feeling about the mergers and resist the merger process (Bartels et al., 2006; van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, Monden & Lima, 2002). In this case, the employees are reluctant to identify with the new firm either as a local subsidiary or as a global MNC. Therefore, as the proportion of the top executives from the MMC become larger in the new TMT, the employees' perceived change in firm characteristics also increase, which generate the difficulty for the employee of the target firm to identify with both the local subsidiary and the target firm. Large cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of MNC and the target firm will also accelerate this tendency. That is, as cultural and institutional distance between the two countries become larger as well as top executives from the MNC dominate the new TMT, employees will feel more distance to the new firm and discontinuity from their old firm, which create obstacles to identify with both the local subsidiary and the entire MNC. Thus, we predict the following.

Proposition 6: When proportion of new top executives from the acquirer MNC is larger and/or cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is larger, it is more difficult for employees of the target firm to identify with the local subsidiary or the entire MNC after acquisition.

5.3 The Effect of Communication Intervention Strategy

We posit that communication intervention strategy provided by TMT of the target firm often facilitates the process of identity change in the target firm during cross-border acquisition. We classify the communication intervention strategy into the one that focuses on sensebreaking (sensebreaking communication intervention) and the other that focuses on sensegiving (sensegiving communication intervention). Sensebreaking communication intervention is aimed at creating more ambiguity about the major direction of the target firm in post-acquisition integration. Sensegiving communication intervention is aimed at reducing ambiguity about the direction of the firm.

Communication intervention strategy, whether it is sensebreaking or sensegiving, will facilitate the process in which organizational identification ambiguity is transformed into transitional organizational identity, an interim state of the organizational identity change process. We posit that the effect of communication intervention strategy varies according to the change of the TMT composition in the target firm because the TMT membership changes affect the degree of identity ambiguity and the role of communication to develop transitional identity.

First, when executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT in the target firm and cultural and institutional distance between their home countries is low, employees feel the sense of continuity in organizational characteristics. The perceived difference between old organizational identity and anticipated new organizational identity will be low. Therefore, significant organizational identity change will not occur at the firm. Thus, communication intervention strategy aimed at facilitating of identity change process would be redundant or even unnecessary.

Next, when there is a mixture of executives from the parent MNC and the target firm in the new TMT in the target firm, identity ambiguity may become too large, prohibiting the effective organizational identity change process. In this case, transitional organizational identity that decreases the degree of ambiguity about the future direction of the firm will facilitate the process of identity change. Sensegiving communication intervention strategy helps the development of transitional organizational identity by decreasing the degree of ambiguity.

Proposition 7a: Sensegiving communication intervention will be most likely to facilitate the process of organizational identity change when there is a mixture of top executives from the MNC and the target firm in the new TMT.

When executives from the parent MNCs dominate the new TMT in the target firm and cultural and institutional distance between their home countries is large, identity ambiguity will be low, but the perceived difference between old organizational identity (i.e., organizational identity before cross-border acquisition) and anticipated new organizational identity will be largest. Although employees in the target firm may anticipate that the firm will develop stronger MNC-oriented organizational identity as Proposition 1 stated, the organizational identity change process would be slow or stagnate due to their psychological difficulty to adjust to the new identity. In this case, transitional organizational identity, by introducing the moderate level of ambiguity about the prospective organizational identity, will play a bridging

role between old and new organizational identity, and thus will facilitate the process of organizational identity change. That is, the moderate level of ambiguity helps employees find a sense of continuity between the old organizational identity and the new one by interpreting the ongoing change process and the direction of the firm more freely than without ambiguity. Sensebreaking communication intervention strategy will be effective because it promotes the development of transitional identity by introducing more ambiguity, which facilitates the organizational identity change process.

Proposition 7b: Sensebreaking communication intervention will facilitate the process of organizational identity change when executives from the acquirer MNC dominate the new TMT.

Similar to the argument leading to Proposition 1 and 2, when cultural and social distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is large, identity ambiguity would become larger when there is a mixture of top executives from the target firm and the MNC in the new TMT. In this case, the effect of sensegiving communication strategy will also become stronger, meaning that Proposition 7a holds more strongly when cultural and social distance between the two countries is large. In addition, when cultural and social distance between the two countries is large and top executives from the MNC dominate the new TMT, perceived difference between old organizational identity and anticipated new organizational identity will also become larger, meaning that Proposition 7b holds more strongly in this case.

Proposition 8: Propositions 7a and 7b will hold more strongly when cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is larger.

We predict that transitional organizational identity with moderate ambiguity will also facilitate individual-level organizational identification after cross-border acquisition. With a moderate level of ambiguity generated by transitional organizational identity, employees in the target firm will have more freedom and autonomy to interpret the future state of the target firm and the entire MNC. This allows the employees to find or develop their own sense of continuity and consistency with their own self-identification between their old firm and the new firm after cross-border acquisition. If they will develop a sense of continuity, they will be more likely to identify with the new firm as a subsidiary and as an entire MNC (e.g., Bartels et al., 2006). Therefore, sensebreaking or sensegiving communication intervention strategy will also be effective for individual-level identifications depending on the composition of the new TMT in the target firm.

When executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT, Proposition 1 predicted that employees in the target firm will identify more strongly with the local subsidiary than with the entire MNC. Sensebreaking communication intervention will create more ambiguity and employees in the target firm are allowed to interpret the future state of the entire MNC more freely. If they develop their own sense of continuity between the old target firm and the global MNC, they will be more likely to identify with the entire MNC as well as with the local subsidiary.

Proposition 9a: Sensebreaking communication intervention strategy will increase the possibility that employees in the target firm will identify with the entire MNC when executives from the target firm dominate the new TMT.

When top executives from the target firm or executives from the MNC dominate the new TMT, it is relatively more challenging for employees to identify with both the local subsidiary and the entire MNC unless these two types of identity are compatible with each other. In this case, communication intervention strategy will help to develop transitional organizational identity, which enables the possibility that employees in the target firm identify with both entities. This is because the moderate level of ambiguity allows employees to find or develop their own sense of continuity for the target which they have difficulty to identify with.

Proposition 9b: Sensebreaking communication intervention strategy will increase the possibility that employees in the target firm will identify with the new firm and the entire MNC when executives from the parent MNCs dominate the new TMT.

Proposition 9c: Sensegiving communication intervention strategy will increase the possibility that employees in the target firm will identify with the new firm and the entire MNC when executives from the parent MNCs dominate the new TMT.

When cultural and institutional distance between home countries of the target firm and the MNC is low, employees in the target firm are more easily identify with both a local subsidiary and the global MNC at the same time after cross-border acquisition. On the contrary, when the cultural and institutional distance is large, it is more challenging that employees in the target firm identify with both entities. Therefore, the effects of communication intervention strategies predicted by Propositions 7a, 7b and 7c would hold more strongly when cultural and institutional distance between home countries of the target firm and the parent MNC is large.

Proposition 10: Propositions 9a, 9b and 9c will hold more strongly when cultural and institutional distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is large rather.

Figure 2 summarizes the effect of communication intervention strategy by illustrating the image of relationships between the new TMT of the target firm, organizational identity ambiguity, difficulties and challenges for the organizational identity change, and communication intervention strategy used by the new TMT.

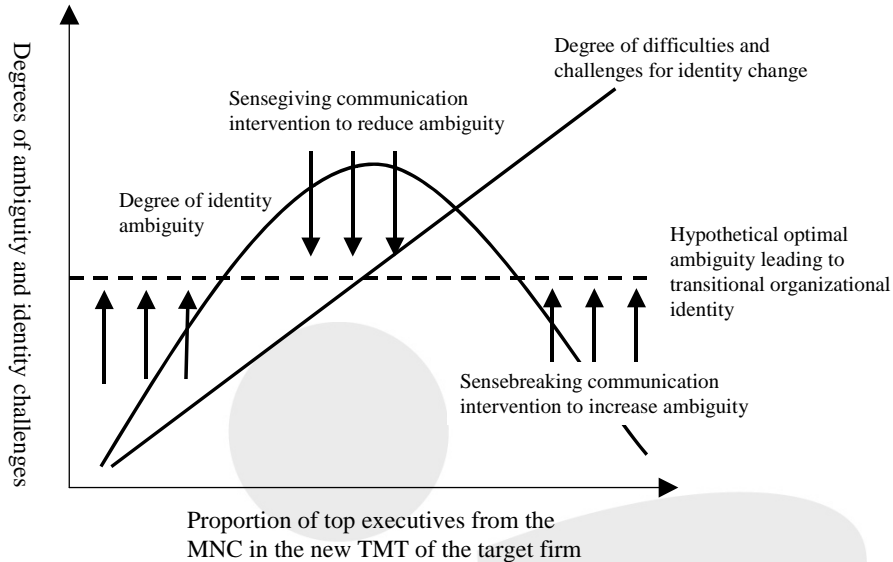


Figure 2 The Effect of Communication Intervention Strategy

6. Discussion

Our model highlights the importance of the change of TMT membership as the signal of prospective change of organizational characteristics of the target firm and thereby influences organizational identity and identification in the target firm. By incorporating the concepts of organizational identity ambiguity and transitional organizational identity during identity change process, we also highlighted that creating the moderate or appropriate level of ambiguity about the future direction of the new firm would be the key to facilitate organizational identity change and to promote positive identifications with the local subsidiary and the entire MNC. We also discussed the related conditions in which a particular type of communication intervention strategy provided by the TMT of the target firm will be effective in facilitating organizational identity change.

This paper contributes to the literature on organizational identity and cross-border mergers and acquisitions in several ways. First, past research on these fields has rarely paid attention to the characteristics of TMT in the target firm and their role in the organizational identity change process in the context of cross-border acquisitions. Thus, our model and propositions focusing on the role of the new TMT in the target firm opens a new avenue for research on organizational identity and identification in the international management field. Our model also integrates the constructs of identity ambiguity and transitional identity as important interim states in the identity change process, both of which are relatively new in organizational identity research. By doing so, we could develop several testable propositions on the role of communication intervention strategy provided by the TMT of the target firm. Moreover, our model provides insights about the interaction between different levels of analysis, especially organizational-level and individual-level of analysis of identity change. We have suggested that organizational-level identity and individual-level identification with the organization go hand in hand, both of which are influenced by the change of the TMT characteristics and communication intervention strategies provided by the TMT.

Our model and propositions also have implications for practice of cross-border acquisitions. First, our model suggests that organizational identity ambiguity will become larger when executives both from the acquirer MNC and the target firm sit together in the new TMT, which can cause the feeling of great uncertainty and anxiety among employees in the target firm. Therefore, the MNC and the target firm in such a situation need to be careful not to create too ambiguous situation in the direction of the new firm. Nonetheless, the mixture of the new subsidiary's top executives coming from both the acquirer MNC and the target firm could create better results in multiple organizational identities and identifications if communication intervention strategy provided by the TMT is successfully implemented. It is because there might be many positive effects of such a heterogeneous team in terms of developing new strategic directions, management systems, and organizational culture and climate of the subsidiary.

In addition, our model and propositions suggest that it is always difficult and challenging for an acquirer MNC to fully control and integrate the target firm after cross-border acquisition. This is especially true when cultural and institutional

distance between the home countries of the MNC and the target firm is large. The larger is the number of top executives that come to the new TMT from the more culturally and institutionally distant countries, the greater would be the identity threats among employees in the target firm, leading to the resistance to change. Creating moderate levels of ambiguity and allowing the employees to interpret the potential direction of the firm more freely through the development of transitional organizational identity would be the necessary and effective process of facilitating organizational identity change. Nevertheless, acquirer MNCs should be aware that it could be a time consuming process.

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Top Management Team and External Knowledge Acquisition for Sustainability in Indian Startup Firms¹

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Abstract

This paper examines top management team's (TMT's) ability of acquiring external knowledge for sustainability in global startup firms in developing countries. External knowledge can include knowledge acquired from external R&D bodies, government agencies as well as alliance or contractual partners. External knowledge is particularly important for startup firms in developing countries as the firms do not usually have well developed internal knowledge management structures for knowledge creation and management. The study draws from the experience of 11 of the largest startup information technology service providers (ITSPs) in India and based on in-depth interviews. The findings suggest that TMT's ability to interact with external stakeholders is a critical element in the startup firm context in facilitating external knowledge acquisition and allowing new knowledge emerged from interactions within and across networks. Thus the development of TMT's ability to acquire external knowledge is essential to long-term organizational success. The findings will provide significant insights to startup firms emerging in other developing countries, like those in China, as global players in international business. Future research direction will be discussed.

Keywords: Top management team; External knowledge acquisition; Information technology service providers; India

1. Introduction

Research on how startup firms from developing countries develop and grow to become global players in their fields remains underdeveloped. This is a particularly important gap in the literature given that over recent years foreign direct investment (FDI) from developing countries has increased at a faster pace than FDI from developed countries. Thus, the growing activities of startup firms from developing countries raise an important question regarding their sources of international competitiveness given that the institutional and economic context within which these startup firms develop and grow are different from those in developed countries. The rapid emergence and growth of information technology service providers (ITSPs) from India is a case in point. India is one of the most exciting emerging markets in the world due to its economic and social development in the past two decades. Over a relatively short period, India has become a preferred destination for off-shoring of IT services (Saini & Budhwar, 2004). Today, India accounts for more than 50 percent of the global IT services market valued at more than US\$180 billion annually. The IT off-shoring sector in India now employs more than 3 million people and contributes more than 2 percent to the national GDP. Indian ITSPs are increasingly engaging in more dynamic international business markets.

Top management team (TMT) can be defined as strategic decision-makers in an organization (Nielsen & Nielsen, 2011). As Albrecht (2002) argues, TMT such as CEOs, Directors, Divisional Heads, and Functional Heads, generally have the primary responsibility and accountability for designing, implementing and managing organizational change and thus they contribute to an organization's key strategic decisions. Little is understood today in relation to the role of TMT in startup firms in emerging markets, like India, that are experiencing rapid economic, socio-cultural and structural changes (Budhwar, Varma, Singh, & Dhar, 2006), in particular the ability of TMT on acquiring external knowledge for sustainability. Substantial amount of research on identifying basic knowledge and learning dimensions largely neglecting the effect of TMT leading to knowledge creation and learning development through external source of knowledge (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2010). This highlights a strong scarcity of research on the study of TMT's ability to acquire external knowledge in startup firms for sustainability.

TMT's ability to facilitate the flow of knowledge from external to their organization, and vice versa; allowing new knowledge emerge from interactions within and across networks is critical to the success of the organization (Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor, & Mumford, 1991). This paper explores the ability of TMT on acquiring external knowledge for sustainability in the Indian information technology services market. This paper reports empirical findings from a recently conducted preliminary study on the ways in which how TMT's interactions with outsiders help to foster external

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knowledge acquisition for sustainability in Indian ITSPs. Qualitative data were gathered using in-depth semi-structured interviews with senior executives across 11 ITSPs in India. The findings highlight the important of TMT's social network ability on external knowledge acquisition leading to sustainability in the participating Indian ITSPs.

The original contribution of the analysis is threefold. First, TMT's role on external knowledge acquisition has largely remained disconnected fields of inquiry. This paper contributes to filling this gap. Second, the paper suggests that TMT's ability to facilitate external knowledge acquisition should be developed as a central part of startup firms' competitive strategy. Third and finally, as will be later explained, this exploratory study increases the awareness of research on TMT's unique characteristics on developing global social networks for international competitiveness in the Indian context. The findings of this paper should be of considerable interest to startup firms in other developing countries such as those in China emerging as global players in international business.

The paper is divided into four sections. First, a brief overview of social intelligence, external knowledge, and their relationships to sustainability within the context of Indian ITSPs is provided. This is followed in the second section by a short outline of the research methodology used. The findings of the interview program are presented in the third section, with an emphasis on the Indian IT context and their implications to other developing countries. Limitations and direction for future research are discussed in the final section.

2. Top Management Team, External Knowledge Acquisition and Startup Firms

Knowledge exchange by itself does not necessarily translate into strategic resources for competitiveness unless the exchanged knowledge is evaluated, analyzed and utilized appropriately by top management team (TMT) to benefit their organization. TMT are not only concerned with the internal functioning of their organizations, but also with the larger marketplace and even the role of the organizations in the global context. They make critical domestic and international strategic decisions (Jackling & Johl, 2009). Hambrick, Finkelstein, and Mooney (2005) argue that TMT often internalize the knowledge and skills through external sources to make strategic decisions. In other words, TMT are often responsible for bringing external knowledge in an organization. External knowledge may include knowledge acquired from external R&D bodies such as academic institutions, industry associations and consulting firms, as well as government agencies, customers, suppliers, and alliance or contractual partners.

Interacting with external stakeholders may well require a different set of behaviors than those that are needed within an organization (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000). TMT's ability to anticipate and understand the moods and emotions of important external stakeholders helps the TMT to decide which strategies might work or, alternatively, how strategies should be presented and conveyed (Boal & Hooijberg, 2000). This unique ability represents a form of managerial wisdom which encompasses both the ability to understand and act with discernment on the TMT's understanding of external stakeholders at an appropriate time in an appropriate manner (Sternberg, 1985). However, external knowledge will need to be internalized as internal knowledge before it can be utilized effectively in organizations (Kong, 2009). TMT can play an important role in terms of facilitating external knowledge acquisition, allowing new knowledge to be developed and internalizing the knowledge for sustainability. In other words, TMT's social network ability is a critical element of sustainability. It allows TMT to identify, analyze, acquire, utilize and deploy external knowledge appropriately in organizations. This unique characteristic is fundamental for organizational strategic renewal and yet, is firm-specific tacit knowledge. Firm-specific tacit knowledge has become the central theme in the strategic management literature, not only because it is a meaningful resource for organizations, but also a critical source of strategic competitive advantage (Ambrosini & Bowman, 2001). Organizations that are able to effectively utilize tacit and firm-specific knowledge are more likely to coordinate and combine their traditional resources and capabilities in innovative and distinctive ways, providing more value for their customers than their competitors (Teece, Pisano, & Shuen, 1997). Thus this TMT ability is a source of differentiation between firms and thus conform to the resource based theory of the firm which emphasizes resources that are rare, valuable, costly to imitate, and non-substitutable (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1995).

A team of top management executives with strong ability to acquire external knowledge will likely have a more sophisticated and better organized store of social information than those weak in the ability (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1987), and are more likely successful in management of social units of which the TMT are a part (Zaccaro, et al., 1991). Since the transfer of knowledge and learning often occurs through TMT's superior execution of human tasks of sensing, judging, creating, and building relationships, organizations must manage their key strategic human resources effectively as they hold the key for innovation and strategic renewal which constitutes a decisive factor to organizational success and sustained competitive advantage (Ireland & Hitt, 1999).

Startup firms in developing countries such as those in Indian ITSPs are expanding rapidly both in the domestic and international markets (Kuruvilla & Ranganathan, 2010). However, the firms are often lack the deeply rooted administrative heritage like well-established organizations, and internal knowledge management structures for knowledge creation and management (Knight & Cavusgil, 2004). Accordingly, the firms need to rely heavily on external source of knowledge for continuous organizational learning and knowledge creation (Baum, Calabrese, & Silverman, 2000). As the world-wide economy has shifted from manufacturing to knowledge-based services industries (Budhwar, et al., 2006),

startup firms in developing countries need to pay special attention to identifying, analyzing, acquiring, utilizing and deploying knowledge, particularly the knowledge from outside for sustainability. The firms must facilitate the flow of knowledge from external, allowing new knowledge emerged from interactions within and across networks (Zaccaro, et al., 1991).

From a talent management perspective, startup firms must emphasize the identification of key positions which have the potential to differentially impact their organizations' sustainability (See e.g. Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Scullion, Collings, & Caligiuri, 2010). In the case of Indian ITSPs, TMT contribute to the success of IT service sector in India significantly. This paper argues that the development of TMT's ability to acquire external knowledge becomes critical to the long-term success of startup firms. Thus, Indian ITSPs should divert their key resources to ensure the majority of their organizational activities are for the purpose of attracting, selecting, developing, and retaining the best TMT in their organizations (Scullion, et al., 2010). This is not to say other personnel functions are not important in startup firms. However, the ability to facilitate external knowledge acquisition is particularly crucial for achieving organizational strategic priorities for sustainability in startup firms. This main objective of this paper is to explore the question: 'What role does TMT's ability to interact with outsiders play in external knowledge acquisition for strategic competitiveness in Indian ITSPs?'

Indian ITSPs have played a significant role in the knowledge era transition (Chawla & Joshi, 2010; Singh & Soltani, 2010). Although the study only reports initial findings of in-depth semi-structure interviews from a number of leading ITSPs in India, the investigation will have both academic (i.e. nature and basis of human resource systems in the Indian set-up) and practical (i.e. how to manage human resources in the Indian IT context) implications. The study also helps to unveil the inner workings of the black box that guide human resource strategies in terms of the development of external knowledge acquisition ability in TMT for sustainability in startup forms in developing countries, like Indian ITSPs. This is particularly important to Indian ITSPs but also to other startup firms in India and in other developing countries such as China. Like India, China is developing and growing rapidly as global player in international business. The findings in this paper will provide significant insight to startup firms in China (as well as that in other developing countries) in terms of how to develop TMT strategically for sustainability in the knowledge economy. The next section describes the research methodology and data for the study.

3. Method

TMT's ability to interact by its nature involves tacit knowledge which is notoriously difficult to quantify. Qualitative analysis, utilizing in-depth, semi-structured interviews, including both the face-to-face and telephone interviewing approaches to examine the role of TMT's ability on external knowledge acquisition in Indian ITSPs is an appropriate primary data collection instrument. In order to meet the objectives of the study we focus on the 'stars' in the IT services industry. Learning from the stars also provides an industry wide perspective of best practice which is valuable for wider generalization of our findings. The 20 largest ITSPs (by revenue), as classified by National Association of Software and Services Companies (NASSCOM), India's main IT industry association, were selected to be included in the study. Together, these organizations in India account for more than 85% of the Industry's total revenue and have employees across national boundaries. Emails were sent out to potential elite participants in these companies (Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Welch, Marschan-Piekkari, Penttinen, & Tahvanainen, 2002) to explain the purpose of the research project and invite them to participate in the semi-structured interviews for the purposes of data collection.

Following initial contact and vetting of all participants, 11 ITSPs were selected to participate in the data collection exercise. All the participants were in senior executive positions involved in key strategic management positions within their organizations. All interviews were conducted at the respective ITSP headquarters in three main cities (Bangalore, Delhi and Mumbai) in India and lasted about 60 minutes each. All interviewees gave consent for taping. Qualitative data were transcribed by one of the authors and content analyzed. To maintain confidentiality, all interviewees' names, contact details, and titles were omitted (Chell, 2004). Instead each participant was assigned a code (e.g. ITSP-1, ITSP-2 ... ITSP-11) and the numerical order was not indicative of interview chronology. As recommended by Rubin and Rubin (2005), an interview guide was designed which contains a list of interview questions that reflects the nature of the information that the researcher wants to uncover in an interview. These interview questions were based on a broad review of the contemporary literature and secondary source documents from Indian ITSPs eligible for interviews. The interview question guide contained 28 questions which were designed in a style and approach that allows participants to point out their facts and opinions freely in the interviews.

Issues in relation to research reliability and validity are vital to a successful qualitative research design (Maxwell, 2002). This is particularly important to a research project like this one given that sample selection, the conduct of interviews and the analysis of interview transcripts, and research notes are intrinsically subjective in nature. Accordingly, apart from interviews, sources such as mission statements, annual reports, newsletters, memoranda, proposals, progress reports and other internal documents as well as information available from organizational websites were used to collect relevant data. As a result of the document analysis, more detailed, 'hard' facts were gathered to corroborate, enrich and

challenge the interview data. This helps to further strengthen the reliability and validity of the research.

4. Main Findings

An analysis of the available information from secondary sources and data from the interviews has highlighted that TMT's ability to interact with external stakeholders is a critical element for sustainability in the startup firm context as it helps to facilitate knowledge exchange and allow new knowledge emerged from interactions within and across networks. As the following interviewee described how their company developed and grew:

"[Our] company was set up in 1999 by two gentlemen ... we were doing emails for [our] clients ... suddenly we had all these popshops coming up all over the place [to compete]. As [the business] continued they realized that doing email itself may not be enough ... the company needed to grow the value chain and do more business. They knew someone who joined a company called [Company B] as their CEO ... [Our company] ended up acquiring [Company B]. It became a captive subsidiary of [our company] which was good for us because in a year and a half we acquired a lot of capability and migrated about 70 to 80 different kind of high end processes which were very insurance domain specific. So we acquired the capability and the expertise of managing complex business processes and after that it was just a question of leveraging that with other clients ..." (ITSP-1).

The success of Indian ITSPs is often associated with TMT's ability to work with outsiders. In ITSP-1's case, the two founders of Company A had a personal connection with another company's CEO and because of this personal relationship the two companies merged. But more importantly, the merged company was able to use the best of the capabilities from the two previous companies to provide more value added business to their clients and became successful in the industry. Had the three founders not been able to evaluate, analyze and utilize their relationships to acquire the capabilities that their companies needed most to benefit their organizations, no merger and acquisition might occur and their companies might not be able to survive through intensified competition.

NASSCOM, as India's main IT industry association, has been an external source of knowledge for ITSPs in India. This can be seen from the following participant's comment:

"NASSCOM is building a database of people who have done frauds. So we feed data to them as well as other companies ... we all share the information so if somebody has done a fraud at [our company], he will not be hired by somebody else. So we share that information, which is important for decision making" (ITSP-1).

Indian ITSPs can sometimes learn a great deal from industry associations as well as individual industries. They can provide significant knowledge for organizational growth and sustainability. The following comments are some of the examples from the interview data:

"NASSCOM lobby within the Government for tax holidays; improving the information security laws in the country; and blacklisting fraudulent candidates ... while we're looking at clients and how to get more business and how to do a good job, they're looking at the extraneous Indian environment and saying let's set up STP software technology paths and let's extend the tax holiday and let's make the environment more conducive for BPO companies to thrive" (ITSP-6).

"The other thing you increasingly need is not just knowledge of technology but knowledge of the business sector of the industry in which it is operating. So if you're trying to sell technology to a bank you really must know the banking industry well, as it applies in that particular local market and I'm not talking about your theoretical macro knowledge but where a bank functions in Brazil or Canada or in Korea or in South East Asia, you need to know that to be able to design real solutions for these companies" (ITSP-9).

External consulting firms can also be a good source of external knowledge. ITSP-1 had the following comment:

"External consultants may come into [our company] when we're talking about a specialized training where the skill may not be available in-house" (ITSP-1).

Clients are another form of external source of knowledge. They can often provide significant information for decision making in ITSPs in India. The following participants described how the TMT interacted with their clients:

"we also have what we call a quarterly business review, where XXX and YYY [Founders of the company] and the business leaders would meet certain clients and all the issues" (ITSP-1).

"we have an annual customer meeting in the U.S. where we invite, not only our existing customers, but also prospective customers to come and see how we work" (ITSP-6).

As the above participants highlighted, the entire TMT regularly interacted with clients in meetings to understand their needs. This showed TMT's perception of the importance of customers in their business. As TMT are often involved in decision-making, their ability to channel knowledge from external is crucial to the sustainability of an organization.

Social relations with clients also paid an important role in achieving successful business in the Indian ITSP sector. As the following interviewee described the benefits of having good relationships with their clients:

"I think it is the relationship between two people [our TMT and clients]. It helps to foster the spirit of cooperation in working towards the same goal; in making sure that you're all working in the same direction. So I think social relations are important" (ITSP-1).

From the above comment, 'working in the same direction' can be interpreted as a result of good relationship between the TMT and their clients. Meanwhile, TMT's social awareness of external environment was also a key factor for organizational success in Indian ITSPs. As the following senior executive described:

"the more we [TMT] are aware of the international market, the more we are able to understand the customers better and interact better with them. They [customers] able to translate their needs into the kind of work that [our company] provides. They know the requirements much better ... so if we were not aware of the international market this business won't exist" (ITSP-6).

Some TMT are in particular aware of the international environment they are in. The following quote demonstrates the point:

"... we will be competitive for another 5 or 10 years but there are other places and specifically speaking, probably China which is our biggest competition ... I think it's important we stay one step ahead of China, but China is catching up ..." (ITSP-1).

While the above participant saw China as competitor, there were others who saw that there was a possibility of cooperation with other developing countries, including China:

"... we could leverage China's resources. China has great strengths, we could leverage those ... we could have a big Chinese market and service that market ... we could service the entire or a big portion of the middle far east market out of China. So yeah, there are areas of cooperation as far as that is concerned" (ITSP-6).

Other TMT saw that an awareness of other organizations' capability and international environment could become a motivation for acquiring external knowledge and capabilities:

"... if we don't have this capability, we could invest in acquiring another service provider. Not only do you acquire and create a delivery centre, but also you acquire more skills and capabilities. You also acquire a few new clients that service provider has" (ITSP-1).

"The industry was going down because of 9/11 as lots of things happened. We didn't go down as we saw that everything [would] give you knowledge and learning. In terms of processes, how do we handle customers, it gives you knowledge and learning and that's what we learnt at that time. Basically [we] see [sic] these processes ... and we thought we were little weak ... that's when we thought of strengthening those processes. And that's what helped us to come out of that [crisis] and we are on a growth today. For the last two quarters we were growing almost 40%. We are looking forward to a similar kind of growth in the next one year to two years" (ITSP-7).

TMT's social awareness, understanding and interactions of external stakeholders and international environment allow firm-specific knowledge to be created which provides sustainability to their organizations. This is evident in the following comment regarding client specific training. The training will be difficult, if not impossible, to be acquired by competitors:

"... we depend on clients for a lot of training ... you know ... process training. The clients are definitely involved which is customer specific or client specific" (ITSP-6).

Again, TMT's social interaction skills play a significant factor in leading to sustainability in the sector:

The U.S. credit card customer for example has experienced the product for over 20, 30 years. She demands a lot of services and the ability to play the big boys game is extremely important" (ITSP-5).

The 'ability', as described from the above quote, can be understood as TMT's ability to understand and interact with their important U.S. client. For an emerging industry such as that in the Indian IT service sector, capturing external knowledge is only the foundation and knowing how to internalize and utilize it is far more significant. As the following participants describe, the ability to learn and utilize knowledge contributes greatly to the success of their firms:

"We are entering [are expanding business to] Japan, we need to know Japanese, learn their culture. We have a learning centre where everyone [TMT] goes to Japan has to have a six month intensive Japanese training. It's an immersion course where they speak in Japanese and live like Japanese, eat Japanese food, all sign boards in Japanese, so they're getting that culture. When they come out of this, they speak Japanese fluently like any other local Japanese person" (ITSP-10).

ITSP-10's comments highlighted that the TMT from the firm was very serious about learning new knowledge from external stakeholders so that they can become more innovative at work. However, learning must be related to the mission and objectives of an organization (Martin, 2000). It is naturally TMT's role to ensure that strategic approaches for integrating new knowledge and learning capabilities are adopted and learning is seen as the responsibility of all members in the organization. The following interviewees described the learning journey of their TMT to acquire knowledge and how their organization developed and grew:

“In those days [when we first started the business] ... the infrastructure was very poor and the BPO industry had just started. So I think it was the ability [of our founders] to convince the buyers that we could send work here and we could manage it well. Next was the ability [of our employees] to manage off-shoring [operations]. Then I think in the first couple of years we [the entire organization] learned to manage the service delivery very well and ensured that operations had gone as promised. The service level agreements were being met. All contracts and commitments were adhered to so that I think that the ability [to internalize and utilize knowledge] is extremely important” (ITSP-6).

In addition, the interview data revealed critical information regarding the participants' perception of specific human resource practices on the development of knowledge and learning capabilities of IT professionals for sustainability. Much research today in relation to employee development is focused on the effects of training functions on productivity and financial performance (Bassi, Ludwig, McMurrer, & Van Buren, 2002; Baum & Silverman, 2004; Evans & Clarke, 2010). As unveiled from the data, formal training was mainly utilized in the participating organizations but was largely for the purpose of transferring knowledge rather than promoting sustainable competitive advantage. When asked what could be done to enhance knowledge and learning capabilities for sustainability in their organizations, many of the interviewees (70%) perceived that formal training was the tool to achieve the purpose. The following examples illustrate the point:

“If a fresher comes to us, and I'm talking about IT professional and computer graduate, company invests about six months training in specific domain areas ...” (ITSP-8).

“It [the organization] needs to constantly invest in training and development, make sure it's people are at the cutting edge of technology, professionals are continuously learning what's going on in the world” (ITSP-9).

Formal training can be utilized as a significant human resource practice to facilitate knowledge and learning capabilities (Shadur, Rodwell, Simmons, & Bamber, 1994) as it is 'instrumental in increasing the knowledge and competence of individuals' (Johannessen & Olsen, 2003). However, formal training is not the only method that can be utilized to leverage knowledge and learning capabilities. It is important to note that the key is to facilitate the development, application and dissemination of knowledge that leads to sustainability. The process of enhancing knowledge and learning capabilities does not always require a substantial amount of resources. Indeed, informal communications and knowledge sharing can also be effective techniques to facilitate the transfer of knowledge and learning in organizations. In the interview data, only 30% of the interviewees mention approaches other than formal training for facilitating knowledge and learning in their organizations. The following were the only two quotes which highlight the important of non-traditional training and development for knowledge transfer:

“We have something called Innovative Council. The task of this Innovation Council is to encourage employees to come up with innovative ideas. I don't think anybody would have thought mobiles would have a camera or FM radio four years back. Someone came up with such an idea and say 'why don't we try this'. So this Innovation Council helps to brainstorm ideas” (ITSP-10).

“What happens is every year we have these excellence awards. Every year when we have our annual day we give excellence awards to employees who gave innovative ideas. If a person gets an excellence award twice consecutively one of the rooms is named after him [sic]. So every conference room has a name” (ITSP-7).

Venkata Ratnam (1995) suggests that rules regarding human resource practices such as recruitment, training, promotions and lay-off in Indian firms are ad hoc in nature and are subject to easy manipulations by employers. The interview data revealed similar findings:

“The way we manage it [employee turnover] is to have a hiring engine which fires faster than the attrition engine as long as there are more people coming into the organization than is leaving” (ITSP-6).

Although TMT's turnover rate is likely to be less than that of other employees, the above findings suggest that Indian ITSPs are generally lack of guidance on how human resource practices can be used to foster knowledge and learning capabilities for sustainability and thus the organizations' potential for creating new knowledge for sustainability is likely not fully acknowledged.

5. Research Implications

Research in relation to TMT is largely restricted to recruitment and retention of the employees in organizations mostly from advanced industrialized countries. The study of the role of TMT of knowledge intensive MNEs from developing countries, particularly in relation to their ability to acquire external knowledge through networking skills, is less understood. One of the major concerns of Indian ITSPs in terms of the management of TMT is the loss of employees to rival companies. Employee turnover often represents a loss of knowledge and learning capabilities (Loi, Ngo, & Foley, 2006). It has direct impacts on the financial costs associated with loss of human knowledge investment, additional recruitment and training, and the negative effects on productivity (Guchait & Cho, 2010). The damage of losing TMT to rival companies is even greater as this represents the lost of external knowledge acquisition for a sustainable future. Even

if new TMT join an organization, it will usually take a considerable time for them to pick up the knowledge that they need before they can proceed in any decision-making. Accordingly, both academics and senior executives are keen to study predictors of employee turnover (Loi, et al., 2006). Most research conducted today perceives that employee turnover has negative impacts on organizational performance (Benson, 2006; Buck & Watson, 2002; Guchait & Cho, 2010; Wright & Kehoe, 2008). However, some employee turnover can also be beneficial for the organization in terms of knowledge and learning renewal by bringing in 'new blood'. Thus, management's overall focus should be to maintain a balance between employee turnover and the management of external knowledge acquisition so that the overall stock of the organization's knowledge is not depleted.

This study provides an improved understanding of how TMT can play a role in acquiring external knowledge for a sustainable future and laid the foundations for future research on the topic in the Indian context.

6. Proposed Significance of Further Study

Indian ITSPs require new knowledge and skills to sustain strategic competitiveness. They must deal with HRM issues, in particular how TMT may help to foster external knowledge acquisition for sustainability in their organization. However, organizations practice a set of diverse human resource practices, and each of these practices is related to each other (Guchait & Cho, 2010). Thus, human resource practices in an organization cannot be treated independently (Guchait & Cho, 2010). Research possibilities of the relationships between human resource practices and knowledge and learning capabilities may include: what are the relationship(s) between external knowledge and human resource practices that lead to sustainability in ITSPs? Preceding research has mostly described the link between selected human resource practices (such as recruitment, training and development, pay incentives) and knowledge and learning capabilities (Collins & Smith, 2006). However, what remains unclear is how external knowledge influences the strategic human resource management decision making of managing external knowledge acquisition in the organizations. Thus, it is essential to have a better understanding of the transformation of routine human resource activities towards a strategic approach to external knowledge acquisition. This paper argues that TMT's ability to understand and interact with outsiders plays a significant role in acquiring external knowledge for sustainability. However, it is important to note that external knowledge must be further developed, internalized, and utilized in order to generate sustainability for the organization.

7. Conclusion

This paper highlights a strong scarcity of research on TMT's social ability on external knowledge acquisition for sustainability in the Indian IT context. The richness of the interview data provided valuable insights into knowledge management and learning as they related to human resource practices for knowledge intensive firms in India. Against the established norms of Indian IT firms and confirmed from qualitative interview data collected from 11 Indian IT senior executives, this study revealed that social network skills helped to foster external knowledge acquisition. The development of social ability of TMT becomes critical if ITSPs are to sustain strategic competitiveness.

The interview data supported that Indian ITSPs needed to develop human resource strategies to sustain their vast pool of TMT and ensure that their talents remained industry-relevant and equipped with the necessary skill sets to become useful to the Indian IT service sector. Although the research focuses on Indian ITSPs, the findings in the paper open doors for future studies to conduct cross-national HRM research in relation to external knowledge acquisition for sustainability; and compare human resource practices in different organizations and different countries around the world at organizational and individual levels. The findings will also provide significant insights to startup firms emerging in other developing countries, like those in China, as global players in international business. An improved understanding of how TMT's interaction with outsiders can play a role to enhance knowledge and learning capabilities will possibly lead to innovative strategies in business organizations. Thus the findings possibly provide significant insights to managers on how they may adapt human resource strategies in order to enhance innovation in their organizations.

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Religion, Stigmatization and National Culture in Australia

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Abstract

In some situations in either the workplace or in general society around the world some religions carry a stigmatizing label. Scant research has been published based on biases leveled against an individual's religion or spirituality; yet it is an emerging organizational issue. This paper investigates the affect national culture has on the stigmatization of religion in the Australian workplace. The findings indicate that national culture does play a role in the perception of a religious belief which leads to whether a belief has a stigmatized identity attached to it. In turn, this attitude will affect how the individual and the organization manage religious diversity. This is particularly important for HR practitioners since Australia is opening its doors for skilled migrant labour. HR practitioners in Australia must take a more holistic approach to understanding the growing religious diversity of the Australian workplace.

Keywords: cultural, religion, stigma theory, diversity, Australia

1. Introduction

The role of national culture in shaping the worldview of individuals is an accepted phenomenon. In some situations around the world, some religions carry a stigmatizing label in either the workplace or in general society. In Iran where the Baha'i faith faces strong persecution by the ruling factions, being a member of the Baha'i faith is a social stigma. In Pakistan recently a Christian woman accused of 'insulting Islam' was sentenced to death, illustrating a total lack of religious tolerance (Max, 2011). Until the last decade the People's Republic of China took strong measures to control religious movements. It is evident that one can assert that national culture plays a significant role in the perception of negative traits that one may possess leading to a stigmatizing label of religious belief or a given religion.

Although the examples of religious stigmatization represent extreme cases, the purpose was to illustrate that the stigmatization of religion exists on a national level. The aim of this paper is to carry forward the proposition that national culture plays a significant moderating role in the stigmatization of religious practice even in a developed nation that has officially adopted a multicultural view of their nation. This is specifically illustrated in the context of the Australian workplace.

Members of the Muslim faith have experienced an increase in stigmatization in Australia since the September 11th, 2001 terrorist attack and subsequent terrorist activities (Poynting and Noble 2004). This is within a backdrop of an official multicultural policy that promotes 'tolerance', which seems to be equated with acceptance of all differences. Yet, it was not until the mid 1970s that the 'white only' immigration policy was abandoned. Australia's history of tough immigration laws resulted in a predominantly Christian society (67%) (ABS, 2007). However, government statistics indicate that there are well over 250 different faiths which include Christian faiths, Muslim, Buddhist, Hindu, Jewish, and Baha'i (ABS, 2007). Therefore one can expect to find that a workplace of over 100 employees is likely to have a very religiously diverse workforce, thus providing an excellent sample population for study.

2. Stigma Research and Religion

Several authors have classified religious belief as a characteristic that opens an individual to stigmatization (Clair, Beatty & MacLean, 2005; Ragins, 2008). Goffman, (1963) in his seminal treatise on stigmas, he provided brief anecdotal evidence that religious belief could result in stigmatization. Scant research has been published based on biases leveled against an individual's religion or spirituality; yet it is an emerging organizational issue (Lips-Wierma and Mills 2002, Thomson, 2010).

Stigmas are defined by Ragins as “individual attributes that are viewed as personal flaws within a social context” (2008: 196). The belief that identity is located and communicated through social exchange provides the foundation that factors within the environment can moderate the status of a stigma (Goffman 1963; Ragins 2008). We are identified by a group membership, status or categorization allotted to us by the society (Clair, Beatty and MacLean 2005; Lips-Wierma and Mills 2002). This means, the characteristics of stigmas are defined within the culture, hence they are “collectively defined and recognized” (Clair, Beatty and MacLean 2005 p.81). Revealing a stigmatizing identity opens an individual up to scrutiny and the stigma becomes the perceived primary characteristic leading to stereotyping, discrimination, and bias, which in turn, results in many stigmatized groups suffering the loss of status, economic problems and limited opportunities (Clair, Beatty and MacLean 2005; Ragins, 2008).

Research has identified that, due to the socially constructed nature of stigmas, stigmas generate different responses when they are perceived to have particular characteristics (Ragins, 2008). Of the four characteristics the first is the concept of ‘controllability’ which places the responsibility for the cause or maintenance of the stigmatized condition either within control of the individual or outside of the control of the individual (Ragins, 2008). Individuals who are perceived as having stigma characteristics within their control (controllable) are more negatively treated than individuals perceived as having uncontrollable stigmas (e.g. race, and physical attributes) (Weiner, Perry and Magnusson, 1988). The second is ‘peril’ or ‘threat’ which indicates the degree and/or nature of perceived danger (Ragins, 2008). Since 9/11 the ‘peril’ or ‘threat’ attached to Muslims has increased. ‘Disruptiveness’ is the degree to which social interactions are hindered or strained and is the third characteristic. Finally, the effect of time on the condition, which causes change, is called ‘course’ (Ragins, 2008). This can be exemplified by the increased visibility of some diseases as they progress (e.g. AIDS).

The decision to reveal or conceal an individual’s stigmatizing identity causes stress and anxiety during social interactions in the workplace. The stress of maintaining such secrecy can have a negative impact on job satisfaction and performance (Clair, Beatty and MacLean 2005; Ragins, 2008). Findings of several studies confirm that disclosure of a stigmatizing identity is a complicated process which is handled on a person-to-person basis, where trust and expected reaction are the basis of decision making (Ragins, Cornwell and Miller 2003; Weiner, Perry and Magnusson 1988). In a study, Woods (1993) identified three strategies that are used to manage stigmatized identities of lesbian, gay and bisexual employees. The first strategy is ‘counterfeiting’ which is where an individual passes as a member of the accepted group by creating an identity that matches the accepted group’s characteristics (Ragins, 2008; Woods, 1993). The second is ‘avoidance’ where the individual evades revealing by self-editing, bending the truth, and censoring; anti-social behavior and/or avoiding discussions regarding their personal lives (Ragins 2008, Woods 1993). Finally, integration or an open strategy is one in which the individual is very open and willingly discloses the stigmatized identity (Woods 1993).

Ample research has shown that national culture affects attitudes (Hofstede, 1997; Triandis, 2006). This has been linked by numerous authors to diversity management practices for race, ethnicity and gender (e.g. Bhaskaran, and Sukumaran, 2007). One of the early studies to measure the effect of religious values on management and work attitudes used a sample population consisting of primarily foreign born participants of the Roman Catholic and Muslim faiths. It found ‘reasonable support’ for the proposition that religious values and beliefs affected management and work attitudes (Safranski & Kwon, 1989).

How religion impacts upon the socialization processes is the focus of one of the few articles that discusses religion as a stigma (Brega and Coleman, 1999). They link religiosity and religious participation with both positive mental and physical health. Further, they argue that religion can be a significant predictor of behavior because it is also positively related to happiness, self esteem, and life satisfaction and a negative relationship with anxiety and suicide intentions. Brega and Coleman suggest that religion is a “system of meaning, social support, and social control” (1999 p.6); therefore, non-attendees of religious organizations are more likely to be stigmatized than attendees.

Lips-Wierma and Mills (2002) support the concept that the decisions regarding the level of expression are contextual in a study of spiritual expression in the workplace (Lips-Wierma and Mills 2002). They state that there are three interrelated factors or processes that determine the level of expression of spirituality:

1. Stimuli - reaction to cues received from the environment that stimulate the level of expression.
2. Analysis-leading-to-decision - the actual decision making process, or lack of it.
3. Action- the individual acts upon decisions based upon the stimuli within the environment.

Here again is the contextual concept of a stigma raised. Since environments change and are different therefore what is a stigma will change and the strategy chosen for a given stigma will also change. Figure 1 illustrates the affect of environmental factors on stigmatization.

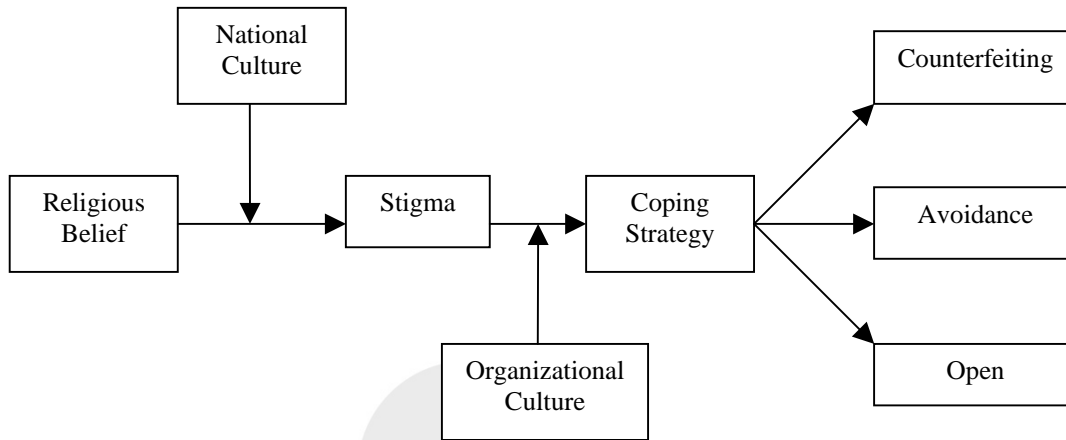


Figure 1. Affect of National Culture on Stigmatization of Religious Belief

It is with these environmental factors in mind that it is proposed that one of the factors is national culture. This along with the scant research on the factors that mediate or moderate the relationship between religious belief and stigmatization raises the following research question –

What is the influence of national culture on the relationship between religious belief and stigmatization?

