INTERNATIONAL
JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

**A PUBLICATION OF FROSTBURG STATE UNIVERSITY AND THE
INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES**

WWW.IJIR.NET

INTERNATIONAL
JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

Chief Editor

Ahmad Tootoonchi
College of Business
Frostburg State University
101 Braddock Road
Frostburg, MD 21532
Tel: 301-687-4740
tootoonchi@frostburg.edu

Associate Editor

Carolyn Ashe
College of Business
University of Houston-Downtown
320 North Main Street
Houston, Texas, 77002-1001
Tel: 713-221-8051
ashec@uhd.edu

Editor

Carol Gaumer
College of Business
Frostburg State University
101 Braddock Road
Frostburg, Maryland 21532
Tel: 301-687-4052
cgaumer@frostburg.edu

INTERNATIONAL
JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

EDITORIAL BOARD

Volume 2, Number 1, August 2013

External Reviewers

◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇◇
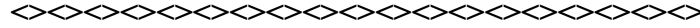
Faiza Khoja
University of Houston-Downtown

Kellye Jones
Clark Atlanta University

Amiso George
Texas Christian University

Marvin Butler
FARRISWOODG, Inc.

INTERNATIONAL
JOURNAL OF INTERDISCIPLINARY RESEARCH

Selection process

The summer 2013 issue of the *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)* has been the result of a rigorous process in two stages:

- Stage 1: all papers that were submitted to the 2013 IABD conference went through blind reviews, and high quality papers were recommended for publication in the *Business Research Yearbook (BRY)*.

- Stage 2: approximately ten percent of the articles published in the *BRY* and two invited manuscripts (originally reviewed by the Chief Editor) were selected for possible publication in *IJIR*, and the respective authors were contacted and asked to resubmit their papers for a second round of reviews. These manuscripts went through a rigorous review process by the editorial board members and external reviewers. In the end, six articles were recommended for publication in the summer issue of *IJIR*.

IJIR is listed in *Cabell's* Directory of peer-reviewed publications. The Editorial Board members are committed to maintaining high standards of quality in all manuscripts published in *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*.

Ahmad Tootoonchi, Chief Editor

Contents   Volume 2, Number 1, August 2013

---

vi

REFLECTIONS ON DEPARTMENTAL SENSE OF COMMUNITY

Danny R. Arnold, Rollins College
darnold@rollins.edu

ABSTRACT

Sense of community has been written about for over fifty years, and in a variety of contexts from rural sociology to psychology. There are many definitions for sense of community, along with a variety of models, constructs, measurements. Very little, however, has been written about the sense of community within academic departments. This article focuses on presenting an overview of the components of psychological sense of community within academic departments. The emphasis is on a long-term administrator's reflections regarding a variety of behaviors which can have a significant positive or negative influence of sense of community.

INTRODUCTION

Many years ago I listened to an international management consultant discuss *sense of community*. He had traveled the world as a consultant, dealing with companies and various subunits (e.g., plants and offices). The gist of his discussion was that upon arrival, he first tried to grasp and define the problem areas, and then focused his efforts most heavily on that unit's sense of community. He typically found that when problems were severe enough to call in a consultant, the unit also possessed a fractured sense of community. He contended that if he could help heal the sense of community, then the vast majority of specific problems could then be addressed much more easily.

While it was the first time I had heard the term, I was intrigued. *Sense of community* resonated with several of my disconnected thoughts. Since that time, I have reflected on both past experiences and current situations relative to overall departmental performance and sense of community. The focus of this article is to share the resulting nuggets.

BACKGROUND AND ADMINISTRATIVE ROLES

Understanding my background should help you better understand my perspective on academic departments. My early years were fairly typical for a business faculty member. I spent fourteen years as a full-time faculty member, at three progressively larger universities. I then took the plunge into administration, serving five years as an Associate Dean, with one of those years also

serving as Interim Graduate Director for the College. I then left that university to begin my "deaning" journey, spending eighteen years as a Dean at four different types of public universities, ranging from R1 land grants to moderate sized regional universities. The largest had 5,000 business students, 120 faculty, and 6 departments. The smallest had about 1,000 students, 35 faculty, and 4 departments. I am currently serving as a Department Chair in a small liberal arts college.

In addition to the jobs, I have been active with the AACSB International accreditation process. This volunteer work has included serving on numerous Peer Review Teams, mentoring, consulting, and other AACSB committee work. Consequently, I have had direct involvement with dozens of academic departments and fairly close observation of many more. My reflective conclusion is that the international consultant was correct – there is a close correlation between a department's sense of community and overall performance.

WHAT IS SENSE OF COMMUNITY?

From a lay perspective, it is generally understood that sense of community, or psychological sense of community (PSOC), refers to feelings of belonging, identity, and mutual support. A department with a strong, positive PSOC can be thought of as the opposite of a dysfunctional department. Powers and Maghroori (2006) contend that a dysfunctional department tends to start with "aberrant forms of department culture that develop when one person or a small group of people *exert a defining and negative influence on collegial discourse* over an extended time period. The evolution of departmental dysfunction can be traced to behavior that *shape a departmental culture of interpersonal fear and suspicion*, which leads to defensive governance as people unwittingly scale back on program improvement efforts in favor of a strategy of placating outburst-prone faculty.