3. Methodology

Since religion is extremely personal and the nature of the research is exploratory, a qualitative methodology was adopted. Further, with the scant amount of published literature on religion in the workplace and the stigmatization of religious belief, a more holistic or exploratory approach is necessary (Creswell 1998). According to Creswell (1998) when there is a lack of theoretical explanation to explain behavior; and/or there is need to develop or expand theory an exploratory approach is suitable to locate variables that are not easily identifiable.

Semi-structured interviews and focus groups were selected as primary data collection methods. All interviews and focus groups were conducted in English and although for some of the participants English was a second language, all participants were fluent in English. Following all interviews and focus groups, the interviewer or focus group facilitator wrote out notes on the general impressions of the process and results. All interviews and focus groups were digitally taped and transcribed. All data (transcribed interviews, notes taken during interviews, and notes from observations regarding the organization and environment) were analyzed using a grounded theory approach. The analysis was guided through the use of grounded theory’s reiterative analysis process through the use of categorization (themes, categories, sub-categories and properties). A key to grounded theory is gathering enough data that illuminates themes, categories, sub-categories, and properties of given phenomena (Strauss & Corbin 1998).

For the interviews, ten employees are from one organization (Org1) and three employees from two separate organizations (Org2 and Org3). The three organizations are subsidiaries of large multinational organizations, and all have more than 5000 employees (See Table 1). The thirteen interviews took six months to collect and required several requests sent via the organizations’ email system as well as posters placed in appropriate locations. Thus, it was decided that to verify, strengthen, and add depth to the findings of the interviews, focus groups would be conducted. RIW13 is the participant code – R (religion) I (in) W (workplace) and the number is the participant number. FGP is the participant code for focus group participants.

Table 1. Demographics for Interview Participants

	Religion	RB*	Age	Born	Married	Job	Tenure	Gender	Org
RIW2	Catholic	Very	54	A**	M***	Accounting	31	M	2
RIW3	Catholic	Very	26	A	S***	Engineer	1.5	F	2
RIW4	Anglican	Weak	49	F**	M	Office	13	F	1
RIW5	Anglican	Weak	52	F	M	Floor	12	M	1
RIW7	Jewish	Very	24	F	S	Marketing	3	M	1
RIW8	Muslim	Very	29	F	M	Engineer	3	M	1
RIW10	Muslim	Very	44	F	M	Floor	9	M	1
RIW11	Catholic	Very	42	F	M	Engineer	8	M	1
RIW12	Jewish	Very	31	A	S	Office	3	F	1
RIW13	Jewish	Very	22	A	S	IT	1	F	1
RIW14	Catholic	Weak	41	F	M	Floor	10	M	1
RIW15	Atheism	None	37	A	M	Engineer	1	M	1
RIW17	Catholic	Very	48	F	D***	F S ¹	0.5	M	3
		Average Age	38.4		Average Tenure	6.9			

RIW – Religion In the Workplace interviewee. RB – Depth of Religious Belief

A – Australia; F- Foreign *M – Married; S – Single; D – Divorced ¹ F S - Food Services

Interviews 1, 6, 9 and 16 were conducted with religious leaders and human resource managers for background material thus they are not included in the analysis.

There were a total of 30 participants in the four focus groups (see Table 2). Three of the focus groups were arranged through religious organizations because it was felt that participants would be more comfortable and open with other members of the same faith and people they knew. The strategy appeared to work as individuals were very open. At the beginning of each focus group, the participants were reminded that it was confidential and that their opinions were important. Each focus group was scheduled for an hour but only one focus group finished within that timeframe. All the other focus groups lasted an average of ninety minutes.

Regarding organizational size one other focus group participant also works for an organization with over 5000 employees. Eight participants work for organizations with over 1000 but less than 5000 employees. Six participants work for organizations with 200 to 700 employees and four participants work for organizations with less than 50 employees. Finally, two focus group participants work for companies with less than ten employees.

There are nine religious faiths represented by the participants in both the interview and focus groups. Six of the faiths are Christian churches – Catholic, Orthodox, Anglican, Lutheran, Uniting, and Power of God (Pentecostal). The Jewish, Muslim and Baha'i faiths are also represented and there is one atheist. The majority of the focus group participants (25) place their depth of belief as very important. However, as can be seen by the existence of an atheist in the interview sample, the depth of religious belief varies from not religious to very a important aspect of their lives.

Table 2. Demographics for Focus Group Participants

FG#		Affiliation	RB*	Age	Born	Married	Job	Tenure	G
1	FGP1	P of G ¹	6	22	A**	S***	Medicine	0.1	F
1	FGP2	P of G	7	25	F**	S	Medicine	0.1	M
1	FGP3	P of G	7	50	A	D***	Accountant	2.3	F
1	FGP4	P of G	7	51	F	M***	Therapist	20	M
1	FGP5	P of G	7	36	F	M	Medicine	0.8	M
1	FGP6	P of G	5	46	A	D	Cust Serv ²	30	M
2	FGP8	Lutheran	7	29	A	S	Banking	2	M

2	FGP9	Lutheran	5	39	A	M	IT	10	M
2	FGP10	Lutheran	6	20	A	S	Office	0.1	M
2	FGP11	Lutheran	7	24	A	S	IT	0.8	F
2	FGP12	Lutheran	7	24	A	S	IT	2.5	M
2	FGP13	Lutheran	7	24	A	S	Educator	1.1	F
2	FGP14	Lutheran	7	29	A	S	Therapist	NR	F
2	FGP15	Lutheran	6	31	A	S	Cust Serv	7	M
3	FGP7	Catholic	7	42	A	M	Childcare	6	F
3	FGP16	Anglican	2	51	A	D	Office	20	F
3	FGP17	Catholic	1	53	A	M	Educator	20	M
3	FGP18	Lutheran	7	51	F	M	Chaplin	10	M
3	FGP19	Orthodox	7	60	F	M	Chaplin	7	M
3	FGP20	Catholic	6	60	A	S	Office	8	F
3	FGP21	Christian	7	36	A	M	Office	2	F
4	FGP22	Uniting	4	33	A	S	Marketing	2	F
4	FGP23	Baha'i	7	39	A	S	Journalist	0.33	F
4	FGP24	Baha'i	7	41	F	S	Dentist	11	F
4	FGP25	Baha'i	6	35	F	S	IT	8	M
4	FGP26	Baha'i	7	50	F	M	Finance	5	M
4	FGP27	Baha'i	7	35	F	S	Finance	6	M
4	FGP28	Baha'i	7	46	A	D	Marketing	23	M
4	FGP29	Baha'i	7	42	A	S	Librarian	4	F
4	FGP30	Baha'i	7	40	F	S	Therapist	3	M
			6.2	38.8				7.3	

FGP – Focus Group Participant. *RB – Depth of Religious Belief **A – Australia; F- Foreign S – Single; D – Divorced; ***M – Married

¹ P of G – Power of God Church ² Cust Serv – Customer Service

4. Results

It was interesting to note how the perceptions of the participants were divided by a demographic characteristic, namely place of birth. This resulted in participants born outside of Australia holding a different view of the Australian cultural attitude towards religion. Thus the results will be divided into three sections: the views of Australian born participants about immigrants (individuals born outside of Australia) and religion; views of participants born outside of Australia about Australians and religion; and the perception of 'tolerance'.

4.1 Australian views

There was a general consensus from the Australian-born participants; they believed that Australians accepted being multicultural, but differentiated between Australians and immigrants. RIW13 summed the difference up in the following quote.

Yeah, some people they just base you being a foreigner or local on the colour of your skin. They don't realize that it is not based on that technically. And the whole thing is as well people saying, "Ah well they're not really Australian" or something like that. If you live here and you're a citizen, you are Australian! (RIW13 - 405)

Participants recognised that there were problems, but felt that they were minor ones.

I think I would be ignorant to say it doesn't cause problems. But I think the vast majority enjoy life with that cultural diversity. You know the mini pockets of different groups you can sort of enter into a different world almost. You go to (lists several different communities). It does cause problems. Does it enter into the workplace? Probably to some degree but on the whole, not as a major overwhelming position. It is more the exception than the rule where there is an imposition. (RIW12 – 216)

Here the concept of avoidance comes through – each group creates its own community, which is accepted. Again highlighting avoidance, FGP3 stated that instead of being perceived racist, Australians just did not say anything.

I don't think Australians want to offend because if you hear the talk behind the things we are not that tolerant. ... And I think that, you know, if they don't open their mouth to start off with because it is going to be perceived as being racist. And instead of it as something they don't like, it is going to be racist so they don't open their mouth. (FGP3 - 118)

So the fear of being perceived as intolerant was a justification for using avoidance by the act of not saying anything as a solution.

4.1.1 Religion

As far as immigrants' religion was concerned, the perceived Australian attitude was one of tolerance where tolerance was taken to mean an awareness of a difference, but not necessarily accepting it. This can be seen in FGP29's quote where she reveals that she feels people are questioning her about her acceptance of the Baha'i faith.

One of the things that it means to me is that from me as an Australian born and raised in choosing the faith for myself, I always feel, like other Aussies, if I talk about the faith they are not, they are more likely to think that is a little bit strange. Whereas, if you are coming and you can correct me anybody from Iran (laughter), it is just my impression that if you come from another culture, because people here have a culture of priding themselves on being really tolerant than they will, they will behave in a really tolerant open minded manner to somebody who says they are from Iran and say they are Baha'i. But I say, I am Aussie born and bred, six generations, and I am a Baha'i by choice, they will look at me like okay and what is really going on with her, you know. (Laughter), that is not, because Australia is such a traditionally nonreligious, I think it is a nonreligious society. (FGP29 - 97)

The lack of acceptance can be seen in her statement in which she discussed how other Australians question her faith and how the Islamic community was pushing the boundaries. She indicated that Australians accepted a different religion as long as it did not come into conflict with 'core values' of Australian society. FGP6 called Australians 'close minded' and they did not want religion or Christianity.

RIW12 raised an interesting observation when she stated that large organizations reflect the Australian demographics. Thus, because of the close contact in a work environment, individuals become more aware of differences.

Umm, as long as it is within [company name] itself it is a lot more profound because there's a lot of people in one place so it is very obvious that we have that the religious and cultural diversity within the one place. Whereas I suppose generally with Australia there is an awareness of it but generally everyone is still to a degree in their little groups and not confronted with it as readily as we are within our work environment. (RIW12 – 76)

So the overall attitude of Australian participants towards immigrants and their religion was perceived to be one of wary tolerance or avoidance.

4.2 Immigrant views

The attitude of immigrants towards Australians, reflected the idea of tolerance (what that means will be discussed later) and the laissez faire approach of Australians.

But for the moment, Australians, in general, are very laid back, I think that's got to do with why, what I

think anyways, people don't make any complaints or, there is not need to make complaints, it's just not acceptable. (RIW8 – 137)

RIW11 believed that people just did not care and also recognised that there was a difference in how people were treated in the work environment and outside of the work environment. RIW8 agreed with that perception when asked if he found the same kind of acceptance from people outside of work.

No, I don't think so. People are maybe a bit defensive, or... sometimes even aggressive. I think, yeah, that people do look at you, with a step back, they may not necessarily be rude to you, people, you know, are good as well. But I think it's more accepted here, more acceptable here. And very friendly people and free to interact with anyone. I think it's a better environment at work than it is outside. Very generally speaking. (RIW8 – 109)

RIW14 explained the difference in attitude because of an attitude of distrust towards immigrants, which he believed stretched far back into Australian history.

Like there is a distrust of people that come from overseas; there is a distrust of other religions, there's a distrust of everything. Like the Chinese came here for the gold, just the gold, they worked a little harder because they come from a poor country. There's always a paranoia. Every few years there is a new wave of immigrants arriving. And right now is the Muslim community wave and they are being treated like fools. But nobody has read the Koran to find out why. (RIW14 – 96)

RIW11 illustrated the distrust by pointing out that in all the years he has lived in Australia (over seven years), he had not received one invitation to an 'Aussie' home (In this context 'Aussie' meant an individual born and raised in Australia). He felt that people born outside of Australia were more open and friendly than people born in Australia. He believed he would always be seen as a foreigner regardless of being an Australian citizen. Whereas RIW17 when asked if he was accepted for who he was, he replied:

Absolutely. It is up to the individuals to prove themselves. (RIW17 – 180)

In line with the concept that it is up to the individual, RIW4 and RIW5 told stories of immigrants coming to Australia to be Australian. For example, an Indian Sikh, who ate spaghetti Bolognese and supported the Australian cricket team or a Sri Lankan, who joined the Australian military forces and "has actually been shot at for the Australian society" (RIW5 – 72) or the Vietnamese co-worker, who went back to Vietnam after twenty years and realised that "Vietnam was not home; Australia was home" (RIW5 – 54). RIW17 concurred with those thoughts and put the logic behind it as follows.

And people come here and they bring all their dirty linen with them. It's okay to have your heart stay in Canada but it's all right to follow, you know, ice hockey or whatever, and, you know. Be passionate about things going on in Canada, that's a very big bond, that's where your parents are, where your brothers and sisters are. But if you have decided to make Australia your home, leave all that behind you. (RIW17 – 184)

For many of the participants, they felt the need to join Australian culture by immersing themselves in it. This 'leave all that behind you' attitude reflects a desired strategy of assimilation or counterfeiting. However, one aspect of the foreign born participant's original culture that they were reluctant to shed was religion.

4.2.1 Religion

RIW4 and RIW5 agreed that immigrants still maintain a link with their culture, and usually it was religion.

But you will still find that they come out here to Australia and they can change so many... so many of their mindsets and still stick to their origin. The guy that (RIW5) speaking about still wears his turban. He will wear a western shirt, western trousers, western shoes but still have his turban on. And that is a religious head piece, is not any part of the uniform. So it does not matter how many parts of the life they will assimilate into Australia, they won't assimilate their origin. (RIW4 – 74)

For RIW4 the fact that an Indian Sikh would still wear his turban demonstrates his link with his religious upbringing. This was echoed by FGP24 when she spoke about how religion was so infused in people's lives that it was inconceivable that someone would convert to another religion. The example she gave was of an Italian being anything other than Catholic. She said that the person was born into their religion and could not choose it. They may not practice but it was 'ingrained in one's consciousness' (FGP24 – 119).

Those born outside of Australia perceived religion to be of little importance to Australians. RIW14 raised the issue of distrust of other religions (non-Christian). Both RIW11 and RIW14 voiced the opinion that Australians did not talk about religion. RIW11 said Australia was a secular society, and that religion was 'perceived as a sissy kind of thing' (RIW11 – 35). He correctly identified that approximately 25 per cent of Australians claim no religion and stated it was 'difficult to adjust to being somewhere where there's no religion' (RIW11 – 15). His advice to his new bride from India was not to talk about religion. However, he was quick to point out that just because Australians had no faith it did not mean that they were not good and honest people. Once again, as an individual born outside of Australia, RIW11, speaking of Australians in general, perceived 'tolerance' was the common attitude towards the various aspects of immigrants' religion.

4.3 Tolerance

The participants were asked to provide a word which described the attitude towards religious diversity; 'tolerance' was the word most often quoted. The following three definitions are typical of the definitions given by the Australian born participants.

Well, I think tolerance is allowing people to, you know, do their thing. ... Tolerance could be just allowing people to do their things and also like not acknowledging such a difference, you know, they're just someone else doing their thing. So not identifying them according to their religion or race or anything like that. (RIW13 - 173)

In accepting, in acceptance of diversity and still maintaining my own identity or something but also being accepting of others. (RIW12 - 152)

Well, yeah, I would define tolerance as being accepting of whatever anybody else is doing whatever faith they have because they believe in that. (RIW3 - 118)

The last two quotes use 'accepting' as a key part of tolerance, whereas the first quote focuses on 'allowing'. All three quotes reflect a very positive connotation. Tolerance represented a strong positive feature of Australian multiculturalism. It was only when the participants were questioned further about the meaning that some Australian born participants felt it had a negative spin.

As stated by FGP29, tolerance had its boundaries and something she defined as 'politeness'. RIW15 explains why he does not like to use the word tolerance when talking about his views on multiculturalism and religious diversity.

Tolerance implies that something is taking place and you necessarily don't like, and that you put up with it and that's not how I like to treat other people's faith or other people in general. Consider it as... I don't feel that I tolerate someone's religion or any other part of it. There's certain personality that I do feel I have to tolerate like but their religion has no impact on it one way or the other, in general. And so I don't see it anything to tolerate; I see it as something I accept. (RIW15 – 165)

When talking about avoidance as strategy for dealing with religion in the workplace, RIW12 was asked if the concept of tolerance included an aspect of avoidance.

Yeah, I think so. Because you say I tolerate it, I tolerate it and it is over there and I ... you can say you're really tolerant but not actually engage with it and keep it at arms length. (RIW12 – 168)

This concept of avoidance also came up in the definitions of other Australian born participants when they discussed the reluctance to say anything. Focus Group 2 participants' preferred manner of dealing with difference was to simply 'not say anything' or in other words tolerance meant avoid discussing any possible contentious issue.

The interpretation of tolerance for most of the foreign born participants fell in line with RIW13's definition of allowing others to do what they want, but foreign born participants more readily saw a negative connotation to tolerance.

Well you see.... it is not... the only thing that you have to do, really, that you need to do, should do is tolerated that that person. You don't have to approve of what they're doing. Whatever they do does not require your approval. All it requires is for you to be tolerant of that person to allow them to go around and do their daily employment just as you would expect them to tolerate you. (RIW4 - 216)

Although RIW11's advice to his new wife was not to talk about religion, the general attitude of foreign born participants reflected more willingness to talk about religion and ask questions. The following quote exemplifies this attitude.

We are tolerant that we're asking questions so that people don't get offended. I think we meet someone and you're talking to them that you find out he's not such a bad guy and later on you find out he's a Muslim you don't say.... if you were told he was a Muslim first you would have all these pictures coming up in your head. I think, I think when you meet people on an everyday basis, even at work, [you] are slightly racist but then they start thinking I hated this guy when I first found out about his faith but he talks to me politely and then they came to accept it. (RIW14 – 104)

Another positive aspect of multiculturalism and tolerance, as raised by RIW5, was that it allowed him to grow as an individual.

I don't think it's [exposure to different cultures at work] as much as taught me to be tolerant, I think it's brought my tolerance into conscious if what because you actually have been exposed to it. ... And now at (company name) because I can sit down and literally be sitting beside a Vietnamese, and had an Italian or Turkish guy on the other side all talking about the same thing. That has brought the tolerance to consciousness and also in such has probably enlarged the amount of tolerance I have. (RIW5 – 250-252)

So exposure to other cultures at work raised the conscious awareness of those cultures and created a greater level of understanding as reflected by a greater level of tolerance. But again, RIW5's statement reflects the foreign born participants' openness to discuss differences.

RIW5 also raised the point that the tolerance process consists of a two-way process.

Again because I think that it is acute case of the two sides of the people coming in who have had to get used to the fact that they have to tolerate the people that are here. Right? It's not just in case we have to tolerate those that are coming in but they have to except that they are different to the people who are here. So those people that have already assimilated the fact that there are multiple differences. (RIW5 - 169)

So according to RIW5, not only do Australians have to be tolerant but so do immigrants. That concept was once again raised by RIW10 who provided an example of how language can be an area in which tolerance and understanding must be practiced by both sides.

In the society we live, we actually very much understand each other. If some one say to me 'you bastard', I actually just don't bother. He say to me 'bastard' in a different perspective maybe. Maybe he joke with me. Maybe really making fun of me. So I can see that where it come from, we use to it. The society we live is fantastic. But recently the new wave of immigration is coming and I saw these people is, they take this sort of word in a completely different way. I notice that one. And the Australian how you just switch it on. Suddenly you say to some one I fix you today, I know where you live. And it became a threat and it is with this threat he go to management and this man he lost his job. Although me maybe not.... He lost his temper he say something. If he say something to me I probably not be bothered but in the new wave of immigration those people taking it seriously and the law is in black and white. If you threaten someone that is it you are finished. I think the thing is very important for the organization to enforce the policy is

good but I think it also need to be those new Australians just understand how society react. I think so. You don't have to be taking literally everything what people say. (RIW10 – 162)

So within the quote one can see how a lack of understanding of a flippant remark caused problems. This also fits in with the early opinions of foreign born participants in the 'immigrant – Australia' section where they said that immigrants need to adapt to Australian culture and leave their issues from the home country behind.

So when it came to tolerance there was a slight difference of how Australian born participants and foreign born participants viewed the definition of tolerance. Australian born participants gave it a more positive connotation and only mentioned the negative side when questioned about it; whereas, foreign born participants were quicker to point out the negative aspects of the definition. Both groups saw tolerance as an avoidance strategy when dealing with religion but the foreign born participants were more willing to discuss religion with their colleagues at work.

It is interesting to note that all participants recognized the role of culture in religious stigmatization. A participant who is a member of the Baha'i faith voiced that religion is a part of culture.

I think that is partly because religion becomes part of culture. (FGP24 111)

It is difficult to actually demarcate where religion ends and where a social system actually begins. (FGP24 - 115)

She told a story of growing up in Iran, of persecution and stigmatization because of their faith. The story was of how one day, a powerful religious leader told the followers of his faith (the majority faith) that Baha'is were blasphemous. This brought about a wave of violence towards Baha'is. The participant's neighbours, whom they considered friends, and not particularly strong believers of the majority faith, became caught up in the wave of violence. Those friends and neighbours came onto their property, destroyed things, damaged others and hurled insults. She believed that they did this not because of their religiosity, but because of cultural pressure.

Several participants compared the Australian attitude towards religion to the attitude towards religion in other countries they had visited. Two participants commented on how much more obvious religious belief was in the United States. Thus the participants themselves recognized the affect of national culture on the perception of religion and the stigmatizing affect national culture can have on religion in the workplace.

5. Discussion

National culture was defined by Alkhazraji, Gardner, Martin, and Paolillo as "relatively enduring personality characteristics and patterns that are modal among the adult members of society" (1997, p.222). This includes how one deals with society, authority and gender and methods of handling conflict, aggression and expression of emotions. The findings of this study indicate that there is a subtle but important difference in the attitude towards religion between those born in Australia and those born outside of Australia. Australians were perceived as having a laissez faire attitude and the Australian multicultural buzz word, 'tolerance', had negative connotations for those born outside of the country. These perceptions lead to a strategy of passive avoidance for migrants and a passive open/integrated strategy for Australian born participants.

Australia's official attitude towards migrants was voiced by Federal Liberal Party politician and then Education Minister (now Leader of the Opposition) who said that tolerance, along with inclusion, understanding, and responsibility were the founding values of Australia and those that did not want to 'accept and embrace those values, then they ought to clear off, I don't care where they came from' (Haywood, 2005, p1). This attitude hardly reflects the positive concept of acceptance that the Australian born participants voiced but does reflect the negative connotations that the foreign born participants perceived.

So with this back drop of tolerance both Australian born participants defined tolerance as allowing people to 'do their thing' and acceptance of others. Foreign born participants more readily recognised the negative aspect of tolerance. As discussed, tolerance could have the connotation of allowing people to do something but not liking it, which might lead to undercurrents of stigmatization. Research done by the National Institute of Labour Studies showed that 50% of the over 15,000 immigrants surveyed believed Australians showed a lot of religious tolerance; whereas, 36% believed there was

some tolerance and 8% believed there was little tolerance shown (Richardson et al., 2004). A flaw in their study is the failure to ask what tolerance meant. Unfortunately there are no statistics to compare with the feelings of Australian born individuals but the results do provide some support for the findings of this study that immigrants have a mixed view of tolerance but most see a negative aspect to tolerance in Australia.

The influence of Western societal philosophies was primarily a concern of foreign born participants. This finding coincided with a point raised by Douglas A. Hicks in his book *Religion and the Workplace*. Members of religious minorities often experienced tension between personal values and organizational values. Christian employees experienced little tension because in the Christian dominated Western society, organizational values equal Christian values (Hicks, 2003). However, participants raised the proposition that the domination of a single faith, Christianity in the case of Australia, set the tone for acceptance of other religions and established precedence in religious observance. However this domination of Western/Christian values lays a foundation for stigmatization of non-Christian faiths.

By comparing the Australian attitude towards religion to the attitude in other countries, the participants demonstrated, once again, the effect of national culture. According to some participants, in the United States, Americans are far more open and willing to talk about their religion and fight for their rights to practice their religion. This clearly indicates that participants were well aware of the attitude prevalent in Australia towards religion and picked up on the differences in national attitude when travelling. This also strengthens the concept that national culture does affect the perception of religion. It also raises the awareness of the power that the manipulation of culture has on people. The participants concerns of the power of the media raising fears of terrorism from Australian religious groups illustrate the perceived shift of attitude through media manipulation.

The underlying premise of tolerance, 'let them do their thing', also reflects the four characteristics of stigma – controllability, peril, disruptiveness and course. Issues of controllability arose with participants being held accountable for their religious beliefs as their choice, which lead to use of avoidance. Peril was indicated by the attitude towards Muslims. Religion was generally seen as being disruptive at work; hence, leading to an avoidance strategy. The characteristic of 'course' is not one that is readily visible but one could assert that as the individual becomes stronger in their belief then the adherence to the tenets of their faith would make them more visible. This would cause issues and again, although the majority of the participants claimed to be deeply religious, they utilized an avoidance strategy by not following the tenets of their faith that would make them visible or readily identifiable.

Thus by applying the environmental context concept of stigma theory one can readily see that the national culture of Australia is recognized by migrants. Further that this culture of 'tolerance' shapes how they manage their religious beliefs at work. However regarding the research question, 'does the national culture lead to stigmatization?', the avoidance or tolerance of religion reflects a cautious approach with the participants voicing a concern of non-acceptance. Although obvious stigmatization was not evident in the participant sample, the concern of non-acceptance was strong enough to generate the need to use an avoidance strategy. As suggested by stigma researchers the secrecy involved in an avoidance strategy may have an affect on job satisfaction and performance. Thus a line of research that could provide significant insights would be exploring the relationship between choice of stigma strategy and job satisfaction, job commitment and organizational citizenship behaviours.

Although foreign born participants were likely to follow the example set by Australians and used avoidance as a religious diversity management strategy, they too expressed their culture in the manner in which they perceived religion and how they dealt with the religion of their co-workers. Foreign born participants were more open about religion and more willing to discuss it, which may reflect an openness regarding religion in their original culture.

A limitation of this research is that it was limited to one area of southeast Australia. Arguments have been made that one cannot claim that distinct national cultures exist. Ripley and co-authors put forth that there are regional contextual factors affecting organizational culture that may be more influential than those of national culture (Ripley, Hudson, Turner & Osman-Gani, 2006). Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007) supported this argument with research in the Malaysian context that found other factors (i.e. legal, regulatory and economic) impacted organizational values more significantly. Others have argued that regionalism was also a factor in religious diversity management (Bouma & Singleton, 2004). However, despite the limitation of focusing on one region, the findings of this study indicate that the national attitude of Australians did effect how religion was perceived.

6. Conclusion

The findings indicate that national culture does play a role in the perception of a religious belief, which influences whether or not a belief has a stigmatized identity attached to it. In turn, this attitude will affect how the individual and the organization manage religious diversity. The Australian concept of 'tolerance' was interpreted differently by those born outside the country. For them it had a negative connotation; yet for Australian born individuals it translated as acceptance. This holds significant meaning in the management of religion in the workplace. This is particularly important for human resource practitioners since Australia is opening its doors for skilled migrant labour. Human resource practitioners in Australia must take a more holistic approach to understanding the growing religious diversity of the Australian workplace.

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Relational Capital and Appropriate Incentives: A Recipe for Human Resource Sustainability?¹

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Abstract

This paper attempts to give some hints for human resources management that are founded on a motivation-based economic analysis of incentives and the idea of relational capital. It is argued that cross-fertilization between traditional economic literature on incentives, experimental economics and research in cognitive psychology can provide useful insights on how best to design incentives schemes in firms. This analysis promotes a diffused style of leadership which could render human resources development more sustainable while the traditional hierarchical one is losing grasp with reality.

Keywords: motivation, incentives, relational capital, sustainability.

1. Introduction

Increasing the value and developing the social capital, meant as a source of magnitude of intangible assets for firms, has represented one of the most efficient anti-crisis remedies for companies all over the world that have demonstrated their capacity of reacting during seriously difficult moments. Even though several contributions on the possible valuation of such assets has been available for years, finding evidence permit us to declare with reasonable credibility which are the “qualitative” dimensions in which the companies can invest. In other words: What they should aim for while in difficulty and what they should strengthen once the most critical phase is over. Within this scenario, this contribution aims to put in evidence how even the simple idea of leadership can be further developed by connecting it with the dynamics of development and sustainability of the human capital.

The focus on human capital arises from the consideration that, among the various dimensions of the social capital, the human capital has been distinguished as a fundamental component, not only in the firms operating in *labor-intensive* contexts or in the services. Also typically manufacturing enterprises have distinguished themselves for having been able to develop their business or for not being sucked down by spirals of involution. Such firms are the ones that have majorly increased the business asset value of human resources.

Frequently managerial literature and practice focus on the importance of the external relational capital, while scarce attention has been dedicated to the internal relational capital, which is the value of the relations present inside the firm's organizational contexts, although there is some relevant literature which has focused on internal climate analysis. Moreover, successful firms have shown good performance through the combination of general governance systems, a solid value model and a human resources management policy based on a motivation-incentive system (compensation, rewarding, and career development) where the relational leadership represents the final unifying element.

This observation, although under a slightly different prospective, has been recently confirmed by Pfeffer (2010) that, broadening the topic of human capital to comprehend the internal relational capital, introduces the concept of “human sustainability” as being the reason for sustainability of the firms competitive advantage.

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2. Competences, Human Capital, Relational Capital, and Sustainable Competitive Advantage

The idea of human capital encloses all the knowledge, experience, capacity and competences that an individual acquires and puts at the disposal of firms (and labour markets) in exchange for compensation. This definition matches the perspective of a “psychological contract”. Matter-of-factly the individual offers his human capital stock in exchange for all those factors that weigh positively on the “psychological balance” (career, on-the-job training, experience, organizational culture, etc). The recent managerial literature grants the human capital even a characteristic of the physical capital that is its liquidity, maintaining that in order to increase the corporate productivity it is necessary to fuel the process of accumulation of human capital and knowledge creation. In particular, the concept of strategic readiness - as the employability/expendability of the individual competences compared with corporate strategies - enables us to extend the idea of “liquidity” (Kaplan & Norton, 1992) to the human resources. In case of human capital, the liquidity is represented by the owning of proper competences in order to implement internal business processes which are considered critical for the strategy implementation whereas the liquidity of the organizational capital relies on the capability of changing the organizational setting (structure, processes, etc.) in order to implement the strategy as well as the capability of metabolizing culture, values, vision and mission of the firm. Among the various interpretations of the concept of human capital, the one that puts in evidence the relationship with management and with the competitive advantage can be particularly significant. The idea of capabilities developed by Sen (2000) is compatible with the concept of liquidity since capabilities are the competences that can be the first step towards “having skills”; such skills can be either technical (technical and professional competences) or organizational (organizational skills, knowing how to “live” in organizations). This transition from the fordist setting to the holistic one enables the identification of specific competences connected with:

- decentralization and de-verticalization of the hierarchy in favor of giving more responsibility and autonomy to the workers (Greenan & Mairesse, 1999);
- performance measurement and incentives/awards for teamworking (*team-working*);
- flexibility and multifunction of the single worker that is requested to frequently change duty in the same job or to change frequently occupation (Greenan & Mairesse, 1999; Ichniowski & Shaw, 2003).

Other potential benefits may be added to these elements, as for example the “super-additive effects” (or the “edgeworth complementarities”), as defined and discussed by Holmström and Milgrom (1994) and Milgrom and Roberts (1990a and 1990b) and the synergies in terms of competitive advantage that can deviate from the joint adoption of investment strategies that can operate in prospect of alignment between competitive strategies and organizational change. Moreover, recent contributions from evolutionary theory define the firm as an organization for problem solving, which possesses specific competences (Dosi & Coriat, 1998; Dosi, Levinthal & Marengo, 2003).

For the aims of this paper, two concepts of competency are crucial: the core competencies and the individual competencies. The idea of “core competencies” implies that the firms identify fundamental strategic competencies for the achievement of medium to long term goals. When such competencies are lacking firms should recover the conditions necessary for the implementation (top-down approach). The individual competencies instead are seen as characteristics that are incorporated in the individual, with a strong emphasis on talent (*ex ante* competencies) instead of on education and training (development of competences *in itinere*, bottom-up approach).

Starting from concepts of competence and capability as key points for the firm's success, the process of management and development of human capital in successful firms has shown a shift of focus from a centered leadership (hierarchical structure) to wide-spread leadership that usually develops spontaneously and independently from the formal ascriptions (Vecchio, 2006). Coherently with this goal and with the perspective of diversity management, firms recur to the mechanisms of generational integration. The relations between senior and junior employees could be inspired by a “tutoring” logic where senior members tutor younger ones, in order to activate mechanisms of development of technical and organizational competences of the newcomers. Such corporate solutions enable the leadership to disengage from purely contractual relationships in favor of an individual and organizational credibility that would privilege individual charismatic features and favor in the meantime individual motivation and the endurance in times of crisis of the entire human resource management system (Field & Spence, 2000). In such a context, the leadership processes usually based on competences, capability and experience can leverage on internal networking, or in other words on the internal relational capital present in the firm. On the other hand, the concrete achievement of such a managerial policy (horizontal vision, alternative to the typically “vertical” one of hierarchic-organizational approach) requires great empathy on part of: the firm, the shareholders, the managers, in order for them to understand how incentives and disincentives cannot be dropped in an aseptic and uncritical way in any organizational context but should, on the contrary, be nurtured by a proper leadership style. The idea of relational leadership we propose in this paper should be pervasive and diffused within the organizational environment, open to the empowerment and participation in decision making, in order to shorten the distance between individual and corporate goals. The understanding of these new perspectives requires to explore how incentives and motivation are traditionally treated by the economic literature.

3. The Traditional Economic Literature on Incentives

Economic theories of incentives and particularly agency theory traditionally assume that the more an individual is paid the higher his effort, even if there is decreasing returns. It is therefore possible for a principal to define his/her policy in terms of the relation he/she establishes between the wage or bonus given to the agent and the corresponding level of effort. It is also assumed that punishment (e.g. a fine) or threat of wage cuts or dismissal permits to avoid some deviant behaviors such as free-riding. Finally, even if it is costly, monitoring is considered as an efficient means to control agents' behavior and address it in the desired direction. When asymmetry of information is assumed, it is possible to build an optimal (if not first-best) contract between the parties despite the fact that the interests of the agent (the worker) and the principal (the employer) are not aligned. But even in this case, the basic assumption is not removed. This assumption also applies if one extends the analytical framework in order to deal with teams instead of a single agent (Holmström, 1982), with complementary incentives or with multi-tasked agents (Holmström & Milgrom, 1991, Bai & Xu, 2001). In the case of teams, two novel features have to be introduced in the usual principal-agent setting. The first one refers to the free-rider problem, since agents may have some interest not to participate to the contribution of the group as much as he/she would do if he/she were alone. The second one is competition among agents. In broad outline, the multi-agent setting implies new roles for the principal, in particular to administer incentive schemes that do not balance the budget since it is the only way to achieve efficiency in the presence of externalities (Holmström, 1982). In the case of complementary incentives, for instance, a combination of asset ownership (profit sharing), contingent rewards (pay for performance) and job design, the problem that arises is that exogenous variables can modify the co-movements of the incentives that are endogenous to the model. In their seminal paper, Holmström & Milgrom (1994) provide a way, by using the properties of supermodular functions,³ to appraise the efficiency of the combination of those incentives. This theoretical framework is completely in line with empirical results coming mainly from management sciences. Furthermore, it is an appropriate approach because it stresses first the fact that an organization is based on a bundle of incentives and second, that this bundle is efficient depending on the kind of combinations it supports. A similar kind of conception is applied by the Federal Acquisition Institute, which states that "the system of incentives shall include provisions that:

- (A) relate pay to performance (including the extent to which the performance of personnel in such workforce contributes to achieving the cost goals, schedule goals, and performance), and
- (B) provide for consideration, in personnel evaluations and promotion decisions, of the extent to which the performance of personnel in such workforce contributes to achieving such cost goals, schedule goals, and performance goals."⁴

Direct incentives (payment) and indirect ones (promotion) are here seen as complementary⁵.

Concerning the problem of multi-tasked agents, Bai and Xu (2001) use Holmström and Milgrom's framework in order to analyze the incentives system that need to be applied to CEOs in a multitask context. According to Holmström and Milgrom (1991) introducing the assumption of multi-task contexts in a principal-agent problem permits to explain why generally employment contracts do involve mute incentives and favors fixed wages even when "good, objective output measures are available and agents are highly responsive to incentive pay" and loose ownership patterns even when contracts are complete (full account of all observable variables is taken, court enforcement is perfect). The intuition is that in multi-tasks contexts, if contingent task incentives are implemented, agents might concentrate their efforts on those specific tasks at the detriment of other complementary tasks.

In sum, these more sophisticated versions of the principal-agent approach do not challenge the idea that *ceteris paribus* direct incentives are efficient in terms of the effort they induce. This proposition is however a two strong assumption and has been challenged by psychologists and more recently by economists.

³ Supermodular functions are such that "if the variables of a supermodular function are increased simultaneously, the function value increases by more than if we were to sum up the value changes from increasing the variables one at the time." (Milgrom and Roberts 1994, p. 978). This can be interpreted as some kind of positive externalities between variables and is equivalent to positive cross derivatives. In other words, if a function f is smooth, then it is supermodular if $\partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_j \geq 0$, when x_i et x_j are two arguments of f . Accordingly, they define the conditions for incentives to be positively related and to induce a reinforcement effect.

⁴ <http://www.washingtonwatchdog.org/documents/usc/ttl41/ch7/sec433.html>

⁵ In health care systems, there are similar approaches. For instance, members of "Partners for Health Reform plus" considers that: "Incentives are rewards made to an individual or group that lead to specific behaviors. They can be positive or negative, tangible or intangible. They may be financial, although research indicates that financial incentives alone are not necessarily sufficient, and may not always be the most appropriate way to improve performance. Indeed, multiple types of incentives influence the behavior of workers and organizations in a health care system. Understanding incentives in the existing system as well as those underlying proposed changes is key to achieving the desired outcomes of reforms". (<http://www.phrplus.org/Pubs/IR8.pdf>).

4. Insights from the Psychological Literature

There is a long tradition in cognitive and social psychology to deal with the topic of motivation, highlighting the possible detrimental effects of some forms of incentives on motivation. The theoretical frameworks dealing with this issue range from Expectancy-Valence Theory (Vroom, 1964) to Attribution and Self-Perception Theory, to Self-Efficacy Theory, to Cognitive Evaluation Theory and to Self-Determination Theory⁶. Contrary to the traditional economic theory of incentives, those frameworks explicitly endorse the view that individuals' motivations are heterogeneous: some people are participating more out of interest in the task than others (what is defined in the literature as intrinsic motivation), while others gain their satisfaction principally out the way in which their performance on the task leads to rewards like pay or status or good grades in a course (extrinsic motivation). But typically there is a mixture of motives for which a range of different incentives is relevant. Therefore, the question of how managers generally, or anyone formally responsible for oversight of others who are engaged in work or learning tasks (e.g. nurses, teachers etc.) use financial incentives, sanctions, or monitoring is not just a matter of degree (meaning to manipulate either the level or the composition of incentives) but requires a deeper understanding of the process of motivation and its interaction with incentives.

Since the 60s, cognitive and social psychology have taught us that divergences in individual motivations can be attributable to different 'perceived locus of causality' (PLOC, deCharms 1968) or 'locus of control' (Rotter 1966) between perceived motivation and action that permit to distinguish between two polar cases: pure intrinsic motivation where the locus of causality is *internal*, i.e. where the performance is attributed to the individual himself/herself and extrinsic motivation where it is *external*, i.e., when the performance is ascribed by individuals to the environment, in particular to the material (pay, bonus, etc.) or immaterial (prize, regard of others, etc.) rewards. In a similar vein, according to the Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET), individuals evaluate tasks to be accomplished according to how well they meet their needs to feel *competent* and *in control*, i.e. autonomous. This implies in particular that extrinsic rewards may not match or match incompletely those needs and, therefore, detrimentally interfere with motivation. According to Lepper and Greene (1978), the interference of incentives on motivation may be due to what they call the *overjustification effect*. This effect refers to situations where individuals who perform activities that are rewarding in themselves may wrongly attribute their performance to the extrinsic rewards they are subsequently offered in order to perform those activities. As a consequence, if these rewards are withdrawn, performance can decrease to a level that is lower than the original level, before rewards were administered. In economic parlance, this effect can be analyzed either as a crowding out effect of incentives on motivation (see below), or as a hysteresis effect due to some resistant behavioral mechanisms which cause a lag in response in one direction (when incentives are removed) greater from that in the other direction (when incentives are implemented).

Self-Determination Theory (henceforth, SDT) extends the CET framework to allow for the role of social influence on individual behavior. To be specific, SDT analyze how three main innate psychological needs: competence, autonomy and relatedness (i.e., a need that expresses the fundamental social dimension of individual behavior, for instance, the fact that people are sensitive to the fact that they belong to a group or share some common values or tastes, etc.) can be fostered or undermined by the environment or social context. One of its main focus is on the process of internalization of extrinsic motivation, which refers to 'taking in' a behavioral regulation and *the value that underlies it*. This means that extrinsically motivated behavior can to a certain extent become autonomous. As compared with CET, SDT smoothes the dichotomy between external and internal motivation and seems more suitable for analyzing the link between incentives and intrinsic motivation. SDT assumptions are also consistent with experiments showing that extrinsically motivated behavior can be efficient as far as the more fully an external regulation has been internalized, the more autonomous the subsequent extrinsically motivated behavior will be. As a consequence, control 'through regulation' rather than through external influence by a principal may be efficient because there is a cognitive feedback effect from the agent. According to SDT, there are three main ways of 'regulation', defining different 'degrees' of extrinsic motivation (see Figure 1 below):

- Introjection, i.e., 'taken in' by the agent but not been accepted as his or her own (e.g. acting in order to feel worthy or to avoid guilt);
- Identification that makes an individual feels greater freedom and volition because his behavior is more congruent with his personal goals or identity;
- Integration that involves the identification with other aspects of oneself (other identifications, interests, and values). The activity is instrumentally important for personal goals, while still being considered as extrinsic motivation.

Figure 1 summarizes the main features of SDT. In particular, it shows the existence of a continuum between amotivation and intrinsic motivation. It also identifies a continuum of regulatory processes that are activated depending on the different kinds of motivation. These different regulatory styles are in their turn consistent with a gradation of

⁶ See Festré and Garrouste (2007) for a survey.

perceived loci of causality from impersonal and external to internal PLOC. For instance, the internal PLOC is linked with integrated and intrinsic regulation on one hand, and with quasi-intrinsic but still extrinsic motivation and purely intrinsic motivation, on the other hand.

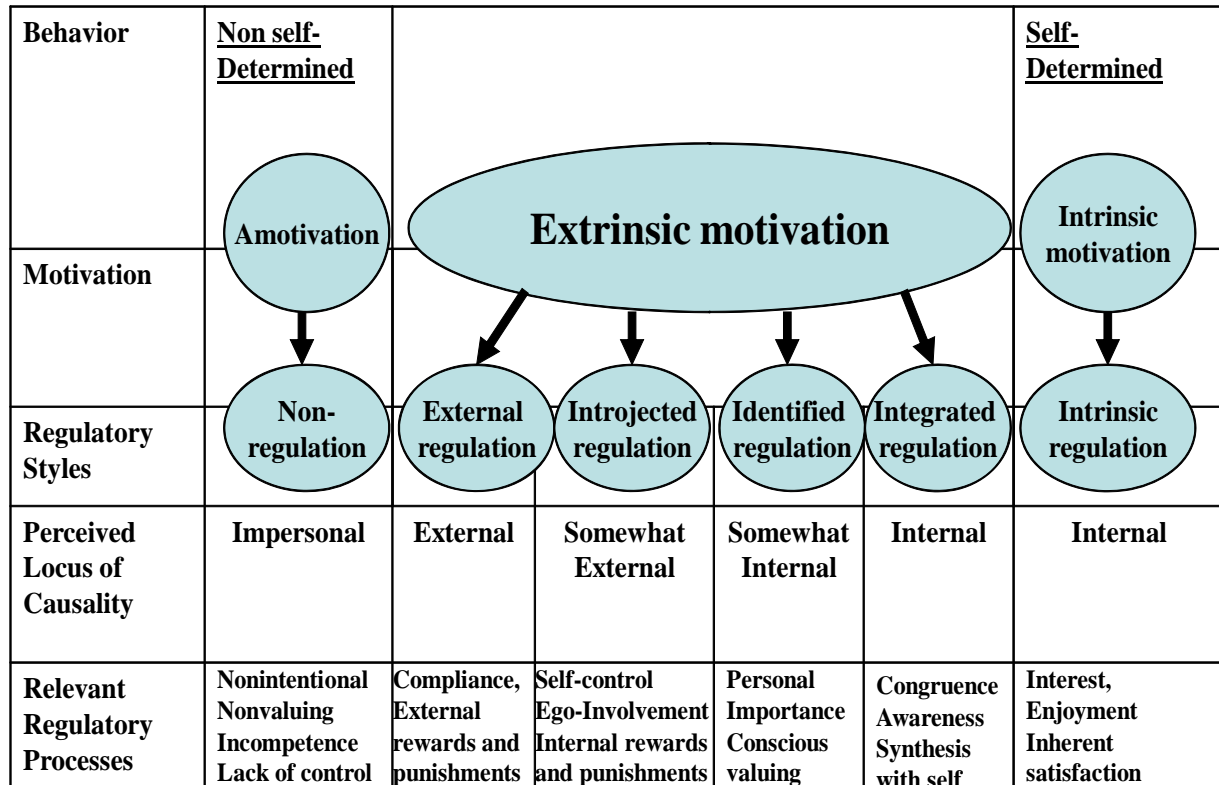


Figure 1 – The Self Determinacy Continuum (Gagné & Deci, 2005)

CET and SDT have important implications for management practices. For instance, external factors such as tangible extrinsic rewards, deadlines or surveillance tend to diminish feelings of autonomy or competence and prompt a change in the PLOC from internal to external that undermine intrinsic motivation. From a general perspective, incentives or rewards may either undermine or raise intrinsic motivation and impact differently on people depending on how they are implemented or whether they are dependent or not on task and/or its quality.

Managers are usually aware to some extent of the ways in which both intrinsic and extrinsic types of motivation affect performance and work satisfaction, but there are many complexities in how these different types of motivations and their relevant rewards affect behaviour. As we have noted, one of the most subtle and demanding complexities has been found to occur when extrinsic rewards are given for performance in a task which would otherwise have been undertaken purely out of interest (i.e., when over-justification occurs). But effects of the interaction are not simple and have been a subject of debate in recent years involving both psychologists as Cameron and Pierce (Cameron & Pierce 1994) and Eisenberg and Cameron (Eisenberger & Cameron 1996) and economists as the emblematic example of Lazear (2000)⁷. This debate mainly regards the generality of the crowding out effect of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation. The original report of an experiment which led to many others showing that extrinsic rewards, like pay and status, when associated with outcomes of interesting tasks tend to suppress the operation of intrinsic motivation, was published by Deci in 1971 (Deci 1971, 1975). The report underlines that if people are paid to do something they would otherwise have done out of interest they will be less likely to do it in future without being paid. Evidence of reduced motivation is found in their being less likely to return to the task when free to do so. By contrast, Cameron and Pierce (1994) and Eisenberger and Cameron (1996) approach the subject from a ‘behaviorist’ perspective and find from their meta-analysis that tangible rewards like

⁷ “Claims by sociologists and others that monetizing incentives may actually reduce output are unambiguously refuted by data.” (Lazear, 2000, p. 1347).

money tend to undermine intrinsic motivation if measured in subsequent time spent on the task, but not when it is measured by verbal expressions of attitude. Similarly to CET and SDT, they find that the decremental effect on performance tend to occur when the reward is expected and independent of performance even if in the latter case they provide a different interpretation⁸. On the contrary, they show that extrinsic rewards have a positive effect on attitude to the task if the reward is quality dependent. Finally, they question the claimed inhibiting reinforcing effect on creativity and find evidence for the positive reinforcement of divergent thinking by extrinsic rewards and arguing for the generalization of such effects: “The research on creativity shows, as with intrinsic task interest, that the decremental effects of reward occur under limited conditions that are easily avoidable. Rewards can be used to either enhance or diminish creative performance depending on the way they are administered.” (Eisenberger & Selbst 1994, Eisenberger, Armeli & Pretz 1998). Deci and colleagues (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999) publish a later review contradicting the conclusions by Eisenberger and Cameron (1996) that the undermining effect of tangible rewards on performance is limited to conditions in which rewards were independent of performance. Regarding the specific type of external rewards, they conclude that “all expected tangible made contingent on task performance do reliably undermine intrinsic motivation” (Ryan & Deci 2000, p. 70). If, on the contrary, rewards are given independently of specific task engagement (e.g. a salary independent from performance) or if they are not anticipated (e.g. an unanticipated bonus), tangible extrinsic rewards do not undermine intrinsic motivation. Now, if rewards are contingent on high-quality performance and the interpersonal context is supportive rather than pressuring, tangible rewards enhance intrinsic motivation to comparison condition with no rewards and no feedback (see Ryan, Mims & Koestner, 1983). But contingent, tangible rewards and other extrinsic factors such as competition and evaluations can be detrimental to outcomes such as creativity (Amabile 1983, Amabile 1996, Amabile 1998, Amabile, Hennessey et al. 1986, Perry & Amabile 1999), cognitive flexibility and problem solving (Amabile, Goldfarb & Brackfield, 1990).

Finally, Ryan and Deci (2000) reaffirm the importance of the fundamental needs for competence and autonomy, but focus on their differentiated but complementary roles in the motivation process. They consider that feelings of competence would not enhance intrinsic motivation unless accompanied by a sense of autonomy, or could be experienced as internal locus of causality. They also underline, in addition to the needs for competence and for autonomy, the importance of the need for relatedness in the personal causation of intrinsic motivation, since relatedness provides social support or long term personal development that favors the maintenance of intrinsic motivation.

This very lively and passionate debate is still open and show how important it is for the management of incentives for work to understand how extrinsic rewards affect intrinsic motivation, especially for tasks where both extrinsic rewards and intrinsic motivation are found together. From this perspective, the literature in cognitive and social psychology that we have reviewed is illuminating. We may draw some main implications for incentive management.

i) There is no such a thing as a free lunch concerning the effect of incentives on motivation

Extrinsic rewards have been found to reduce intrinsic motivation, but not in all circumstances. The majority of published research in psychology has focused on their effects on motivation rather than performance, even if consequent effects can be evident in performance, as supported by empirical findings. When people are intrinsically motivated they tend to be more aware of a wide range of phenomena, while giving careful attention to complexities, inconsistencies, novel events and unexpected possibilities findings. They need time and freedom to make choices, to gather and process information, and have an appreciation of well finished and integrated products, all of which may lead to a greater depth of learning and more creative output (Amabile, Goldfarb & Brackfield, 1990). In such contexts, extrinsic rewards are likely to narrow focus of attention and shorten time horizons. Job satisfaction and long term commitment to a task may also be affected negatively but as we have seen there is no obvious link between incentives, motivation and creativity. In particular, Eisenberger and Cameron (1996) show that “the effects of reward on creativity may result from the combined action of learned industriousness [rewarding high effort produce an increase in industriousness, Festré & Giustiniano, 2010] and the attention-eliciting properties of the reward [the reinforcement contingency may signal that novelty is desirable, Festré & Giustiniano, 2010].” (Eisenberger & Cameron 1996, p. 1161).

ii) The importance of the way incentives are implemented

The importance of how incentives are implemented is a recurrent conclusion of the psychological literature. From an economic perspective, Frey (1997) points out that agents’ perceptions of the incentives scheme that are implemented in firms or organizations may be either *controlling* or *informing*, depending on the extent of *differentiation made between agents*. When differentiation is low, i.e. when all agents are treated the same, those who have above-average work morale feel that their competence is not recognized and therefore adjust their intrinsic motivation downwards. At the opposite,

⁸ They stress that the “the decremental effect of performance-independent reward, but not of completion-contingent reward, on task duration is more consistent with a learned helplessness explanation than with a decline in intrinsic motivation. Reward presented independently of performance may cause individuals to learn they have no control over the reward and thus to lessen their performance.” (Eisenberger & Cameron, 1996: 1158-59).

when differentiation is high, i.e., when the principal makes explicit effort to adjust rewards according to the agents' presumed level of work ethics, intrinsic motivation is enhanced (Frey, 1997, p. 433). In the same vein, Frey, Benz and Stutzer (2004) underline the importance of how rewards are implemented, by advocating for the consideration of an additional source of utility (different from the usual outcome-oriented instrumental economic notion of utility), which they call *procedural utility* which refers to the "noninstrumental pleasures and displeasures of processes" (Frey, Benz & Stutzer 2004, p. 378). In everyday parlance, this expresses the idea that people attaches importance not only to the result of their actions (material rewards) but also to the processes by which it is obtained. In particular, there are two sources of procedural utility that are relevant for our discussion on incentives and motivation. The first one derives from institutions and concerns the distribution of political rights (e.g., the presence of trade unions, upward mobility) and how allocative and redistributive decisions are taken in organizations (profit-sharing devices, remuneration schemes, unemployment benefits, health care) (Ibid. pp. 382-83). The second one is involved in the interaction between agents and refers to different kinds of pro-social behavior (norm sharing, preference for fairness or even self-reputational motives)⁹. Note that there is no obvious link between pro-social behavior and intrinsic motivation. One might work hard at a task in order to gain social approval. Such work, undertaken as a means to an end, is typically deficit motivated behavior, in which there is a reward as a consequence of effort to reach a goal where the deficit is reduced. For Deci and his co-authors, this would correspond to situations where substitute needs such as the desire for social recognition emerge as a consequence of unsatisfied basic psychological needs. By contrast, intrinsic motivation tends more to be appetitive, new information arousing a slight interest leading to an appetite for more.

iii) The crucial role of the social context/environment for intrinsic motivation to be maintained

The question of the personal causation of intrinsic motivation that characterizes the processes of integration in SDT raises questions concerning the exact meaning of the term "intrinsic motivation". As mentioned above, intrinsic motivation in its primary and restricted sense means interest in the task. But the term sometimes also occurs with a different connotation in reference to incentives which are consistent with personal qualities, intentions and values. Satisfaction gained from such incentives may be seen as intrinsic to the person rather than to the task. It can be the case that behavior such as undertaking a scientific research project can assist in the satisfaction of personal development goals while it is also intrinsically rewarding in itself. This second meaning is especially relevant in regard to the processes of integration that characterize SDT since those processes imply that people have a sense of self or of being the origin of one's action and that they struggle in order to make their actions or efforts in congruence with their personal values or identity. However, while the two kinds of motivation can work together, intrinsic motivation in the primary sense is vulnerable to being inhibited by the use of extrinsic rewards in ways which do not give the secondary type of intrinsic satisfaction but are experienced as alien to the person. The work of several investigators in recent years points to the importance of the secondary type of intrinsic satisfaction from extrinsic rewards as the clue to managing the effects of extrinsic rewards in ways which do not inhibit the operation of intrinsic motivation for engagement in the task. In the tradition of McClelland and Atkinson's studies of individual differences in personality dimensions such as need for achievement (McClelland et al. in Atkinson 1958, McClelland 1976), need for affiliation (Heyns, Veroff & Atkinson in Atkinson 1958) and need for power (Veroff in Atkinson 1958), Winter developed the idea that responsibility (and not only the will of power) plays a major role in the personal causation of intrinsic motivation (Winter 1973, Winter 1992). The point of theoretical interest is that intrinsic motivation is expected to remain effective, not simply when a person is able to exercise personal power, but rather when power is exerted within a social and personal context that is controlled and powerful.

5. More recent experimental and theoretical contributions in economics

From an experimental perspective (field experiment), Titmuss has shown in 1972 that it may be counter-productive to pay for blood gift. In a similar way, Kreps (1997) as well as Frey and Oberholzer-Gee (1997) show that the existence of a crowding out effect of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation is not necessarily an exception in economics. Later Frey and Oberholzer-Gee (1997) have analyzed the acceptance level of households in Switzerland of the set up in their neighborhood of a plant that recycles nuclear waste. They showed that when monetary compensations are proposed to households their level of acceptance is decreasing. Gneezy and Rustichini (2000) show that the introduction of small rewards in a real-life experiment (Israeli high school children doing volunteer work) reduces performance (the amount of money collected for each child). Their explanation is that introducing financial motives may crowd out intrinsic motivation of individuals (children are motivated for the voluntary activity in itself or need social approval) compared to the same experiment without financial incentives. However, a sufficiently high fixed remuneration permits to restore the initial level of effort. The explanation lies in the fact that when intrinsic motivation has been undermined, further

⁹ On the interaction between incentives and social norms, see Festré (2010).

increases in financial incentives, even if they has no further detrimental effect on it, must be high enough in order to compensate for the loss in the purely intrinsic or socially induced intrinsic motivation effect and, therefore, to restore the initial level of effort.

In laboratory experimental economics, a number of recent works have analyzed the so-called crowding out effect. They almost all confirm the existence of this effect, even if they interpret it in different ways. Fehr and Gächter (1997) and Fehr, Gächter and Kirchsteiger (1997) explain what can be seen as a crowding out effect (even if they are reluctant to use this assumption) by the reciprocity assumption. People are working hard because they reciprocate for high rewards but they reduce their efforts when incentives contracts are proposed to them. Frey and Jegen (2001) explain the crowding out effect by the possibility for self-determination or self-esteem of agents to be negatively affected by incentives. Self-determination may be undermined because agents experience financial rewards as a means to control their behavior, while self-esteem is more related to the need for competence, as external rewards may be experienced as a non acknowledgment of their competences. Irlenbusch and Sliwka (2005) test if the introduction of incentive schemes is likely to raise the probability that an agent adopts an *individual maximization frame* rather than a *cooperative frame*, taking for granted that externally motivated agents would focus more on the individual short-term returns of their actions. However, in a pure fixed wage setting, agents' attention is guided away from short-term returns since the agent receives no share of the surplus generated by their effort. Naturally their "attention should rather be focused on a more cooperative or reciprocal behaviour which may even lead to higher surpluses." (Irlenbusch and Sliwka 2005, pp. 1-2). Moreover, the basic principal-agent model they test permits them to identify an experience effect: when people are first confronted to variable pay and if they are offered to switch to fixed wage payment contracts, their level of effort is reduced as compared to a situation where they were initially offered a fixed pay contract.

Sanctions are usually considered as improving agents' effort. Punishment is indeed supposed to have the same effect as positive incentives. If an agent expects a sanction when the level of his effort is low, he will increase it in order not to be punished. The efficiency wage theory is based on this kind of assumption. Because he or her has a higher wage than the market one, an employee works harder, since if he or she does not, he or she is dismissed and hence, gets a lower wage, namely, the market one. This assumption is the correlate of the positive incentive hypothesis, i.e., higher (positive) incentives give rise to a higher level of effort. Some experiments show however that such an assumption is also falsified. According to Fehr and Schmidt (2000), agents' efforts are lower when principals condition a fine on the deviation from a desired effort level. Fehr and Gächter (2002) Fehr and List (2002) not only show that positive incentives can crowd out motivations but also that sanctions are not efficient and undermine agents' motivations. Their interpretation of this phenomenon rests on the idea of reciprocity.

Monitoring, which is another way to improve agents' efforts, is seen by incentive theory as implying for the principal a trade-off between the increase of the agent's effort and the cost of monitoring. However, this possibility is based on an assumed positive relation between monitoring and effort. Here also, experimental economics shows that this positive relation is not always corroborated. Dickinson and Villeval (2008) show that crowding out effect and agency theory are complementary and not substitutes. Their experiments indeed show that "principals monitor less intensely when agents gave high effort in the previous period and monitoring trends up over time while agents' output trends down" and that "agents react to the disciplining power of the monitoring intensity by decreasing shirking when the perceived cost of such behavior is increased" (p. 35). Those results are in line with agency theory. However, they remark that agents are also guided by intrinsic motivation: "when the employment relationship is based on interpersonal links, increasing the monitoring intensity beyond its equilibrium level tends to undermine intrinsic motivation. It shows that the disciplining effect and the crowding out effect of monitoring may coexist in interpersonal relationships and that the crowding out effect is probably associated with concerns for the distribution of payoffs between the principal and the agent." (p. 35).

Experimental economics almost always, depending on the institutional set up, confirms the existence of the crowding out effect. The rationales that are given are however very different and less systematized than in cognitive psychology.

Those experimental results were extended in two ways. First, the idea was to explore the reasons why individuals can be de-motivated by incentives and second to derive the conditions that would prevent individuals for being so.

We have already pointed out that Lazear (2000) is strongly opposed to the idea that reward could have a detrimental effect on effort¹⁰. Staw and al. (1983) show that intrinsic motivation is crowded out only for the tasks for which the payment is inappropriate. More recently, experimental economists like Fehr and Falk (2002) have pointed some limits of the approach in terms of crowding out effect. They consider that "even if crowding out effect is operative it may be efficient to use material incentives. This is so because, from an economic point of view, it is the total sum of incentives that matters." (Fehr & Falk, 2002, p. 717). Defending the idea that reciprocity, social approval propensity and other-regarding preferences are more likely to explain individual's behavior, they write that "to our knowledge, the studies on intrinsic motivation have only examined the interaction between different forms of explicit (engagement contingent,

¹⁰ Lazear found a natural experiment in Safelite, a windshield manufacturing company that had just switched from paying hourly wages to piece rates. Under the new system, a worker would still earn \$88 a day by producing up to 4.4 windshields. But if the employee could produce six windshields a day, he or she could earn \$120. Productivity leaped 44 percent in six months. Half of the increase was in turnover. Unmotivated people tended to be replaced with people who wanted to earn more.

completion contingent and performance contingent) rewards and intrinsic motivation.” (Fehr & Falk, *ibid*). Accordingly it is needed to look at the relationships between implicit rewards and intrinsic motivation. This is the theoretical perspective followed for instance by Bénabou and Tirole (2006) when they explore the cross-relations between intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and self-reputation, which may be conceived as a form of implicit reward.

Kreps (1997) gives two kinds of rationale to crowding out, depending on the context. In a multitask situation, using Holmström and Milgrom (1991) results, he states that “an obvious rationale, (...) is that the extrinsic incentives that are imposed – which almost necessarily will be relatively objective and formulaic – may be suboptimal, taking into account the full range of desired tasks.” (1997, p. 361). In a single-task context, he considers that “(...) if ‘intrinsic motivation’ is the response of workers to fuzzy, but nonetheless extrinsic incentives, explicit extrinsic incentives that are imposed may fight rather than complement preexisting incentives.” (1997, p. 362). This last interpretation is based on the idea that individuals are norms followers and that incentives can possibly disrupt those norms. Bénabou and Tirole (2003), using a principal-agent model, show that the explanation of the first problem can be found in some asymmetry of information phenomenon. They assume that the agent does not know precisely how difficult is the task he or she has to perform, his or her ability of doing this task, or the cost of the effort he or her has to make in order to perform this task. However, the agent tries to infer information from the reward policy of the principal by means of a *looking-glass self effect*. Bénabou and Tirole then identify two effects: a *profitability effect* and a *trust effect*. On this basis they are able to differentiate cases when the principal’s incentive policy can crowd out the motivation of the agent and where they crowd in.

6. Leadership, incentives and motivation: some conclusions on managerial implications for value creation sustainability

The indications so far gathered through the analysis of the contributions from psychology, economic theory and experimental economics stress the necessity of developing common praxis of relational leadership that would represent the uniting force between motivations, incentives, values and business performances. For such a perspective, in the following part, the contributions and the aforementioned evidences will be contextualized.

First of all it must be pointed out that the implementation of the incentive solutions is equally, if not more, important of the modeling of their structure. The considerations made by Frey (1997) on the individual perception of incentives emphasizes, matter-of-factly, the subjectivity that affects every individual in the evaluation of what he receives from the enterprise after having reached a result or having achieved a level of conformity. One of the teachings closely connected to the previous argumentation is that the circular loop “motivation → performance → incentive → motivation” is not only affected by the “psychological contract” tying a single individual (A) to the organization, but also by the evaluation of the input/outcome balance of a significant benchmark (B). The subjectivity of the evaluations calls for the concept of perceived equity, which means that an individual does not consider only what he receives from the enterprise (Outcomes A) as a result of his commitment (Input A) (1) but tries instead to observe this relationship comparing it with other workers he considers equal/similar to himself (2: Outcomes B/Input B) (Adams & Freedman, 1976). In case of a perceived inequity (2), independently of the perceived incentive, it is likely that the behavior of the individual (A) will not lead to the expected outcomes.

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Input A}} = \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Input B}} \quad (\text{Equity}) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{\text{Outcomes A}}{\text{Input A}} \neq \frac{\text{Outcomes B}}{\text{Input B}} \quad (\text{Inequity}) \quad (2)$$

Moreover, since the processes of goal reaching generate a further procedural utility (see Frey, Benz & Stutzer, 2004), the organizational context (relationship with colleagues, available technologies, relationship with superiors) and human resources management become a relevant part of the incentive package. Particularly interesting is the fact that when the corporate context is seen as supportive by the workers, individual behaviors are not limited to “productive” or strictly outcome oriented behavior but also include “innovative” and “cooperative” behavior, to use Katz and Kahn’s (1978) terminology. In this sense, the organizational context is potentially capable of generating internal relational economies based on shared procedures, experiences and solutions; in order to generate an organizational context capable of stimulating these kinds of intrinsic motivation and spontaneous behaviors, a relational leadership that enhances the cognitive capital that fuels those behaviors becomes indispensable.

The crowding out effect between extrinsic incentives and intrinsic motivations calls for some clarifications when implemented, or rather managed/constrained, in the firm's reality. First of all, if we consider some of the previously mentioned works (see Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000) we could come to the drastic conclusion that the intrinsic motivations of the workers can be rendered ineffective by the use of monetary incentives, since those incentives can generate behaviours opposite to the desired ones and even lead to perverse dynamics involving irreversibility. Although, from the

viewpoint of basic forms of remuneration (e.g. a fix wage), an increase of pay which is not strictly and contingently connected to the achieved performance can potentially be detrimental to intrinsic motivation, this does not seem to be the case for variable retribution forms and for profit-share schemes; for the latter, in fact, the conclusion by Fehr and Falk (2002), namely that it is the total sum of the incentives that influences individual behavior, is more relevant; similar are the conclusions reached by various, previously mentioned, studies in experimental economics (e.g. Irlenbush & Sliwka, 2005). This also illustrates the fact that managerial practices often overlook forms of disincentive/punishment than can be equally important. In such cases, relational leadership can help to reduce the impact of such disincentives.

The previous considerations offer various points of interest for visualizing a kind of leadership, the necessity of which has been already emphasized, that is “diffused” in organizations and that tends to privilege the relational component, leveraging on internal networking. Even though the idea of diffused leadership understandably presents outlines that are not always definite, the leader-collaborators relations and interactions rather than surpassing previous theories on leadership, appears as a unifying framework that synthesizes many already analyzed and known approaches (e.g. situational leadership, the Vroom-Yettom model, the theory of Leader-Member exchange). The main difference from the previous approaches is due to its inductive method which derives from the observation of firm practices that have been judged successful. The relational leadership, as here described, does not introduce any real innovation but takes its moves from already known interactions, regarding on one side the manager/leader relationship and on the other the mechanisms of disincentive/punishment. Considering the relevant work of van Fleet (1973) and Vroom (1964) the role of manager/entrepreneur as leader and adding the considerations made on disincentives/penalties should result in a style of leadership capable of maximally enhancing the contribution of the firm's human capital thus avoiding, at the same time, the crowding out effects of incentives foreseen by the economic theory. This interpretation of the relational leadership, considered in terms of impact on the commitment on behalf of the workers is coherent with the recent work proposed by Johnson, Chang and Yang (2010) that underlines the importance of personal commitment, motivation and organizational context of reference.

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Perception of HRM Practice and its Influences on Primary School Teachers in Taiwan

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Abstract

This research analysed the associations between teachers' perception of HRM practice at schools, affective commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). An anonymous questionnaire survey was conducted, recruiting 568 primary school teachers (PSTs) in Taiwan. Different from prior studies which highlighted the efficacy of HRM practice, we found that positive perception of HRM practice may not necessarily contribute to OCB occurrence. PSTs with positive perception on recruitment, placement, training, education and career development were more likely to engage with OCB, whereas PSTs with positive perception on communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal showed no influence on OCB occurrence. Other novel findings included that the inter-relation between perception of HRM practice and OCB was moderated by higher affective commitment, higher positions, and smaller school size. The implications of the findings are discussed.

Keywords: Affective Commitment; Human Resource Management (HRM); Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB); Primary Schools Teachers (PSTs).

1. Introduction

Human resource management (HRM) has become particularly important nowadays, especially when both organisations and managers are eager to improve managerial efficacy, reduce resource attrition, and enhance workforce performance during the economic recession time. For the last twenty years, scholars diligently researched on the associations between HRM practice and organisational performance, evident in improved employee commitment, lower levels of absenteeism and turnover, higher levels of skills and therefore higher productivity, enhanced quality and efficiency (Golding, 2010; Dalal, 2005). While prior studies have discovered a series of factors pertinent to the efficacy of HRM practice, the majority of their investigations and case studies were using business sectors and general industries as research samples, leading to a phenomenon that the implication of their findings was more commercial performance and profits oriented (e.g., Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Kwantes, 2003). Despite the value and contribution of prior studies to the HRM practice, their findings may not necessarily suit to the primary schools, for instance, the management of primary school teachers (PSTs).

Although PSTs are found to play an influential and fundamental role in the academic system and their contribution to educate younger generation is widely recognised by the society (HMI, 2010), scholars seem not very interested in analysing the HRM practice at primary schools (see exceptions in: Lu, 2006; Nguni, Sleeper, & Denessen, 2006). Other studies using school teachers (as survey samples) were either general performance, appraisal or evaluation based (e.g., Smeenk *et al.*, 2006; Wright *et al.*, 1997), which cannot help explain how PSTs perceive the HRM practice at schools nor understand how they respond to different aspects of HRM practice. Therefore, three specific objectives are embedded within the current research. The first objective is to explore how PSTs perceive the HRM practice in their workplace. Different aspects of HRM practice will be scrutinized and compared. These aspects include: recruitment, placement, training, education, career development, communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal. The second objective is to understand the inter-relation between HRM practice and its impact at work. More specifically, the occurrence of organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) will be analysed along with different aspects of HRM practice. The final objective is to examine potential factors which may influence the aforementioned inter-relation, including: affective organisational commitment, PST's rank of positions, and school size.

HRM Practice at Primary Schools

Since early 1980s, the educational system has been influenced by social, economic and political developments, such as democratization, diversification, decentralization and budget constraints (Chan, 2001; Potocki-Malicet *et al.*, 1999). These developments have reinforced the trend in academic institutions to adopt organizational forms, technologies,

management instruments and values that are commonly found in the private sectors (Deem, 1998). Following this trend, the concept of HRM practice is quickly spread out to general schools, with an aim to promote school dynamics, enhance administration efficacy, and contribute to the management of teachers and staff members (Chan, 2001). As the current research is interested in HRM practice, this paper now turns to analyse different aspects of HRM practice at schools.

Defined by Armstrong (2006), HRM is a strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organisation's most valued assets, *i.e.*, the people working there who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of the objectives of the business and organisations. Following Armstrong's definition, one can imagine that aspects of HRM practice at schools are many and vary. For example, employing teachers, developing their capacities, utilizing, maintaining and compensating their services in line with the student management and institutional requirement (Paauwe, 2009). Due to the limited schedule and measurement concerns, however, the current research will focus on the most influential aspects that have been identified and validated by scholars. These aspects include: recruitment, placement, training, education, career development, communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal (Freitas *et al.*, 2011; Lu, 2006; Smeenk *et al.*, 2009). These aspects of HRM practice all have different roles and functions during the process of school management and development. Details follow:

Recruitment and placement seems to be the first and foremost aspect of HRM practice at schools, as it involves with the advisement, selection, verification, negotiation, placement and other pertinent HRM tasks. Taking selection for example, the process per se is a complex and critical practice for the organizations. Locating teachers with required qualifications is straightforward, whereas finding candidates who are proactive at work and accept organisational values is relatively difficult (Selden, Ingraham & Jacobson, 2001). According to Freitas *et al.* (2011), this aspect is fundamental to the organisational maintenance, which can be very time-consuming and high cost. Sometimes, seeking external bodies for assistance (e.g., head-hunter) is also required.

Training, education and career development. Society is constantly changing, so are organisations and their employees. To cope with changes and ensure employees are capable of performing their tasks at the right levels, organisations are obligated to offer training and education programmes (Freitas *et al.*, 2011). In line with Freitas *et al.*'s viewpoint, the current research believes that schools and primary school teachers are no exception, and that both schools and teachers should be aware of the importance and necessity of continuous training and education. Actually, a group of researchers have indicated that managerial and development programs can help prepare employees to work in leadership positions, not only facilitating the acquisition of new skills and knowledge to better perform their future functions, but also contributing to organizational performance and management efficacy (Huselid, Jackson & Schuler, 1997).

Communication, support and retention. Once teachers enter the school system, building a sound communication channel between managers and followers becomes extremely important to the school dynamics. Lu (2006) claimed that, when the communication channel is smooth and both parties can express views equally, teachers feel themselves respected and their workplace positive, which can, ultimately, contribute to the efficacy of school management. In a similar way, empirical studies discovered that good atmosphere at work is related to teachers' job satisfaction and willingness to stay in the same school (Cheng, 2004), and that good atmosphere facilitates mutual collaboration between teachers and OCB occurrence (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Simply put, without a proper workplace condition, teachers may lose the motivation to support their colleagues, reduce personal performance, and, very likely, leave the school in the long run.

Performance and appraisal is an irreplaceable aspect of HRM practice, as it helps understand the levels and progress of individual employee's achievement, aiming to monitor the overall service and quality provided by the entire organisation (Armstrong, 2006; Smeenk *et al.*, 2009). From a similar perspective, interestingly, Lu (2006) claimed that this aspect (*i.e.*, *performance and appraisal*) can identify the gap between HR policies and their progress in the reality, helping school managers recognise the efficacy and limitation of policies implementation. Namely, with this aspect of HRM practice, school managers and general teachers become able to estimate what they have (or not) achieved, and what else they may do to meet their HRM targets.

HRM Practice and OCB at Primary Schools

HRM practice is often expected to contribute to positive organisational outcomes, e.g., better performance, more job satisfaction, low turnover, less absence, and high cost-effectiveness through the full utilization of employees (Guest, 2002). Contemporary studies have also started to evaluate HRM practice and its impact on performance (*i.e.*, HRM-Performance nexus), with an emphasis placed on the impact of different combinations of HRM practice on a range of performance outcomes at the individual and organisational level of analysis (e.g., Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Paauwe, 2009). In coherent with these contemporary studies, the current research is particularly interested in organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB), as it has been found to be related to both performance (Hui *et al.*, 2000), organisational commitment (Gautam *et al.*, 2005), and counter-productive behaviour at work (Dalal, 2005). Simply put, OCB is one of the major performance variables to evaluate the efficacy and influences of HRM practice.

In essence, OCB is defined as behaviour that goes beyond the formal requirements of the jobs and is beneficial to the organization (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010). Examples may include assisting colleagues with their tasks, devoting time to assist new entrants to the organization, defending their organizational reputation, or even taking voluntary salary-cut. Yet there are different opinions about what causes OCB. Organ and Knovsky (1989) argued that OCB is an altruistic act, in which individuals contribute their efforts to both colleagues and organizations for selfless reasons. Such altruistic

behaviours may be interpreted using either *cognitive determinants* (e.g., doing this task brings long-term interests to the department) or *affective determinants* (e.g., I belong to the organization, or I am willing to help my colleagues, as they are important to me and the company). Interestingly, OCB can also be explained by social exchange theory; Hui, Lam, and Law (2000) revealed that OCB can be a simple tactic for seeking a desired outcome, and once the outcome is achieved, the occurrence of OCB decreases immediately. Hence, demonstrating OCB also brings interests to the individual in the long term.

From an organizational perspective, OCB is a crucial aspect of an employee's behaviour that contributes to overall organizational effectiveness. Podsakoff, Ahearne, and MacMenzie (1997) discovered that higher levels of OCB among employees were associated with the overall productivity and fewer defects. Spector (2006) claimed that OCB is most likely to occur when employees are satisfied with their jobs, have high levels of affective commitment, feel they are treated fairly, or have good relations with their colleagues. Bommer, Miles, and Grover (2003) claimed that OCB is contagious, as people who work in groups where people tend to demonstrate OCB are more likely to perform OCB themselves. Diefendorff *et al.* (2002) also indicated that OCB is predicted by the roles of job involvement and work centrality. Simply put, OCB is favourable to both managers and organisations for its contribution to organizational effectiveness and dynamics.

Having said this, however, the current research wonders whether these prior findings are applicable to primary school teachers, as there may be variance between OCB at primary schools and commercial organisations. For instance, unlike private business sectors, primary schools do not operate on the principles of profits competition; hence, employees from two organisations (primary school vs. Business company) may gain different views regarding OCB. From a managerial perspective, moreover, it is meaningful to examine the inter-relation between HRM practice and OCB occurrence at primary schools. The rationale underlying such examination is: if such inter-relation does exist, school managers (e.g., head teachers, HR managers or governing body) would be able to devise strategies to intervene (or promote) OCB, leading to better school performance, which, in turn, may also contribute to students' learning efficacy and experiences. Therefore, in order to further understand the inter-relation between HRM practice and OCB occurrence at primary schools, both contemporary and empirical studies have been scrutinised and their preliminary findings are outlined here.

To begin with, Nguni, Sleeper and Denessen (2006) indicated that, when transformational leadership style was applied, teachers became more willing to get involved with administrative activities and had higher levels of organisational commitment toward their schools, resulting in more OCB. On the other hand, when transactional leadership was applied, the occurrence of OCBs did not vary much. Nguni *et al.* offered an explanation that, when the transformational leadership style was in place, teachers received more ownership of their duties (e.g., more engagement and feel able to process the tasks in their own manner). Teachers thus felt more positive and satisfied about their job, leading to more OCB. Namely, how schools are managed may generate a subtle impact on the occurrence of OCB, implying that HRM practice is related to OCB.

Secondly, based on the sample of primary school teachers, Cheng (2004) claimed that both procedural justice and interactive appraisal system have promoted OCB occurrence at schools. Cheng indicated that, when teachers feel being treated fairly and professionally, being able to participate into the decision making process and express their views freely, they are more likely to engage with OCB. In a similar vein, a group of researchers agreed that good HRM practice not only promotes the school dynamics but also makes their working environment more enjoyable. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2001) first identified a multi-correlation across management, organisational climate and OCB. DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran explained that, when the school is properly administered, teachers and staff members are more likely to identify and affiliate with the school and its mission. This particular phenomenon not only affect teachers' mentality (e.g., working morale) but also facilitates proactive behaviours at schools (e.g., OCB). Moreover, Smoech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) also found an inter-relation between organizational learning and OCB occurrence. With the provision of on-site learning opportunity (including: educational mechanism and learning values), school teachers would feel more positive about their career development and engage with OCB more frequently. Smoech and Drach-Zahavy highlighted that learning plays an irreplaceable role in the process of organisational development, and that teachers' OCB can benefit to both individuals and schools as a whole.

Thirdly, both Western and Eastern scholars suggested that HRM practice shall have influences on the performance of employees (e.g., teachers) and their organisations (e.g., schools). For instance, Meyer and Allen (1997) first indicated that HRM practice is related to the level of organisational commitment, and that higher organisational commitment is actually the consequence of good management practice in the workplace. These findings may imply that, with good HRM practice at school, teachers may feel more positive about their workplace and hence gain higher levels of commitment toward their organisations. In addition, Lu (2006) discovered that, when HRM practice is coherent with personal expectation, teachers become more willing to cooperate with their line managers, leading to more positive outcomes of organisational innovations. In contrast, when HRM practice deviates from their expectation, teachers become more reserved and withheld their effort and commitment toward the innovations.

Overall, the aforementioned literature review and their implications have provided fundamental evidence to support the inter-relation between HRM practice and OCB occurrence at primary schools. These preliminary findings may have conveyed a message, that is, when primary school teachers perceive positive HRM practice at their schools, they may

engage with organisational citizenship behaviour more frequently.

HRM and its Moderators

Based on the literature review and discussion above, one can almost affirm that the inter-relation between HRM practice and OCB occurrence shall exist at primary schools. However, HRM scholars seem to have different views and stated that the relationship between HRM practice and its efficacy also depends on the characteristics of both organisations and employees (e.g., Smoech, & Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Spector, 2006), implying that the HRM-OCB inter-relation may not be simple and straightforward. Hence, this section now turns to focus on the HRM-OCB inter-relation and explore what other variables may also moderate the inter-relation. Details follow:

Affective organisational commitment. In order to achieve the goal of quality personnel, field researchers have identified some characteristics of ideal employees and one of these is affective organisational commitment (AOC). Broadly speaking, AOC describes employees' psychological and spiritual attachment toward their organisation, which often includes employees' recognition, participation and dedication towards achieving the organisational goals (Gautam *et al.*, 2005; Kwantes, 2003). Allen and Meyer (1990) clarified three distinct themes embedded within the AOC. These are: affective attachment to the organization (affective commitment), a perceived cost associated with leaving the organization (continuance commitment), and commitment as an obligation to remain in the organization (normative commitment). Interestingly, recent studies discovered that individuals with higher AOC are more likely to engage with OCB (Gautam *et al.*, 2005; Kwantes, 2003), perform working morale (Meyer & Allen, 1997) and facilitate interaction at work (Smeenk *et al.*, 2006). Namely, employees with AOC are beneficial to the organisational dynamics and performance. Following this logic, we boldly hypothesize that, when good HRM practice is perceived, PSTs with higher AOC may perform OCB more frequently. In contrast, PSTs with lower AOC may perform OCB less frequently.

Rank of teachers. Spector (2006) aforementioned that the function of HRM practice and its efficacy partially depends on the characteristics of employees. In coherent with Spector's viewpoint, an empirical investigation by Lu (2006) indicated that rank of positions is related to the perception of HRM practice at primary schools. Compared to their counterparts, teachers with higher positions generally value the implementation of HRM practice at school and are more willing to follow the HRM policies (e.g., regulations, acts and proposals). These teachers include, for example, head teachers, principals and teachers with managerial roles. Lu also discovered that teachers with better perception of HRM practice are correlated with better performance, indicating that the perception of HRM practice is indeed related to behaviour at work. From a different perspective, however, one may argue that school administrations and HRM practice are originally managed by teachers with higher position, it is therefore not surprising that these teachers evaluate their HRM practice more positively (i.e., these people are certainly willing to back up their own views). Following these discussions, the current research hypothesizes that, when good HRM practice is perceived, PSTs with higher positions may show OCB more frequently. In contrast, PSTs with lower positions may show OCB less frequently.

School size. The welfare and performance of organisations depends to a large extent on the amount and quality of contributions from their members. Although everyone recognises the mechanism of such dependence, people can still take advantages of organisational functions and services regardless of their personal contribution, i.e., some members may act as free riders. This phenomenon can be further interpreted via two social and psychological concepts: i). *Diffusion of responsibility.* An individual is less likely to demonstrate necessary or pro-social behaviours when others are present than when s/he is alone (Haley & Fessler, 2005). In an example of emergency situation, if someone was stabbed and lying on the street, bystanders may assume that someone else is going (or responsible) to intervene and so they each individually refrain from doing so; ii). *Social loafing.* People may make less effort to achieve a goal when they work in a group than when they work alone (Darley & Latané, 1968). If a person is the target of social forces, increasing the number of other persons diminishes the relative social pressure on each person. When individual inputs are not identifiable the person may work less hard. Thus if the person is dividing up the work to be performed or the amount of reward s/he expects to receive, s/he will work less hard in groups. Following these discussions, we boldly hypothesize that, when good HRM practice is perceived, PSTs from bigger schools may demonstrate OCB less frequently. In contrast, PSTs from small schools may demonstrate OCB more frequently.

Research Framework

The current study has prudently scrutinized the inter-relation between HRM practice and OCB occurrence from different perspectives. The potential moderating effects of *affective organisational commitment*, *rank of positions*, and *school sizes* are also critically discussed along with empirical studies and literature. In order to further understand the relationships between these variables at primary schools, four specific hypotheses have been proposed: H₁: Positive perception of HRM practice may predict OCB occurrence at primary schools. H₂: The HRM-OCR inter-relation may be moderated by affective commitments. H₃: The HRM-OCR inter-relation may be moderated by rank of positions. H₄: The HRM-OCR inter-relation may be moderated by school sizes.

2. Method

Design and Procedure

Using primary school teachers as research sample, an anonymous questionnaire survey was conducted in Central Taiwan. Research variables were measured via a cross-sectional design, with anti-CMV strategies adopted (see further details in *CMV* section). Only incumbent teachers were contacted via personnel managers and/or administrators at each

school. As the authors were acquainted with some managers and administrators, a snowball sampling technique was employed to enlarge the scope of subject recruitment. Questionnaires were distributed in booklet form, along with a cover-letter assuring anonymity and voluntary participation. A reminder letter was sent out seven days after the initial invitation to boost the response rate. Questionnaires were then mailed back to the researchers. Among the 651 copies of questionnaires initially distributed, 588 were returned, of which 568 were useable (response rate = 87.25%).

Research Sample

All research participants were primary school teachers, working for schools in central and north Taiwan areas. 76.40% of these teachers were female, with four age bands, containing: 13.26% (30 yrs and younger), 48.80% (31-40 yrs), 33.50% (41-50 yrs) and 4.25% (51 and older). 76.87% of all teachers were graduates, having earned a bachelor degree. Four ranks of positions were detected, including: 11.39% (principals, head teachers with managerial roles), 19.39% (senior teachers with administrative roles), 55.27% (senior teachers without administrative roles, or with class tutorship only), and 13.78% (junior and subject teachers). In terms of school sizes, four groups were detected, including: 23.13% (49 classes and more), 46.77% (48-25 classes), 11.90% (24-13 classes), and 18.02% (12 classes and less).

Measures

Three standardised scales were adopted to measure the research variables. Details follow:

School HRM practice scale (Lu, 2006) was used to measure how PSTs perceive the HRM practice at their schools. The scale is comprised of 20 items, assessing four different aspects of HRM practice, including: recruitment and placement (5 items), training, education and career development (5 items), communication, support and retention (6 items), and performance and appraisal (4 items). All items were preceded by the stem: *Please rate the truth of each statement as it applies to you at your school*. Sample items included: *The selection of new teachers is based on school's demands* and *My school can offer workshop opportunities to meet teachers' professional needs*. Responses were recorded using a 6-point Likert scale (Completely agree = 6, completely disagree = 1). Higher scores represented higher levels of agreement, indicating that participants feel more positive about this specific aspect of HRM practice at their schools. The internal consistency alpha was satisfactory: recruitment and placement ($\alpha = .90$), training, education and career development ($\alpha = .88$), communication, support and retention ($\alpha = .93$), performance and appraisal ($\alpha = .95$), and four aspects altogether ($\alpha = .96$).

Affective commitment scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990) was adopted to gauge the levels of teachers' affective commitment toward their schools. The scale is comprised of 8 items in total. All items were preceded by the stem: *Please rate the truth of each statement as it applies to you at your school*. Sample items included: *I enjoy talking about my school with outsiders* and *My school is greatly meaningful to me*. Responses were anchored using a 6-point Likert scale (Completely agree = 6, completely disagree = 1). Higher scores represented higher levels of commitment, indicating that participants have stronger psychological attachment toward their schools. The internal consistency alpha was satisfactory ($\alpha = .93$).

Organisational citizenship behaviour was assessed by the *Teachers OCB scale* (Cheng, 2004). This scale is composed of 23 items, assessing the occurrence of teachers' OCB at school. All items were preceded by the stem: *Please rate the truth of each statement as it applies to you at your school*. Sample items included: *I often come to school earlier to deal with administrative issues* and *I am willing to support school activities, with all efforts, even using my private time*. Responses were recorded using a 6-point Likert scale (Completely agree = 6, completely disagree = 1). Higher scores represented higher occurrence of OCB, indicated that teachers were more likely to engage with OCB at their schools. The internal consistency alpha was satisfactory ($\alpha = .89$).

Additionally, demographical characteristics of the respondents were also gathered in the questionnaire survey, including; gender, age, education, rank of position and school size.

Back Translation Procedure

Among three standardised scales, both *School HRM practice scale* and *Teachers OCB scale* are validated and written in Traditional Chinese (official language in Taiwan), which is also the language used by the research sample. The third scale (i.e., *Affective commitment scale*) was originally developed and written in English; hence, this scale was translated into Traditional Chinese for the research purpose, with a back-translation procedure to ensure language equivalence and appropriateness. Three experts were also invited to examine the validity and clarity of scale items.

Common Method Variance (CMV)

Due to the cross-sectional design in the current research, the likelihood of CMV bias may rise (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2003). In order to eradicate such potential bias, an additional *Social Desirability Scale* (SES; Reynolds, 1982) was embedded in the questionnaire survey, by which the *Pearson* formula was applied to examine the correlation coefficients between SES and all variables (see details of CMV remedies in: Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Results showed that the correlation coefficients (α) were: .09-.17 for the items in *School HRM practice scale*, .06-.21 for the items in *Affective commitment scale*, and .15-.29 for the items in *Teachers OCB scale*. Basically, none of these coefficients are close or higher than .07, eliminating the likelihood of CMV bias.

3. Findings

Preliminary analyses have found significant correlations across research variables. For instance, OCB was correlated with perception of HRM practice ($r = .53, p < .001$), affective organisational commitment ($r = .26, p < .01$),

rank of positions ($r = -.13, p < .01$), and school size ($r = -.10, p < .01$). These initial findings have affirmed the associations between different research variables, serving as sound foundation for further advanced statistical analyses. Moreover, PSTs had different perceptions of HRM practice ($F(1, 575) = 5.65, p < .02$). As shown in Table 1, PSTs indicated the highest (positive) perception on HRM practice A ($M = 5.11, SD = .63$), followed by HRM practice B ($M = 4.78, SD = .69$), HRM practice D ($M = 4.52, SD = .89$) and HRM C ($M = 4.44, SD = .88$). Finally, in order to scrutinise the inter-relations across research variables and examine hypotheses, a series of inferential statistical analyses were conducted. Details follow:

Hypothesis 1 Examination

To examine the first hypothesis, all potential predictors (i.e., independent variables) were entered into the equation for multiple regression analysis, by which demographical variables and four aspects of HRM practice were analysed both separately and jointly (See Table 2). To be exact, HRM practice A (Recruitment and placement) significantly predicted OCB ($\beta = .29, p < .001$), HRM practice B (Training, education & career development) significantly predicted OCB ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), whereas HRM practice C (Communication, support and retention) and HRM practice D (Performance and appraisal) did not significantly predict OCB ($\beta = .07, .04$, respectively). Interestingly, when all four aspects of HRM practice were put together, the predicting effect was re-emerged with less significance ($\beta = .09, p < .05$).

Based on these statistical figures, one can conclude that positive perception of HRM practice may not necessarily contribute to OCB occurrence. PSTs with positive perception on recruitment, placement, training, education and career development were more likely to engage with OCB, but PSTs with positive perception on communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal showed no influence on OCB occurrence. Nevertheless, if all aspects of HRM practice were taken into account, if the overall perception were positive, people were still more likely to engage with OCB. Namely, the first hypothesis is partially supported by the research data.

Table 1. Predictors of organisational citizenship behaviour

Predictors	Organisational citizenship behaviour	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1: Control variables		.02**
1. Gender	.02	
2. Age	.07	
3. Educational levels	.00	
4. Rank of positions	-.10*	
5. School size	-.11**	
Step 2: Independent variables		.32***
6. Affective organisational commitment	.08*	
7. HRM practice A†	.29***	
8. HRM practice B	.20***	
9. HRM practice C	.07	
10. HRM practice D	.04	
11. HRM practice (four aspects together)	.09*	
Step 3: Two-way interaction		.28***
6 * 7	.33***	
6 * 8	.20**	
11 * 4	.09*	
11 * 5	.08*	
Adjusted R^2	.62	
F	36.46***	

Note: †. HRM practice A = Recruitment and placement, HRM practice B = Training, education & career development, HRM practice C = Communication, support and retention, HRM practice D = Performance and appraisal (***, $p < .001$; **, $p < .01$; *, $p < .05$).

Hypothesis 2 Examination

Previous regression analysis showed that affective organisational commitment significantly predicted OCB ($\beta = .08, p < .05$). To further estimate the variance of affective organisational commitment, participants were re-coded into three groups, subject to their scores on the scale (see Table 3). These new groups include: low affective commitment group ($M = 3.48, SD = .21$), middle affective commitment group ($M = 3.80, SD = .06$), and high affective commitment group ($M = 4.32, SD = .44$). These groups stand for 38%, 30% and 31% of the whole sample, respectively. The means differences ($Mdiff$) across three groups was significant ($F(2, 580) = 49.31, p < .001$), indicating that the re-grouping process was successful.

Table 2. Moderating effect of affective organisational commitment on HRM-OCB

	Low AC†	Middle AC	High AC	$F / (df) / p$
	(% of sample)	38%	30%	
HRM practice A‡	4.93 (.61)	5.18 (.59)	5.28 (.64)	$F(2,578) = 17.38***$

HRM practice B	4.52 (.71)	4.86 (.57)	5.03 (.64)	F(2,577) = 32.65***
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Note: †. AC = affective commitment;

‡. HRM practice A = Recruitment and placement, HRM practice B = Training, education & career development (***)
 $p < .001$.

To examine the moderating effect, the interactions between all aspects of HRM practice and affective organizational commitment were analysed, using Baron and Kenny (1986)'s moderational analysis formula. Yet, as previous analyses affirmed that HRM practice C and D did not predict OCB, these two aspects were thus omitted from the moderational analysis. Outcomes were outlined below. Firstly, OCB was predicted by affective organisational commitment ($\beta = .08, p < .05$), HRM practice A ($\beta = .29, p < .001$), HRM practice B ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), the interaction between affective organisational commitment and HRM practice A ($\beta = .33, p < .001$), the interaction between affective organisational commitment and HRM practice B ($\beta = .20, p < .01$). These statistical figures affirmed the existence of moderating effect. Secondly, group differences were further analysed to understand the direction of such moderating effect on OCB. Details follow:

In terms of HRM practice A, group differences were: low affective commitment group ($M = 4.93, SD = .61$), middle affective commitment group ($M = 5.18, SD = .59$), and high affective commitment group ($M = 5.28, SD = .64$). Between group differences were significant ($F(2, 578) = 17.38, p < .001$). These statistical figures implied two messages: i). teachers with positive perception on HRM practice A (i.e., recruitment and placement) were more likely to engage with OCB; ii). Compared to their counterparts, teachers with higher affective organizational commitment were more likely to engage with OCB at schools, too.

In terms of HRM practice B, group differences were: low affective commitment group ($M = 4.52, SD = .71$), middle affective commitment group ($M = 4.86, SD = .57$), and high affective commitment group ($M = 5.03, SD = .64$). Between group differences were significant ($F(2, 577) = 32.65, p < .001$). These statistical figures implied two messages: i). teachers with positive perception on HRM practice B (i.e., training, education and career development) were more likely to engage with OCB; ii). Compared to their counterparts, teachers with higher affective organizational commitment were more likely to engage with OCB at schools, too.

Hypothesis 3 Examination

To examine the moderating effect of rank of positions, the same analytic procedure was applied. Firstly, OCB was predicted by rank of positions ($\beta = -.10, p < .05$), perception of HRM practice ($\beta = .09, p < .05$), and the interaction between rank of positions and perception of HRM practice ($\beta = .09, p < .05$). These statistical figures affirmed the existence of moderating effect. Secondly, group differences were further analysed to understand the direction of such moderating effect on OCB. To be exact, teachers with higher rank of positions had more OCB ($M = 5.14, SD = .46$), including: principals, head teachers with managerial roles, and senior teachers with administrative roles. Teachers with lower rank of positions had less OCB ($M = 4.95, SD = .54$ including: senior teachers without administrative roles (or with class tutorship only), junior and subject teachers). Between group differences were significant ($t(578) = 3.99, p < .001$; *Levene's F* = 3.00, $p = .08$). These statistical figures implied two messages: i). teachers with positive perception on HRM practice were more likely to engage with OCB; ii). Compared to their counterparts, teachers with higher positions were more likely to engage with OCB at schools, too.

Hypothesis 4 Examination

To examine the moderating effect of school size, the same analytic procedure was applied. Firstly, OCB was predicted by school size ($\beta = -.11, p < .01$), perception of HRM practice ($\beta = .09, p < .05$), and the interaction between school size and perception of HRM practice ($\beta = .08, p < .05$). These statistical figures affirmed the existence of moderating effect. Secondly, group differences were further analysed to understand the direction of such moderating effect on OCB. To be exact, teachers from smaller schools (i.e., 24 classes or smaller) had more OCB ($M = 5.08, SD = .50$, whereas teachers from bigger schools (i.e., 25 classes or bigger) had less OCB ($M = 4.98, SD = .53$). Between group differences were significant ($t(578) = 2.18, p < .05$; *Levene's F* = .07, $p = .80$). These statistical figures implied two messages: i). teachers with positive perception on HRM practice were more likely to engage with OCB; ii). Compared to their counterparts, teachers from smaller schools were more likely to engage with OCB at schools, too.

4. Discussion

Using primary school teachers as research subject, the current research aimed to analyse the inter-relations across teachers' perception of HRM practice at school, their affective commitment toward school and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). New findings have been discovered, which not only challenged the efficacy of HRM practice at workplace, but also clarified the mediating roles of school size and teachers' rank of position. These findings are meaningful in several ways. Details follow:

Analysis of HRM Practice at Primary Schools

As aforementioned in *Introduction*, the current research only focused on the most influential aspects of HRM practice, including: recruitment, placement, training, education, career development, communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal. These aspects of HRM practice are supposed to have different roles and functions during the process of school management and development (Freitas *et al.*, 2011; Lu, 2006; Smeenk *et al.*, 2009). Interestingly,

primary school teachers seemed to gain different perceptions regarding these aspects. To be exact, this research uncovered that recruitment, placement, training, education and career development received relatively higher levels of positive perception, whereas communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal received relatively lower levels of positive perception.

For such particular phenomenon, two possible interpretations are proposed here. Firstly, compared to other organisations (e.g., banking industries and manufacturers), primary schools do not operate on the principles of financial incentives. Unlike private business sectors in the market, the interaction between primary schools is probably more collaboration rather than competition oriented (e.g., working together to enhance students learning efficacy, peer-reviews and school-visit activities). Hence, PSTs may put more weight on these aspects of HRM practice (i.e., education, training, and career development) and therefore perceived these aspects more important than other aspects at schools. Secondly, there might be some other underlying factors differentiating the influences of these aspects of HRM practice at work; however, these aspects were not investigated in the current research. For example, organisational culture, leadership style of head teachers (principals), and government policies of local primary schools (Huselid *et al.*, 1997). These factors may also be related to the efficacy of HRM practice in the workplace and affects the perception of PSTs. Certainly, these two interpretations are theoretical in nature and still require further examination.

Analysis of HRM-OCB

Broadly speaking, HRM practice shall contribute to positive organisational outcomes, e.g., better performance, more job satisfaction, low turnover, less absence, and high cost-effectiveness through the full utilization of employees (Guest, 2002). In the current research, due to the limited schedule and resources, only one of such organisational outcomes was measured, i.e., organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Different from prior studies which affirmed the efficacy of HRM practice (e.g., Hui *et al.*, 2000; Gautam *et al.*, 2005), the current research suggested that positive perception of HRM practice may not necessarily contribute to OCB occurrence. According to the statistical analysis, PSTs with positive perception on recruitment, placement, training, education and career development were more likely to engage with OCB, whereas PSTs with positive perception on communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal showed no influence on OCB occurrence. These findings are not merely interesting but also containing important implications to HR practitioners at primary schools.

To begin with, school managers (e.g., head teachers and principals) should not assume that all aspects of HRM practice had worked nor received same levels of positive perception from PSTs. Some aspects did receive positive perception from PSTs, where others simply did not. School managers shall endeavour to find out what causes these differences, i.e., why some aspects work better, whereas others don't? Why PSTs are more willing (or reluctant) to experience some aspects than others? Secondly, the HRM-OCB relationship may be more complicated at schools; alternatively, one may state that positive perception of HRM practice may not necessarily lead to more OCB at primary schools. If this statement is true, school managers shall think further of how to promote the occurrence of OCB using other policies, rather than relying on the HRM practice investigated here. Finally, probably a bit controversially, a question is raised here, i.e., is OCB still a suitable variable to measure organisational outcomes? Namely, is OCB an appropriate variable for primary schools and their employees, teachers and staff members? Future studies may wish to take this view on board and conduct a more inclusive research accordingly.

Analysis of Moderators

The current research was interested in the nature of inter-relation between perception of HRM practice and OCB at primary schools. For this reason, three potential moderators were investigated here, including: affective organisational commitment, rank of positions, and smaller school size. In line with the research hypotheses, statistical analysis discovered that PSTs with more affective organisational commitment, higher positions and from smaller schools were more likely to engage with OCB. These findings may have important implications to school managers, especially when they plan HRM strategies to enhance organisational performance such as OCB.

In order to promote OCB, school managers (e.g., head teachers and principals) shall take the influence of affective commitment into account. Rather than continuously implementing different HRM practice (e.g., policies, regulations) at work, more emphasis on the psychological perception of employees should be addressed, e.g., what do employees expect from the organisations, what are their needs. After all, healthy and happy employees (e.g., PSTs) are the most valuable asset to the organisations (e.g., primary schools). Without the care and support to the employees, any aspects of HRM practice may not reach their maximum potential and effect.

In terms of school size, school managers should bear in mind of such moderating impact. As aforementioned in *Introduction*, bigger organisations do offer higher chance of social loafing and diffusion of responsibilities. Hence, managers of large-scale schools may wish to assign the tasks to several sub-managers (or groups), so each group receives a certain amount of tasks and responsibility and, hopefully, the negative influences of social loafing effect on the organisational performance (e.g., decreasing the efficacy of HRM practice) can be alleviated.

For the moderating effect regarding rank of positions, school managers may wish to enhance the dynamics of workplace through informal activities and congregations. By doing this, hopefully, employees from different rank of positions can have better chance to mingle together, exchange views and build up better inter-personal relationships, which will ultimately contribute to the organisational dynamic and better performance.

Research Limitation and Suggestion

Due to the limited research schedule and resources, the current research only focused on the major aspects of HRM practice at schools, which were identified by prior studies. Although this focus seems expedient during the research implementation, other minor aspects of HRM practice were not investigated nor analysed, which did not contribute to the ecological validity of HRM research outcomes. Future studies are thus encouraged to enlarge the research scope and extend the timeline to evaluate the efficacy of HRM practice at schools, so a full picture of HRM-Performance nexus can be better observed and understood. Moreover, any behaviour assessment (e.g., OCB) should be conducted via a third party to ensure the objectiveness and completeness of dataset. Yet, due to ethical concerns, this research did not adopt any third-party assessment procedure, as it may breach confidentiality policy and put participants into psychosomatic discomforts. The final issue to be borne in mind is, the findings reported here were all based on Taiwanese primary school teachers, which is thus not applicable to the populations from other organisations, cultures and countries. The generalisability of our findings requires further desalinisation using samples from different sectors and locations.

Conclusion

Using primary school teachers as research subject, the current research acted as a pioneer study to analyse teachers' perception of HRM practice at school, their affective commitment toward school and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Different from prior studies which affirmed the efficacy of HRM practice, the current research found that positive perception of HRM practice may not necessarily contribute to OCB occurrence. PSTs with positive perception on recruitment, placement, training, education and career development were more likely to engage with OCB, but PSTs with positive perception on communication, support, retention, performance and appraisal showed no influence on OCB occurrence. In addition, the inter-relation between perception of HRM practice and OCB was moderated by higher affective organisational commitment, higher rank of positions, and smaller school size. Namely, PSTs with more affective organisational commitment, higher positions and from smaller schools are more likely to engage with OCB.

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Religious Diversity in the Workplace: The Case of Filipinos Working in the Factories in Taiwan

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Abstract

Religion has over the years become an important aspect of diversity due to increased globalization and the migration of people of varied religious background. According to the Council of Labour Affairs (CLA), 2006 there was a total of 307, 477 foreign migrant workers in Taiwan. Filipinos amounts to the second largest group with Thailand constituting the largest group. Even though organizations are leaning towards the acceptance of diversity in the workplace, accounts from individuals suggest that it is still a slow process particularly when it comes to religious diversity. This research explored the problems that these employees face when their religion is in conflict with their job duties and how these problems affects their work outcome and their personal lives. The major problem encountered by the participants is in getting days off to worship. The study shows that the participants who failed to get days off to worship were not happy with their jobs and felt that this had an effect on their personal lives and the way they performed their jobs. This study used a qualitative and grounded theory approach where the research used the interview method to collect the data from seven participants. This study provides empirical reasons why valuing workers religious differences are more beneficial to both parties.

Keywords: Religion, Diversity, Filipinos

1. Introduction

The concept of diversity has gained much interest in the business world because it pays attention to the differences and similarities that employees bring to the work environment. Diversity is a subject that is almost impossible for businesses to ignore because the employees who make up the organization are in one way or the other different whether it is in gender, race, culture, religious beliefs and so on. The continual changes of the workplace due to demographics and migration encourage employers to be more vigilant to the issues that arise as a result of diversity. There are varying views on the meaning of diversity and the factors it should encompass. Some authors propose that more relevant understanding of diversity should focus on groups that have been steadily discriminated against in the workplace (Hays-Thomas, 2004, Lennahan & Conrad, 1999, as cited in Conrad, Prasad & Pringle, 2006). This group would include religion.

Religion has over the years become an important aspect of diversity due to increased globalization and the migration of people of varied religious background. Many organizations have recognized the value of diversity but reports given by individuals suggest that acceptance and respect for people who share a different religious belief continues to be a slow process. Parboteeah and Cullen, (2011) describe religion as “Shared beliefs, activities, and institutions based on faith in supernatural forces” (p.79). There has not been much research on religious diversity (Messera & El-Kassar, 2010). One of the areas that have caused continued difficulties is the Manager’s efforts in being fair to each employee in matters of religion, is that religious obligation may clash with employees’ ability to perform work duties. One of the most frequent requests is that of time off in honour of holy days which would be specific to the employees’ denomination (Pearce, 1994). With the evolution of many different religions, the need for businesses to be more involved in encouraging awareness of these denominational differences is of paramount important to avoid discriminating and unfair behaviours against employees. Aoun and Gibeily states that “diversity management in general, and religious diversity management in particular are important because they are beneficial, challenging and have a direct influence on overall performance.” (As cited by Messera & El-Kassar, 2010, p. 1).

According to the 2006 International religious freedom report, 35 percent of the population of Taiwan are considered to be Buddhist, 33 percent Taoist, 3.5 percent are I Kuan Tao, 2.6 percent are Protestant, and 1.3 percent are Roman Catholic. Taiwan’s constitution allows for free practice of religion which makes the intensification of various religious groups in the country, possible because of the apparent lack of restrictions.

According to the Council of Labour Affairs (CLA), 2006 there was a total of 307, 477 foreign migrant workers in Taiwan. Filipinos amounts to the second largest group with Thailand constituting the largest group. Huang and

Douglas 2009, mentions some of the problems that these foreign workers face particularly in the difficulty of getting day offs to engage in social activities. The authors state that religious venues are among the most important sites in drawing these foreign workers. Based on these statistics one could conclude that recognizing religious diversity in Taiwan is growing in importance especially with the increase of foreign workers who bring with them varied religious beliefs.

This study endeavoured to explore the importance of valuing religious diversity in Taiwan's business environment, and provide empirical reasons why valuing workers religious differences would be more favourable for both parties. This study also investigated the problems that employees face when work duties conflict with their religious obligations and the effects of these problems on their work outcome and their personal lives.

The research therefore sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are some of problems employees face when work duties conflict with religious obligations?
2. How do these problems affect the work outcome of employees and their personal lives?

2. Literature Review

The concept of managing diversity started in the United States of America in the 1980s and it was a reaction towards an upsurge in demographic changes in the work environment and also in response to global competition (Strachan, French & Burgess 2009). In 1964 Title VII of the Civil Rights Acts and the amendments that followed makes it illegal for workers to be discriminated against in any form based on race, colour, sex, and religion etcetera (Werner & DeSimone 2009). Businesses are continually faced with challenges on how to be reasonably fair to employees of varying religious persuasions and still maintain some semblance of equality in the workplace. Religious diversity has gained prominent awareness due in part to increased lawsuits against companies in the US. According to Kelly, It is believed that most of these religious discrimination charges were filed by employees on the basis of "disparate treatment, religious harassment, and failure to reasonable accommodate their religious beliefs" (Kelly, 2008). Lack of accurate information about these different religions gives rise to misunderstandings and contributes to difficult situations for business, (Pearce, 1994).

Although most research done on religious diversity seems to be centred in the West, there are also some research conducted in other parts of the world for example Lebanon. Messara and El-Kassar, (2010) in their research article on Effects of Religious Diversity on Employees' Perception and Reaction, mentions that the country of Lebanon has 17 different religious sectors, and that religious diversity is a dominant factor in workforce diversity. Religious segregation was at its peak during the Lebanese civil war (1975-1989). Even after the end of the civil war, segregation is still known to exist predominantly in the public sector. The private sector although not entirely free from segregation, is reported to be more interested in job qualifications than religious affiliations. The findings of their research verified that when positive measures are taken by businesses when it comes to dealing with issues of that nature that would in turn be a positive influence on employees' perception. The research recommends that organizations should focus on employee relations and training, adopting practical measures to help create a fair environment is an important factor in employee satisfaction.

Bouma, Pratt and Ling in their book on Religious Diversity in Southeast Asia and the Pacific, thought to address the apparent lack of reports on religious diversity in the East. Most of the reported impact of religious diversity was concentrated in Europeans and North America. The book examines the issue of religious diversity in 27 different countries including Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia, and Japan. The book concentrates on case studies of these various countries and discusses religious diversity in and the issues faced by each of the 27 nations in Southeast Asia and the Pacific. The book also looks at institutional structures and governmental policies in managing diversities in these countries.

Literature provides a general consensus that religion does have great influence in the work environment and that it is fast becoming an issue that is difficult for businesses to ignore particularly because it is being controlled by demographic trends and globalization. Although different levels of importance may be placed on religious diversity, the fact remains that it is a real issue in most if not all parts of the world because of migration of people with varying religious beliefs. Hence literature suggests that for this reason, businesses should be equipped to deal with these issues (Bostorff & Arlington, 2010).

3. Research Methods

3.1 Research Design

A qualitative approach was used in this study. This approach was used because the researcher was interested in understanding the meanings that people attached to their experiences when religion beliefs conflicts with their work obligations. Qualitative research is a very suitable method of research when it comes to matters relating to diversity because it does not assume that there is only one truth to a given phenomenon but rather it explores the subjective views of the people being studied (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003). This interest will then allow the researcher to meet

the participants in a natural setting to investigate the phenomenon in a pragmatic way (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). A grounded theory approach was used in this research with a systematic design. The systematic design is considered to be the most thorough; it highlights the use of the data analysis steps of open, axial, and selective coding (Onwuegbuzie, Jiao & Bostick, 2002, as cited in Creswell, 2004).

3.2 Data Collection

This study used two rounds of semi-structured and in depth face to face of thirty to sixty minutes interview with each of the 7 participants. In the first round participants were a little shy in offering information requested hence the researcher did the interview a second time but this time participants were asked to write down their responses which took an average time of 60 minutes for each person. This method seemed to be more effective in collecting the information as the participants felt freer in providing the information. Informal discussions were also used and it allowed the participants the freedom of expressing their experiences so that the information collected was more in-depth. The interview collected information on problems that participants faced when religious obligations clashed with work duties, and how these problems affect their work outcome and personal lives. The interview was recorded both in writing and on tape with the permission of the interviewee in case the researcher missed anything while writing.

3.3 Sampling

Purposive or Judgmental sampling was used in this research. This is where the researcher chose participants who in his or her opinion are best suitable to provide the required information and who would also be willing to share it (Kumar, 1996). The sample criteria were that the participants will be Filipinos working at the factories in Taiwan and are having problems due to their religious beliefs. The study required that the participant would be employed for more than six months at the factory and the reason for this is that the participant would have a richer experience to share with the researcher. This study limited the number of participants to seven who fitted the given criteria. Table 1 below shows the biographical profile of the participants.

Table 1. Biographical profile of participants

Biographical characteristics	Description	Frequency
Age	25-30	5
	35-40	2
Gender	Male	3
	Female	4
Nationality	Filipinos	7
Current Religion	Seventh-Day Adventist	7
Job Positions	Administrative Assistant	1
	Machine Operator	1
	Production	4
	Quality Assurance	1
Length of time on the job	7 months	1
	19 months	1
	24 months	1
	34 months	1
	36 months	1
	38 months	1
	68 months	1

3.4 Data Analysis

This study used the analysis techniques suggested by grounded theory approach including open coding and axial coding. Open coding allowed the researcher to divide the data into parts and scrutinized them to find commonalities and to further place them into categories. This process helped the researcher to reduce the data into meaningful sets of themes, and helped with drawing conclusions of the given phenomenon. Codes were given to the core beliefs of the participants, the problems that participants faced at work because of these religious beliefs, how those problems affected their work outcome, and how those problems affected their personal lives. Axial coding was used to find a relation among categories.

3.5 Reliability and Validity

To ensure reliability the researcher conducted the interview more than once to ensure that the same responses were given to the questions asked. The researcher also reviewed written documents and audio tapes multiple times to make sure that no vital information was missed in the coding process. To ensure validity the researcher converged the results collected from the interview from the participants with that of other sources primarily with literature on related topics.

4. Findings

The biological profiles of the participants in table 1 indicated that they were between the ages of 25 and 40, of Filipino nationality and currently working in the factories in Taiwan on a working visa. They have been working at the factories in Taiwan for an average of 32.3 months. Majority of the participants found their job placements via a job agency in the Philippines. It must be noted that the participants were all members of the Seventh-day Adventist church because of the convenience to the researcher and because the researcher used the purposive method of sampling to get the participants.

The open coding method allowed the researcher to code the data collected in four major categories core religious beliefs, problems faced at work because of these beliefs, how these problems affect work outcome, and how these problems affect their personal lives. Each category will be presented separately.

4.1 Core Religious Beliefs of the Participants

Participants believe in the Holy Scriptures as doctrine therefore some of their core beliefs are said to be derived from the bible. The bible both old and new testaments are believed to be God's written word and that God has given unto man the knowledge needed for salvation. Salvation to the believer means a deliverance from sin which causes suffering in this life and ultimately causes destruction, where sin is disobedience to God's word in the bible. Participants believe in a church community where they could worship and fellowship with other church members whom they see as family members, hence they call each other brothers and sisters.

The church believes in a baptism by which those who get baptized are received to join the membership and to abide by the teachings of the church. The teachings are said to be based on the laws of God which is the Ten Commandments. The Sabbath is one of these commandments; to every believer it is the seventh-day of the week which is the Saturday. This day is believed to be holy where the believer is to rest from all labour, and take this day as a day of worship and fellowship with other believers; this belief is based on the bible verse found in Exodus 20:8-11. To work on this "holy day" is considered to be a sin and members are often rebuked by the church if they are not in keeping with these laws.

Participants believe also that to be a false witness or to tell untruths is against the teachings of the church and the bible. Participants also believe eating of certain foods is unclean for the body according to the scriptures in Deuteronomy 14: 1-29.

4.2 Problems Participants Faced at Work Because of Religious Beliefs

Participants identified several problems that they encountered in the factories out of which two stands out the most. The administrative assistant mentioned that her work schedule is different from those of the other factory workers who were directly involved in operating machinery or involved in the production of merchandise. She is required to work only five days a week which would exclude Saturday and Sunday. Her problem however is not in getting days off to go to church but in what she is expected to do in her job content. She is responsible for doing clerical work and customer service which includes communicating with customers about merchandise that they order and to correct any problems that the customer may have. She mentioned that several times her job would require her to make false statements to clients. This is a big problem for her because it goes against her religious belief; she also believed that professionally it is unethical to tell lies. When she was asked how she felt about her job she said thus "I am happy because I can go to church every Saturday since my work is only from Monday to Friday. I feel thankful because normally factory workers don't have this privilege. I feel sorry too, because the natures of the business I have mostly do lying to customers." When asked what are some of the problems that you face at work because of your religious beliefs? This was the answer "We are instructed to tell a lie if needed and that disturbs me." She pointed out an incident when the business shipped a large quantity of products to a customer. She said after they sent the order, they realized that there was a problem with the products sent. She mentioned that the company asked her not to say anything to the customer about the problem, wait to find if the customer would realize the problem. The customer did

find out about the problem and she was asked to lie and say that the business did not realize there was a problem with the order.

The other major problem for the other participants was that of having the Saturday off to go to church. According to the other participants they were given two Saturdays a month off but because of their belief they should abstain from all work on this day because it is believed to be a holy day one set aside by God as a day of worship. One of the participants mentioned that he was not willing to choose the job over his religious belief. He mentioned that when he took this stance this caused a lot of problems for him. His supervisor threatened that he would lose his job and be deported to the Philippines if he did not work on the Saturdays. To settle the issue the supervisor mentioned that he would involve the manager in this matter, the participant mentioned that he got scared then, but he prayed and trusted in God because he was not willing to change his mind about working on Saturdays. The participant mentioned his difficulty in trying to get his colleagues to exchange the shift with him so that he could get Saturdays off. He said "I keep trying to talk to my co-workers to change our day off but if they don't my solution is to be absent, that's why they're angry." This did not work most times because the workers were not willing to change their shifts. As a result of this he said that the supervisor was always very angry with him. Even his co-workers behaviour towards him changed because their work load would increase when he was absent "I feel not good because if I was not there they will become busy because they have to handle my machine." The other participants also mentions that their biggest problem is that of getting the day off on Saturdays to worship and to fellowship with other church members.

Other problems that were mentioned by three of the participants are that of the foods served at the cafeteria "the food they serve is more on foods we can't eat." This is difficult for the participants because of their work schedule most of them don't have the time to eat elsewhere, and have to eat at the cafeteria. According to their religion certain foods, pork in particular is against their beliefs to eat. They believe that this poses some problem for them at work.

4.3 How These Problems Affect the Work Outcome of Participants

Out of the 7 participants four mentioned that the problems at work do affect their work outcome. One of the participants mentioned that he is willing to exchange shifts with his co-workers but when they don't agree because of his absence from the job, the amount of work that could be done in that one day is lost. Furthermore he mentioned that when he is absent the other workers sometimes has to do both his job and theirs so the jobs of the other workers are also affected because they also have to concentrate on doing his job as well. Other participants indicated that when they are forced to work on the Sabbath, they try to quickly finish the job so that they can get some free time to rest. In his opinion the work is not done as well as he does it during the week "It really affects me every time I work during the Saturday, though I am physically present mentally I'm absent; I cannot perform very well." Another participant mentions that sometimes he makes up lies claiming to be sick so that he can get the Saturday off. The other participant who works as the administrative assistant, though she does not have a problem with getting Saturdays off, expressed that she was required to lie often to the customers. The participant was asked to explain a situation when these problems would affect how she performs her job. She mentioned that all her confidence is removed. She does not want to talk face to face with the customer when they come to the factory to audit. She feels very nervous and guilty and finds it very difficult to communicate with customers face to face. One of the participants who decided to work on the Sabbath mentioned that at times she does not feel to get any work done but it's almost impossible to do so because the supervisors are always there to check on her work.

4.4 How These Problems Affect the Personal Lives of Participants

When asked if the problems at work affect their personal lives, all the participant said yes. Some of them feel unhappy because they are forced to choose to work on the Sabbath when they don't want to. They would prefer to go to church and obey the laws of God. But they confess that they don't have enough faith and trust in God, "for sure I am lack of prayers, trust in God, so my faith in God is gradually lost." The participant pointed out it is difficult to make a decision as to whether she would choose her work over her religion, she said "for me it is hard because I believe seek God first before everything and I'm here in Taiwan for work, for the needs of my family so maybe God can understand." One of the participants mentioned that she does not want to renew her contract and is looking forward to going back to the Philippines because she is not happy with having to work on the Sabbath. Another participant revealed that feels troubled spiritually and that he sometimes feel that he will not be saved because of disobedience to God's laws. "For the sake of my wife and children who are in the Philippines, I have to take care of them, I don't want to be sent back home for not working on the Sabbath."

The administrative assistant mentioned not being able to sleep well at night because it disturbs and bothers her conscience. She feels that if she does not adhere to what the managers want the managers would become angry because to them the business is important and not the feelings of the employees.

The major findings in this research are that most employees did have problems at work because of their religious beliefs. The biggest problem was in getting a day off to go to church. All participants admitted that these problems affected them personally and four admitted that it did affect how he/she performs her job.

5. Discussions

When people work in environments where their religious beliefs are in conflict with work duties problems will arise. This is not a surprising finding as it coincides with what the literature says on the subject. Huang and Douglas (2009) in a study done in Taiwan, mentions some of the problems that foreign workers face particularly in the difficulty of getting day off to engage in social activities. The authors go further in explaining that some of the most important sites that these foreign workers go to are religious venues. This suggests the importance of religion to these workers. One of the most recurrent requests of workers in the factories regarding their religion was in getting the Saturday off to worship. Pearce (1994) one of the most frequent requests is that of time off in honour of holy days which would be specific to the employees' denomination (Pearce, 1994). Not being able to get the Saturday off caused problems for the employees because they felt caught between religion and the workplace.

This situation based on the findings suggests that while it did not have a greater influence on their job performance as was anticipated; it did have a big impact on their personal lives and even some impact on their overall perception of work. One of the reasons based on the findings, for the lack of effect on job performance was that of stringent supervision and this would have made it difficult for participants not to perform their jobs. However this does not necessarily mean that the participants were working at their fullest potential. It is possible that because they knew they were being observed, and out of fear of losing their jobs, they were doing just enough to keep their jobs. When the situation of the participants were analysed, taking into consideration that they had left their country and families behind to find employment in Taiwan, it could be deduced that they need these jobs and as such were not willing to lose the monies that they earned. This does not indicate commitment and loyalty for the organizations but is more indicative of self preservation.

Participants mentioned that they were unhappy, and they felt guilty in disobeying God. Most of them chose doing their jobs because they felt that they needed the money, and were afraid that they would be sent home if they did not go by the employer's rules. This situation placed some added pressure on the employees; going against the church which they were a part of or choosing the job that provide them with the money that they needed. The findings suggest that these employees often chose their jobs but this affected their happiness and the satisfaction with work.

5.1 Study Implications and Recommendations

A possible implication for business includes unhappy employees with low job satisfaction may not be working according to his or her fullest potential. Employees who get time off to facilitate his or her religious beliefs may feel more inclined to work harder to make up for the time off; hence it may be of greater benefit to the business as much as possible to value religious diversity. According to the research findings and that supported in literature employers need to be become more aware about the religious beliefs of employees. In other for businesses to have successful and dependable management in an environment where employees are bringing their religious beliefs and customs into the workplace, employers need a greater awareness of people as spiritual beings (Krahnke & Hoffman, 2002). However it must be noted that it is a difficult task for managers to be fair to all employees. For examples if one set of employees are given the Saturdays off all the time other workers might feel that they are not being treated fairly; this may cause further problems for the business.

The researcher's recommendations for businesses are that each employee has to feel valued for him/her to feel identified with the business. This being said employers have to as much as possible try to accommodate the religious belief of employees. People place great importance in their religion, and when it is in conflict with their work can be very frustrating and cause tremendous emotional turmoil for employees. Many of these employees are away from home and being part of a social group hold deep meaning for them. It is the author's belief that allowing the workers the time off to facilitate their spiritual and social needs would be more beneficial to the organization. Valuing religious diversity means that you care also about the employees and not only about what the employees can do for the business. This could trigger a higher commitment and loyalty from employees and would be more beneficial for both employees and the business (Krahnke & Hoffman 2002).

5.2 Study Limitations

The researcher used a small sample in this research hence information collected may not be sufficient to provide any conclusive information on the subject matter. Also the sample was all from one denomination hence results could not be generalized to all religious groups. It's possible that some religious groups are not experiencing any problems with their religion and the workplace because every religion has different beliefs. Since Both literature and the

findings in this research agrees that the most frequent request from believers are day offs to go to worship, it would have been interesting to test this theory with other religions. The research also would have been much richer and more conclusive if a comparison could have been made with other religions and their experience in the workplace, highlighting the differences and similarities but this is beyond the scope of the paper. However it can be suggested for future research.

5.3 Conclusions

The research findings highlighted two major factors in religious diversity and the workplace. First workers do have problems in the workplace regarding their religion and the job. The dominant problem is that of getting the day off to worship and to go church. Other problems include making false statements and not being able to find foods in the cafeteria at the factories that they can eat. These problems affected their personal lives; it affected their relationship with God and the church. These problems also affected the participants work performance either through absenteeism where participants claimed to be sick or just hurried their work so they could get time to rest. They feel guilty because they often choose to work because they need the money and are afraid that they may lose their jobs and be sent back to the Philippines. This situation causes them to be unhappy. Out of the seven participants four believed that these problems do have an effect on their work outcome. The other three said no these problems do not affect their work outcome. They said that most times they are under strict scrutiny which could be the reason why they would still do their jobs as usual.

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Challenges and Competencies in a Globalized Era: A Study of Latin-American Government Representatives in Taiwan

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Abstract

In today's globalized world diplomacy is a fundamental instrument for intensifying international relations and fostering a better understanding between countries. Recent changes in the diplomatic practice, along with rapid technological and economic developments, have made the roles of the agents of diplomacy – foreign representatives, harder to define. The purpose of this study was to identify the core competencies required for Latin-American government representatives in Taiwan. A qualitative approach was adopted to reach this purpose. Semi structured interviews, which used key expatriate competencies, requirement for organizations with international missions and diplomacy literature as a framework, were utilized for collecting data from six Latin-American representatives serving in Taiwan. The findings of this study provide information for government officials in charge of selecting foreign mission holders and for international educators responsible for training and developing the future generation of foreign representatives.

Keywords: competencies, foreign representatives, diplomacy, international relations

1. Introduction

In today's world, multiple globalization processes, deeper economic integration, and the importance of trade liberalization in different regions determine the new ways in which nations interact. Diplomacy, which purpose is to "develop and diversify international relationships, avoid international conflicts, foster understanding and thereby promote confidence, tolerance and mutual esteem between countries" (H., 1937, p. 509), is an important part of this interaction. Most importantly, its agents – foreign representatives, are nowadays major actors in the global political and economic scene. These individuals not only reflect the image of their nations, but also are responsible for acting as sociopolitical links and communication facilitators between different cultures (Bozeman, 1994). Foreign representatives have been described by some as financial experts, agents of advertising, and business travelers, which continue to possess a main political function (Dickie, 1992). This multifaceted nature of the job has made the roles of these individuals more difficult to exclusively define. With this in mind, how can we be sure what are the right set of personal tools diplomats and international policy makers need to confront the wide array of twenty first century issues? The reality is that the field of diplomacy, and its agents, has been an overlooked area within the body of contemporary academic research, and its practice has not accustomed to the changing global environment (Copeland, 2009). With little known about the challenges and needs of these agents, how can foreign affairs ministries appoint individuals with the right set of competencies necessary to deal with the challenges of today's international relations?

For a nation like Taiwan, which for decades has been in a constant fight for diplomatic recognition, the role of its diplomatic allies and commercial partners – foreign missions, is vital. Today's battleground of Taiwan's historical conflict with mainland China is Latin-America, region which has served as Taiwan's last hold against China's efforts to exclude it from the international community (Rodriguez, 2008). Presently out of the 23 nations that recognize Taiwan, 12 are in Latin-America. To this number is necessary to add 10 more Latin-American countries that have established commercial relations with the island (Taiwan Ministry of Foreign Affairs ROC, 2009), thus the critical importance of studying and taking into account the skills needed from the foreign officials in charge of running these institutions. Although in the past there was little exchange between these two cultures, in recent years that has been changing fast. The Pacific Ocean links them, and rising Latin-American economies are achieving Free Trade Agreements with Taiwan, China and other nations in the region. Consequently, Latin-American representative offices are the bridge connecting these two worlds together, and its agents act as gatekeepers. This study aimed to bright light on these "gatekeepers"; its purpose was to identify the core competencies required for Latin-American representatives holding their positions in Taiwan. Two major questions guided this study:

1. What are the major challenges faced by Latin-American representatives in Taiwan?
2. What core competencies Latin-American representatives must have to hold their positions in Taiwan?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Competencies

Competencies have to do with the characteristics of an individual, which are the individual's skills and work manners used to attain a certain goal (Green, 1999). Hartle (1995) distinguished individual competencies as attributes individuals have which has been proven to enhance their job performance. Individual competencies have been defined as being composed of knowledge, skills and attitudes or KSAs (Ashton, Davies, Felstead, & Green, 1999), an individual possess. Aguinis (2009) describe knowledge as having the information needed to successfully perform a job; skills is referred as the attributes involved in the adequate completion of a task; attitudes has to do with the physical, emotional, intellectual and psychological disposition to perform a job.

Whitfield (1995) listed leadership, communication and adaptability as universal competencies necessary to enhance performance of international managers. Jordan and Cartwright (1998) noted that it is harder to specify competencies for different regions in the world, making it impractical not to rely on core competencies when selecting international managers; furthermore their study identifies such core competencies - relational ability, cultural sensitivity, linguistic skill and the ability to handle stress. After a cross-sectional comparative analysis of human resource requisites among organizations with international missions, Lindstrom (2002) pointed out that these kinds of organizations are in search of individuals with strong cognitive skills, interpersonal skills, ambiguity tolerance, teamwork skills, cross-cultural competency and policy thinking capabilities.

2.2. Diplomacy

Diplomacy can be broadly defined as the management of the day-by-day interactions between countries (Henderson, 1995). As noticed by Lee & Hudson (2004), it involves "a process of communication, negotiation and sharing information between sovereign states" (p. 353).

2.2.1 Roles of Foreign Representatives

Pamela Harriman, former American ambassador to France explained how instant communication and centralization of policy had made the roles of the job change into one of public relations (Zaharna & Villalobos, 2000). Rana (2000), retired Indian ambassador shared how over the length of his professional career, more than half of the time the job was concerned to economic work. Coopeland (2009) identified some elements of diplomacy - public engagement, networking, relationships building and policy advocacy, and noticed how a developing function of diplomats is to act as a globalization manager.

2.2.2 Latin-America – Taiwan Relations

Presently out of the 23 nations that recognize Taiwan, 12 are located in Latin-America (Ministry of Foreign Affairs ROC, 2009), making this region a priority for Taiwan. Li (2005) pointed out how Taiwan's flexible diplomacy has allowed countries that derecognize Taiwan to establish strong non-diplomatic economic relations with Taipei. This had led Latin-American nations to do business with both Chinese regimes in order to reduce their dependence on the United States. Due to this, presently 10 Latin-America nations had engaged in economic cooperation with Taiwan (Ministry of Foreign Affairs ROC, 2009). Taiwan's mission in Latin-America has been to secure diplomatic relationship in order to reduce diplomatic isolation, and to increment the flow of trade and investment (Cheng, 2002).

3. Research Method

3.1 Research Approach

A qualitative approach was chosen for this study since it focused on foreign representative's experiences, and tried to identify the competencies necessary for their profession. The study was under the assumption that not all these competencies were clearly understood, thus the need for further in depth exploration to increase their understanding (Corbin & Strauss 2008).

3.2 Population and Sample

The population of this research was foreign representatives. The units of analysis for the study were the individuals working in foreign mission offices in Taiwan. The sample was composed of six Latin American representatives covering different ranks within their organizations. The sample did not intend to be representative of all foreign mission holders.

3.2.1 Sampling Method

Judgmental sampling was suitable since the goal of the sample was not to be a generalization of the population (Mertens, 2005); instead the study focuses on the particular challenges and needs of Latin-American representatives. A snow-ball sampling was used to select the sample. Through the cooperation and referral of two Latin American representative offices the researcher gained access to the rest of the sample. Two criteria were used for the selection of the participants:

- The participants must be native from Latin America
- The participants must carry out diplomatic or commercial duties

3.2.2 Research Participants

For the sample to be more representative of Latin-American mission holders, the research participants were from six different Latin-American mission offices. Background information of each participant is listed in table 1.

Table 1. Background information of participants

Name	Gender	Age	Nationality	Work experience in Taiwan
Ana	F	25-30	Guatemala	1.5 years
Diana	F	40-45	Paraguay	2 years
Marcel	M	35-40	Nicaragua	2.5 years
Diego	M	45-50	Peru	2.5 years
Hugo	M	40-45	Honduras	3 years
Maria	F	55-60	El Salvador	1 year

3.3 Data Collection

In this study in depth semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. Adopting this method provided the researcher with a guide line to help ensure that all the relevant topics for the study were covered. The questions were developed through the combination of expatriate competencies literature, competencies required for individuals in organizations with international missions and diplomacy literature as a framework. Since the interviews had duration of 40-60 minutes, and contained open-ended questions, the researcher was granted permission to use a tape-recorder to accelerate the data collection process.

3.4 Data Analysis

The six interviews were later transcribed verbatim. A code was given to those answers that mentioned challenges and competencies in the participants work environment as well as in their private lives. A total of 171 codes were found, similar codes were merged and were later categorized.

4. Findings and Discussion

Based on the data analysis, this section consists of the two main dimensions. The first dimension deals with the challenges face by Latin-American representatives in Taiwan; the second dimension identifies the competencies required for Latin-American representatives to successfully work in Taiwan. The two dimensions were subdivided in themes which will be explained in more detail.

4.1 Challenges

When analyzing the challenges faced by Latin-American representatives in Taiwan two major themes emerge from the data: challenges faced in their work and challenges faced in their private lives. Both themes were further divided into categories.

4.1.1 Work challenges

This section goes into detail about what are the challenges that Latin-American representatives have to overcome in their work place. It was divided into three categories: individual public relations demands, job environment and external environment. Each category is better explained below.

Individual public relations demands

The changes of diplomacy and international relations over the years have brought changes in the roles of foreign representatives. Most participants mention that today the job demands for them to be more accessible and in contact with the people, as Ana mentioned: “nowadays diplomats have to play a more relaxed, friendly, flexible role”. Diana emphasized how a part of becoming more open is the need for foreign representatives to approach the public:

Now diplomats have to go to the masses, not just be sitting in the office and go to banquets. You have to get closer with the people, work harder on the field, not so much from behind the desk, mmm now the pressure to move around is higher.

This demand of having to work harder in the field is a result of the increasing international competition foreign representatives face in Taiwan, which has required them to adopt a more aggressive style in the way they do their job and interact with the public, Diego explains:

There’s a sort of race to attract the host country to do more than reach agreements, to invest, make cultural exchanges, strengthen tourism and trade. Our governments know the investment potential of Taiwan, so we fight to take advantage of this opportunity.

Hence, on an individual level a major challenge foreign representatives face in Taiwan is the necessity to be more engaged in public relations and have the willingness to connect directly with the society.

Job environment

Latin-American representatives’ offices in Taiwan have a particular job environment, which comes along with its own set of challenges. For Diana a challenge was the lack of human resources the office counts with, she said: “We need to support our ambassador work, and considering that we have relatively few officials, compared to other Paraguayan missions in the world, we need to always be prepared to do a bit of everything”. The few human resources the office counts with consist also of local people, creating a multicultural job environment, all the participants pointed this as a major challenge, Anna explains:

Taiwanese people are very efficient and very proper. One has faster and more concrete responses, more prompt, a Taiwanese is totally different from what a Latino is, that has forced me to accelerate the way I work, I had to learn how to sharpen the way I do my job.

Aside of human resource issues, a big factor that has influenced the job environment has been globalization. Firstly as Marcel says in the work place there has been an enormous improvement in communications and information flow:

Now there’s no excuse that I didn’t get your mail, that I was out of the office, in case you have a smart phone. The technology in the region has led to a higher level of facilitation of information, which demands for us to also respond immediately.

Secondly globalization and free trade agreements have made the job environment revolve more around trade and commercial interest, Diego explains:

Say that political treaties and agreements might not be consolidated, on the other hand the economic side is picking up pace. For Latin-America this is even stronger because we have gone from being a closed economy, dedicated to the region, to a free economy, open to the world.

Hence the effects of globalization have forced foreign representatives to work harder in fomenting economic relations and to keep up to date with the rapid constant changes in the global political scene.

External environment

Apart from the internal job environment, the fact that these offices are located in the Republic of China (Taiwan) cause a different type of challenges for these individuals which have to do with doing their job from Taiwan. These difficulties such as Taiwan’s diplomatic reality, the cultural distance of Taiwan from Latin-America along with Taiwan’s location are issues that foreign representatives are unable to control and that have an impact in their work. As Marcel mentioned, the diplomatic status of Taiwan is always a concern:

Our ambassador could be ambassador to Korea, Thailand and Malaysia, what is called a concurrent ambassador because they doesn't live in any of those places, but some countries do not accept this, because his residence is in Taiwan.

Diego explains how a major challenge is that on this side of the world there is not that much known about Latin-America:

It's hard to get people to know your country when you are in an environment so different where actually little is known of your country. It's very different from my colleagues who work in Latin America. They go directly with proposals and projects. For my colleagues working in Asia where Latin-America has no such presence, the first major challenge is to present our country.

For Maria the time difference due the geographical position of Taiwan and her country creates another difficult situation:

Part of the work takes place really late at night. After closing the embassy and attending any event, if I have a problem, if I have any queries, I have to wait until 1 or 2 am to call the Ministry of foreign Affairs of my country.

Therefore when it comes to challenges in their work place there are three main factors foreign representatives have to overcome, which are the increasing need of public engagement, dealing with a multicultural job environment influenced by globalization, and having to do this in the Taiwan context.

4.1.2 Life Challenges

Every day foreign representatives have to live in a country that is not their own. This section refers to the challenges Latin-American representatives have to deal in their day to day life. It was divided in two categories: challenges that rise from the Taiwanese society and from the external environment.

Taiwanese society

The first challenges all participants mention of living in Taiwan are the cultural differences between the Taiwanese society and their own, for Ana getting used to living in Taiwan was very hard, she explains:

I've been living many years in Taiwan and still it took me a while to get used to the culture, it's so different from ours, is hard to learn how to live as a Taiwanese, to get used to the food, to understand the way they think, their customs, it was a cultural shock.

For Maria part of these cultural differences had to do with gender issues. While gender issues are a general problem in many other societies, she mentioned that in Asian countries is more pronounced, she said "People who do not know who I am do not believe that because I am a woman, I'm an ambassador, that's all, here there are many misconceptions". Some of participants reported how the Taiwanese society has not embraced English as an intermediary language unlike other regions of the world, creating a big language barrier, Hugo says:

I'm learning Chinese because of a personal and private matter. Actually when I am out of office I confrontation situations where I need to somehow make myself understood, only with English I'm very limited here in Taiwan.

Thus in order to fit better with the Taiwanese society, foreign representatives must first adapt to the culture and familiarize with the local language.

External environment

The geographical location and characteristics of Taiwan also creates challenges in a foreign representative's day to day life. A main issue is the enormous distance between Taiwan and their countries, Diana explains:

We are on the other side of the world, farther than here you can't go, unless you open an embassy in the moon or in Mars, Taiwan is the farthest place where a Paraguayan can serve, so it's harder to go frequently, since we have to pay for our tickets in these cases.

As Hugo shared, this distancing makes him miss his close friends and family:

The differences of working back home is that you have your friends and family nearby, in the first frustration, first disappointment, first stone on the road, at least have your friends near, on Friday night you get together with your friends and forget about the stone.

A different challenge Maria points out is the particular climate conditions of Taiwan, she said “I found the weather very uncomfortable, winter is very cold, summer is very hot, it rains so much, I've gotten sick several times, that's one little thing I've had to overcome.” Thus, as foreigners living in such a different country, the difficulties that affect Latin-American representatives in their personal lives are the particular culture of Taiwan's society and living in such a far away land with such a different environment.

4.2 Competencies

Based on the challenges previously mention and the participants own perceived abilities, this section highlights the competencies required for Latin-American representatives to work more effectively in Taiwan. As mention throughout the literature competencies have been defined as being composed of (1) knowledge, (2) skills and (3) attitudes (Ashton, Davies, Felstead, & Green, 1999). Thus the following section is divided into those three themes.

4.2.1 Knowledge

As Aguinis (2009) suggested, knowledge includes having and understanding the information necessary to successfully perform a job which is associated with a respective profession.

Knowledge of international policy

As government officials sent to represent their countries in the international diplomatic system, foreign representatives must have a clear understanding of international policy and international law, as Hugo mentions:

We know very well the international law, knowing what is the international standard that governs certain matters, so they don't catch us by surprise, you have to be very skilled and know how to play and have full knowledge of international law before acting.

Commercial awareness

Most participants agreed that one of the major recent changes in diplomacy has been the need of foreign representatives to demonstrate business acumen, Maria says:

Running the office is very important, my job is not only to attend to social activities, there is a lot of paperwork, I have to manage the budget of the embassy, and to know how to handle the embassy. I was a businesswoman before which has helped me.

As Diego mentioned “foreign ministries have been modernized and have a greater presence in their staff individual in careers related to economic and business”. Marcel relates:

I'm always looking for economic data, it's always useful to know, because really this is a commercial nation. Trade plays a huge role in relationships and Asia is like an economic mound, these people are growing.

General Knowledge

According to all participants, part of being a good foreign representative includes managing a wide variety of topics, Diana says:

Diplomats have to know a little bit of everything, you must know the protocol, how to deal with trade, know about culture, you need to know history, the diplomat has to be able to answer questions and needs to know how to maintain a conversation with his counterpart.

Therefore foreign representatives have to master international policy issues, alongside with commercial insight and balanced this with a very rich and broad general knowledge base.

4.2.2 Skills

Skills refers to the attributes, including cognitive and interpersonal processes, involved in the adequate completion of a task (Aguinis, 2009). They are mostly acquired by past experience and practice.

Linguistic ability

Linguistic ability has been accepted as an automatically critical competence for expatriate success (Jordan & Cartwright, 1998). The average number of languages spoken by the participants was three. Anna mentions the importance of linguistic ability. She said, "the more language we know makes the communication easier, it's essential because our job depends on relating with people from other parts of the world". Apart from Spanish, and English, Marcel explains the advantages of understanding the local language:

You must manage the universal language, English. If you don't know Chinese mmm that's ok, but if you don't know English your lost. Still it is always useful to know the language of the country, because you get cultural acceptance. They identify with you, it lowers the seriousness and you get to a level of confidence that opens many doors.

Technological Literacy

The development in communication and information flow mention as a challenge demonstrates the need for foreign representatives to have technological literacy which deals with how to manage and use information technology (Ezziane, 2007). Diego explains:

If you don't have a mastery of new technologies you are very limited. E-mail today is like knowing how to write. We redesigned our website, we have a virtual market, we have a facebook page, we are using new tools of communication. For information management, from the management of Excel to preparing presentations are things we do daily.

Communication skills

Due to the varied type of social groups they communicate with, foreign representatives must have the ability to change the way they express themselves to fit their context, Marcel gives this scenario:

You will give a lecture at a university in the morning and in the evening you will meet with the chancellor. With the chancellor you must be very formal. If you arrive with this way of communicating with the students, they will immediately close their minds, get bored, get up and go. To talk with students you need to be open to jokes and present your point in a more casual way.

Diana mentions how she needs to have the ability to communicate negative things in a positive way. For her, "Diplomats have to know how to not always say no, in an elegant way, so that the person who you're telling no to leaves happy". Therefore when it comes to interacting with people from different countries and different social groups foreign representatives must combine their linguistic ability with their communication skills. On the other hand technological literacy facilitates not just communicating information but other aspects of their work.

4.2.3 Attitudes

In the literature, the term attitudes are on occasions exchange for abilities. As Aguinis (2009) suggests, attitudes have to do with the physical, emotional, intellectual and psychological disposition to perform a job.

Relational ability

Relational ability determines and individual's ability to interact with host country nationals (Jordan & Cartwright, 1998). Foreign representatives need to establish channels of cooperation, as Diego explains he often need to relate with local officials as well as private companies, he shares:

After showing the potential, what is common here are the lunches and dinners, on that level, to meet for lunch to share information relevant to our work, you move very well, if compared with other societies. I can say that I have contact with Taiwanese and without any problems I can call them to eat and share ideas.

Marcel gives an example of how to build friendship ties with the Taiwanese society, in his testimony he explains how this ties can be broken if not given the appropriate continuity.

Years ago the community of Luzho in appreciation that we had chosen the city for our embassy named a park Nicaragua. With time it was neglected. The ambassador came in 2008, we passed along the street and the driver said, "that is the park Nicaragua", the ambassador could not believe how it could had been abandoned. Immediately

we requested an appointment with the mayor. We found out that the community board was about to change the name because they had voted that the relationship had disappeared.

On the second part of his example, Marcel explains how being able to relate with the local people, through cultural exchanges, made possible to reverse the situation and maintain a linkage with the community, he said:

We apologized, meetings were held to show our appreciation for this great honor and we had to show our willingness to strengthen relations with that community. Cultural artifacts were donated, there was a big event, and we reopened the park. It is through these exchanges that we establish relationships with the community. Besides the ambassador visits universities, gives seminars, always tries to increase awareness of Nicaragua, to reach different parts of Taiwan, only like this they will get to know us. We have finally removed the false association we had with the Niagara Falls.

This example shows the importance of building relations with the community in different levels in order to keep the public opinion well informed.

Cultural sensitivity

Since one of the major challenges faced by foreign representatives in their work environment as well as in their day to day lives has to do with the cultural difference between Taiwan and their country, it's logical for these individuals to have the ability to deal with this issue. Cultural sensitivity is the capacity of an individual to learn and alter his or hers perspective to accommodate the demands of the host culture (Jordan & Cartwright, 1998). Marcel mentioned how this is essential for foreign representatives since culture is something that impacts the work between people, he gives an example:

One of the girls in the embassy is very straightforward, we are not used to someone so direct. But is good, in the future, one learns not to stretch things. They are very direct, culturally they are this way, they'll say "you owe me so much" in front of people, for us it's rude, for them is not, that's just the way they are and is a way of learning.

Diana pointed out that cultural tolerance is necessary in the workplace:

We respect them when they have their meal times, for them that is very special, due to lack of time sometimes I have lunch at three in the afternoon, they have their time schedule and we respect it as it should be, it's a matter of mutual respect.

In their personal lives, Diana like almost all participants, emphasized on her capacity to adapt to the very different Taiwanese culture, she said "Diplomats must have the ability to adapt very well developed, that's what tends to shock a bit when one serves in countries like Taiwan. I'm not closed to other culture, that's usually the main problem for some." Marcel also explained how he embraced the culture to facilitate the adaptation process of living in Taiwan:

You have to be willing to accept culturally the country where you are, you can't live thinking of your country's food and say "I will not eat anything but that. I'm not saying that I'm not even going to know how to speak Spanish. A good diplomat must always keep in mind where he comes from, submerge in the culture and absorb what suits him.

Adaptability/Flexibility

This competency has to do with the ability an individual has to adapt to new situations, the capacity to create appropriate solutions and the ability to take on different roles within the organization (Lindstrom, 2002). Anna explains:

At any moment there can be a meeting, an event, and if the ambassador is occupied, I'm the one that has to go and be the face of the embassy, I have to go and mmm fit in, I have to be able to react fast, even in difficult situations, it's called the famous fire extinguisher.

Diego shares similar ideas:

The office has become a kind of ragbag. Considering the possibilities of the office, human resources, the budget and functional limitations we have, we must be prepared to assume different responsibilities to improve the service given to conational's or other parties.

Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence, which is the ability to effectively understand, control and be aware of our emotions (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2000), is very important for foreign representatives. Maria mentions that since they are public figures,

she needs to be very careful. She said, “I have to represent my country with dignity, that’s the main goal, so we have to take great care about how we handle ourselves and how we behave in front of others, we can’t be impulsive”. All participants reported the enormous responsibility of representing their country and government, Diana relates:

One stops being oneself, and becomes the country, so in the day to day the diplomat has to be very cautious, considering that with our presence the country is being presented, we must be prudent always, be discrete, patient, have mmm temperance.

Anna shares similar feelings:

I always have to be neutral, I have to always seem calm and open, I can’t afford to lose my temper, if I don’t like something, I simply deal with it at the right time, we can’t try to intervene or criticize specially in internal affairs of Taiwan.

Thus, the attitudes identified for foreign representatives in Taiwan have to do firstly with the ability to cooperate with the Taiwanese society putting aside cultural differences – relational ability and cultural sensitivity. Secondly, with the capacity to react and face unpredictable situations – adaptability/flexibility, and finally to be able to do so in a controlled manner – emotional intelligence.

4.3 Discussion

This study explored the challenges faced by Latin-American representatives and identified the competencies required for them to successfully hold their positions in Taiwan. From the themes analyzed it’s clear that these challenges revolve around the effects of globalization, an increase in public relations, cross-cultural and human resource issues. As Lindstrom (2002) suggested, globalization has had an impact in the development of adopting a more commercial approach to diplomacy. Even though Latin-America represents a priority for Taiwan’s diplomatic situation, an interesting finding is that the region has limited commercial influence and presence. Alongside this, there is a lack of familiarity from the Taiwanese society towards Latin-American culture, which increases the need of Latin-American representatives to foster their relational abilities to increase awareness of their countries commercially and culturally. While language skills are known to be a must for any kind of foreign mission as Jordan and Cartwright (1998) pointed out, even though English has been considered the lingua franca of international affairs, in the Taiwan context Mandarin language skills serve as a tool for enhancing the ability to relate with the host society. Zaharna and Villalobos (2000) mentioned the increasing need for public relations in diplomacy, for all participants acting as the interface platform between their own government and the host government meant becoming public figures; this major responsibility comes with the great satisfaction of representing their countries. Demonstrating emotional intelligence is very important when complying with protocol; communication skills are necessary to modulate the way of expressing themselves according to the context; both qualities appear to be necessary to know how to operate appropriately in the eye of the public.

From the interviews experience, according to their position and rank the degree of professional knowledge required of them varies from topics such as international law, culture, economic and trade issues. While having to collaborate with each other, by nature foreign representatives must be specialists in their areas and generalists at the same time. This broad intellectual capacity complemented by the ability to react, makes it possible for them to respond in any kind of situation. While adapting to work and live in a different culture is an inevitable part of embarking in missions such as Taiwan, the interviews expressed how from the moment they decided to start a career in diplomacy and international relations they already had the inclination of wanting to explore the world and be opened minded. This supports the views of Dickie (1992) on diplomacy, considering that a good foreign representative appears to be a traveler interested in learning from other cultures, dealing with a different cultural environment is something that they expect and are willing to accept.

Some interviewees had already acquired part of these competencies before coming to Taiwan; others were force to develop them after their arrival. This study reveals how the competencies previously identified complement each other, and when combined comprise the set of personal tools foreign representatives need for overcoming the challenges of serving in Taiwan. Even so, as diplomacy will continue to evolve, the roles of foreign representatives will evolve as well, along with their competencies.

5. Implications

The findings of this study have implications for foreign ministries in Latin-America and foreign missions in Taiwan. For foreign ministries, officials in charge of appointing their government representatives should add to their selection criteria individuals with high level of social or “people” skills, which mean individuals skilful in human interactions, as well as with a global mindset. Foreign ministries must offer language and cross-cultural training in order to increase awareness of Taiwan, to facilitate their representative’s adaptation and reduce the risk of becoming vulnerable to culture shock.

For foreign missions, representatives should consider mentoring their colleagues when they first arrive in Taiwan to

assist the process of mutual collaboration, and confront the pressure for continued learning and upgrading caused by rapid technological and economic changes.

6. Limitations

A limitation of this study is that it focuses specifically on government representatives from Latin America, meaning that these results can't be generalized for all foreign representatives. Future research could include a sample from other regions in the world. Also it would be interesting to explore the personality traits that can act as key determinants of a foreign representative's success.

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The traits of burnout on Chinese context for implications of international HRD

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Abstract

This study examined the traits of burnout between the differences of Chinese employee in the public sector in Taiwan. In two samples, employees ($N=277$; $N=284$) filled out the Smith & Dillaed's (2006) and Schaufeli & Salanova's (2007) measurements of the burnout. As expected, the differences of Chinese employee in the public sector significantly in some variables. Implications and discussion about burnout and international HRD are displayed.

Keywords: burnout, Chinese context, international HRD

1. Introduction

Burnout is especially high in human service professionals that involve helping others (Riggio, 2003) and often occurs when people feel out of control (DuBrin, 2004). Burnout is an increasingly intense problem (Leiter & Maslach, 2005), 'a complex phenomenon' (DuBrin, 2004:161). However, Burnout is not a new phenomenon and the workplace is fertile ground for burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 1997). Burnout have as much popular as well as research appeal in the social science literature (Lawman, 1993) and is 'the biggest occupational hazard of the twenty-first century' (Leiter & Maslach, 2005, p. 3).

'Give the current economy, focusing on job burnout may seem an indulgence' (Richman, 1998: 101). Insufficient reward, lack of emotional support and absence of fairness may another critical factors affect burnout (DuBrin, 2004). 'The type of social support available may determine whether it has an impact on decreasing burnout' (Lowman, 1993:130). 'Differential aspects of burnout would predict consequences of work dysfunction at different phases of employment' (Lowman, 1993:130) Burnout might affects people in different ways, such as driven by anxiety and insecurity, or perform well which is named workaholics (Schultz, D. & Schultz, S. E., 2005). 'The effects of burnout on work performance are predominantly negative' (Lowman, 1993:129). Such as the component of burnout—emotional exhaustion—was affected by social comparison direction (Michinov, 2005). 'The causal relations between specific job variable and burnout has not always been well-established' (Lowman, 1993:131).

Burnout is lost energy, lost enthusiasm, and lost confidence, and that can be a significant crisis in your life (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). Burnout is a psychological response that have link with work stress and combining emotional exhaustion, depersonalization (or cynicism), and reduced personal accomplishment (or professional efficacy (Halbesleben, 2006; Maslach, 1982). The increasingly complex lives outside of the working environment, affect the performance and ability to tackle the occupational pressures of employees (Williams & Cooper, 1999). Employees are face to a great deal of change and pressure from the internal and external workplace (Williams & Cooper, 1999). Unhealthy work organizations can create enormous human and financial costs (Cooper & Williams, 1994:1).

A meta-analytically test found that job demands such as risks and hazards and complexity positively relate to burnout, the job resources were found to negatively relate to burnout and burnout was negatively related to working safely (Nahrgang, Morgeson & Hofmann, 2010). Another meta-analytically test found that demands and burnout were positively associated, whereas resources and burnout were negatively associated (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). Individual burnout is positively associated with perceived demands (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). De Hoogh & Den Hartog (2009) studied the effect of leader behavior on subordinate burnout found that the relationship between these leadership styles and burnout differs for followers with different traits.

However, the interactions of burnout and psychological variables are unclear (Lowman, 1993). In an attempt to address this gap in the literature, this article examines demographic variations in the burnout in Chinese context. The need for context effects is receiving greater attention among scholars studying organizational and management practice' (Whetten, 2008 : 29). In two studies here demonstrate the contextual diversity of gender, marriage, education, seniority, age and position. In doing so, this paper also provide systematic evidence for the demographic in explaining the burnout underlying the phenomenon of Chinese context.

Dibble (1999) mentioned that 'growth of Chinese influence in the world economy' is one of the events affecting the environment of organizations. Thus, the dynamic changes in the labor market and workplace in recent decades might be

promoting the research of burnout in HRM, OB and business policy. The present research used two questionnaires data sets from field settings to test whether each of the burnout perception dimensions by people on Chinese context in Taiwan.

Burnout background

Many researchers support a model of three- component psychological dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (professional efficacy or self-efficacy beliefs) (Lowman, 1993; Michinov, 2005), and “there are complex interactions between components of the model and their impact on individuals’ lives”(Lowman, 1993: 124). Also, Maslach Burnout Inventory is the most popular measure of burnout (Maslach & Jackson, 1984).

Burnout is a chronic state with unhappy, exhausted, cynical, ready to quit and leave the job (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). Burnout has three dimension: exhaustion, cynicism, ineffectiveness (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). The decrease in opportunities for promotion and alternative sources of employment make the burnout syndrome intension among individuals in the labor force (Richman, 1998). Commitment as cognitive theme serves as a focal point for a variety of burnout beliefs about oneself and work related events (Richman, 1998: 110).

Maslach’s (1976, 1982) researches are the most basic popular understanding of burnout. The concept of burnout by Maslach is ‘a syndrome of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced the sense of personal accomplishment (inefficacy) that can occur among individuals ‘(Maslach1982; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Burnout is an outcome of stress (Nowack, 1986 ; Michinov, 2005; Schultz, D & Schultz, S. E., 2005), a major factor for burnout (Towery,1992), and the ‘occupational stress is either the pressure that puts on individuals or the effect of that pressure ‘(Teasdale & Mckeown, 1994: 139). Workplace strains of work overload, noncontingent punishment, and uncontrollable changes are pervasive realities confronted by individuals in the public and private sector (Richman, 1998: 104).

The answers for what causes burnout are the six areas of organizational life: work overload, lack of control, insufficient reward, breakdown in community, absence of fairness and conflicting values (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). Work overload includes work become more intense, demands more time, more complex, and creates the exhaustion of overload (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). Lack of control includes ‘how much control’ that control is shared and unpredictable, and the burden of micromanagement that make a feeling of lack trust (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). Insufficient reward involved getting less for more, losing the joy of work (Maslach & Leiter , 1997).

Breakdown in community includes fragmenting personal relationships, undermining teamwork, and working separately not together (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). Absence of fairness that fair means trust, openness and respect (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). Conflicting values include the influence of what is really important and not doing what we say (Maslach & Leiter , 1997). The sense of achievement has six sources: challenge of the work itself, acquiring of new skills, ability to perform, perceived importance of the employee’s job, recognition received for performance, and working for a company of which the employee can be proud (Sirota, Mischkind, & Miltzer, 2005). Practice of personal achievement breeds ongoing and sustainable happiness. (Kang, 2006). The most important source of competitive advantage in the twenty-first century will come from individuals and organizations that unleash the power of passion (Albion, 2006: xvii).

Halbesleben & Buckley (2004) suggested that burnout has negative consequences for employees and organizations (i.e. reduced productivity and commitment, increased turnover and absenteeism). Burnout is not a problem of the people themselves but of the social environment in which people work (Maslach & Leiter , 1997: 18). Burnout could be carry a high cost, as Maslach & Leiter (1997) noted that burnout can have a deadly impact even beyond its erosion of the soul, health, ability to copy, personal lifestyle and job performance. Individual burnout is positively associated with perceived demands (Crawford, LePine & Rich, 2010). De Hoogh & Den Hartog (2009) studied the effect of leader behavior on subordinate burnout found that the relationship between these leadership styles and burnout differs for followers with different traits.

Burnout can cause physical problems (e.g. headaches, gastrointestinal illness, high blood pressure, muscle tension, chronic fatigue) and mental distress (e. g. anxiety, depress, sleep disturbance), some people increase use of alcohol and drug and the exhaustion/ negative feeling have impact on the relationship of family and friends (Maslach & Leiter , 1997).

Following Leiter & Maslach (2005) suggest to improving the mismatch of the relationship between a person and the burnout which has six strategies. First, use the workload strategy to check the mismatch of workload is too much, too complex, too urgent, or just too awful. The biggest problems of mismatch are exhaustion, excessive availability, time pressure, or too much work. And the appropriate actions are resilience, interrupted time, time management, or reducing workload. Second strategy is control and means the problems are authority and influence. And the biggest problems of the mismatch are being micromanaged, ineffective leaders, or ineffective teams. The appropriate actions in dealing with the mismatch are determined a decision that affect the job and freedom to work in your way. Third, reward strategy. Which means the mismatch are recognition, pleasure, and compensation. And the biggest problems of the mismatch are insufficient compensation, lack of recognition, or unsatisfying work. The appropriate actions in dealing with the mismatch are more money, acknowledgement, or better job assignments. The fourth strategy is community strategy. Which means the mismatch are stress and conflict in the social community of the job. And the biggest problems of the mismatch are divisiveness, poor communication, or alienation. And the appropriate actions are conflict resolution, improved

communication, or unity. The fifth strategy is fairness strategy. Which means the mismatch is justice in the workplace. And the biggest problems of the mismatch are disrespect, discrimination, or favoritism. And the appropriate actions are promoting respect, valuing diversity, or ensuring equity. Finally, the strategy is values strategy. Which means the mismatch is the significant disconnect belief between the person and the organization. The biggest problems of the mismatch are dishonesty, destructiveness, or meaninglessness. The appropriate actions are maintaining integrity, promoting constructive values, or adding meaning.

Management can use compensations, informal recognition, and honorifics to recognize employees either individually or in groups (Sirota, Mischkind, & Miltzer, 2005: 226).

Kang (2006) suggested to asking oneself the question: Am I having the time of my life, in the time of my life? Kang (2006) suggested the six concepts to figure out the direction of life as following:

1. We aren't cats!
2. Believe in your core
3. Accepted X factors
4. What's your point?
5. Whatever you do (in life), do it with passion
6. What do you want your tombstone to say

Kang (2006:69) suggested a five Ps to the every detail of the dairy affairs in work as follow:

1. What is your mission? Passion
2. What can the whole and impassioned you be the best at? Proficiencies
3. What is the most important to you, where you are in life? Priority
4. How do you bring yourself to market? Plan
5. How do you fund your plan? Prove

Particularly during the current period of unstable conditions in the workplace and economy, identifying causes and early signs to job burnout, and learning preventive techniques, can help employees and their organizations to avoid the debilitating effects of the phenomenon (Richman, 1998: 101). Experiencing signs of stress, depression, and beginning stages of burnout, employees were willing to expend more energy, and work longer hours, motivated by underlying beliefs that they would guaranteed permanent, worthwhile rewards for their efforts (Richman, 1998: 101). When examining the burnout phenomenon, the differences of individual should be considered (Richman, 1998). To prevent job burnout, Richman (1998) suggested four strategies: social support, career development, balanced life-style, cognitive control.

Crawford, LePine & Rich (2010) suggested that managers could potentially reduce an employee's burnout by limiting the demands the employee must cope with. Crawford, LePine & Rich (2010) also suggested that managers may wish to provide more resources for their employees for the potential to reduce employee burnout because of the strain of having to meet demands with few resources.

Related demographic variables

Women are underrepresented in leadership position in almost all countries (i.e. generalizability across gender) (Schyns & Meindl, 2005). The topic of gender stereotype becomes more prominent in connection with research on leadership (e.g., Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989, Heilman, 2001; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1984; Schein, 1973, 1975; Schein & Muller, 1992; Schein, Muller, Lituvhi, & Liu, 1996; Sczesny, 2003). Research in the field of gender, position and profession has been found to affect implicit leadership theories and support the stability over time (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004).

Research has tended to ignore variation in the stereotypes of gender content (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby & Bongiorno, 2011). Exploring gender differences in perceiving organizational /companies (e.g. crisis, Mano-nefrin, & Sheaffer, 2004, Ryan, Haslam, Hersby & Bongiorno, 2011). There do have the differences in cause of burnout for men and women but no consist results that men or women apparently higher (Leiter, 1990). Other studies also support the finding that male worker are more likely to experience burnout on the job with consequences of work dysfunction (Schultz, D. & Schultz, S. E., 2005).

The one of burnout construct, emotional exhaustion was related to family (Leiter, 1990) Lowman (1993) concluded many reports that burnout is higher among younger-more junior individuals and differ in gender.

Marital status is related to burnout, which means single and divorced persons are more likely than married persons to experience emotional exhaustion (Schultz, D. & Schultz, S. E., 2005). Work-related burnout may affect individual's family life (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001).

'Age is a significant predictor of burnout' and more among younger workers than those over age 40 (Schultz, D. & Schultz, S. E., 2005, 371). Younger workers often hold false impressions of older workers, seeing them as more resistant to change, less able to learn, less physically capable, and less creative than younger employees (Quick, Quick, Nelson, & Hurrell, 1997: 204).

Many demographic variables are to be control variables in organizational behavior researches (e.g. Lam, C. K., Ven der

Vegt, G. S., Walter, F., & Huang, X., 2011), but not to be the independent variables or dependent variables. However, Context effects can be observed at any level of analysis (Whetten, 2008), including the type of data collected and the practice of contextualizing theory/using context effects as theory (c.f. Johns, 2006).

As such, this paper expects that compared with the different demographic variables will have a significant difference in burnout in Chinese context.

Hypothesis 1a:

There will be a significantly different burnout in gender.

Hypothesis 1b:

There will be a significantly different burnout in marriage.

Hypothesis 1c:

There will be a significantly different burnout in education level.

Hypothesis 1d:

There will be a significantly different burnout in age.

Hypothesis 1e:

There will be a significantly different burnout in seniority.

Hypothesis 1f:

There will be a significantly different burnout in position..

Hypothesis 2:

There will be a significantly prediction in burnout by demographic variables.

Research method

Measures regarding the employees' burnout at work were all administered directly to public sector employees in Taiwan, as detailed below. Participants received a questionnaire and were asked to return them anonymously via a survey-return box within two weeks.

In the context of the present study, the author investigated burnout and the descriptive statistics for the variables (i.e. gender, marriage, educational level, age, seniority, position). In order to assess burnout, this paper has two studies began with Smith & Dillaed's (2006) and Schaufeli & Salanova's (2007) measurements of the burnout, which had been found to be a highly robust measurements of the burnout and had similar dimension includes 'Emotional exhaustion, Depersonalization, and Lose Professional efficacy'.

Study 1 is the 15-item burnout questionnaire and the study 2 was 12-item burnout questionnaire. These scales consist by two studies on a five point scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

This paper investigated the measurements properties at the individual level. Here are the reliabilities. The two studies had pilot test and formal test. Reliabilities see Table 2. The two studies' reliabilities yielded acceptable values (i.e., study 1 Cronbach's $\alpha = .88$, study 2 Cronbach's $\alpha = .86$). The investigations of the reliability revealed that the two studies yielded acceptable levels of reliability (over .8). The two studies all independent and have the similar three dimensions (i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, personal efficacy). In this article, the internal consistency (Cronbach's α) of each of the three subscales was satisfactory: emotional exhaustion (study 1 $\alpha = .83$, study 2 $\alpha = .73$), depersonalization (study 1 $\alpha = .82$, study 2 $\alpha = .74$), personal accomplishment (study 1 $\alpha = .81$, study 2 $\alpha = .79$). Three separate scores were calculated for each participant by summing their response on each subscale.

Although it is interesting to view the different studies of burnout, it is difficult to gain an appreciation for the overall pattern of burnout without aggregation evidence. This paper with t-test, the analysis of variance (ANOVA), and regression.

This paper use the self-report questionnaire might be had bias like response inflation. 'Self-reporting surveys allow respondents to record their own perceptions of reality' (Beugelsdijk, S., Koen, C. I., & Noorderhaven, N. G., 2006 : 836). Response inflation may be an issue in the self-report personality measures but the faking does not influence the validity and psychometric quality of personality measures, moreover, the faking does not negatively influence the criterion-related validity of personality measures (Van Iddekinge, Raymark & Roth, 2005).

Results

The usable data of study 1 were obtained from 277 employees. Fifty-six percent of the respondents were women. Sixty percent of the respondents were married. With respect to age, 18% of the respondents were 30 years old or under, 45 % were between 31 and 40 years old, 26 % were 41-50 years old, and another 10 % were over 51 years old. The level of education, 3 % of the respondents were community college or under, 53% of the respondents were college/university, and another 44% of the respondents were graduated. The seniority, 32% of the respondents were 5 years or under, 25 % were between 6 and 10 years, 17 % were 11-15 years, 16 % were 16-20 years, and another 11 % were over 21 years. The level of position, 17% of the respondents were staff, 50 % of the respondents were leader, 12 % of the respondents were manager, and another 15 % of the respondents were top management.

The usable data of study 2 were obtained from 284 employees. Sixty-six percent of the respondents were women.

Seventy percent of the respondents were married. With respect to age, 13% of the respondents were 30 years old or under, 23 % were between 31 and 40 years old, 35 % were 41-50years old, and another 29 % were over 51 years old. The level of education, 32 % of the respondents were community college or under, 54% of the respondents were college/university, and another 14% of the respondents were graduated. The seniority, 29% of the respondents were 5 years or under, 14 % were between 6 and 10 years , 17 % were 11-15 years , 17 % were 16-20 years ,and another 24 % were over 21 years. The level of position, 34% of the respondents were staff, 11 % of the respondents were leader, 24 % of the respondents were manager, and another 31 % of the respondents were higher manager.

Table 1a , Table 1b displays the means, standard deviation of the variables included in the study. Table 1a revealed that participants in *study 1* perceived the burnout as having middle status ($M = 2.59, SD = 0.61$). Also Table 1 revealed that participants in *study 2* perceived the burnout as having lower status ($M = 2.37, SD = 0.57$).

Table 3 shows the intercorrelations of the burnout and the three dimensions in burnout. As Table 3 shows, the three subscales were related to each other. Emotional exhaustion was positively correlated with depersonalization in both of the two studies ($r = .74, r = .46$). Emotional exhaustion was positively correlated with lose personal efficacy in both of the two studies ($r = .30, r = .40$). Also, depersonalization was positively correlated with lose personal efficacy in both of the two studies ($r = .33, r = .74$).

Table 4 displays the significant of all variables in the study. In the Chinese context in Taiwan public sector employees in this paper present the results here. The gender diversity in burnout do has difference between men and women. But only in *study 1* had significant in emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and the scores of female are higher than male. The results also revealed that lose professional efficacy had no significant between female and male.

Results from both studies revealed that the emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lose professional efficacy of burnout was related to marriage. Specifically, people who had no marriage reported the worst outcome in burnout and in the all three dimensions.

The educational level of people in the *study 1* and *study 2* both had no significant in burnout.

The age diversity in burnout do has difference between the different ages. And the oldest people (over 50 years old) have the lowest burnout significantly.

Results from both studies revealed that the burnout and the dimension of lose professional efficacy of burnout was related to seniority. Specifically, people who had the highest seniority (over 21 years) that means the people prepare to retire will have the lowest burnout and significantly lower burnout than the other seniority groups.

The diversity of position in burnout and in the dimension of depersonalization only significant in *study 2* . The position of higher manager was lower burnout than manager significantly.

The regression revealed that only age was significantly predict the burnout both in the *study 1* and *study 2* .

Discussion and Implication

Burnout also vary among culture, the evidences revealed that the average burnout level are higher in the United States than the European countries (Schultz, D. & Schultz, S. E., 2005).

Schultz, D. & Schultz, S. E. (2005) pointed out that ‘employees in Japan and Taiwan may experience the highest levels of burnout’(p.372)

Most studies in the past have tried to identify the primary causes or correlates of burnout. The current research takes a different, but real, approach by trying to identify the reality of burnout. People vary in their willingness to change, and depending on what stage they are at, the messages and incentives for change will be different (Williams & Cooper, 1999: 117). This paper contribute to the area of research on individual differences in reactions to burnout by testing whether the employees diversity (i. g. gender, age, educational level, etc.).

The results suggest that the employees’ diverse traits have the different burnout reactions.

In both samples, the educational level in the workplace had no differ reactions of burnout. The reason here is the public sectors have the basic criteria for job recruiting especially in education states. But, the studies revealed the age and seniority that means old people have a stable feeling on work and have the lowest burnout.

Following Leiter & Maslach (2005), there are some approaches for person to do in burnout not only have strengths but also shortcomings (e. g. grin and bear it, get away from it all, call it quits, set your mind straight, figure out what it’s all about). The old people in the workforce got much more money, more experience for job challenge and had more higher position and in public sectors got more safety for the retirement and the life of future that might be make the old people have better feel for work and reduced “the motional exhaustion, depersonalization, and lose professional efficacy of burnout”. If the younger employees in the work have higher burnout exists, how could we pay attention to the issue about “age”? Especially the international business or MNCs how to make the young employees usable for business. The international HRM for the international business or MNCs have a link with firm’s performance. Hence, how to make the young people to have better feeling at work and prevent burnout especially in the Chinese world will be an important issue for business HRD.

This paper found that women feel higher burnout in the motional exhaustion and the depersonalization than men. As we known that the Chinese people are male culture domain. Many women have more stress than men that most women

overloading form job, children and family. A study by the Harvard School of Public Health concluded that stressful jobs were as bad for women's health as were smoking and obesity. The excessive demand, insufficient decision-making control, and poor personal relationship at work as the major sources of stress. (Leiter & Maslach, 2005, p. 3, 4). Thus, the Chinese female work in the public sectors and have higher burnout than men, how could we image the gap between women and men in the private business? This is an issue that a business conducts international HRD needed.

Making the workplace healthier requires organizational psychologists help both the employees and employers to understanding deeply the patterns and consequences of change at work (Backer & Porterfield, 1998). And the burnout is definitely unhealthy to the employees and business. Furthermore, the price of inattention to the human dimensions of change is high (Backer & Porterfield, 1998: 205). Understanding the real relationships between factors the organization can control and performance-related outcomes will avoid wasting money on little or no impact on the outcomes the organization wishes to influence (Williams & Cooper, 1999). For the organizations control and business performance, burnout might be needed to capture much more scope in the international HRD.

Limitations and Conclusion

There are three major limitations of the current study. First, the number of two empirical studies examining the burnout differences in gender, marriage, educational level, age, seniority and position were relatively small. The generalizability of the findings may be a concern because the both two studies data were collected in Taiwan. The Chinese culture is not the same as the other cultures. This limitation points to the very need for conducting the huge surveys in the Chinese context, such as in Mainland China, Hong Kong and Macau. Scholars may benefit from replicating the present study in different business, countries. Second, the two studies which limits the causal inferences that can be drawn from the current results. This limitation points to the very need for conducting the surveys for the relationships between burnout and other variables (e.g., overload, OCB). Here also hints at the value of utilizing alternative designs, such as experimental or quasi-experimental design with burnout measures. Also, using alternative methodology is needed (e.g., meta-analysis). Third, this article is not the manner in which concepts and theories typically borrowed. But this article revealed the practice of differences in organizational social context. As Whetten, Fekin, & King (2009) point out that borrowed theories and concepts too often remain largely unmodified when used to study organizational phenomena and 'understanding the contextual variation of a theory's concepts seems key to successful horizontal borrowing' (p.19). Whetten, Fekin, & King (2009) argue that 'contextual differences may lead to important distinctions in the kinds of behaviors' (p.19), such as the burnout in Chinese context (e.g., gender, age,) in this article. Whetten (2008) argue that the pervasive practice of borrowing foreign/Western theoretical perspectives and research method may be suffers from a troubling lack of context sensitivity in the study of Chinese organizations. The future study may have systematically examination of context effects by rich description, direct observation and analysis of contextual effects and comparative studies (Rousseau & Fried, 2001).

This article concluded by discussing some practical implications of the findings. The findings offer several implications for the management of diversity in work burnout. Even though social differences among working people maybe is an unavoidable situations in the workplace, managers/management could possibly offer training/promotion/support chances for diverse employees for effectiveness and reduce work dysfunctions. Thus, employers and managers (especially Top) have not only to enhance the work performance but also increasing the care to the diverse status among employees and subordinates. Leaders wishing to encourage more performance may want to consider steps to reduce burnout, especially provided inadequate behaviors are the root cause of both systemic problems and diversity issues. Alternatively, employers could target the process variables (e.g., support climate, promotion, reward) in order to decrease burnout in diverse people..

Although, burnout is typically considered no beneficial from workplace (Lowman, 1993), engage in communication and managing diversity may have unintended positive consequences (e.g., decrease burnout, weak intention to quit) for individual and organization' human resource development and management.

Appendix

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Table 1a: Means, Standard Deviation Among Study Variables.

		Sex		Marriage		Position		Total
		Male	Female	Married	Single	Leader	Staff	
S1	Mean	2.4494	2.7075	2.5304	2.7201			2.5948
	S. D.	0.6019	0.5950	0.6174	0.5801			0.6105
S2	Mean	2.6173	2.7204	2.6771	2.7029	2.5250	2.7037	2.3659
	S. D.	0.6052	0.7429	0.7069	0.6841	0.71121	0.6966	0.56670

Note: $N=N1+N2=277+284=561$ S1=Study 1 S2=Study 2

Table 2: Cronbach's α

	Pilot Test				Formal Test			
	Emotional exhaustion	Depersonalization	Lose Professional efficacy	Total	Emotional exhaustion	Depersonalization	Lose Professional efficacy	Total
S1	0.860	0.72	0.80	0.88	0.83	0.82	0.81	0.88
S2	0.89	0.82	0.80	0.85	0.73	0.74	0.79	0.86

S1=Study 1 S2=Study 2

Table 3: Intercorrelations between the three dimensions of burnout

	Emotional exhaustion	Depersonalization	Lose Professional efficacy	Total Burnout
Emotional exhaustion	1			
Depersonalization	S1=.74(**) S2=.46(**)	1		
Lose Professional efficacy	S1=.30(**) S2=.40(**)	S1=.33(**) S2=.74(**)	1	
Total Burnout	S1=.867(**) S2=.76(**)	S1=.88(**) S2=.88(**)	S1=.65(**) S2=.86(**)	1

** $p < .01$ S1=Study 1 S2=Study 2

Table 4: Significant between demographics and the three dimensions of burnout

	Sex	Marriage	Education	Seniority	Age	Position
Total Burnout	S1*	S1* S2*		S1* S2*	S1* S2*	S2*
Emotional exhaustion	S1*	S1*		S1* S2*	S1* S2*	S2*
Depersonalization	S1*	S2*			S1* S2*	S2*
Lose Professional efficacy		S1* S2*		S1* S2*	S1* S2**	

● $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ S1=Study 1 S2=Study 2

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Work Experiences of Female Philippines Foreign Workers in Taiwan – A Study of Housekeepers and Caregivers

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Abstract

Within the globalizing world, the restructuring of economic domains of life takes place across national and territorial boundaries and thus, movement and the crossing of borders have become increasing significant and common processes governing human experiences. In the early 1980s, economic conditions and political upheavals in the Philippines encouraged Female Filipinas to migrate in response to overseas employment boom. The purpose of this study was to explore the work experiences of female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan who are engaged as housekeepers and caregivers. For collecting the data, three questions were developed: What are the work experiences of these female workers, what are the difficulties they faced in their work and what are the resolutions they make to minimize their difficulties. The study was based on both secondary sources collected primarily from the Council of Labor Affairs in Taiwan and a qualitative research method which was gathered through semi- structured interviews with three Filipina housekeepers and three Filipina caregivers in Taiwan. The findings of this study will contribute towards the knowledge base on female Philippines foreign workers and their experiences in the less formal labor market in Taiwan.

Keywords: foreign workers, female Philippines, work experiences, Taiwan, qualitative method

1. Background and Purpose of this Study

The last three decades have witnessed an increased “feminisation” of international migration within the Asian region (Cheng, 1996; Lim & Oishi, 1996). An estimated 1.5 million Asian women are working both legally and illegally outside their country of origin (Lim & Oishi, 1996). With this movement certain factors have to be taken into account, many female foreign workers face a lot of difficulties in a foreign country. Within the context of South- East Asia, increasing disparities between the more rapid economic development of some countries in the region relative to the slower development of others in the region have created employment opportunities in the richer economies for migrant workers (both male and female) for many jobs, primarily those characterized by low- skills, low pay and low status which locals no longer willing to do: work on construction sites and factory assembly lines as well as jobs in the service industry, including domestic service. Taiwan has opened the gate for foreign workers since the early 1990s. This policy is presented as a cost- saving solution to the growing demands for paid childcare and eldercare among the expanding nuclear households and aging population. The number of Taiwanese households employing foreign workers as housekeepers and caregivers has rapidly increased within a decade. Thus, the number of foreign workers has exceeded 300,000, about 2.5% of the international workforce (Council of Labor Affairs, 2003). Over one third of them are employed as domestic workers. These domestic workers are foreign women who come from Philippines, Indonesia, and Vietnam and are legally employed in Taiwan (CLA, 2003) and women from the Philippines and Indonesia constitute 90% of the population (CLA, 2002).

There has been a lot of research done on expatriates and impatriates in understanding their work experiences, the difficulties they faced and the resolutions they made to minimize their difficulties. Although they represent the most common group of international employees, there are other non- traditional kind of foreign workers that need to be recognized and further explored: housekeepers and caregivers. Despite the rapidly increasing number of these women taking on such experiences, there is little research done to understand their motivation to leave home, their work experiences, the difficulties they face and the resolutions they use to minimize their difficulties. (Bodalica & Spraggon, 2008). Female foreign workers who cross transnational borders as economic migrants encounter different sets of problems and constraints as Lim and Oishi (1996) explained, their status as women as migrants or non- nationals makes international female foreign workers particularly vulnerable to various forms of discrimination and exploitation.” Thus, the decision to become a domestic worker abroad, to leave home for a foreign land and cope with the inevitable social dislocations intrinsic to migration as well as the unfolding of individual work experiences is worth noting and being investigated. Being motivated by these, this research will focus on the work experiences of female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan. The findings of this research will help government policy makers and human resource practitioners of the development needed to assist female foreign workers.

The main goal of this study was to explore the work experiences of six female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan engaged as housekeepers and caregivers. Specifically, the research had the following three purposes:

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1. To explore the work experiences of female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan working as housekeepers and caregivers.
2. To investigate the difficulties female Philippines foreign workers faced in their work as housekeepers and caregivers.
3. To investigate the resolutions female Philippines foreign workers make to minimize their difficulties.

2. Review of Relevant Researches

This section looks at the relevant literature on foreign workers and the Filipino's in Taiwan.

2.1 The Emergence of Foreign Workers

Foreign workers particularly women who cross transnational borders to enter domestic service have been called by many terms. As temporary transnational movement of workers usually organized or regulated by governments, employers or both, they generally fall under the umbrella of "contract migrant labor" or "domestic workers"(Castles,1995). Since the end of the Second World War, Asian countries have gradually undergone a process of economic development. The leading countries in this move ahead are Japan and the "Four Little Dragons" namely Hong Kong, South Korea, Singapore and Taiwan. Such rapid economic growth in South East Asia has resulted in two outcomes: a greater need of labor and a restructuring of the employment system. Most of these countries are faced with a shortage of the labor needed to meet the increasing demands of their growing economies. This shortage of labor also resulted from demographic changes within the respective countries (for example, ageing and a declining youth population). The supply of labor is restricted by the lengthening of the education process, reductions in child labor and retirement policy (Abello, 1991). These factors serve to explain the adoption of foreign workers as a necessary alternative for solving the labor shortage problem. In order to fill these vacancies, these countries import foreign workers (Martin, 1994). As Ehrenreich and Hochschild (2002) noted that although women leaving their own children behind to take care of their foreign employer's children and houses has often been highlighted in the public press, only recently has it become a priority for empirical analysis. Hence, some studies have shown that language barrier and lack of cultural awareness may pose difficulties for foreign workers or sojourners in their work (Chen & Starosta, 1996; Cullen & Parbotteeah, 2005; Sriussadaporn, 2006). For example, Chen and Starosta (1996), considered cultural awareness as "a cognitive process of intercultural competence and that the main characteristics of cultural awareness is to understand that cultural difference exist and then improve the chances of reaching mutual understanding and maintaining a fruitful multicultural co-existence." They pointed out that cultural awareness requires an understanding of social values, social norms and social customs of a particular culture and thus lack of cultural awareness of a given culture may pose difficulties for foreign workers or sojourners who work in cultural settings different from their own cultures. Similarly, Bennett (1993) considered that knowledge of cultural difference really helps foreign workers or sojourners to adapt easily in the host country. To further explain this, he proposed a development model of intercultural sensitivity called DMIS which includes six stages: denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation and integration. This model provides a structure for understanding how people experience cultural difference. Some studies have also been conducted to determine the main factors that motivate people to leave home and work abroad. In line with this, Kobori and Kyricaou (1998), mentioned motivation that guides a person's behavior to undertake such moves is either extrinsic or intrinsic. Extrinsic motivation is when one reflects the desire to do something because of external rewards such as monetary benefits. Intrinsic refers to motivation that is driven by an interest and exists within the individual such as job opportunities. Similarly, Elder (1996) and Massey et al. (1993) assert that the family plays a role in motivating people to undertake migration decisions.

2.2 Foreign Workers and the Filipino's in Taiwan

Foreign workers have been, in recent years an emerging phenomenon in the contemporary labor market in Asia. In 1992, foreign workers (women) were legally allowed to arrive as housekeepers and caregivers for the chronically ill, elderly and very young. In 1991, there were only "1,610 documented foreign workers but by the end of 2002 that figure reached 308,489" (CLA, 2002). In line with this, women's participation in Taiwan's labor market has greatly increased in the past few decades. The recruitment of foreign workers thus provides an economic solution for middle- class Taiwanese women to sub- contract their motherly and filial duties while pursuing career achievement as their husbands do. The Philippines was once a leading economy in Asia grounded on its colonial and post colonial ties with the United States. Yet it has suffered economic depression since the early 1980s and remains burdened by substantial foreign debts and periodic political turmoil. Today, Philippines are the biggest labor- exporting country in Asia and are ranked second in the world only after Mexico. Domestic workers, cleaners and other service occupations account for half of the female foreign labor force. The predominant destinations for Filipino's foreign workers have gradually switched from North America and Europe to the Middle East and East Asia. A foreign worker (housekeepers & caregivers) monthly wage in Taiwan is set at NT\$15, 840- approximately US\$468 (Women Web, 2002). This amount equals the minimum wage in Taiwan but is about three times the amount of a secretary's wage or twice that of a teacher's salary in the Philippines. The wage gap thus attracts large numbers of middle- class Filipino's to seek better paying jobs overseas – in salaried occupations as well as manual positions including maids and nannies (Pinches, 1999).

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Method

This study adopted a qualitative method because it aimed to provide an in-depth description of the working experiences of female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan. To achieve this purpose, this study used both secondary sources collected primarily from the Council of Labor Affairs in Taiwan and data gathered through semi-structured interviews with three Filipina housekeepers and three Filipina caregivers. Semi-structured interview were selected to provide the sample with the opportunity to express themselves more freely and in turn, the researcher can develop more questions during the interview that can be tailored to different contexts and that may lead to new points of view (Merriam, 1998).

3.2 Research Sample and Criteria

The sample of the study is six female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan working as housekeepers and caregivers. Three housekeepers and three caregivers constituted the total six in the sample. The sample was chosen as Filipina because they represent a striking and rapid increasing number of foreign workers within Southeast Asia. The sample was selected through snow-ball sampling because the researcher knew key informants from the church who were used to get access to the housekeepers and caregivers who fit the required criteria for the study. Thus, through these key informants, the researcher was able to get access to the sample.

This study used three criteria for sample selection. First, the sample had to hold a valid foreign worker visa from the Council of Labor Affairs to ensure that they are in fact foreign workers in Taiwan. Second, the sample had to consist of only female foreign workers from the Philippines working as housekeepers and caregivers. Third, the sample must be employed as a contract foreign worker for a minimum of six months. The criterion six months was selected as the minimum duration for the sample to be employed in the host country for the following reasons: When an sojourner first comes in contact with the new environment they tend to experience the “honeymoon phase” (Chaney & Martin, 2007) which is where the initial excitement to the host country tends to cause the sojourner to overlook certain difficulties. Previous research has found that after six months in a new environment, the sojourner has finished experiencing the “honeymoon phrase” and the sojourner tend to settle down and adjust after six months (Jome & Swagler, 2005). Thus, individuals who have remained for more than six months have had time to reflect on their work experiences in the new environment.

The background information of each interviewee is listed in table 1.

Table 1. Background information of the sample

Interviewee*	Age	Marital status	Educational level	Occupation in Philippines	Occupation in Taiwan	Years stay in Taiwan	Country worked before
Rebecca	36-40	Single	College graduate	Hospital & real estate agent	Caregiver	7 months	None
Rose	41-50	Married	College graduate	Teacher	Housekeeper	1 year & 11 months	None
Candy	31-35	Single	College graduate	Computer teacher	Housekeeper	2 years	Jordan
Veronica	31-35	Single	High school graduate	Sales assistant	Housekeeper	11 months	Malaysia
Annie	26-30	Married	College graduate	Hospital assistant	Caregiver	2 years	None
Isabella	26-30	Single	College graduate	None	Caregiver	1 year & 3 months	None

*Note: All the names used for the interviewees are pseudonyms and the interviews are conducted in English.

3.3 Interview questions

For fulfilling the research purpose, semi-structured interview questions were used for collecting data. Twelve questions were used to serve as a guide to the interviews. An example of questions exploring work experience was “How would you describe your relationship with your employer and his/ her family? What do you think is the most important lesson you have learned coming to work as a housekeeper or caregiver in Taiwan? Could you please cite instances you think are unforgettable for you here in Taiwan? Do you have any specified working hours from your employer? Are you allowed for a day-off from work? Work experience questions are questions about an observation or event an individual has gained through involvement to a work setting or event. An example of a question investigating the difficulties faced at work was “What difficulties do you face in your work as a housekeeper or caregiver? If you have difficulties to whom would you go for help? Questions’ investigating difficulties were aimed at understanding the troubles or conditions that an individual encountered at work and is beyond ones’ ability to deal with and require an effort to bear or overcome. An example of a question investigating resolutions was “What resolutions do you make to minimize your difficulties at work? The resolutions’ questions were aimed at understanding the participants’ decisions or course of action that was used to reduce their difficulties at work. One motivation question was also included in the interview questions. An example of this question was “What motivated you to undertake employment arrangements in Taiwan? This question was meant to understand their inspirations for leaving home to go abroad and work as either housekeepers or caregivers. In addition, a question directed at what advice participants have for agencies involved in recruiting foreign workers both in Taiwan and other countries were also included. This was one of the major contributions of this study because it provided suggestions for those people engaged in deploying foreign workers not only in Taiwan but in other countries. Finally, background or demographic questions were also included. This was intended to show the characteristics of each person interviewed as shown in the above table 1.

3.4 Data Collection

First, secondary data was collected from the Council of Labor Affairs to support the literature on foreign workers in Taiwan. Semi-structured interviews and a brief questionnaire related to the participant’s demographic characteristics were also used to gather data. The interview questions together with the demographic characteristics were reviewed for content validity by two academic scholars with expertise in HR before all interviews were conducted. This was to ensure credibility since the involvement of expert reviewers can provide new ideas and insights that might not have come about without the expert’s participation. The brief questionnaire containing the demographic characteristics was administered to the participants one week before the interview in order to gain a deeper understanding of the individual’s background. This was important for the researcher because it helps the researcher to get a better insight of the participant and how to effectively conduct the interview without violating their personalities. All the interviews were conducted in English and the interview time ranged from 30-40 minutes. Notes were also taken during the interview as well as a recording of the conversation to make sure that the notes coincide with what the participant says.

3.5 Data Analysis

All the six interviews were recorded with the sample’s consent. Each interview was later transcribed and in order to make the process of analysis more effective and efficient, we reviewed the transcriptions and frequently listened to the audio-taped conversations. The researcher also used the techniques of “open coding” (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) to break down the transcripts, examining each part and giving codes. Later, the codes were categorized and five major categories emerged out of this process and thus they were grouped according to the following five themes: motivation, work experiences, difficulties faced at work, resolutions make to minimize difficulties at work and suggestion for agencies. Some codes were merged with others if their meanings were similar to each other and other codes were ignored because they were not relevant to the participant’s work experience in Taiwan. The emerging findings are illustrated by quoting the respondents.

4. Research Findings

Based on the data analysis, the findings were divided into five main categories. The first category was the motivational reasons for undertaking employment arrangements in Taiwan. The other three parts were related to answering the three questions posed in this research. The final section was the advice or suggestions the participants had for agencies engaged in recruiting them. These categories will be described in more detailed as well as their respective subcategories.

4.1 Motivational reasons for undertaking employment arrangements in Taiwan

This gives us an insight about the reasons why female Philippines foreign workers decide to undertake employment arrangements in Taiwan. For all the participants except Candy and Isabella, their only motivation for undertaking employment arrangements in Taiwan was extrinsic. For example, Annie aged between 26- 30 , married and currently working as a caregiver, her reason for coming to work in Taiwan was to earn enough money:

“My motivation for coming here is to earn enough money. I am a college graduate and I was working as a hospital assistant back home but my earning was not enough at home.” Likewise, Rebecca and Rose reasons for coming to work in Taiwan was to support their children’s education. Rebecca explains:

“Here I work as a caregiver.....I came here primarily because I want to earn enough to pay for the education of my children. I had two children. I am a college graduate and I used to work in the hospital and also as a real estate agent but my earning was so low that I could not support the education of my children.”

In the same vein, Veronica stated:

“First, um I was a high-school graduate and I wanted to have enough experience working in another country. I once worked in Malaysia but I still wanted more overseas experience. This was one of the reasons that motivated me to come and work in Taiwan. Another reason was I was working in an electronic company in the Philippines but I was not paid enough so I had to come and work here. The pay here is far better than my country.”

Candy and Isabella’s motivation for coming to work in Taiwan was extrinsic and intrinsic because they both wanted to help their families and intrinsic because of the job opportunities available in Taiwan as Isabella explains:

“I came here because I want to help my family. I am a college graduate at home but I was unemployed so I decided to come to Taiwan to look for a work at least to earn something.....I thought it was better than staying at home and looking at my family without me helping.....um that’s what motivates me.”

For Candy she elucidates:

“I am a college graduate and um, the specific motivator for me coming to Taiwan was that I was a computer teacher at the Government Service Insurance but I couldn’t earn enough money to support my family. So I had to go somewhere I could make money and do it, help my family and I thought Taiwan was a great place to do that and I also thought since Taiwan was in Asia and not very far from my country and also I hear from friends that Taiwan was offering many jobs in the domestic service with good pay. That is how I decided to come here.”

4.2 Work experiences of female Philippines foreign workers in Taiwan

Work experience is the linking of a period of activity in a work setting. Thus, in this study, the work experiences of these women are divided into three sub categories: relationship with the employer and his/ her family, unforgettable experience and learning experience.

4.2.1 Relationship with employer and his/ her family

This involves the interactions between the employees and their employers. With regards to this, many of the participants revealed that the way they were treated by their employers were not so good. For instance, Candy talks about her relationship with her employer:

“Before um I mean when I was a new person to my job, my employer treated me good but now she..... madam treats me bad. Whatever I do, she looks at me just as her servant, sometimes she shouts at me, tells me not to even take water from the fridge until she orders me. I sometimes cry to myself that I am so degraded in this job, ohm now am just a housekeeper while once I was a teacher.”

According to Rebecca, the ways of her Taiwanese employers and their behaviors were very different from what she is familiar with back in the Philippines and she seems shock at it but willing to accept it because she is a single mom who needs to keep the job in order to pay her children’s education in the Philippines. She laments:

“Wow my employer’s behavior towards me is very bad, not good at all to me and his family.....they are all the same. It is impossible to be accepted as a member of their household. Here, whatever I do, my employers will always look at me as their servant, nothing else but their servant.....uh well, and there is nothing I can do about that.”

In addition, most of them shared that they have day-off on Sundays and if they ever work on Sundays, they are paid overtime. When asked about whether they are allowed for a day-off and if no, are they are paid overtime, Rose, Isabella, Veronica and Rebecca shared the same comment:

“Yes on Sundays but they paid if you work on Sundays. However, Annie’s and Candy’s case with regards to day-off was different from the rest. For instance, Annie relates:

“Yes on Sundays but they if they want me to work on Sundays, I work but I am not paid overtime.” In line with this, Candy reports that: “there is no day-off but I am paid for working for the day like Sunday.”

These two situations are in contrast with each other because Annie sometimes receives day-off on Sundays but in other times, she does not and if she ever work on a Sunday she is not paid overtime and Candy has no day-off but she is paid for the days. Interestingly, when they were asked about the whether they have a specified working hours from their employer. Candy and Veronica stated the same number of hours. For Candy, she narrates that:

“Yes..... 20 hours a day but they violate the contract always.” She said she always work more than the stated hours in her contract. She calls it “violate the contract.”

Rose says: “15 hours a day. I start work at 5:30 am, rest only after giving massage to a man.”

It was only Annie who reported not having a specified working hours from her employer and she was working whenever she was requested to do so. She narrates: “None, specified working hours, uh well, I work whenever they want me to work.”

4.2.2 Unforgettable experience

This is an experience one has and it is not easily erased or removed at all in one's mind. The participants were asked to cite experiences they believed were unforgettable for them while working as housekeepers and caregivers in Taiwan. This question gives us a detail of the experiences they encountered and those experiences are still in their minds. For Rose, aged 41- 50, married with three children, her unforgettable experience working as a caregiver in Taiwan is when she encountered an abuse from her male employer. She narrates:

"My unforgettable experience working as a caregiver here in Taiwan is when my employer touched my breast and my agent didn't believe me when I told them, this was too much for me it was as if my dignity has been washed away all in the name of working to help educate my children, uuh still I cannot ever forget or forgive him."

It is saddening to report that after Rose finish narrating this experience, the researcher has to pause the recorder because she was crying. For Candy aged 31-35 and single, her unforgettable experience working as a housekeeper in Taiwan is when she is forced by her employer to leave her job even without the contract finishing. She told says: "I am still battling with that, not yet resolved."

For Annie, a college graduate aged 26-30 and married with no child, she feels that "being scolded in front of people" by her employer was the most unforgettable experience she had working as a caregiver.

4.2.3 Learning Experience

Learning experience is the knowledge gained through having undergone certain incidents. When asked about the most important lesson learned coming to work as a housekeeper or a caregiver in Taiwan, the common theme that almost all participants expressed was that they learned to be strong physically, emotionally and spiritually. For example, Isabella relates:

"I learned to be strong physically, emotionally and spiritually."

Candy, Rebecca and Rose also expressed similar sentiments. For married Annie, it was a different lesson learned. She relates:

"Working abroad should be a decision of the whole family..... because it is hard." Veronica on the other hand says: "I should have learned about the place, custom and tradition of the people before coming to work here."

4.3 Difficulties female Philippines foreign workers faced in their work as housekeepers and caregivers in Taiwan

Almost all the interviewees indicated that they did face difficulties in their work as housekeepers and caregivers. Thus, this section looks into detail the difficulties they encounter and these are divided into two subcategories: language barrier and violation of contract rules.

4.3.1 Language barrier

This is the most common communication problem among all the difficulties faced by the workers. All six interviewees mentioned the language barrier between them and their employers. They cannot speak Chinese and their employers cannot speak comprehensible English. As Candy echoes:

"Oh yes there is a communication problem with me and my employer even though I have been in Taiwan for two years. I can't speak Chinese. There is um um always a problem while we are to communicate sometimes I want to tell her what she did to me but I cannot speak the language she understood."

Likewise, for Rose, a college graduate and a mom of three. She mentioned that:

"It's hard for me to communicate with them because they don't understand what I say and me too I don't understand what they say. We do communicate nonverbally sometimes."

In addition, Annie stated that language barrier combines with culture difference are the difficulties she encountered while working as a caregiver. She relates that:

"I cannot speak Chinese so there is a language barrier between us and another thing is the culture difference. I found out through my experience working here that my culture is different from my employer's. I mean back home I worked as a hospital assistant and I know we eat with our employers though not every day but we do and they treat us more like a member of their families but here we are treated like strangers, having to eat always alone, not even once have I shared a table, not even during weekends when we are at home..... not to talk about sharing common things. Because I have been here for two years, I have come to realize and learn that it have to do with their culture. I wish I had learned or had a training about this culture before coming to work here, I wouldn't have faced this problem at work the trauma of been sent to my room to eat alone or been told not to share common food in the room."

Another communication problem with regards to the difficulties at work was the quality of relationship with friends and family back home because some employers do not allowed their workers to use mobile phones to communicate with their families because they termed it as a disruption to their duties at work. As stated by Veronica, the high-school graduate:

"So so bad, because I cannot call my family or friends back home every time I need to talk to them because my employers told me owning a mobile will waste my time of working um am phoneless, I only know about my family and friends back home when I take excuse from my employer to see a friend and I put credit in my friend's phone to call them." This created an emotional damage to Veronica because she could not call her family whenever she wishes.

4.3.2 Violation of contract rules

The other subcategory that was common among the difficulties faced by these foreign workers was the violation of contract rules by their employers. They complained of been overwork and this was a violation of their contract terms and conditions. For example, Isabella laments:

“I am overworked at work because I was supposed to work in my employer’s house and that is stated in my contract but my employer’s make me work in their brother’s and sister’s house. I am not paid for that.”

Some of them also complained of been abused by their employers physically. Rose narrated in the following words: “My employer abused me with a lot of work, more than the hours specified and he also holds my breast and buttocks.” In the same vein, Rebecca laments: “How would I say this, my employer always harasses me physically and that is an abuse.”

4.4 Resolutions female Philippines make to minimize their difficulties at work

In order to reduce or lessen the difficulties they faced in their work, the researcher asked about what resolutions they make to minimize their difficulties at work. This category was divided into two subcategories: seeking help, acceptance and adaptation.

4.4.1 Seeking help

All the participants except Rose seek help from the Council of Labor Affairs (CLA), a friend or the church when they are faced with difficulties. Rose relates she goes to: “no oneI faced it myself.” For Rebecca and Isabella, they “consult the CLA” and Veronica meets with a friend on her day-offs. On the other hand, Annie goes to the church on the days she receives day-off, and they provide help through advice and words of perseverance.

4.4.2 Acceptance and Adaptation

The most common resolutions mentioned under this subcategory were the need to learn the language and know the culture of the people in order to minimize their difficulties at work. Most of the participants noted and accepted that it is important it is important for them to learn the language and also to know the culture of local people in order to adapt easily. For them to minimize their difficulties, they needed to learn how to speak the host country’s language to be able to communicate effectively with their employers and to know the culture of the local people. Veronica stated: “I need to learn to speak Chinese so that I can communicate well with my employer.” Annie considered: “To know the culture of Taiwanese” as her resolution.

4.5 Suggestions or advice for agencies

This section is about the suggestions or advice these workers recommend to the agencies involved in recruiting foreign workers from their country or other countries. This was one of the major contributions of this study because it serves as a knowledge base for agencies engaged in recruiting this type of foreign workers. Based on the data analysis, the category was divided into two main subcategories: compliant with contract rules, information and protection.

4.5.1 Compliant with contract rules

All the interviewees urged the agencies to compliant with the contract rules given to them before undertaking their employment. They lamented there is a breach of contract about the placement fee paid to the agency. The placement fee is the fee that is paid by the foreign worker to the agency for making employment arrangements to the host country. The worker normally pays this through the salary received from work at the host country. As Rose mentioned:

“They should not ask us to pay huge amount of money for the placement fee.....it is stated in the contract that the placement to be paid by a foreign worker is just one month salary, it is unfair to us.” The rest of the interviewees echoed similar sentiments.

4.5.2 Information and Protection

Almost all the workers echoed the need to get information about the host country and their proposed employers from the agencies before they are deployed. As Annie stated: “The agencies should give us information about our work abroad and inform us of the reality of working abroad..... we need this from them.”

Another interesting advice given to the agencies was the need to protect them when they are faced with problems in their work since they serve as the mediators between them and their employers. For example, Isabella mentioned: “They need to protect us especially when we are abused by our employer.”

5. Discussions

From the findings, we have a better understanding of what motivates these workers to cross transnational borders in order to seek employment arrangements in Taiwan. Evident from our findings, all of the interviewees reported their inspiration for working in Taiwan was the need to earn enough income to contribute either to the wellbeing of their families or children. This finding is similar to the family life course theory which emphasizes the interdependence of family members lives (Elder, 1996), a perspective which is also echoed in social network theories of immigration which

stress the role of the family in motivating migration decisions (Massey et al; 1993). Thus, we found that the need for income to improve family or children's wellbeing was the most important reason compelling these workers to work in Taiwan as housekeepers or caregivers even though most of them were college graduates.

Based on the analysis, the most commonly given reasons on work experiences among the six participants was the abused of their working hours. Almost all of them reported working more than the hours specified as their working hours. Though when it came to day-off, some mentioned having it on Sundays and others mentioned if they worked on the day they were paid for it. Similarly from the narrations, it was obvious that these women feel psychological distress of been abused by their employers and this was especially so in the case of Rose who lamented about her unforgettable experience while working as a housekeeper. Interesting in the findings was how most of the interviewees' impressions changed after working for a while in the host country. An example is Veronica who related that it is good to learn the culture of the people to adapt easily. This finding was in line with intercultural competence especially with Chen and Starosta (1996) definition of the term which is "the ability to realize different cultural meanings and to execute appropriate communication behaviors in a specific environment." This is especially so because learning the culture of the host country helps one to perform right behaviors which could help ease the issues affecting the workers in the workplace.

From the themes analyzed under difficulties at work, it was evident that knowing the language of the host country was an important element that facilitates communication and helps more especially in the host country, in this case Taiwan. From their work experiences, language barrier was one of the most difficulties encountered by these foreign workers because they could not speak the language spoken in the host country and thus there was a communication gap between them and their employers. This finding is also similar to a lot of studies that state that to be able to speak the language of a host country is a basic requirement that can help sojourners and expatriates to adapt or live in the society easily (Cullen & Parbotteeah, 2005; Sriussadaporn, 2006). Another difficulty faced by these workers was the abused of their working hours. Most of them complained of working more than the hours stated in their contracts.

From the findings on the resolutions make by these workers, some of the participants' experiences included accepting and adapting to the host country's culture. This is similar to the model, DMIS proposed by Bennett (1993). Though none of the participants have undergone all the stages but based on the findings some did experience acceptance that is been curious about other cultures and seeking opportunities to learn more about them. For example Veronica accepts by saying: "I need to learn to speak Chinese so that I can communicate well with my employers." Others also experience adaptation as in Annie's case and this is also similar to Bennett (1993) view of adaptation as the "the state in which the experience of another culture yields perception and behavior to that culture." She explains how her perception and behavior has changed towards "sharing common things like eating in the same table." She finally learned that it is a different culture from hers. Another interesting finding was the need to associate with others in order to get assistance from them. This includes visiting the church and friends who offer both spiritual guidance and encouragements to move on.

Based on the suggestions given by the workers, it is apparent to note that having knowledge of the host country before been deployed abroad serves as an important tool for these workers to adapt easily and it also creates a better understanding between them and their employers. They also needed to have knowledge of their work abroad and factual information from the agencies before leaving home. They also desired protection and compliance with contract rules from the agencies especially with regards to the heavy placement fees charged on them.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

This section covered three parts: the first part presents the conclusions of this study, the second part presents the research limitations in this study and the final part presents the recommendations for management and future researchers.

6.1 Conclusions

This study explored the work experiences of female Philippines foreign workers, their difficulties and resolutions they make to minimize their difficulties while working as housekeepers and caregivers in Taiwan. Based on the research findings, the main work experiences include: their relationship with their employer and his/her family, their unforgettable experience and their learning experiences. Through the findings, we are able to see their interactions with their employers which most of them described as not so good, others depict their unforgettable experiences as saddening because of the physical abuse they received sometimes from their employers. Almost all the participants said that they have learned to be strong both spiritually and emotionally while working as housekeepers or caregivers in Taiwan.

Furthermore, the most important difficulties they faced in their work were: language barrier and overwork. Most said that they could not speak Chinese and thus they had communication problems with their employers, while others link the language barrier with the problem of cultural difference which always creates a misunderstanding between them and their employers. Almost all of them lamented they are been overworked by their employers and that is according to them a violation of their contract rules.

Moreover, the major resolutions found among the participants was the need to seek help from a friend or the church and also accept and adapt to the situation faced in order to minimize their difficulties at work.

Besides the main findings which provided an insight into the research purposes, they were also other findings found like the motivational reasons for coming to work in Taiwan and the suggestions offered to agencies engaged in hiring

them. The former shows that most undertake these arrangements because of family need or the need to educate their children. The latter provided a knowledge base or advice for the agencies engaged in such ventures.

Based on the above findings, foreign workers play an important role in the economic development of their countries of origin (through educating and supporting their families) and their host countries by helping sprout the productive labor force especially that of their women who are able to go to work because these women are taking care of their filial duties and the elderly, they should be given much attention and consideration and their importance to the society should be acknowledged. This article similar to many other studies has demonstrated an attempt to systematically understand the work experiences of female foreign workers in Taiwan. Thus, the findings of this study will served as a knowledge base for government policy makers and human resource practitioners on the development needed to assist this type of workers.

6.2 Limitations

The limitations of this study have to be acknowledged. First, the focus of this study was on female foreign workers, the researchers are unable to assert whether the findings of this study apply to men foreign workers. Thus, the researchers believe that the participants' experiences in this study might be different to those of male foreign workers. Furthermore, given the qualitative nature of this study, the narrations collected through interviews served to elaborate a useful account of the work experiences of foreign workers rather than trying to act as a basis for generalizations. In line with this, there are restrictions to generalize these findings of female foreign workers working as housekeepers and caregivers to the whole population of foreign workers because the population of foreign workers includes sailors, manufacturers and construction workers. In addition, all the female foreign workers included in this study were working in the same country- Taiwan, thus the researchers cannot conclude that the work experiences of female foreign workers in other cultural contexts and labor market settings follow similar patterns.

6.3 Recommendations for Management and Future Studies

Based on the research findings and conclusions, some recommendations are made for government policy makers, agencies and future studies. Thus, it is extremely important for government policy makers, agencies and human resource practitioners to set up an appropriate communication channel and grievances procedures for these workers so that they are will be able to communicate their problems and needs. If there is such a system, such grievances could be addressed in a timely manner. Moreover, pre-departure training with a focus on cross-cultural training and language training could be offered to these workers before leaving home. Most cross-cultural training has been focused on expatriates and students' studying abroad, little has been applied to foreign workers (Beamer and Varner, 2001). Thus to fill this gap, cross-cultural training could be offered to foreign workers. This will really help to raise the awareness of cultural differences by providing factual information about the host country's culture and build language and adjustment adaptation skills. Thus, this could minimize most of the not so good experiences these workers faced while working abroad. Furthermore, agencies involved in recruiting these workers should try to reduce the heavy placement fees levied on these workers and they should also serve as their protection avenues. It would also be good to set up associations with foreign workers. These associations could aid in building a cordial relationship between foreign workers and their employers and agencies.

Since only six women participated in this study, it is recommended that future research could extend this analysis by collecting data on larger samples of women working as housekeepers and caregivers. In line with this, it is also recommended for future research to focus on foreign workers from more countries and industries as sample to make generalization feasible. It could also focus on men foreign workers working in the construction and manufacturing industries to see whether there is a difference in their experiences or difficulties with female foreign workers. Future research could also do a qualitative study on both foreign workers and their employers. This will serve as a comparative study that would better help policy makers in designing programmes for all those people involved in making employment arrangements for foreign workers.

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Work Stress In The Maquila Industry: A Study Of Middle-Level Managers For The Production Department In Honduras

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Abstract

Work stress has been a critical issue for business management and organizational sustainability. This study discusses employees' work stress in the important Maquila industry at Central America, which represents a 17.3% of the total economic activity of Honduras. Although some previous studies have discussed the stress on women in Maquila, they focused on basic-level employees. Limited attention has been placed on the middle-level managers in this industry. To fill such a gap, this study examines the stress concept more in deep on middle level managers that work in the production department. The study uses a qualitative approach to obtain the necessary information to provide a profound perspective of the different factors that cause stress on the employees at their jobs, as well as the way they face them, manage, and control those situations.

Keywords: Work stress, Maquila Industry, Middle-level managers

1. Introduction

Over the past 20 years the globalization process has been unstoppable. The world has been changing constantly and as a result of it the economies and organizations keep renovating themselves everyday all over the world. As a consequence of the globalization the countries around the world started to eliminate the borders between them in order to develop their economies. During that process, Latin America started promoting and emitting laws in order to attract foreign investors (Asociacion Hondureña de Maquiladores, 2007). Therefore, the benefits for the national and foreign investors provided the impetus for the creation of the Maquila Industry. Maquiladora or maquila is a factory that imports all the materials and machinery using the benefits of a duty-free and tariff-free basis and then assembly or manufactures the products using low-priced labor hand and then re-exports the assembled product; generally back to the originating country (Maquiladora, 2011).

Honduras is a country located in Central America and in here the Maquila Industry took off when the government approved different laws that give to the companies' in the whole Honduran territory different benefits including tax exemptions. (Banco Central de Honduras, 2001). The Maquila Industry in Honduras has been an important factor to lower the unemployment rate of the population (Banco Central de Honduras, 2005). The production of the Maquila generates more than 106, 695 jobs, also it has to be mentioned that the manufacturing industry represents a 17.3% of the total economic activity of Honduras (Banco Central de Honduras, 2009). As a consequence more than a half million of people is benefited without counting on the indirect jobs that the Maquila industry has generated (Asociacion Hondureña de Maquiladores, 2007).

On the other hand the globalization process has also created a series of changes that include new and different work demands, a new level of workload and diverse job complications for the employees in the organizations (Safaria, Bin Othman & Abdul, 2011). Accompanying those changes is the work stress which is a concept that it is mentioned more often on the organizations. There are different studies that discuss how to manage the stress situations on the workplace (eg, Ornelas & Klainer, 2003; Ongori & Agolla 2008).

There is a previous research on the stress on women that work in the basic level of the production department at the Maquila Industry. The results show that they are exposed to high work rates and in addition, they have to face the pressure of reaching high production goals (Ledesma, Pulido & Villegas, 2009). However, there is still a gap to fill on the research of this topic. There is only a little research for the middle level employees on the Maquila Industry that discuss the concept of stress in the work place using them as a sample. It is important to understand and to know the real situation of the middle level employees because depends on them the work structure and organization of the production process and as a consequence they handle different and major responsibilities than the basic level employees. In order to fill such gap the objective of this research is to study the stress concept more in deep on employees of the Maquila Industry that work at the middle level of the organizational structure.

1.1 Research Purpose and Questions

The purpose of this research is to provide more information about the stress issues that the employees face working at the middle level on the production department of this important industry. Therefore, the findings will contribute to understand better their real situation and also, help the organizations to have more information in order to improve according to the findings of the research. This research studies the stress concept based on the following research questions:

1. What causes work stress of middle-level employees in the Maquila Industry?
2. How do middle-level employees face, manage and control those situations under stress?
3. How does stress affect middle-level employees' work, health, and personal life?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Work Stress

Stress is a topic that has increasingly takes importance among different researches that have showed their interest to study what is stress and all its implications including the causes and consequences for both: employees and employers. Moreover, there are different studies that include how to manage the stress situations on the workplace (eg, LeFevre, Kolt & Matheny, 2006; Ornelas & Klainer,2003; Ongori & Agolla 2008).

There are different definitions of what is stress, this is because it's a concept that had a certain level of complexity and it's also no easy to define.

Ornelas and Klainer (2003) defined stress as a result of the modern life and also, it's a consequence of our willingness to balance the demands of the work and family life. Therefore, the demands are the stressors and the final result is the stress on the person. Consequently, their create discomfort on the employee, resulting in diverse stressful situations.

On the other hand according to the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007) work-related stress is a "pattern of reactions that occurs when workers are presented with work demands that are not matched to their knowledge, skills or abilities, and which challenge their ability to cope. These demands may be related to time pressure or the amount of work, or may refer to the difficulty of the work or the empathy required or even to the inability to show one's emotions at work. Demands may also be physical, i.e. high demands in the area of dynamic and static loads".

2.2 Stressors

According to Werner and DeSimone (2009) regardless of all the differences on the definition of stress between each study there is still some agreement on the literature review. They state that this agreement is the fact that stress is composed by three main factors: 1) the environmental force that affects the individual behavior, which is call stressor, 2) the individual's psychological or physical response to the stressor and 3) sometimes, the interaction between the stressors and the individual's response.

All the different aspects that cause stress in a person are called stressors (Neelamegam & Asrafi, 2010). Therefore, the stressors are all the different factors that produce discomfort or inconvenience for the employee as consequence this one will face stressful situations.

The stress in the workplace can be caused by job content (work load and monotony at work), employment conditions (employment contract, job insecurity and shift work), working conditions (physically demanding work and poor working conditions) and social relations at work (mobbing experiences) (Otto & Schmidt,2007).

Bhatti, Hussain, Shaikh and Suhail (2010) according to the results of their research different sectors such as service, manufacturing and distribution; they categorized the causes of stress into two main groups: Extra-organizational stressors and intra-organizational stressors. The extra-organizational stressors are composed by: a) climate, b) economic and c) family. On the other hand, the intra-organizational stressors are formed by: a) leadership, b) company policies, c) working conditions, d) work load and e) office timings.

According to the literature review the stress in the work place can have different causes. Each study presents different factors that can cause stress on the employees. Therefore, nowadays the most important thing for the organizations is to know which ones are the factors causing stress on the organizations' employees.

2.3 Work Stress Consequences

The presence of stress at the workplace can have several negative consequences which cause a huge cost for the organization in terms of time and money. Schabracq and Cooper (2000) state that there are different costs that an organization might face as a result of having employees that are facing stress in the workplace: reduced morale, defiance's in the quality of the products and services, bad communication, disagreements, lost of customers, bad image and publicity, high turnover rate and sick-leave cost for replacements and permanent vacancies. All the different consequences of stress can affect completely the whole work flow .As a result it will bring several difficulties to accomplish the organizations' goals.

Moreover, according to the results of the 2000 European Working Conditions Survey (EWCS) the work related stress is the second most common work-related health problem in the EU (Cited by the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007). On the other hand, according to the 2001 "Attitudes in the American Workplace VII" the 82% of workers report that they are at least a little stressed at work: 6% extremely stressed, 12% quite a bit, 34% somewhat, 30% a little, and 18% not at all . Another important information of the American Institute of Stress reports that job stress has an annual cost of more than \$300 billion for the US businesses. This cost represents the result of the increased rates on absenteeism, turnover, and productivity, medical, legal and insurance expenses. This cost also includes, the expenses of the worker's compensation payments.

However, not only the organizations mentioned above have professed the importance of this concept. Nowadays, employees have also perceived the importance and impact that stress has at the present time in their professional life. In a recent study on occupational stress conducted in Malaysia by Awang, Dollard and Winefield (2009), their results show that 77% of the interviewees agreed that the level of stress has been increased lately. Definitely, nowadays all the employees work hard to accomplish their career goals but they also, recognize the fact that the competition on this globalize world has increased. Hence, the level of stress has shown an increment, too.

Based on the literature review, it can be demonstrate that the stress in the work place has an effect and cost for the employee and the organization. The numbers also, proof the importance that this concept has on the European Union and the United States. However, one could not imagine that a country from Central America like Honduras can actually be facing work stress situations on one of its most important industries in this case the Maquila Industry.

2.4 Maquila Industry

Part of the history of the Maquila Industry in Central America started when it was created the project named Free Zones with the aim objective of attracting foreign investors, incentive the economic growth and increase trade rates in the region (Bogarin, 2007 Trade and Investment Magazine). According to Bogarin (2007) the "Free Zones are defined as areas subject to special customs regulations that allow the manufacturing or commercialization of goods for exportation or re-exportation and provide services associated with international trade" (Bogarin, 2007 Trade and Investment Magazine).

The Maquila Industry in Honduras took off when the government approved different laws that give to the companies' in the whole Honduran territory different benefits including tax exemptions. (Banco Central de Honduras, 2001). Moreover, this industry requires a big amount of human labor for the production of the different products. Therefore, it has had a positive effect on Honduras helping to lower the unemployment rate of the population (Banco Central de Honduras, 2005). The different literature review points out the different contributions of this industry on the Honduran economy. However, there is still a gap on the research of different Human Resource topics using as a sample the employees of this sector. One important topic that has been mentioned on the little research is work stress situations that the employees on the Maquila Industry are facing. There is a previous study on the Maquilas that are located at Choloma which is situated in the north part of Honduras (Ledesma, Pulido & Villegas, 2009). The researchers used as sample women that work at the basic level of the production department. As a result the female workers showed high stress levels (84%). Another important finding of this study is that the workers have to face different demands; for example long work day, reach high production quotas and as consequences an intense work rhythm. However, little attention has been placed on the middle level employees that work on the production department at the Maquila industry. Hence, in order to fill such gap the aim of this research is to study the stress concept more in deep on employees of the Maquila Industry that work at the middle level of the organizational structure.

3. Research Method

3.1 Research Approach

The present study used a qualitative research approach to obtain the necessary information to provide a profound perspective of the different factors that cause stress on the employees at their jobs, the way they face them, manage and control those situations. In addition, the consequences in their works, health and personal life. The

qualitative approach permitted to have a close view to the employee's real situation, emotions and consequences that stress has on their lives.

3. 2 Research Participants

Nowadays, the contribution of the Maquila to the Honduran economy is really important, because gives 106,695 jobs (Banco Central de Honduras, 2009). Due to the importance of this sector for Honduras, it has been decided to conduct this study using as a sample employees that work in the Maquila Industry. The maquila Industry has different industries, these are: textiles, computers, car harness-electronics, labels and dyes. As it was mentioned before the Maquila Industry has different sectors, but this study is focus on the two sectors whose generates the highest number of jobs. Firstly, the textile, clothing and leather goods sector which has a participation of the 78.5%, giving 83,712 jobs; which makes them the sector that generates the biggest number of job sources. Then, the second sector is the car parts (harness) and electronic components with a participation of the 8.8%, generating 9,403 jobs (Banco Central de Honduras, 2009). This study used three criteria for the interviewees' selection:

- Position: The employee position has to be at the middle level of the organizational chart. The criterion for the position of the employees was based on the fact that previous research (Ledesma, Pulido & Villegas, 2009) has been focused on employees at the basic level of the organizational structure.
- Place of work: Production department of any Maquila at the textile or car parts (harness) and electronic components sector. The place of work was decided based on 2 reasons: First, the textile and the car parts (harness) and electronic components are the two most important sectors at the Maquila industry (Banco Central de Honduras, 2009) and second, previous research shows that the production department in that industry is a key component because it's where the final product is created and also is where the production goals are reached.
- Tenure: The employee has to have at least 2 years of experience working on the production department. The criterion of the 2 years was set based on the fact that a person with that time on a department has plenty knowledge of the work system and can give a better perspective of how to handle the work stress situations on the production department.

In this study, the participants were selected using a snowball sampling. The profile of the 7 participants is explained on the following table:

Table 1. Research Participants

Employee Code	Gender	Tenure-working experience	Position at production area	Maquila Industry sector
A	F	6 years	Quality Engineer	Car parts (harness)- electronic components
B	F	7 years	Production Control	Car parts (harness)- electronic components
C	M	7 years	Six/Sigma improvement	Car parts (harness)- electronic components
D	M	7 years	Engineer Coordinator	Car parts (harness)- electronic components
E	F	5.5 years	Quality Coordinator	Car parts (harness)- electronic components
F	M	10 years	Chief supply	Textile
G	M	12 years	Chemical Engineer	Textile

3.3 Data Collection

A semi structure interview was used to collect the necessary data for the study. The interviews were done to the Honduran employees via Skype. The process for the interviews was the following:

- First, an e-mail was send to the potential participants explaining to them the different aspects of the research for example the objectives and the purpose of the project.
- Second, once that they confirm their participation, it was set an appointment to meet them on Skype in order to conduct the interview.

3.4 Data Analysis

The seven interviews were conducted via Skype and all of them were recorded with the permission of the participants. Therefore, later all the interviews were transcript. In addition, the interviewer had notes from each interview which also, were used in the data analysis process. On the other hand, based on the literature review the following model has been adapted from Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman and Phillips (1990), which shows the process that a person faces when he/she experiments any situation under stress. This model (Figure 1) was used as the framework to analyze the data collected.

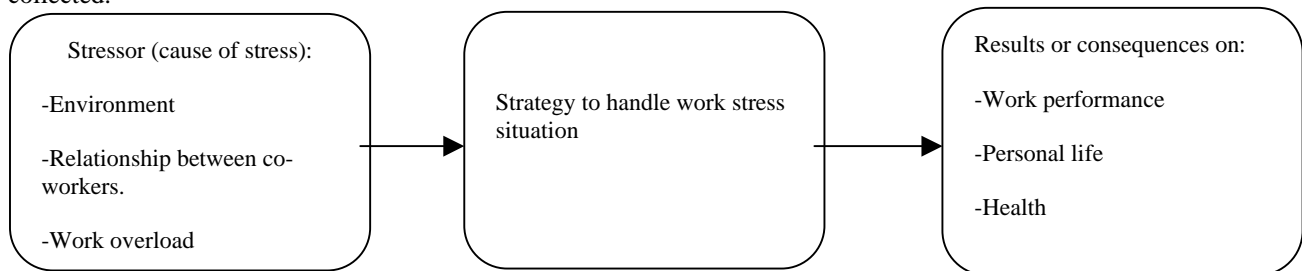


Figure 1. Work stress model. Adapted from “Worksite Stress Management Interventions,” by Ivancevich, Matteson, Freedman, and Phillips. 1990, *American Psychologist*, 45(2), p. 252-261.

Hence, based on this all the data collected was classify in three main categories stressor, strategy to handle work stress situation and results or consequences of the work stress.

4. Findings and Discussion

Using as a base the data analysis, the findings were analyzed using as guide the Work Stress model. As a result the findings of this study are composed by three main categories: 1) stressor (cause of stress), 2) strategy to handle work stress situation and 3) results or consequences of the work stress. In addition, these three main categories are also divided in diverse sub categories. Below on the next part, all the categories mentioned above will be explain more in detail.

4.1 Stressor (cause of stress)

4.1.1 Environment

In this research the term environment refers to the perception that the employees have of their work place environment. In other words, the environment is how they define the work atmosphere that they perceive at their work place in this case the production plant. The environment in the workplace was defined by the interviews as a stressful and heavy environment. They attribute this atmosphere to two causes: a) the industry work rhythm and client changes and b) the expectations and demands that they have to meet.

a. The industry work rhythm and client changes

In this section the participants mentioned that the stress on the work environment is cause more for fast work rhythm that the industry manages. Therefore, the environment is really heavy accompanied by pressure and all the things move really fast. The type of work rhythm is caused by the constantly changes that the production plants face due to the client requirements. Employee C mentioned in detail about the harness industry:

I think that the stress is because of the industry, it’s really changing. The client changes constantly and is asking us to adapt to the speed and times that they manage. Thus, I think that way of working is what generates that in the plant you can breathe the environment of working under pressure or stress if you want to call it that way.

In addition, employee D made a clear reference that the stressful environment and high work rhythm on the production plant are caused by the constant changes of the client. She relates:

The work environment is really stressful because we have a client that changes the requirements without any announcement. In here the work rhythm is really fast and stressful. My work is the best school to work under pressure. The pressure is not from a boss is from the client.

b. The expectations and demands that they have to meet

The middle managers in this industry at the production plants have a lot of pressure because everybody has high expectations in their jobs due the fact that they have high responsibilities more than basic level employees. All of them

work at key tasks, for example: planning production lines, coordinators on control of quality in the plant and chief of supplies for the productions process; just to mention a few work responsibilities that the some of the interviewed manage. As result they also, have high work demands from the rest of the staff in the production plant. Employees B and D mentioned about how the expectations and high work demands affect the work environment turning it into a stressful atmosphere. Employee B mentioned more in detail about this:

Umm actually the work environment influences but they have always tell us that the harness industry is really stressful and actually where we work the expectations are high every work position has high demands.

In order to support this same conception the employee D shared his similar opinion on this fact:

The work on the production department has a really hard rhythm, so many things to do at the same time and everything is important; also there is no excuse you have to do everything when is needed. The word urgent is like a religion.

4.1.2 Relationship between co-workers

For all the participants the relationship with their closes it co workers was good and stable but one factor that caused stress on them is the relationship with other areas of the production department. The relationship with the other areas of the production plant is affected by conflicts that are generated by the pressure, expectations, attitudes, opinions and demands of the people around them. In fact, most all of them mentioned that their relationship with the people that work at the production line area was not the best and that the conflicts with them usually will make them feel uncomfortable and stressed out. Regarding this situation the employee D relates:

The thing that I don't like is dealing with the people of production area because they are kind of complicated, because instead of working as a team looking for the solutions all they do its look for somebody to blame on when things go wrong. So, the interaction with them stress me out because is really complicated.

In addition, employee D supports the same idea regarding the relation with other areas. In here she relates it:

Another, scenario that makes me feel a lot stress, too are the conflicts inside the production plant. It makes me feel stress that the people are not committed or respects the quality procedures.

Furthermore, the employee A,B,C,D,F and G mentioned that they actually need to handle the pressure that the people around them cause and which makes them feel stress and uncomfortable. Moreover, another factor that cause stress on this relationship is the expectations that people put on them. .Employee D made reference to this:

It's a job that when you do things right nobody says anything; you still didn't do anything right but, if you do something wrong everybody talks about it and you still did it wrong again. Moreover, you have to give explanations of what happen to everybody and that is pretty uncomfortable.

4.1.3 Work overload

As Otto and Schmidt (2007) mentioned on their research that the stress in the workplace can be caused by job content that includes the work load. Therefore, in this research was also, examined the amount of work that the employees have in their positions. The findings vary because some of the employees are having constant workload right now, others have workload but it's not constant and on the other hand one of the interviewees mentioned that is not facing work load right now. The employees G, E, C and B mentioned that they are facing work overload on their positions right now. This work overload according to what they said is due to the fact that they have a lot of responsibilities on their own. For example, employee E relates:

I feel work overload, because I have a lot of responsibilities and I am in charge of different areas and I do not have somebody that assists me on my tasks or support me, which means that all the load goes only over me.

On the other hand, there were two employees: F and D that mentioned that they have work overload but it is not constant. Hence, they only face by different moments or stages at their jobs. Employee F shared his actual situation:

By moments I feel work overload because the company is going through a stage of cost-saving. Hence, right now I'm doing the work of 2 positions (two jobs). This means that now I have more responsibilities than before.

In contrast one of the participants mentioned that at this moment she is not facing work overload. Employee A state the following:

Right now, I don't feel overload, I'm in expectation because we have a new program so were waiting and hoping that we will not receive any client complain on the pieces. Apart from that, the work is normal and my schedule is ok, I am not staying overtime.

4. 2 Strategy to handle work stress situation

The employees do not have a specific technique to handle work stress situation, but still they have their different ways of handling these types of situations with the objective to get the accomplishment of their responsibilities. These strategies have been divided in three sub categories: 1) not get desperate and keep head cold, 2) find a way to relax and shared their feelings with co workers and 3) focus on their commitment toward the organization.

4.2.1 Not get desperate and keep head cold

The employees mentioned that one important thing is not get desperate and keep their head cold because this helps them to get concentrated and as a result they will be able to accomplish their responsibilities successfully. Firstly, the employees A, B, C, D and E mentioned that what they do is too keep their heads cold in order to get the concentration that they need. Hence, this allows them to keep moving with their tasks. Employee D mentioned:

In order to handle those situations what I do is to try to not get desperate and calm down because otherwise the people that are around you will also get desperate and that's not good for the work , so you have to keep a mask and pretend that you're ok even though inside you're not. You have to keep cold head and not fall apart.

Also, the employee A shared that she tries not to get desperate when she is under pressure. She commented: I try to concentrate because I do not have too much time to think and make me feel more nervous. So, what I do is to act immediately.

4.2.2 Find a way to relax and shared their feelings with their co workers

Another way that the employees mentioned to handle the work stress situations is to try to relax and also, communicate and shared all the feelings and situations with their co workers. These help them to handle the situation under pressure at work. Regarding this, employee G mentioned that in order to handle the work stress situations, he always looks to get concentrate but to get it, he first finds a way to relax and also, he mentioned that motivate his team it's really important to get the work done in their area. He relates:

I find a way to relax me and the rest of the team. Also, I try to motivate them that part the company doesn't pay it to me but I have to be like a psychologist. To relax what I do is that we have a TV on the office; so what I do is take some movies, games or invite them to eat outside; the most important thing is to do something different in order to make them feel relax. This helps us to stop for a while and then come back with a fresh mind.

Moreover, the employee F pointed out that he does not have a specific technique but there are two things he does. Firstly, he and his team use the break time to take all the stress out talking with each other. Also, the other thing he does is to start from the most important task. He related:

During those stress situations we use the break time during breakfast and lunch; that time we use it take everything out. We use it to criticize everything. On the break we take everything out. Another thing I do is to start with the most important things and focus on what I can resolve.

4.2.3 Focus on their commitment toward the organization

The employees G and B also, mentioned that the importance of their positions for the organization and also, the commitment that they feel toward the company helps them to handle the situations where they have a lot of work demands and stress. As result this leads them to keep moving and get their work done. Regarding this the employee G stated the following:

I channel the entire work load thinking that our position in the company is really important; that help me to not lose my way or control of the situations.

The employee B mentioned the following regarding her commitment to the organization:

I want to get things done which is a personal demand; besides, the position requires a lot of me. Also, I have work commitment, actually I feel committed to the organization.

4.3 Results or consequences

The work stress has different consequences for the employees. Hence, has an effect on their work performance, personal life and health.

4.3.1 Work performance

All the participants except employee B affirmed that the stress affects their performance in the organization. They mentioned that the stress affects their motivation to perform, increases the probability to make mistakes and opportunities of improvement for the company are missed. Therefore, the stress eventually can lead to organizations to have different types of lost in terms of results.

The employees D and F mentioned that the stress affect their performance from the fact that they lose motivation to do their responsibilities at their positions. Employee D relates:

I think it affects because you do not feel motivated, you do things because you have to, you only do your work responsibilities and also you do not give any extra effort. If I was more motivated my performance could be better. I just do the thing that is my responsibility because it is my job and they pay me for doing it.

On the other hand employee A mentioned that the stress can affect the way she performs her work activities. She stated the following regarding the effect that stress has on her performance:

It affects because when you are under stress you do not think clearly especially here where you have to see all the possible failure modes and if one is tense, you can overlook things that were important.

Moreover, employee E states that stress affects her job because she misses the opportunity to see different improvements that can be implemented on the plant and also in the relationship with the clients. She relates:

It affects, because I can't see more than the everyday activities. Many opportunities of improvement pass away because I am really focus on the everyday tasks, so I do not have time to see more in deep into the future. Also, opportunities with the client are missed to. We do not have time and that makes us be in constant stress.

In contrast the employee B state that the work stress does not affect her performance at work but can affect the way she interacts with others. She mentioned:

I do not think that affects me a lot, it can affect me because I get into bad mood so I am not that kind but besides that, I think I can handle it because it is not like I am going to block myself, I always complete my tasks.

4.3.2 Personal life

In this part of the effects of stress in their personal life's, the result vary a lot due to the fact that only the employees D and E think that the work stress affects their personal life. On contrast, the other employees mentioned that they disconnect themselves from the work problems once they reach home. Hence for them has not any effect on it.

The employee D says that due the large number of hour that he spends at the workplace this ends up having on effect on his personal life. He stated:

I also believe it affects because you spend on your work 10 hours at day so you're on a bad mood, depress and affects the way you see life and some other things.

In contrast the other employees said that they try to not take the work problems to their home. Therefore, they do everything to disconnect from it once they are out of the plant. Employee F for example relates:

I think it does not because I try in what is possible that once I get out of my job I forget that I work. I try not to talk that much or nothing about my job with my family or the people that is close to me.

4.3.3 Health

All the participants stated that the stress at the work place has affected their health. The most mentioned effects are headache and migraine. The illnesses that were only stated by one of the participants were: high blood pressure, gastritis, insomnia accompanied by sleepwalking and depression. For example the employee C mentioned that when he is under pressure he gets insomnia and becomes a sleepwalker. So, the stress comes out, while he is sleeping. He relates:

I am sleepwalker when I am under pressure. So, when I am with a lot activities and pressure in the night I can't sleep and I walk while I am sleeping, things like that and it happens to me often when I am under pressure.

In contrast the employee F commented that stress has affect his life a lot because he developed high blood pressure and he has been under medication in order to control it . He declared:

Actually, I have had a lot of problem with the high blood pressure because of the stress; I was on treatment last year taking medication for it. It has affected my health.

4.4 Discussion

This paper contributes to achieve a better understanding of the real situation regarding work stress that middle level managers face in the Maquila Industry at Honduras. It does conclude that these employees are experimenting stress in their workplace and that the major causes of it in the production plants are: firstly, the environment in the workplace which they define as a stressful and heavy environment. This type of environment is caused by to two major causes: 1) the Maquila industry high work rhythm and client changes and 2) the expectations and demands that they have to meet. Secondly, the relationship with the employees of the other areas of the production department was something that all of them agree and it seems that the conflicts inside the plant show a significant effect and are major source of stress for these managers. Another stressor that was analyzed was the workload but for this aspect the results vary because some of them face workload constantly, others have it but not permanently and finally only one of the seven interviews does not have work load at this moment. However, still it can be conclude that the work rhythm is high and that the amount of work that these middle level managers have is high. These results agree with the findings of the study conducted by Ledesma, Pulido and Villegas, (2009) where the women that work at the basic level in this industry at Honduras showed as a result that they face different work demands and also have an intense work rhythm. Due to this fact 84% of the women in that study faced high stress levels. Moreover, the results showed three major stressors: environment, relationship between co-workers and the workload, this has a relationship with the study done by Otto and Schmidt, (2007) whose mentioned as stressors job content (work load and monotony at work), employment conditions (employment contract, job insecurity and shift work), working conditions (physically demanding work and poor working conditions) and social relations at work (mobbing experiences).

On the other hand, when it comes to the strategies to handle the work stress situations the employees actually did not have a specific way of handling these situations. They just tried to control their emotions in their own way. They mentioned three major ways to handle these situations: 1) Not get desperate and keep head cold, 2) Find a way to relax and shared their feelings with their co workers and 3) focus on their commitment toward the organization. One thing that is really important is that none of the participants mentioned any type of strategy or intervention of the organization to help the employees to handle these situations.

Therefore, it can be conclude that these organizations need some stress management interventions to help their employees to handle more properly these situations.

All the interviewees except employee B confirmed that the affected their performance in the organization. Regarding this it was mentioned that: they do not work with the same energy and disposition to make things right, the organization misses improvements in some areas and also, there is more probability to make failures because the stress affects their way of thinking. Therefore, the organizations in this industry need to put a lot of attention to the stress in the workplace because their employees do not work in the same way, they do not give a 100% in their activities and furthermore, opportunities of improvement are missed. This means that in long term the organizations performance and results can be affected. The findings of the consequences on work performance have a connection with the literature review of Schabracq and Cooper (2000) whose mentioned diverse costs that an organization might face as a result of having employees that are facing stress in the workplace. Between the costs that they mentioned are: reduced morale, defiance's in the quality of the products and services, bad communication, disagreements, lost of customers, bad image and publicity, high turnover rate and sick-leave cost for replacements and permanent vacancies.

On the other hand only two of the participants' employee D and E think that stress affects their personal life due to the large amount of hours that they spend in the production plant. The rest of the interviewees mentioned that they try to disconnect themselves once they finish their work and forget about any work issues at home. Hence, the majority do not think that the stress has any affect or consequence on their personal life.

In contrast, all the interviews have experiment health problems due to the stress in their workplaces. Different illnesses have been mentioned: headache, migraine, high blood pressure, gastritis, depression and insomnia accompanied by sleepwalking. These results are associated to the findings of the study by Ledesma, Pulido and Villegas (2009) where they also, show that the stress in the workplace have had consequences on the health of the women that work at the basic level of this industry.

5. Implications

This study has helped to gain a deep insight on the middle level manager's situation on the Maquila Industry in Honduras. In addition, can give a guideline to the organizations to make some improvements on different areas so, they can gain better results. In fact, based on the findings and discussion of this research it can be conclude that the stress is an important issue that should be considered by the companies in the Maquila Industry. Therefore, it can be recommended that they can implement stress management interventions in order to help the employees to handle these situations in a more proper way. In addition, according to the results the work performance is really affected by stress in the work place, hence more research could be done on this area in order to find more solutions and gain some improvement.

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Comparing the work values of two generational cohorts: A case of St. Lucian workers

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Abstract

Work values are an essential component in the quest to understand employees' work related motivation and behavior. Work values are said to be influenced by a variety of factors including generational or cohort membership. This qualitative study compared the work values and expectations of two generational cohorts to ascertain whether differences existed. The findings revealed that there are differences in the work values held by the two groups of participants. However, these differences cannot be solely attributed to generational cohort membership.

Keywords: work value, generational difference, St. Lucia, qualitative method

1. Introduction

Today's workplace is more diverse than ever before. Older workers are delaying retirement, while younger workers are entering the workforce (Walmsley, 2007). Scholars have suggested that work values vary across different generations and that these values have a strong influence over employees' work behavior and as a result, affect organizational practices (Warr, 2008). St. Lucia's organizations are a reflection of this global trend. Every year hundreds of young workers enter a workforce that is already populated by members of previous generations. Differing work values is an issue worthy of consideration since this affects employees' attitude and consequently behavior.

St. Lucia is a small country of 620 km² with a population of approximately 175,000. Human resource is vital to a developing country such as this. The major industry is tourism and in this industry people are a vital asset. In order for the economy to develop, the workforce must be sustained and maintained. Therefore, it is important for the new generation of workers to have values and attitudes that will sustain and boost economic development. Work values and generational differences have implications for organizations with regard to leadership, selecting/retaining employees and intergenerational interaction (Walmsley, 2007). Thus, it is important for employers and policy makers to be aware of or attuned to the values of new generation workers so that they can plan accordingly. This type of research will constitute a drop in that bucket by illuminating the situation.

Although much research has been conducted in developed countries on intergenerational differences, there are still lots of uncharted territory with regard to developing countries. The existence of different generations and their characteristics are well documented in countries such as the United States, Britain and Australia. However, literature is lacking on other parts of the world. Therefore in defining the various generational cohorts one must take it for granted that the information gathered in the United States and other developed countries are generalizable and the situation is the same or similar in other countries. However, one has to wonder whether this is an accurate assumption since in some countries the social reality is vastly different from that of the United States and the rest of the developed world. In light of this situation, the focus of this exploration is not on characterizing generational differences but on identifying if a difference exists regarding work values. Moreover, the term Generation Y is used not to imply the characteristics associated with that cohort but simply to help distinguish one group of participants from another.

The purpose of this study is to explore the idea that the work values and expectations of generation Y are different from that of previous generations. Two research questions guided the study:

1. Are there differences in the work values held by members of different generational cohorts?
2. Are the expectations (regarding work) of generation Y different from that of other/previous generations?

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2. Literature Review

2.1 Generational differences

Most researchers agree that generations and by extension generational differences exist and there is general consensus among academics in describing the various generations (Eisner, 2005). Each generational cohort (born in a certain era or time frame) witness similar events and share common experiences brought about by similar societal conditions. This leads to a common frame of reference contributes to similar values, beliefs, characteristics and behaviors (Wagner, 2007). Generational differences have been linked to variations in ideas, values, and behaviors (Ness, Melinsky, Buff & Seifert, 2010). Much research exploring various aspects of generational differences has been conducted.

However, some scholars (Macky, Gardner & Forsyth, 2008; Wagner, 2007) argue that generational membership does not singlehandedly explain differences in the various cohorts and that this variable is often confounded with other factors such as age, maturation, life cycle stages and personality (Macky et. al, 2008). In their article, Macky, Gardner and Forsyth (2008) point to studies whose results have disputed the concept of generational differences. Although they agree that generations do possess certain “commonalities”(p. 859).

Despite the limitations and noted reservations, most scholars still accept the following definitions and characteristics for mapping the composition of the current workforce. Born before 1945, traditionalists tend to remain with one company over a long period of time. They prefer traditional, hierarchical management structure and when in command they tend to take charge (Eisner, 2005). In a sense, traditionalists were well suited to the patriarchal organizations that existed in the past. The generation immediately after (1945-1964) commonly referred to as boomers are loyal and respect authority. They have a tendency to be materialistic, work long hours and when in charge tend to micro manage (Eisner, 2005). Boomers have amassed a vast amount of experience and have contributed tremendously to economic development. Their impending retirement is a source of concern for most organizations since they will be taking with them a wealth of knowledge and experience (Walmsley, 2007). Generation X (born between 1965-1977) is distinctly different from previous generations. Eisner (2005) described generation X as lacking loyalty and distrustful of corporations; they are individualistic, have strong technical ability and expect competent leadership. He attributed the differences to the era that generation X grew up, where organizations collapsed or were exposed for wrongdoing, causing generation X to believe that job security comes not from loyalty but with keeping skills current (Eisner, 2005).

Generation Y, also referred to as millennials or the internet Generation was born between 1980 and 1998, this is the most affluent generation having grown up with access to more goods, services and educational opportunities than their predecessors. They are ethnically diverse, very educated and civic minded (Eisner, 2005). Gen Y is most technically literate, skilled at multitasking, continually wired, plugged in and connected. It is estimated that generation Y on average consumes 31 hours of media a day (24-hours) (cited in Eisner, 2005). They expect work to be meaningful, expect to contribute to decisions and favor an inclusive style of management. Generation Y wants to strike a good work life balance. Making lots of money is less important to them than previous generations. More importantly, Gen Y is more mobile than their counterparts and has their pick of jobs not just in any one national market but in international arenas as well (Walmsely, 2007). Clearly, this body of research points to the existence of differences in work values, attitudes and expectations, which is the focus of this research.

2.2 Expectations

Expectations refer to the conditions an individual presumes will exist in the work/organizational setting. Expectations, in other words, are what (condition or otherwise) a person takes for granted that he/she will encounter at work. Expectations are important to the extent that they influence employees' level of satisfaction (Nicolaidis, 2002). If expectations are met then employees are very satisfied. If they are not then this may lead to some dissatisfaction. Expectations provide insights into workers' motivation and psyche (Nicolaidis, 2002). Moreover, expectations are influenced by values.

2.3 Work values

Values are defined as “desirable states, objects, goals, or behaviors, transcending specific situations and applied as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behavior” (Busacca, Beebe and Toman, 2010, p.3). Busacca, et. al. (2010) described values as an important determinant of human behavior, playing a role in the establishment of personal goals and work-related motivations. They also found values to be empirically linked to organizational behavior, academic performance, career decision making, marital satisfaction, and various demographic variables. Work values emerge when general values are projected onto the domain of work. They govern the contexts of work, vocational and occupational (Busacca et. al, 2010).

Work values “refer to what a person wants out of work in general and also which components of a job are important to their work satisfaction” (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007, p.359). Ordered by importance, work values serve as guiding principles for evaluating work outcomes and settings and for choosing among work alternatives (Ros et. al, 1999). These values represent relatively stable goals that people attempt to reach through their participation in work. Therefore, work values directly influence an individual’s work behavior. Looking for a job, taking part in training, changing jobs and balancing work and family all depend more on work values than on general values (Busacca et. al, 2010). Studies have supported the idea that values, and by extension work values, are learned during formative years and remain fairly consistent over the course of a person’s life (Parry & Urvin, 2011). This is an important consideration when examining individuals’ work values.

Much attention has been given to measuring and documenting the work values of various groups including students, managers, nurses, engineers, generations (Barnes, 2003; De Cooman, Gieter, Pepermans, DuBois, Caers & Jegers, 2008; Frieze, Olson, Murrell & Selvan, 2006; Nejati, Salamzadeh & Farzad, 2010; Zhang, Wang, Yang & Teng, 2007). Inevitably, it was realized that work values are by no means homogeneous and vary among individuals as well as with groups. This is because, at any one point in time, a person can be placed into different groups or categories based on gender, age, culture, occupation, socioeconomic status, generational cohort and educational background among others. Due to varied group membership and consequently varied influences, a person may develop several layers of or variations in values (Nejati et.al, 2010).

In his article, Work Values: Some demographic and cultural correlates, Peter Warr (2008) highlighted some of the variables that may influence work values. These are culture and the demographic variables: gender, education and age. Similarly, Nejati, Salamzadeh and Farzad (2010) examined the influence of four demographic variables, namely, age, gender, education, position, and work experience on five work values. It was found that all of these exert some influence over work values. Moreover, different variables exerted influence over different values.

2.4 Measuring work values

Super’s Work Values Inventory (Super, 1970) is commonly used by researchers (Barnes, 2003; Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007; Zytowski, 1994) and is considered to be one of the most effective measures of work values (Zytowski, 1994). Super (1970) proposed the existence of 15 work values. These are as follows: altruism, security, aesthetics, surroundings, creativity, supervisory relations, intellectual stimulation, associates, independence, variety, management, way of life, achievement, prestige and economic returns. Table 1 defines the 15 work values.

Table 1 Super’s work values defined

Work Value	Definition
Altruism	a work value present in work enabling one to contribute to the welfare of others
Esthetic	a value inherent which permits one to make beautiful things and to contribute beauty to the world
Creativity	a value associated with work which permits one to invent new things, design new products or develop new ideas
Intellectual stimulation	associated with work which provides opportunities for independent thinking and for learning how and why things work
Achievement	a value associated with work which gives one a feeling of accomplishment in doing a job well.
Independence	associated with work which permits one to work in his own way, as slowly or as fast as he wishes
Prestige	associated with work which gives one standing in the eyes of others and evokes respect
Management	associated with work which permits one to plan and lay out work for others
Surroundings	a value associated with work which is carried out under pleasant conditions, environmental in nature
Economic returns	a value or goal associated with work which pays well and enables one to have the things he wants
Security	a value of goal associated with work which provides one with the certainty of having a job even in hard times

Table 1 (continued)

Work Value	Definition
Supervisory relations	a value associated with work which is carried out under a supervisor who is fair and with whom one can get along
Associates	a value characterized by work which brings one into contact with fellow workers whom he likes

Way of life	associated with the kind of work that permits one to live the kind of life he chooses and to be the type of person he wants to be
Variety	associated with work that provides the opportunity to do different types of jobs

Note. Adapted from Grace, 1974.

3. Methodology and Sampling

The major purpose of this study is to explore the idea that the work values and expectations of generation Y are different from that of other/previous generations. To achieve this, ten semi-structured interviews were conducted. Five of the interviewees were from generation Y and five were from previous generations. The age difference is important because the aim is to make a comparison and so a large age difference (15 – 20 years) is most likely to reveal differences if they exist.

The sampling procedure used was purposive and snowball sampling. Our first author used facebook to search for and contact past students. The profiles of her current facebook contacts were also perused to identify potential participants. The participants are employed in both the public and private sector, from different industries and employed in different jobs. Their educational background is also varied. The minimum qualification is a tertiary level Diploma and the highest a Bachelors degree. Generation Y participants were chosen because they have had at least three years of work experience(part time and full time) and have worked in at least two different organizations. It is believed that three years is sufficient time for them to formulate concrete values and expectations. Also if they have had experience in at least two organizations then these values and expectations are likely to be more realistic. The participants from previous generations were chosen based on their age (early 40's to mid 50's). This group of participants was also required to have varied work experience.

The semi-structured interviews were conducted over the internet using one of the following video call supporting programs: Skype, MSN messenger or Yahoo messenger. They were taped, transcribed and then analyzed. Interviews lasted no more than 45 minutes.

Donald E. Super's Inventory of Work Values (Super, 1970) was used as a guide in formulating questions intended to solicit responses that would reveal participant's work values. To answer the other research question, participants were asked what their expectations are of work. A list of fifteen questions (not including those asking for demographic information) was drawn up.

Table 2 provides descriptives of the sample. They are listed in the order in which they were interviewed.

Table 2 Features of the sample

No	Code	Age	Sex	Education	Work Experience	Work History
1	EVH	44	M	Advance Diploma	10	Government (2 different positions)
2	EJ	23	F	Diploma	5	OECS/SLASPA (Regional/Governmental Organizations)
3	RJ	50	F	Bachelors Degree	31	Over 5 private organizations, Government
4	HM	53	M	Bachelors Degree	20 plus	Government (different departments)
5	KJ	20	M	Diploma	1 yr FT/ 2 yrs PT	Government, NDC, Retail, Catering
6	LA	41	F	Bachelors Degree	20 plus	Government (different departments)
7	SG	25	F	Diploma	6	Government, Retail, Insurance
8	KO	22	M	Diploma	2 yrs FT/1 yr PT	Consolidated Foods Limited, Tourism
9	LM	48	F	Diploma	20 plus	Tax Consulting , Retail, Real Estate, Manufacturing
10	MS	24	F	Diploma	4 years	Telephone Company, Retail (part time)

Note: FT (Full time), PT (Part time)

This sample is representative of the situation in St. Lucia. Most of the sample either worked for government or is presently working for government. This is not unusual since the Government of St. Lucia is the largest employer (stats.gov.lc). Most people either begin their careers in public service or end up in the public service. Secondly, the younger generational cohort is representative of the real situation. It is customary for young people to work after they finish either high school (referred to as Secondary School) or a two year tertiary level education. Most of them work several years before going back to school for a Bachelors degree. Therefore, it is not difficult to find young people who meet the criteria stated in the methodology. There are more female participants than males. This too reflects the social reality in St. Lucia. There are more female students enrolled in tertiary level institutions than males (stats.gov.lc). There are more female public servants than male (stats.gov.lc). In essence there are more females employed in formal jobs

whereas males tend to dominate less formal (and to a certain extent more traditional) occupations such as construction, farming and entrepreneurship (stats.gov.lc).

4. Findings

4.1 Work values

Table 3 presents the top five value ranking of the sample. Participants are grouped according to age in descending order.

Table 3 Work value rankings of participants

N0.	Code	Age	Sex	Value Ranking
1	HM	53	M	Economic Returns, Prestige, Achievement, Security, Altruism
2	RJ	50	F	Economic Returns, Independence, Intellectual stimulation, Security, Supervisory Relations
3	LM	48	F	Security, Altruism, Associates, Economic returns, Way of life
4	EVH	44	M	Security, Economic returns, Independence, Associates, Altruism
5	LA	41	F	Security, Altruism, Economic returns, Way of life, Associates
6	SG	25	F	Security, Economic Returns, Altruism, Intellectual stimulation, Independence
7	MS	24	F	Security, Economic Returns, Achievement, Independence, Intellectual stimulation
8	EJ	23	F	Achievement, Intellectual stimulation, Supervisory Relations, Security, Economic returns
9	KO	22	M	Economic returns, Security, Associates, Independence, Way of life
10	KJ	20	M	Associates, Independence, Variety, Achievement, Creativity

4.1.1 Older cohort

The values of job security and economic returns rank high with this group of participants. In every situation these two were either ranked as top two or among the top four work values (see table 3). The issue of finance and fulfilling financial responsibility (mortgages and loans) as well as providing for oneself pervaded the responses of this group. In fact, they were willing to sacrifice other work values for security and pay. For example four out of the five participants stated that they could work in situations where their associates were not pleasing to work with. Also four of them stated that although they disliked routine they could cope with it. Even opportunities for promotion were considered less important since four of the participants said that they were willing to remain in a job that offered little chance of promotion. Three members of this cohort were willing to work at a job that pays well but affords little free time, at least for a certain period of time. Moreover, most of the members of this group cited money or increased pay and benefits as factors that would make them change their job for another. With regard to the work values of pay and security there seems to be no difference between male and female participants.

All members of this group expressed the idea that work provided a sense of personal satisfaction or purpose. Other values that were important to this group of participants are altruism, getting along with associates, independence and way of life. Only one member of the group ranked prestige and achievement among the top five. Similarly, only one member of this group stressed the importance of intellectually stimulating work.

4.1.2 Younger Cohort

Generally, economic returns and security were of less importance to this group of participants. Three members ranked these values among the top three. In one instance neither of these work values was ranked as top five. Unlike with older workers, this was not a theme that pervaded their responses. What did pervade their responses was the need for exploration, self development and advancement through work. All participants stated that they would not remain in a job that offered little chance of promotion. While this group seemed to value achievement through promotion, they were less preoccupied with prestige.

Younger cohort participants seemed unwilling to sacrifice routine for job security and economic returns. All of the participants were actively trying to break the routine of their jobs. One respondent, KJ (20), stated that he asked his supervisor to give him more responsibilities so that he didn't have to do the same thing all the time. MS (24) stated that she took opportunities to cross train in other departments as often as possible so that she could escape routine. Another, SG(25), stated that she "invent(s) ways to make it (her job) more fun and challenging". This is distinctly different from older workers who seem to accept routine as a necessary evil and learned to tolerate that aspect of the job, while younger workers are actively trying to escape it.

The factors that would make this group leave their job for another include improved work relations (2 respondents), more convenience due to location (2 respondents), promotion, more flexibility and improved working conditions. Unlike with previous generation participants, increased pay and benefits was not among the popular responses. Independence and intellectual stimulation ranked high with this group. Out of the six participants who ranked independence as a top five work value, four of them were from the younger cohort. Similarly, out of the four participants who ranked intellectual stimulation among top five, three were from this group.

Altruism didn't seem to be an important work value to younger generation participants. In fact, several of them confused altruism with the concept of customer satisfaction. One respondent, MS (24), when asked if it is important for her work to help or benefit people, simply stated that her company relied on people for revenue. Clearly she didn't have a strongly developed sense of what true altruism is. Another respondent, KJ (20), stated that work meant providing a product or service for reward. There seems to be little conceptualization of the idea that work can make a real difference in other people's lives or that work can contribute to the greater good. KO (22) answered the question "Is it important for your work to help/benefit/serve people?" by saying simply "I don't think so". All but one participant (the eldest of the group) ranked altruism as a top five work value.

This is very different with older generation workers. Four of the five ranked altruism as a top five work value. Moreover, their responses indicated that they seem to truly understand the meaning of altruism. For example, one respondent, EVH (40), said that his work led to the betterment of other people's lives. He also stated that it was important for him to "impact people's lives". RJ (50) stated that she was "trying to make a difference ... and contribute to the betterment of society". Similar sentiments were expressed by other participants from the previous generation cohort.

4.2 Expectations

The second research question dealt with the expectations of the two generational cohorts with regard to work. Tables 4 and 5 provide an overview of the responses to questions 14 and 15.

Table 4 Response to question 14: "What do you expect from your organization?"

Themes	Frequency of Mention	
	Older Generation Cohort	Younger Generation Cohort
Respect and recognition	4	3
Team work and collaboration	2	2
Competent management	2	3
Fairness and ethical practices	4	1
Good working conditions	2	0

Table 5 Responses to Q15: "If you could change or modify your organization, what changes would you make?"

Themes	Frequency of Mention	
	Older Generation Cohort	Younger Generation Cohort
Improve compensation practices	1	2
Reduce bureaucracy	2	0
Improve infrastructure	2	1
Improve operational effectiveness	4	3
Improve leadership	4	3

4.2.1 Older cohort

Expectations fall under five major themes. Both generational cohorts had similar expectations. However, with the older generational cohort, they communicated more expectations. Most older generation workers expect respect and recognition as well as fairness and ethical practices. The three others were of less importance. The changes that they would like to take place in organizations also reflect their expectations since improved effectiveness and leadership would translate into respect and recognition as well as fairness and ethical practices. This group of participants seemed satisfied with compensation practices since only one participant suggested this change. Older workers also gave more responses to this question.

4.2.2 Younger cohort

Overall, this group communicated less expectations and proposed fewer changes. Respect and recognition as well as competent leadership were the most popular responses. This is different from the older group where most of them expect fairness and ethical practices rather than competent leadership. The proposed changes were very similar to that of the older generational cohort. Most respondents suggested improved organizational effectiveness and leadership.

5. Conclusions

An examination of the findings led to several conclusions. First of all, some work values seem more dependent on other factors rather than generational cohort membership. All older generation workers trumpeted the importance of economic returns and security, while three younger generation workers cited these as important to them as well. This suggests that the need for security and financial gain may be dependent on a person's life experiences and possibly socioeconomic status. All three of the generation Y respondents who held economic returns and financial security as very important suggested that they were from a lower socioeconomic status. One, MS (24), pointed out that she wanted to be "independent" and wanted to no longer "rely on her mother". This suggests that providing for her was somewhat burdensome for her mother and so through work she is achieving financial independence. Another, KO(22), expressed the same sentiments saying that he wanted to be his "own independent person" and that he wanted to be able to afford "the basic necessities". Another participant, SG(25), revealed that she was a single mother and was working to provide for her daughter. All of these examples suggest that socioeconomic status and life experiences influence the work values of security and economic returns more than generational membership.

Moreover, one can attribute this need for security and financial benefit as an effect of maturation or life cycle. Older workers, because of their life cycle stage, have more responsibilities (mortgages, loans, and family) and so they value security and pay while younger workers, who have less responsibility, are less concerned with security and pay. Therefore the factors of socioeconomic status, life experience as well as maturation and life cycle may exert greater influence on the work values of security and economic returns.

Some work values may be influenced by generational cohort membership. That certainly seems to be the case with the work value of altruism. In fact, based on the findings of the study, this is the only work value which can be clearly attributed to generational cohort membership. Although it can be argued that generational cohort membership affects work values only because of the age/maturation difference among different generations (Parry, 2011). There also seems to be a difference in how the different generational cohorts deal with work related issues as is the case with routine. Older cohort workers accepted and justified routine while younger workers were actively avoiding it. This may prove to be an important finding, which warrants further investigation.

According to the findings, there seem to be no difference in the work values held by males and females. This is unusual since most of the literature cite gender as one of the demographic variables that influence work values. However in this case, there is no clear indication that work values differ based on gender. This is not to say that there is no difference, perhaps a larger sample is necessary to reveal such patterns.

With regard to expectations, no clear pattern of differences emerged. The fact that the proposed changes were the same for both generational cohorts suggests that certain problems (operational effectiveness and leadership) are common to the organizations in which the respondents work and for this reason most employees proposed improvement in these areas.

The research questions were answered. In response to the first question, there are differences in the work values held by the members of the two generational cohorts. However, the differences in work values cannot solely be explained by generation cohort membership. In response to the second question, the expectations of generation Y are not significantly different from that of previous generations.

The conclusions stated above are based on the findings of this study. These results are not generalizable since the population used is small. A more in-depth, perhaps quantitative, study may provide more insight into some of the issues identified (gender differences, generational differences). The findings also suggest that younger workers deal with unpleasant work issues differently from older workers and this could be an avenue to be explored with further study.

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The Impact of Intellectual Capital and Sustainability on Taiwan MICE Industry

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Abstract

Intellectual capital is the most important knowledge assets to organization and its sustainability, according to scholars like Dr. Peter Drucker and Mr. Sveiby. With Taiwan's prospects entrench deeper into knowledge based economy, the need for intellectual capital increases, and the knowledge in existence and in creation are primarily embedded within human resource. Therefore, examining intellectual knowledge and sustainability is suitable study for Taiwan MICE Industry average sales growth.

MICE has been acknowledged for its fiscal prosperity. Noticing its great correlative prospects, Asian countries have started constructing for their MICE. Taiwan is also under the spot light building its market. Although with years of experiences organizing and performing the tasks, MICE significance has not been perceived until recently. The industry is at developmental stage searching for greater intellectual knowledge and embracing for more resources input to expand and sustain. The researchers are prompted into investigating for the intellectual capital sustainability of Taiwan MICE.

Quantitative method was conducted with 163 valid responses. Multiple regression was used for analysis. Results showed high Cronbach alpha on construct validity, and high R-square indicated model sustainability. Significances were identified for intellectual capital and continuation on average sales growth.

Keywords: Intellectual Capital, Intellectual Knowledge, Taiwan MICE Industry, Average Sales Growth. .

1. Introduction

Intellectual capital is the most important knowledge assets to organization and its sustainability, according to scholars like Dr. Peter Drucker and Mr. Sveiby (Drucker, 1999, Winter; Sveiby, 1997). With Taiwan's prospects entrench deeper into knowledge based economy, according to the World Trade Organization (WTO, 2010), the need for intellectual capital (HC) and its maintenance increases. The knowledge in existence and in creation through intellectual capital are primarily embedded within human resource (HR) aspects, while people have been identified to be the most important resource by experts, economists, and academia (Drucker, 1999, Winter; Sveiby, 1997) makes intellectual knowledge an important research topic relevant to continuity. Therefore, to succeed and uphold, examining the intellectual knowledge and cultivation for human resource growth build the ground work suitable for Taiwan's current economic status and future development.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

Both the private sector and public have been working diligently on aiming for stronger innovative knowledge and technological advancement for long term preservation (Executive Branch of Taiwan, 2010). To further amplify Taiwan's intellectual capital assets and sustainability, the researchers have selected an industry, MICE, which is knowledge intensive with long lasting sustention and great potential to Taiwan's economy for investigation (Lin, 2011; TAITRA, 2010).

1.2 Significance of the Study

Meeting, incentive, convention, and exhibition (MICE) industry has been acknowledged for its sustainable fiscal prosperity by the developed countries, such as Germany and the United States of America, as well as some of the developing nations (Lin, 2011; TAITRA, 2010). The great correlative prospective of MICE with ever growing trait incited Asian countries to invest huge amount of resources constructing their MICE while striving to take a stand at international stage of MICE competition (ICCA, 2010). Taiwan is also under the spot light working on building its MICE market. Although with years of practices organizing and performing the tasks, MICE impact has not been remarkably recognized until recently. The industry is still at its developmental stage searching for greater intellectual knowledge to help on expansion, and embracing for more resources input to sustain, based on Taiwan Ministry of Economic Affairs (MOEA R.O.C, 2011).

Taiwan MICE has the potential for exponential growth, as a distinctive quality of the MICE, along the value chain with the other correlated industries (i.e. hotel and restaurants, tourism, transportation, import and export), noted by Executive Branch of Taiwan and the International Congress and Convention Association (Executive Branch of Taiwan, 2010; ICCA, 2010). With this industry's rising importance to Taiwan economy increasingly noticed, the shortage of academic study on Taiwan MICE Industry also prompted the researchers to explore the industry continuity and knowledge extension of this newer field with enduring strengthen of the past and that of the future (Lin, 2011).

1.3 Questions of the Study

To add to Taiwan's intellectual capital study and to look at sustainability influence regarding MICE, this study proposes to examine the impact of intellectual capital and sustainability on Taiwan MICE Industry average sales growth in recent five years.

2. Literature Review

Sustainability could be explained as maintenance, endurance, prolonged status, or other meanings pertain to continuity, as the terms are used interchangeably throughout this paper. To sustain and prevail, intellectual knowledge production and support is necessary for organization, and putting the correlated organizations together form an industry, such as MICE Industry. Table 2.1 lists out the intellectual capital definitions compiled by Lin (2011).

Table 2.1 Defining intellectual capital (Lin, 2011).

Author	Year	Definition
Drucker	1999	IC is demonstrated by human resources' intangible qualities that may be converted into value, with primary emphasis on knowledge, experience, and

		relevancy that may be applied systematically and in organized manner for innovation.
Edvinsson and Sullivan	1996	IC is an invaluable asset that can be converted into resources, physical and non-physical.
Brooking	1997	IC involves human capital, customer capital and structural capital
Ulrich	1998	IC = competence x commitment. The equation indicates the content of IC; however, for organizations, competency may vary and may not guaranty the fluctuation of IC.
Debowski	2006	IC is the knowledge assets that can be created, stored, and converted, as it involves human capital, structural capital, organizational capital, and customer capital. The last two capitals are sometimes referring to as relational capitals.

2.1 Sustainability

“Sustainable development for business means ‘adopting business strategies and activities that meet the needs of the enterprise and its stakeholders today while protecting, sustaining, and enhancing the human and natural resources that will be needed in the future, ’” based on International Institute for Sustainable Development (1994) and Presbury & Edwards (2005). Presbury & Edwards (2005) also indicated that MICE sectors with criteria mentioned above, is forecasted to continue and expand in the future. Leo (2010) identified intellectual capital as vital knowledge and experience that contribute directly to firms’ bottom line. It is also very important to organization survival and sustainability, as intellectual capital embeds with employee, coincide with the researchers’ earlier statement that human resource being influential to organization and industry sustention. Leo (2010) further pointed to the retention of talents and employees’ recognition of preserving resources and commitment; as the efforts inputted generate profit prolong the life of company. For Alsagheer and Mohammed (2011), population, environment and entity, natural resources, and financial resources have to do with retention. In addition, they noted that sustainability is well explained by world commission on environment and development (1987) that continued advancement is development which matched the need of present without jeopardizing the capability of later generation to meet the needs of present. For them, Six Sigma is the value-added sustention for organization (Alsagheer & Mohammed, 2011). It is not a final outcome of processes, but continuation of searches on quality behavior to uphold (Fricker, 1998). While with different focus, sustainability may vary.

2.2 Taiwan MICE Industry Intellectual Capital Model

To identify the intellectual capital and sustainability effect on Taiwan MICE Industry average sales growth, this paper adopts its research model from Lin (2011) research framework; it was referenced and modified from Cabrita and Bontis (2008), Debowski (2006), and GAAP (2011) records. According to Cabrita & Bontis (2008), the intellectual capital consists of three components: human capital, structural capital, and relational capital. The human capital consists of experiences, education, cognition, and knowledge. The structural capital involves all the non-human assets within organization, such as management, process, procedure, information, and technology. The relational capital is defined as industry stakeholders that are related to organization or industry (Cabrita & Bontis, 2008). For Lin (2011), the human capital and relational capital are consistent with former research, but structural capital had been modified by incorporating Debowski (2006) concept of reliance on knowledge management system and technology. Simply put, the structural capital of Lin (2011) is different from Cabrita and Bontis (2008)

that it is predominantly knowledge based management and technology linking the traditional structure capital together with those of Cabrita and Bontis (2008). Knowledge management become the new structure component. This technological link with knowledge management tend to reflect the current status of IT based economy of Taiwan. For reduce the term complexity, the researchers continue to use the KMS and structure capital interchangeably for ease of reading. The IC model for Taiwan MICE Industry is stated consists of human capital (HC), knowledge management system (KMS) of structural capital (SC), and relational capital (RC). The KMS of structural capital is divided into two subcomponents of effective knowledge services (EKS), and successful sustainable knowledge services (SSKS). The relational capital contains the original Cabrita & Bontis (2008) characteristic of customer capital, competition capital, and industry stakeholder capital; as well as for the human capital, remain the same with Cabrita & Bontis (2008). The Taiwan MICE Industry Intellectual Capital adopted from (Lin, 2011) is listed in Figure 2.1

This research used the model and finding from (Lin, 2011) to explain the average sales growth in recent five years of intellectual capital and sustainability to Taiwan MICE Industry. It is noticed that there seemed to be insufficient amount of studies conducted that deal with the relevance problem empirically between academics and practices (Booker, Bontis, and Serenko, 2008). As this identified that to sustain average sales growth, intellectual capital applicability and effectiveness play crucial role for the long run.

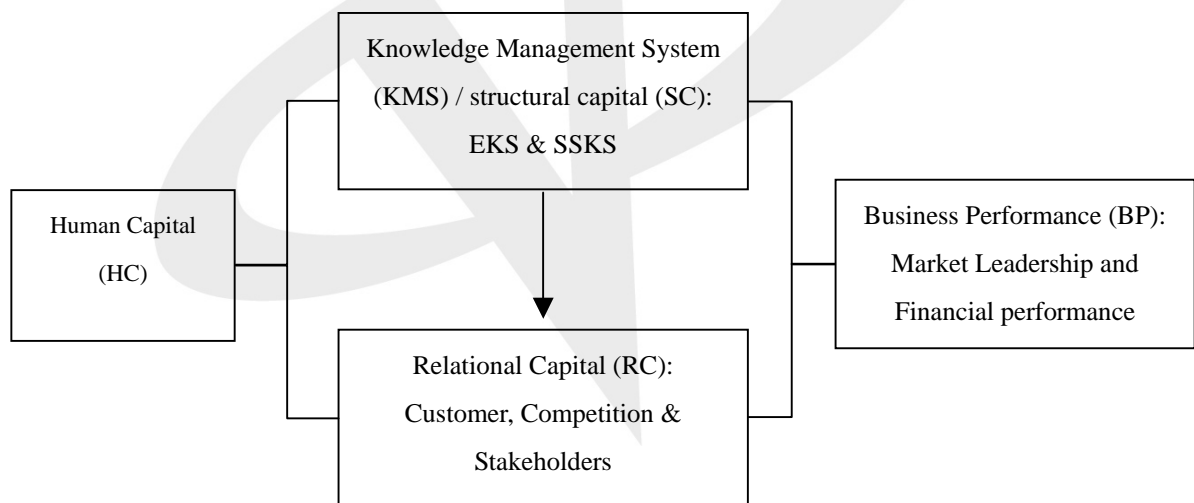


Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework of this study, adopted from (Lin, 2011).

3. Methodology

Quantitative approach of survey was used for this research, fifteen Taiwan MICE organizations participated, with 163 valid sample responses out of 181 received. The survey contained five parts: human capital, structural capital, relational capital, business performance and respondent demographic of seniority and job title. Participants were asked to fill out the survey based on their experiences of working in their entity. The first to the fourth parts

evaluate intellectual capital of the sampling company using a 5-point Likert Scale. (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). They are: Human Capital, which were coded as (HC or X) follow by numerical sequence; Effective Knowledge Services (EKS) and Successful & Sustainable Knowledge Services (SSKS) of KMS structural capital follow by numerical sequence; and Relational Capital, which were coded as (RCC= customer capital, RC= competition capital, RI=stakeholder capital) follow by numerical sequence.

The fourth part examined business performance (10 items), referenced from GAAP (2011). This paper only focuses on the Average Sales Growth in Recent 5 Years indicator to assess the sustainability impact. The fifth part asked about seniority and job title of demographic. The participants addressed their company's performance compared to their key competitors in the sector. The answer ranges from 1 to 5 (1 = my company performs the worst in the sector (bottom docile); 5 = my company performs the best in the sector (top docile)) of five options Liker format.

The questionnaire was first appraised by National Taiwan Normal University professors and field experts who are familiar with research methodology and Taiwan MICE Industry for face validity. Fourteen Taiwan MICE working professionals then participated in pilot test for consistency and validity before the actual survey. Cronbach alpha of the 163 valid sample came out as: 0.908 for Human Capital, 0.932 for Knowledge Management System (structural) Capital, and 0.900 for Relational Capital. The data was analyzed using multiple regressions, forward elimination. Table 4.1 presented a portion of the empirical finding from multiple regression result for Average Sales Growth in recent 5 Years of Taiwan MICE from the original table shown in Lin (2011). It is assessed that intellectual capital has impact on Taiwan MICE, when components and subcomponents are evaluated separately against Taiwan MICE organizations' average sales growth in recent five years.

4. Multiple Regression Finding and Discussion (Lin, 2010)

Table 4.1 Multiple regression table showing, a portion of the original, Average Sales Growth in Recent 5 Years indicator. Source from Lin (2011) study.

Multiple Regression				
		Average Sales Growth Recent 5 Years		
Variable:	Human Capital	Beta	t	Sig
Y41	Performance			
	HC7	.388	4.417	.000***
	R ²			0.965
Multiple Regression: Structural Capital				
		Average Sales Growth Recent 5 Years		
Variable:	Effective Knowledge Services	Beta	t	Sig
Y41	Performance			
	EKS11	.209	2.557	.011**
	R ²			0.963
Multiple Regression: Structural Capital				
		Average Sales Growth Recent 5 Years		
Variable:	SSKS	Beta	t	Sig
Y41	Performance			
	SSKS22	.321	3.354	.001**
	R ²			0.957
Multiple Regression: Relational Capital				
		Average Sales Growth Recent 5 Years		
Variable:	Customer Relation	Beta	t	Sig
Y41	Performance			
	RC28	.384	4.303	.000***
	R ²			0.964
Multiple Regression: Relational Capital				
		Average Sales Growth Recent 5 Years		
Variable:	Competition Relation	Beta	t	Sig
Y41	Performance			
	RC30	.507	6.268	.000***
	R ²			0.962
Multiple Regression: Relational Capital				
		Average Sales Growth Recent 5 Years		
Variable:	Union Relation	Beta	t	Sig
Y41	Performance			
	RI34	.394	3.202	.002**
	R ²			0.946

Note: Betas provided in the table are all standardized beta values. * $p < 0.1$. ** $p < 0.05$.

*** $p < 0.001$.

4.1 Discussion on Finding for Average Sales Growth in Recent Five Years

HC7 “through teamwork and cooperative spirit, organization performance increases,” has t-ratio (4.417) shows that to sustain sales growth, teamwork is important element for Taiwan MICE Industry. HC11 “through knowledge management system, our organization is reducing transaction time,” is an EKS variable of organizational structure with positive parameter of (0.209), indicates the importance of time and through effective knowledge management services enhances the time-efficiency effect on business cycle. Customers may also appreciate the time conserved by purchasing from organization; therefore, sustainability of sales growth occurred. SSKS22 “organization's knowledge management system and procedure contribute to the implementation of innovation,” has t-ratio (3.354), pointed to the sustainability of KMS structural capital. It is shown that with effective KMS and procedure ensured the continuity of sales growth. RCC28 “customer loyal to organization,” has significant positive parameter (0.384), and t-ratio (4.303), contributed to the average sales growth for the past five years. To continue the pattern, managers and executives should focus on improving creativity and customer satisfaction level to maintain the

good average result. RC30 “organization stands out in front of industry by providing high value-added services,” has t-ratio (6.268), prove that quality and value are significant in making sure that average sales growth continue. RI34 “organization is constantly in contact with industry union and association in sharing information,” with t-ratio of (3.202), indicated that knowledge sharing help to retain average sales growth. It is also important to keep in mind of privacy issue when it comes to information sharing.

5. Conclusion

To sustain average sales growth, it is imperative to pay attention to customer variable, such as customer satisfaction, and provide high quality of services to for clients to develop long term client relationship. Adequate Training of human capital helps with improving the competencies, knowledge, and skills need to boost average sales growth.

Rearrange or design the compensation policy and plan, pay structure and reward to encourage sustention could guide the path to larger sales growth in the long run. Effective knowledge services and technological advancement will reduce transaction time and enhance rapid business cycle to stimulate sales growth. Human resource practices, such as hiring, recruitment, retention also influence sales growth pattern. For example, by hiring manager who is knowledgeable of customer needs and market status may boost the average sales growth to jump start. Employee satisfaction as indicated in multiple regression also helped to prompt higher sales growth (AlSagheer, 2011; Cabrita & Bontis, 2008; Leo & Adelman, 2010). Based on Executive Branch of Taiwan (2010); and ICCA (2010), Taiwan has the potential to continue its MICE industry sales exponentially along with its correlated sectors; therefore, more options may be adopted to improve average sales growth and in return raise profit to gain.

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Career Prospects of High Skilled Foreign Students in Taiwan

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Abstract

In the last decade, the Taiwanese government has been making an effort to internationalize itself; It has open itself up to foreign influences, firstly through their education system However, Taiwan is only taking advantage of some aspects of having foreign high-skilled students in Taiwan, having a large pool of foreign students but not many high skilled foreign workers. This raises the question as to why? The purpose of this study is to identify the possible career prospects of degree-seeking foreign students in Taiwan as also to understand the career paths that foreign students wish to follow based on their perceived opportunities and realities. This research uses the qualitative method approach and it is of exploratory nature. Face-to-face interviews with 8 post-graduate students in Taiwan were conducted. We found the participants are not as interested in working in a local environment but in an international environment instead, due to their limited knowledge of local language and culture, and inflexible government regulations. Even when Taiwan is a country reaching for internationalization, it seems that it is not there yet with foreign students unable to put in practice all of the knowledge learned in Taiwan.

Keywords: high skilled foreign student, career prospect, career decision, Taiwan

1. Introduction

Up till 2010, there were 21,356 foreign students in Taiwan (MOE Taiwan, 2011), a steep increase from the past, due to the realization of the Taiwanese government to put emphasis into its higher education with the goal of achieving international status. According to Mok (2010) “the government in Taiwan has attempted to assert its international status through better positioning its universities in the global ranking exercises” (P96). A high percentage of these foreign students are degree-seeking, high-skilled students. However, in many ways Taiwan is only taking advantage of some aspects of having foreign high-skilled students in Taiwan. Zigurasa & Law (2006) explain that foreigners increase the country’s pool of high-skilled workers and in countries where education is a major export, student migration is a powerful opportunity for universities to recruit fee-paying foreign students. Taiwan has a large pool of foreign students in Taiwan but not many foreign workers, creating a gap between the number of foreign students in Taiwan and the number of foreign high-skilled workers. This raises the question as to why?

As a student, a person wonders what is next after graduation. For a foreign student in Taiwan this question may have more implications than just a personal choice, where the country’s work policies regarding foreign high skill workers, job opportunities and skill’s can influence greatly a graduate student’s decision to work in Taiwan or go back home. The United States of America has been aware of the large influx of foreign students for a long time, according to Straubhaar (2000) the export of education and the import of foreign students has become good business with foreign students contributing more than 7 billion dollars to the U.S. economy. This means that there are great advantages to

attracting foreign students. Education becomes a profitable export and at the same time they experience a brain gain by attracting the most talented people.

In 2010, business and management students account for 12.26 % of foreign students and engineering accounting for 8.48 %, being the largest groups of foreign students in Taiwan (MOE Taiwan, 2011). With so many foreigners studying business and engineering it is important to notice how Taiwan can benefit from the new foreign graduates, what are foreign students' aspirations and do they have the necessary skills to join the labor force in Taiwan? With so much potential and such a big pool of knowledge available in Taiwan, this study wants to show the available skills that foreign students have and what are the trends in their career decision making process.

The purpose of this study is to identify the **possible** career prospects of degree seeking foreign students in Taiwan as also to understand the career paths that foreign students wish to follow base on their **perceived** opportunities and realities

With the purpose of understanding the “wants” of foreign students in Taiwan regarding career prospects, we wish to answer the following questions:

1. What is the career prospects of high-skilled foreign students in Taiwan based on their perceived realities?
2. Do foreign students have the necessary knowledge, skills and tools to seek work in Taiwan by themselves?
3. What are the challenges/difficulties that foreign high-skilled students face in their job-seeking experience in Taiwan?

2. Literature Review

It is difficult to define highly skill workers since there are so many different definitions in the literature, some of which have broader meanings than others. (Lowell & Batalova, 2005). According to Lowell (2005), the highly skill workers can be explained according to the level of education or occupation and the most simple definition is of those with “tertiary” education, meaning people with at least a 2-year college degree.

This study defines “foreign high skill students” as those students with at least an undergraduate degree and above and focus on the level of education and not working experience. Bases on these, foreign students have to change from the moment they arrive to Taiwan to the moment they graduate, adapting the best they can to Taiwanese culture. Base on the literature certain factors come into play regarding a foreign student development that can determine their success in having a smooth transition from the student life to their work life. The following sections describe these factors.

2.1 Acculturation

The level of acculturation, i.e., assimilation of the host countries beliefs, behavior and customs, can greatly affect choices of career (Yeh, 2003). For foreign students planning to work in Taiwan, the level of language proficiency can be an indication of their acculturation level.

Yafen (2010) describes acculturation as the “reconciliation of culturally specific behaviors, attitudes, values, identities, and lifestyles between the immigrants’ and the host culture” (P85). Yelda Bektas (2004) describes acculturation as the changes in a cultural group or individual as a result of contact with another cultural group.

Brown & Hewstone (2005) describes acculturation as having two principal tasks, the first one is to have a realization of a person’s own culture and values and the second is to create a personalized strategy during intercultural encounters. These two tasks mean foreigners plan how to engage with the locals, base on the differences the local culture

has comparing to their own. The realization of these differences can be a key in knowing how to handle oneself in a diverse environment and circumstances.

2.2 Student's self-efficacy and career knowledge

At the end of their college life, any student has to make decisions base on their realities. This is where several factors can determine the level of success in job hunting for a student, the right attitude being one of them. Luszczynska, Scholz and Schwarzer (2005) refer to self-efficacy as "the individual's beliefs in their capabilities to exercise control over challenging demands and over their own functioning" (P.441).

Garcia, Triana, Peters, & Sanchez (2009) explained how self-enhancement and overly positive self-evaluations help motivation and effective performance. That is having a positive thinking of yourself and your skills will have a direct effect on your job hunting search and job performance.

Foreigners in Taiwan are exposed to various challenges regarding culture in their everyday life, how they can handle these problems will be the difference between success or failure regarding the challenges they face and goals they have. Van Oudenhoven, Mol, & I. Van der Zee (2003) explain that expatriates with high emotional stability will be more adjusted to deal with assignments. Wang (2008) explains that only the people who like learning new things and skills, who enjoy working alone, who adjust rapidly and get along easy with diverse people can be successful. Luszczynska, Scholz & Schwarzer (2005) state that self-efficacy is the most important predictor of an individual's behavior. How the foreign students can handle their emotions and the goals they have is directly related to the levels of self efficacy.

There are a number of factors that can affect a student's career decision, a lack of information being the number one reason. The lack of knowledge about oneself and various other occupations or having unreliable or contradictory information can also affect career choices (Zhou & Santos, 2007). Career indecision is becoming a major concern, which was initially studied on students only but now has expanded to a broader scope. This is because of the constant changing in thinking in different points in time in a person's life (Osipow, 1999). To know clearly which prospect to go for, self efficacy is crucial. It is also noticed that gender and ethnicity can affect the way we engage in self efficacy and career commitment (Zhou & Santos, 2007). According to Luzzo & Mcwhiter, (2001) women and ethnic minorities anticipate more career related barrier than males and European Americans. This may have led them to prepare better to avoid struggling circumstances.

2.3 Taiwan's perceived job market realities

Taiwan job market realities depends greatly on their political system, where in most countries the most notably improvements in labor standards and opportunities comes from democratic countries and also how protective are the laws regarding local industries. In the time of democratic reform, labor reform arises as a crucial part to transition, in 1987 Taiwan went through a democratic transition where labor reform was implemented with a minimal level of force by using political maneuvering between the Kuomintang (KMT) and the democratic party (DPP), this can be explained as Taiwan openness to negotiation and compromise (Lee, 2009). In East and south East Asia, labor laws have been marked with little flexibility to improve labor standards. The reason might be the lack of unions. In most East Asian countries the rate of unionization is less than 20%, and state backed unions enjoy monopoly (Caraway, 2010). Regarding income population Taiwan is categorized as a high income country. We have mentioned Taiwan's willingness to attract foreign students. Their willingness to retain those foreign students as qualified labor is something that could indicate the country's willingness to internationalization. This requires the laws to be flexible enough to allow foreign students to

implement their skills in the labor market. With low flexibility regarding labor laws in Taiwan this can be seen as a difficult task to accomplish.

Regarding Taiwan job market realities, it is important not only to understand what skills do foreign students have but how the skills can compensate for the skills that Taiwanese students cannot offer. Yang, Cheng & Fan (2010) identified 5 abilities that are key to Taiwanese student employment, foreign language ability, information technology ability, interpersonal relationships, learning ability, and cooperation. With these factors in mind foreigners need to find a niche, a skill that he/she can offer that cannot be offered by the locals.

2.4 Taiwan openness

Usually students go abroad to popular host nations because of their academic programs or to improve their academic knowledge. It has been forecasted that the demand for global cross-border education is bound to increase substantially from 1.8 million in 2000 to 7.2 million in 2025 (IDP Education Australia, 2002). Many Taiwanese students emigrated to the U.S and Britain for studies while not many international students had chosen Taiwan as their place to undergo their college life. This has changed in recent years, with a sudden influx of foreign students coming to Taiwan to study. Many scholars reason that the increased in foreign students is due to the recent popularity of the mandarin Chinese language, the acceptance of Taiwan's universities as world class institutions and the efforts and availability of the ministry of education to provide easy access to scholarships and college programs (Roberts, Prudence, & Ching, 2010).

If Taiwan is not open enough, other more internationalized countries may arise, causing problems in Taiwan's competitiveness in higher education. For instance, in Europe many researchers who are educated there leave to work abroad. This is because the European system is not open enough and competitive enough. It is stated that changes could be made to attract and retain not only researchers but foreign students in general. (Grigolo, Lietaert, & Marimon, 2010). Regarding attracting foreign students, one of the lessons for Taiwan is that even when many European countries offer almost free tuition for higher learning, it is not enough incentive for people to go study there. The reason may be that the immigration process for people outside the European Union is extremely restrictive (Straubhaar, 2000). Thus, in order to be competitive internationally, Taiwan must continue its efforts to maintain its openness.

2.5 Taiwan regulations regarding foreign workers

According to Taiwan's law, guided by the "service act" article 46, foreigners can work in specialized or technical work, as a Director/Manager/Executive of a business owned or partially owned by a Taiwanese, with the permission of the government; as a language teacher in a university, high school or supplementary language school; as a sports coach and athlete, as a religious, artistic, and show business worker; as a crew member of a vessel; in marine fishing work; and as a household assistant. According to CLA Taiwan (2008) these categories of work apply to all foreigners, but when it comes to students, they can usually only work in fields that are related to their majors with the goal to put in practice what they have learned through internships. This can change depending on the student's personal situation. The categories of work do not apply to foreign students. According to article 50 of the service act, if your major is outside the categories, you can still apply for a job, as long as you obtained your work permit through the council of labor affairs or your university. Universities are guided by the standard that a foreign student's major has to be related to the job position he is applying and then a work permit can be issued. Therefore some problems may arise if working outside your field seems necessary for personal reasons. Positions related to the student's major can be easy or difficult to obtain depending on the student's situation and many limitations regarding pay, legalities and university rules come into play for a final

outcome. The Bureau of Employment and Vocational Training describes three situations for a foreign graduate student to work in Taiwan, 1) a need for an internship, 2) assistance in an university project required by the university authorities and 3) financial hardship. Undergraduate students can work too, but extreme circumstances have to be shown for a work permit to be issued. Regarding wages, Taiwan sets its wages according to the industry. In business related positions the Council of Labor Affairs set the minimum wage at NT\$47,971 for full time foreign white-collar workers according to Pacific Bridge Inc. (2011).

2.6 Job searching tools

The ways we look for a job changes with time, from looking up the newspaper ads, to television advertisement and the internet. According to Masikiewicz (1998) many experts strongly believe that 70 % of job seekers find work from networking. This is due to only 10 % of jobs are advertised, and if only 10 % of the jobs are advertised, the lack of networking for a foreign student would have a high cost on their opportunities to obtain a job. This is where acculturation would become of great importance.

This does not mean that without a network you cannot find a job. As we stated before, times have changed and even when networking is still important, the internet now provides more channels for job searching. Job seekers that use technology as a search tool found more work than those using conventional media, (Van rooy, Fairchild, & Alexander, 2003), but the candidates who found the most work were those who effectively combine traditional methods and technology to find work. Also the strategy you use for job searching may have an effect on how you are viewed. Elgin and Clapham (2000) found that job seekers who use technology to submit their resume were perceived as more skillful than job seekers that applied with a traditional paper resume. On the other hand, those who submitted their paper resume were perceived as more friendly. This does not mean that using one method is better than the other but that it depends on the candidate's ability to use these tools effectively.

3. Methodology

This research will use the qualitative method since it explores the attitudes and experiences as in-depth opinion from its participants using semi-structured interviews to collect data from master and PhD foreign students in Taiwan.

3.1 Sample

In this study we will take foreign students in Taiwan, degree seeking master or PhD students as our population. For the purposes of this study we used purposeful snowball non-probability sampling since we wanted to find out what happens to foreign students when they have to decide to work or not in Taiwan and what are the implications these decision have. To understand better the point of views of foreigner's career aspirations, participants with different continents and ethnicities were chosen. Eight foreign students were chosen in total. The interviews were set in 2 phases, Phase one interviewed 3 participants to test the questions. Phase 2 interviewed 5 additional participants with the appropriate changes to the questions in hand.

Table 1. Characteristics of sample

Code name	Age	Major	Nationality	Gender
Kent	25	IHRD	El Salvador	M
Molly	28	HR	Bolivia	F
Pete	27	Chinese literature	USA	M
Luz	29	MBA	Nicaragua	F
Carolina	25	MBA	Nicaragua	F
Jenny	28	HR	Belize	F
Kelly	24	IMBA	South Africa	F
Travis	42	IMBA	Canada	M

3.2 Data Collection

For convenience this study uses person to person semi-structured interviews to collect the data. Semi-structured interviews will be used to comprehend the participant's perspectives and their understanding of the career prospects in Taiwan. The qualitative approach will allow the researchers to achieve a deeper understanding of the participant's points of view with the use of predetermined questions that emphasize on behavior, experiences, feelings, opinion, values and knowledge (about job market, opportunities, requirements, needs, cultural requirements, etc). During the interview, for data collection purposes, a tape recorder will be use to record everything said by the participants. Also notes taking is going to be implemented to writing down the perceived tone and context in which participants give each contribution to this study.

For the level of self efficacy, the general self efficacy scale design by Matthias Jerusalem and Ralf Schwarzer in 1981 was used to determine the level the participants have. 10 questions were presented to the participants.

3.3 Data analysis

We began the data analysis process by providing coding to the 10 questions in our preliminary interviews. The coding scheme was based on the framework of the study as shown in figure 1. The purpose was to organize our analysis based on behavior, experiences, feelings, opinion, values and knowledge about job market, opportunities, requirements, needs, cultural requirements, etc.

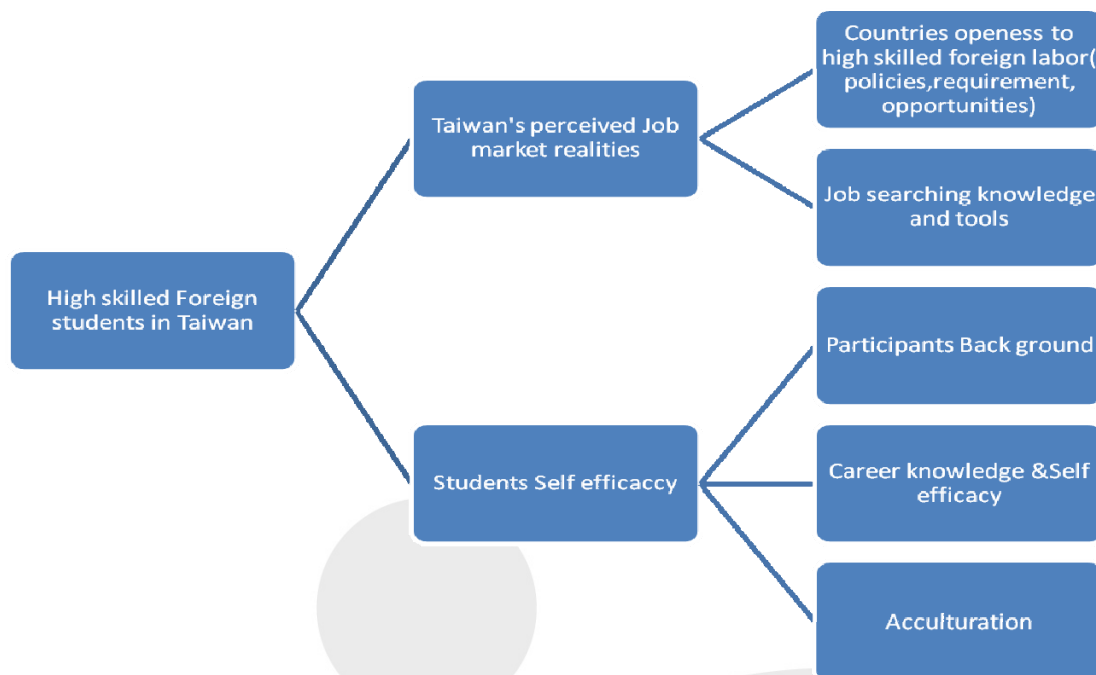


Figure 1. Framework of study

4. Results

The literature review on previous similar studies regarding career path and career choices of foreign students in other countries showed the following factors having most impact: 1) self-efficacy, 2) acculturation, 3) career knowledge, 4) job searching knowledge and tools, 5) perceived market realities, 6) government openness, labor policies and requirements. Our initial interviews revolved around these factors.

Based on the self efficacy test that was given to all participants, all of the participants show high confidence in their ability to deal with day to day problems, the participants have recognize being unable to remain calm when dealing with day to day problems, the youngest ones of the group showed lower confidence in being able to deal with their problems alone and it was notice that among the participants, men seem to have higher confidence in their abilities then women.

Several themes emerged from our interviews. First, it was noticed that all the participants had previous working experience in their related fields in their home countries. This influenced their desire to work in Taiwan after graduation. When looking for work, the participants stated that companies looking to expand their market to the participant's home countries were the most suitable for them and there is a greater chance of finding work than in other companies. Secondly, all of the participants were not as interested in working in a local environment but an international environment instead, due to the fact that many of them have not mastered the Chinese language. It was stated that studying for the master degree and the Chinese language at the same time was too much responsibility to assimilate properly the Chinese language and culture. All of the applicants, when asked, stated that the universities only prepared them for analytical work, and key skills to get a job in Taiwan were over sighted, specially the need for practical work and improvement of the Chinese language. Thirdly, it was found that many skills, such as their native language or customs, that foreign students took for granted when arriving Taiwan ended up being more important for them when looking for work in Taiwan. Another skill that is over sighted and poses limitation to foreigners is the ability to build network connections

with the local communities. All the students stated that it seems referral is the ideal way to get jobs in Taiwan but unavailable to them. Fourthly, we found two types of foreign students regarding mastering the language and understanding the culture. One group of foreign students focused only on learning the language and culture on arrival and the other group of foreign students directly entered their graduate programs in Taiwan without prior training in the local language. Those that learnt the culture first appeared more prepared to search for work in Taiwan, in non language teaching careers, with the knowledge of the language and Taiwanese traditions, while the second group seemed deeply frustrated for not being able to focus on these skills on arrival due to university commitments.

Lastly, all of the participants stated they understood the local culture, differences were observed in their interactions with the local culture. Some were not willing to see the differences in culture among countries, while others acknowledged cultural differences and had tried to understand them as well as they could. It was also observed that while looking for work all of the participants had a very vague idea of the Taiwanese government requirements and policies regarding how to get a working permit, possibly this being a starting point to make a career decision in Taiwan. All of the participants also stated it was very difficult to obtain; a gap existing regarding what they perceived and what they actually know regarding the work permit procedures in Taiwan. There seems to be a clear misunderstanding among foreign students about which laws foreign workers are abide by in Taiwan. It was also stated among the participants that the biggest number of competitors were not other foreign students, but Taiwanese who had similar skills, mostly spoke the same language as the foreign applicants. Only two of the participants knew the amount of minimum wage regarding their career path and stating that when looking for a job, they were offered the same wage amount as a local student.

5. Conclusions

Even when Taiwan is a country reaching for internationalization, it seems that it is not there yet with foreign students unable to put in practice all of the knowledge learned in Taiwan. It is possible that Taiwan's labor system is just not ready to introduce foreign students into their labor force. Students should be aware of the working requirements in Taiwan and what companies in Taiwan are looking for and the skills they are expecting from foreign labor. For example, it was mentioned by the research participants that a certain level of Chinese is required and that during interviews a written test was given to the applicants, which was found extremely difficult to complete. Also foreign students need to be aware of the number of Taiwanese students that speak different languages, since they require lower wages than foreigners and speak the local and the foreign language required.

Regarding their self-efficacy, it was interesting to notice that most of the participants were unable to remain calm when dealing with problems. This could be an issue, since Taiwan is a country with influences of Confucianism and where respect for personal feelings and dignity are important to get along with people. The more you respect these values, the more it will help you to understand your Taiwanese co-workers and classmates. As there is a limited number of interviewees, the participant's opinion cannot represent entirely for all the foreigners in Taiwan, but it can be taken as reference and a trend pattern can be established. Over and over during this study, it was mentioned with different reasons the importance of learning the Chinese language in Taiwan. The authors strongly recommend foreign students to put more emphasis on their Chinese language skills, specifically listening, speaking and writing, since they will be tested in job interviews. Recommendation also goes to education entities to keep going with their effort to help international students with their language skills. If internationalization is the goal, the Taiwan Government should not stop with the internationalization of universities, it should also give foreign students the opportunity to put in practice the skills

acquired and make their contribution to the Taiwanese society.

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Main factors affecting Secondary School teachers' motivation: A study of teachers in District Five.

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Abstract

This study was designed to examine the factors affecting motivational level of teachers at secondary schools in St. Lucia. The major objectives of this study are to identify the factors responsible for motivation of teachers and to investigate the factors that may lead to lack of motivation of teachers. A qualitative approach was adopted for this study. Semi-structured interviews were used to gather data from six graduate trained teachers. The findings revealed that the two biggest motivators for teachers are their students' performance and the support from the school administration. The two main reasons for lack of motivation among teachers were low parents' support and lack of resources from the Ministry of education.

Keywords: motivation, demotivation, motivational factors, demotivation factors, teacher

1. Introduction

Teachers play a vital role in the learning process of students. Teachers' motivation is very important as it directly affects the students' performance. According to a UNESCO report on education, "teachers are one of the most important groups of professionals for our nation's future and they determine the quality of education that children receive." (UNESCO, 2006). Teachers are the main concern of this study. Issues such as what motivates teachers to go to work on a day to day basis, what keeps them in the profession year in and year out will be explored.

St. Lucia is a developing island country in the eastern Caribbean. Education is one of the main focus areas of the government of St. Lucia. According to the Ministry of Education (2004), St. Lucia spends approximately 25 percent of its national recurrent budget on education. The Education Ministry continues to receive the second highest percentage of the government's budget. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s the Ministry of Education has worked to offer universal primary education to its residents. This means that every child has an opportunity of obtain an education at all level in St. Lucia. Beyond simply making education accessible, however, officials were also concerned about alleviating overcrowding in schools and improving existing buildings and equipment. Therefore it is evident that the ministry spends large amount of money to improve the education system which includes infrastructure, services and its human capital (teachers and principals).

According to Education Statistic Digest, (2007), the island of St. Lucia is divided into eight districts. Every district consists of secondary and primary schools. District five is on the east coast of the island consisting of 4 secondary schools and 7 primary schools. There are a total of 266 teachers, out of which 135 are secondary school teachers. A total of 197 of those teachers are said to be trained qualified teachers.

St. Lucia consists of seventy-five (75) primary schools and twenty-four (24) secondary schools. The percentage of graduate teachers decreased from 57% to 54%. This reduction directly impact secondary schools which means that there will be a high number of non-graduate trained teachers from the primary school level functioning at the secondary school level. The percentage of trained teachers decreased from 60% to 59% over the last two academic years.

This study is aimed at finding the factors affecting motivation of teachers at secondary schools in District 5.

In order to improve the teachers in District 5, the aim of this study is to give a general view to principals and government officials in St. Lucia the reality of the situation of teachers in relation to motivation, as well as to suggest ideas to motivating teachers. Therefore the purpose of this study is to:

1. To explore the factors that both motivates and also demotivates teachers.

2. To understand the issues that may lead to teachers' lack of motivation.

Two questions were generated from the purpose of study:

1. What are the main factors affecting teacher's motivation?
2. What are the main factors affecting teacher's performance?

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2. Significance of Study

This is the era of science and technology and the future of a student depends on the successful completion of the secondary school education. We know that student's learning depends upon effective teaching; hence we need to know the factors that help in the enhancement of teachers' motivation. After searching for information on different search engines and books, the researcher came to the realization that very limited studies were conducted on teachers' motivation. Moreover, the researcher did not come across any study that was made in the name country as it relates to teachers' motivation. Teachers' motivation has been the cause for serious concern in many countries since teachers play an integral role in shaping the future leaders of a country. This has been the cry of disgruntled parents, ministry of education and even the teachers themselves. Upon interacting with teachers, the researcher realizes that teachers agree that the passion, motivation, and zeal they experienced in time past were no longer felt by many.

This study may be helpful for the administrators, educationists, and especially parents to understand why teachers behave the way they do at times. This study is an attempt to highlight the factors which affects the quality of education imparted to students and, therefore, may help the teachers, parents, educationists and administrators to plan and work towards the improvement of teachers' performance and enhancing the positive factors which will be revealed in the study.

3. Delimitations and Limitations

3.1 Delimitations of study

The study is delimited to secondary schools in District 5 in St. Lucia. These teachers must have at least five years teaching experience and be graduate trained teachers. A graduate teacher is a teacher with at least a recognized bachelor's degree along with a completed recognized program in teaching methods and teaching techniques.

3.2 Limitations of study

Since St. Lucia is a small island not much research has been done in relation to education; in fact, no research has been documented about teacher motivation. Therefore the researcher is highly motivated to find out about teacher's motivation from this district since it was the district that she worked at and also because she believes it is an issue which needs to be explored. This sample was chosen due to the fact that they would have been in the system longer and will be able to compare when they first began and their motivation now.

4. Literature Review

4.1 Overview of St. Lucia

St. Lucia is one of the Windward Islands of the eastern Caribbean. It is located north/northeast of the island of Saint Vincent, northwest of Barbados and south of Martinique. It covers a land area of 620 km² (238 sq mi) and has an estimated population of 151,864 (2010 census). The capital city of Saint Lucia is Castries, where about one third of the population lives. The population of about 170,000 is evenly divided between urban and rural areas, although the capital, Castries, contains more than one-third of the population (Wikipedia, 2011).

4.2 Education in St. Lucia

The Education Act provides for free and compulsory education in Saint Lucia from the ages of 5 to 15. Public spending on education was at 5.8 % among the 2002-2005 GDP. Saint Lucia has one university; University of the West Indies Open Campus and a few medical schools, the oldest of which is Spartan Health Sciences University. The first organized system of education in Saint Lucia emerged after this eastern Caribbean colony achieved independence in 1838. The Anglican, Catholic, and Methodist churches were largely responsible for these early schools. Eventually, the churches began working in conjunction with the government to oversee education in Saint Lucia. Because schools residing on church grounds and managed by church groups received government funding, they became known as public assisted schools. Schools in operation in 1998 totaled 82. Of these, 64 primary and 2 secondary schools were overseen by religious organizations, most commonly the Catholic Church. While primary school enrollment in the 1990s hovered near the 95 percent mark, secondary school enrollment reached only 50 percent.

Preprimary education in Saint Lucia did not become commonplace until it received funding in the 1970s by the Ministry of Community Development. In 1985, Saint Lucia's Ministry of Education created a separate division to focus specifically on developing preprimary programs to prepare children for mandatory basic education. Nearly 80 percent of Saint Lucia's children aged three to five attended one of the country's 150 preschools or 33 day care centers in 1998.

Compulsory education begins at age five. Primary education consists of a three-year "infant" program and a subsequent four years of "primary" instruction. At the end of the seventh grade, students take the Common Entrance Examination (CEE) to determine placement for additional compulsory schooling. Those who do well on the CEE move into a secondary school where they complete five years of basic studies. Because the 1997 Saint Lucia Education Act requires all students to remain in school until 16 years of age, those who did not attend a secondary school were placed into a three-year "senior primary" program which focuses on preparing students for future jobs. This was until the advent of the Universal Secondary School (2006/7) which seeks to afford every student a secondary school placement.

The Ministry continues to work in the interest of its students through the provision of technological resources, revision of its education sector plans and the ongoing training of its administrators and teachers.

4.3 Motivational Theories

What motivates teacher's to join an organization, stay in it and work towards its goals? Motivation is a common topic that has been discussed now-a-days by scholars of all ranks. Motivation is part of our daily lives; however, not everyone is motivated. People are different and have different needs, motivation and reactions to problems or achievements. Robin and Judge (2007), defines motivation as the processes that account for individual intensity, direction and persistence of effort toward attaining a goal. Different articles and findings show that there is not only one theory that explains in detail the phenomena of motivation. Due to this the most important theories are included in this case to better understand this research.

Kobori and Kyriacou (1998), identify three main reasons, which are altruistic, intrinsic, and extrinsic reasons. An altruistic reason was defined as feelings that a job is worthwhile and important. An extrinsic reason was defined as the reasons that are not integral of the job itself but may consist of certain monetary benefits and desired status within the job (Fish and Wood, 1997). Deci, and Ryan (1985) argues that organisms are innately motivated or intrinsically motivated to be effective in dealing with their environment. The feeling of outcome that follows from competent interactions with the environment is the reward of this class of behaviors and can be sustain behaviors independent of any drive base reinforcement. Intrinsic reasons are considered to be the opposite of extrinsic in the sense that they are focused specifically o an interest to use the subject matter knowledge or a personal feeling of enjoying the job (Kobori and Kyriacou (1998) .

Motivational theories attempt to show the basic motivational processes apply to a work setting (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2005, p.540). The explanation of these theories will help understand the factors which affect teacher's

motivation in high school. Understanding motivation is even more critical for leaders at school. The quality of the education system depends on how good or bad teachers are performing. Teacher's performance will depend on their motivation and environment at work. Also it takes into account demotivating factors or factors which may cause teachers to lose interest in their job. Demotivation is defined as external forces that reduce or diminish the motivational basis of a behavior intention or an ongoing action. A demotivated person is thus someone who initially has had motivation to accomplish a goal or engage in an activity and has lost his or her motivation to do so because of negative external influences (Dornyei, 1990).

According to Steers and Spencer, 1977, most motivational factors for teachers come into play at the higher levels of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs. Higher needs achievement is a primary stimulus in the motivating behavior in high achievers and performers.

4.3.1 Hierarchy needs of theory

It is possible that Abraham Maslow described as one of the most famous theories of motivation (Cullen and Parboteeah, 2005). Wikipedia (2007) summarizes the theory in some important aspects: the behavior of human beings influenced by their needs and desire; this behavior can only be modified by unsatisfied needs. This theory indicates that an individual can go to the next level if the previous level or need is satisfied since they are arranged from the basic to complex. Their psychological and individual health will be demonstrated according to their progress in the hierarchy.

According to Learning Theory's (2011), Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs has often been represented in a hierarchical pyramid with five levels. The four levels (lower-order needs) are considered physiological needs, while the top level is considered growth needs. The lower level needs need to be satisfied before higher-order needs can influence behavior. The levels are as follows: self-actualization – morality, creativity, problem solving, etc., esteem – includes confidence, self-esteem, achievement, respect, etc., belongingness – includes love, friendship, intimacy, family, etc., safety – includes security of environment, employment, resources, health, property, etc. and physiological – includes air, food, water, sex, sleep, other factors towards homeostasis, etc.

A trained teacher is one who has successfully completed a recognized program in teacher education methods and teaching techniques. As educators, teachers not only have their own needs, but the needs of the students entrusted in their hands. Most times teachers achieve basic needs of this theory, but lack the two highest levels which are self-actualization and esteem. Self-actualization due to the fact that knowledge is never enough. There is always this urge to achieve, to be the best that one can be, and to make their mark. Esteem due to the fact that they will doubt themselves at time, and feel like a failure but doesn't mean that they are. Hence the reason this research is important, it will help better understand and show the importance of this theory to this study.

4.3.2 Erg Theory

According to Wikipedia (2011) Alderfer, expanding on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, created the ERG theory. This theory posits that there are three groups of core need — existence, relatedness, and growth, hence the label: ERG theory. The existence group is concerned with providing our basic material existence requirements. They include the items that Maslow considered to be physiological and safety needs. The second group of needs are those of relatedness- the desire we have for maintaining important interpersonal relationships. These social and status desires require interaction with others if they are to be satisfied, and they align with Maslow's social need and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Finally, Alderfer isolates growth needs' an intrinsic desire for personal development. These include the intrinsic component from Maslow's esteem category and the characteristics included under self-actualization.

Teachers come from different families, background, environment and even different education, therefore they will have different needs and desire to achieve them. Some of them may have the desire to achieve two or three needs from two or three different levels at the same time. Hence the reason this theory is important for this study.

4.3.3 Drive Theory

Deci and Ryan, (1985) states that all behaviors are said to be motivated either directly by a drive or some derivative thereof. Drive theory is based on the principle that organisms are born with certain physiological needs and that a

negative state of tension is created when these needs are not satisfied. When a need is satisfied, drive is reduced and the organism returns to a state of homeostasis and relaxation (Wikipedia (2011)). According to the theory, drive tends to increase over time and operates on a feedback control system, much like a thermostat.

According to such theorists as Clark Hull and Kenneth Spence, drive reduction is a major cause of learning and behavior. Primary drives are innate drives (e.g. thirst, hunger, and sex), whereas secondary drives are learned by conditioning (e.g. money).

There are several problems that leave the validity of drive theory open for debate. The first problem is that it does not explain how secondary reinforcers reduce drive. For example, money does not itself satisfy any biological or psychological need, but it reduces drive on a regular basis by a pay check. Secondly, drive reduction theory has trouble explaining why humans and other animals voluntarily increase tension by exploring their environments, even when they are not hungry or thirsty.

Though this theory has arguments about its validity, one can still agree that as human beings we are born with needs and therefore these needs drive us to fulfill them. Therefore one cannot deny the fact that teachers are driven to their profession and as a result of this drive they remain in this profession.

5. Research Methodology

This research utilizes the qualitative approach because it aims to provide detailed description of teacher's issues, feelings and motivation.

5.1 Research Participants

The population of this study as mentioned earlier consist teachers of only District 5. This district consists of 4 secondary schools namely, Grande Riviere Secondary, Micoud Secondary, Anse Ger Secondary and Clendon Mason Memorial Secondary School. There are a total of 135 teachers in this district. For the purpose of this research a total of 6 graduate trained teachers with five years teaching experience were interviewed, one teacher from each school. Semi-structured interviews were conducted. The background information of each interviewee is listed in table 1.

Table 1. Background information of participants

Name*	Sex	Age	Years of Service	Type of teacher	
A	F	37	14	Graduate Teacher	Trained
B	M	32	11	Graduate Teacher	Trained
C	M	48	35	Graduate Teacher	Trained
D	F	36	15	Graduate Teacher	Trained
E	M	30	8	Graduate Teacher	Trained
F	F	28	6	Graduate Teacher	Trained

***Note: Pseudonym was used for confidentiality of interviewees.**

5.2 Data Collection

Semi-structured interviewing, according to Bernard (1988), is best used when you won't get more than one chance to interview someone and when you will be sending several interviewers out into the field to collect data. Semi-structured interviews are often preceded by observation, informal and unstructured interviewing in order to allow the researchers to develop a keen understanding of the topic of interest necessary for developing relevant and meaningful semi-structured questions. The purpose of the open ended questionnaire get an in-depth knowledge of the concerns of teachers and their motivation and to help get more information that is rich and meaningful. According to Abraham

Maslow in the Hierarchy of needs theory, both satisfied needs and unsatisfied needs are needed in order to modify a behavior. In this study, the researcher hopes to find both factors that satisfy teachers and also motivates them to work. Also the researcher hopes to find those factors that do not satisfy or motivate teachers.

A questionnaire of 10 questions was developed by the researcher. To formalize the data gathering process further, two unqualified teachers were interviewed as a pilot study in order to improve the quality and efficiency of the semi structured questions for the interview. Questions that were not clear were edited and restructured for clarity. Upon editing those questions six interviewees were chosen through convenience sampling and the questions were emailed to them and a convenient appointment date was set for the interview. Interviews were conducted via Skype and the use of a recorder was used to tape the interview. Interviews lasted between 30-40 minutes.

5.3. Data Analysis

After the six participants were interviewed and were recorded with the participant's permission. Each interview was later transcribed. All of the interview data was coded and many factors were mentioned that motivate and enhance teachers performance, however, the teachers also mentioned some factors which makes their work discouraging. .

6. Findings and Discussions

Based on the data analysis, the following section gives detail information about the factors which affect teacher's motivation. The table below gives a summary of the factors given by each interviewee.

Table 2. Main factors affecting teachers motivation

Name*	Negative Factors	Positive Factors
A	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of resources 2. Excessive teaching load 3. Lack of training to deal with slow students 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Love for her job 2. success of students 3. Job pays the bills 4. Support from administration
B	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The teacher demotivates himself or herself. As professionals we must learn how to motivate ourselves intrinsically. 2. Lack of instrument to teach core course. 3. Lack of support from the ministry 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The fact that I have an input in an individual life 2. Small class size 3. Love for school 4. Student success
C	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Student's performance 2. Teacher's attitude towards work 3. Parents attitude 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Need for employment 2. Being able to shape an individual's ability to think, being able to see transformation taking place 3. Positive support of administration, staff,
D	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of training to deal with slow students 2. Indiscipline of students 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Love her school 2. Job security 3. Good relationship with administration 4. Success of students.
E	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lazy students 2. uncooperative staff 3. salary 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Loves what he does 2. success of students
F	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lack of resources 2. Parents attitude 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To be able to impact in an individual life in a positive way 2. Small class size

***Note: Pseudonyms were used for confidentiality**

6.1 Positive Factors

This section talks about the reasons why secondary school teachers feel motivated towards their work. The themes are divided into three categories, administration and staff, students and socio economic status.

6.1.1 Administration and staff

Motivation is the responsibility of the organization and the factors built into the job itself. (Perhla, 1986). For all participants they stated that one of the reasons why they are motivated is because they love their school. One interviewee relates:

“the positive support from school administration (principal & head of department), education officials and parents is often sought after as motivators for teachers' attitude towards work; Of consideration also is adequate remuneration and students who have few discipline problems.” (C-48 years)

Two interviewees also supported this statement.

“I have been at this school for 5 years now. The school is like family to me; therefore the relationship that we have forged has been a sort of inspiration to me.” (D-15years)

“Having a good relationship with your colleagues make works the workplace a much better and happier place to be and in turn makes you want to come to work knowing you have the support of your colleagues.”(A-37 years)

6.1.2 Students

According to all the participants they retorted that the performance of their students is a huge motivational factor to them. Two teachers said that it is a great motivation to know that students are satisfied with them and their work. However for the two interviewees responded that shaping the life of an individual (student) is their main motivation. One states:

“Being able to help shape an individual’s ability to think; being able see transformation taking place in a student because of my influence. Many times the evidence of this transformation manifests itself years after, nevertheless, this can bring much lingering joy.”(C-48 years)

Another interviewee stated:

“The fact that I can have an input in the development of an individual.” (F-28 years)

Two interviewees stated that their greatest motivation is to see that their students have gotten from one point to another in their learning. Their student’s performance they said is the most gratifying feeling of them all. One states:

“Seeing my students move from point A to point B is my greatest reward. No matter how small the improvement I feel good about myself and give myself a pat on the back. It helps.” (E-30 years)

6.1.3 Socio Economic Status

First of all it was interesting to note that three of the respondents when asked whether they always wanted to be a teacher responded that it was not their first priority. However they are and satisfied with the opportunity that the administration provides to continue to further studies. They also stated that at the time it was what was available and at the time there was status when you were a teacher. One interviewee responded:

“This was the job that was available at the time...So the motivation was the need for employment.”(C-48 years)

Another interviewee responded that

“Honestly at the time that’s what was available.” (D-15 years)

Two respondents however responded that the salary is their motivation to work because it pays the bill. However one respondent responded that teaching is a form of job security for her and so she is prepared to do an honest day’s work for an honest day’s pay.

6.2 Negative Factors

This sections talks about the reasons why secondary school teachers feel de-motivated towards their work. The themes were divided into four categories, resources, parents and curriculum and school environment.

6.2.1 Resources

In order for employees to be efficient they must be equipped with the right tools to do the job. The interviews retorted that the lack of resources has really hindered them in doing their work to their full potential. All teachers said that the Ministry of Education does not support the school with adequate resources. According to ray who is a music teacher, he says that in order for him to accomplish certain goals and objectives he need instruments and that it makes life much harder for him as the teacher because he has to work with what he has. He also says that in some situations he feels very helpless and discourage because he sees so many things he can do but due to lack of resources it cripples his creativity. In turn he says it cripples the creativity and the ability for the students to learn new things. Hannah explains that as a design and technology teacher she must give students lots of hands on activities. Most of these activities require lots of stationery and resources but due to the lack of it she is restricted only to doing certain things. Therefore her students and her creativity is restricted as well.

6.2.2 Curriculum

Teachers blame the Ministry of Education stating that they should be able to give them well organized curriculum. Two teachers, Fabien and Hannah state that the curriculum in St. Lucia is obsolete and the Ministry of Education do not pay attention in order to update it. They also mentioned that the education system in general is deficient and it is necessary that some changes are put together in order to improve the education in the country.

One interviewee mentioned:

“We should know the content of the curriculum, but many of us are teaching with no knowledge of it.” (A-37 years)

Another commented:

“Sometimes we as teachers feel that the curriculum does not meet the needs of students. Therefore the Ministry of Education needs to do more to ensure that the curriculum is designed to meet the level of the students.” (B-11 years)

6.2.3 Parents

The biggest problem some teachers say are parents-student-teacher communication. Teachers mentioned that parents do not communicate with their kids. Normally they will not know what is happening with their child at school and they do not visit the school to talk to teachers in order to know the progress of their children. Two interviewees stated that they feel like some of the parents just do not understand the magnitude of their responsibility and so they show no interest to the education and future of their children. Therefore one teacher is of the opinion that they should have workshop designed for parents and talk to them to encourage them to show interest. Interviewee believes that some parents don't understand the impact that it has on the child and him as the teacher. Interviewee said:

“To be frank, I feel that we teachers care more about the children than some parents, and it does not make you feel good to know that you are trying to help a student whose parents do not even care.” (C-48 years)

6.2.4 Environment

The teachers although love their school they also pointed out that the school can do more to assist them and keep them motivated. They made mention of the fact that there is not enough training in content areas. Also three of them complain about their teaching load. One stated:

I am the only music teacher and teacher's music at all level of the school. So days I feel more burn out than others. Sometimes I don't even had time to get a decent meal at lunch because I feel so overwhelm with work. Too much paper work and lesson plans to do. (B- 11years)

6.3 Discussion and conclusion

The main reason for undertaking this study was to find out the factors that affect teachers' motivation. The interviews revealed some of these factors and based on table 2 parents' support and resources were the ones mentioned most frequently. Teachers cannot do their job effectively without the help and support of the parents. Parents should be as much involved in the education of their child as the teacher. Without proper resources and equipment it is impossible for any employee to do his or her work effectively. Therefore The Ministry of education also shows weakness with the curriculum. It is obvious that it is an important aspect of improving teacher's motivation, because teachers can be able to have a clear point of view of the general objectives in the education system in the country. Also without the teacher's being knowledgeable of the curriculum and/or the Ministry's involvement in its annual update, it is impossible for the improvement of teachers because this is the guide they follow in order to teach. Also it is evident that the two biggest motivations for teachers are their students and their school or their school, meaning the administration and staff is the greatest satisfaction to them. . It is also clear that many teachers love their job in spite of the difficulties they try and work with what they have.

In the sample there were two males and two females. It appeared that they all shared the same sentiments in relation to motivation. It appears that the teacher's find ways and means to get themselves motivated, whether it is through the energy and willingness to deal with administration or things related to that or through their salary, being contented with their fair days' work for a fair days pay.

7. Implications

Based on the interviews conducted the research has come up with a few suggestions for the Ministry, teachers and future research. Since this research will help benefit the schools in St. Lucia, it is vital that the Ministry and the principals pay close attention to this issue making some important changes in the development of the curriculum, trying to involve teacher's input in specific areas for training programs, improving the teaching resources and technological development.

In administration, principals are the key person's to improve teacher's motivation. They need to ensure that the workplace is a happy and meaningful place to work. They need to exert good leadership skills and be aware of what is

going on with their staff at all times. The therefore need to improve themselves by learning and practicing more about leadership styles.

Administration also needs to improve the status of the teaching profession. According to comments made from teachers it seems that the teaching load in some schools are too much. They need to do what is necessary to elevate the stress and the work load of teachers whether it is by employing more staff, have fewer subjects. They also need to formulate policies to improve the professional development and career advancement of teachers. For some teachers they feel like they are not going anywhere. Constantly getting teachers engaged in training courses is a good motivator for teachers. It is clear that teachers have a huge responsibility on their shoulders and anything which can be done to make this work more meaningful and to get teachers more prepared will be an asset. Two teachers complained about having slow students and so they need training to help them to deal and teach these children.

According to one of the interviewees, more consultation with teachers, reformulation of education policies; having principals who are more supportive of teachers; establishing closer contacts with parents to get them to be more cooperative and helpful and not regard teachers as the enemy; ensuring that teachers receive better remuneration and benefits will help boost teachers motivation towards work.

7.1 Implications for teachers

Teaching as everyone knows can be a stressful at times. Teachers need to motivate themselves; their attitude towards his/her vocation must be changed. In some cases where they feel they need help they need to cry out. The administration has its part to do in motivating but teachers need to do theirs also. In some case some teachers may need counseling but ultimately the teacher has to get to a place of self-realization and make the necessary changes.

7.2 Implications for future research

In this short interview it could be felt that teachers had more to say but were restricted to the questions which they were asked. It would be interesting to conduct a research on what contributions can teacher's make to change education in St. Lucia. They sound like they have lots of ideas which can be utilized to make meaningful contribution.

Also it would be interesting to conduct a study on Principal's motivation, what keeps a principal going on a day to day basis. Look into their leadership styles and what can be done to improve it.

Have a study conducted with both teachers and principals comparing how the motivation of the two differs if they differ. Also conducting a research for teachers and principal on all levels will be interesting, college, high school, elementary, and see how they differ.

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