They present a specific set of common behavioral denominators that have a pronounced negative impact on department culture:

1. a pattern of reactions that makes others hesitant to express their views,
2. a tendency of strategically introducing inaccuracies as "factual" premises in discussions,
3. a knack for diverting collaborative deliberations away from reaching votes on central questions someone doesn't want to deal with,
4. failure of some to carry an equal share of the collective responsibility for program delivery,
5. a zero-sum view of prestige, which leads some people to delegitimize the activities of others with whom they feel they are in status competition, and
6. asymmetric application of principles (such as "the group should not have 'tyranny of the majority' over me but no individual should 'obstruct' my proposals by voting against them").

While this article is not designed to be a true research article, there has been much written about PSOC. Much of the current literature refers to the conceptualization of Tönnies (1955), who made a distinction between *Gemeinschaft* (sometimes thought of as the village or small town with strong kin and friendship linkages), and *Gesselschaft* (the impersonal city).

Two scholarly definitions are:

1. "the perception of similarity to others, an acknowledged interdependence with others, a willingness to maintain this interdependence by giving to or doing for others what one expects from them, and the feeling that one is part of a larger dependable and stable structure." (Sarason, 1974, p. 157)

2. "a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together." (McMillan & Chavis, 1986)

Gusfield (1975) proposed two dimensions of community: the territorial and relational dimensions. While some communities do not have territorial demarcations (e.g., a community of scholars), other communities can be defined by territorial boundaries (e.g., an academic department). The relational dimension of community concerns the nature and quality of relationships in a specific community.

McMillan & Chavis (1986) expanded number of dimensions to four elements.

1. *Membership*. Membership includes five attributes:
    a. boundaries
    b. emotional safety
    c. a sense of belonging and identification
    d. personal investment
    e. a common symbol system

    These features fit together in a circular, self-reinforcing way, with all conditions having both causes and effects.

2. *Influence*. Influence works both ways: members need to feel that they have some influence in the group, and some influence by the group on its members is needed for group cohesion.

3. *Integration and fulfillment of needs*. Members should feel rewarded in some way for their participation in the community. Essentially, the community group must provide satisfying experiences.

4. *Shared emotional connection*. This emotional connection may be the most important element of sense of community. It includes shared history and shared participation (or at least identification with the history).

Based on the above dimensions, Chavis developed the Sense of Community Index (SCI), a widely used quantitative measure of sense of community in the social sciences. It has been used in numerous contexts, urban, suburban, rural, tribal, workplaces, schools, universities, recreational clubs, internet communities, and so on. (www.communityscience.com)

The SCI has been found useful in several other investigations, in reference to several different referents of community (Pretty, 1990; Pretty & McCarthy, 1991; Pretty, Andrews, & Collett, 1994) and seems to lend support to the usefulness of conceptualizing sense of community as a multidimensional construct.

THE ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT AS A COMMUNITY

An academic department can be viewed as a community. The four constructs posited by McMillan & Chavis (1986) are used to frame this concept.

1. **Membership**. Academic departments possess the five membership attributes. Departments have *boundaries*. For example, a Marketing Department consists of the individual marketing faculty members in a College who are responsible for developing and teaching the marketing curricula.

   Department members have *emotional safety* in that they have colleagues to rely upon for a variety of assistance, such as pedagogical approaches, research collaboration, and so on. A faculty member "belongs" to a department because he or she is assigned to the department for administrative purposes. A *sense of belonging and identification*, however, is different – it involves the issue of "emotional attachment." Consider, for example, how a faculty member might respond to the question "What kind of work do you do?" The response "I teach finance" might indicate little identification with the department. Now consider the responses "I am in the finance department at ABC University" or "I am on the finance faculty…." Both of these responses tend to indicate more identification with the unit.

   Faculty members make many kinds of *personal investments*. They have a personal investment in students (some too much, some too little). They invest in their careers and their discipline via teaching and research efforts. Regarding a department's level of PSOC, the major personal investments derive from service activities and personal interactions with colleagues.

Perhaps the major component of a department's *common symbol system* is the specialized language used by the relevant discipline. Other components might include any actions or outcomes which have a commonly interpreted meaning in that department – essentially, "X symbolizes Y" for that group. In some departments, for example, publishing an article in a Class A journal symbolizes high quality; in other departments, only funded research symbolizes quality (and in some departments such activities are irrelevant).

2. **Influence.** As discussed above, influence is a two-way street. First, a department will have better PSOC if all faculty members feel that they have some influence on departmental decisions (more than a mere vote). Envision a department in which all decisions (including teaching schedules) are dominated by the senior faculty, and untenured junior faculty members are forced to just "go along." Such departments generally do not have a strong sense of community.

   Secondly, group cohesion is enhanced when the department influences its members' behavior and attitudes. Without departmental influence on individuals, the department simply consists of a list of names and possesses little or any PSOC.

3. **Integration and fulfillment of needs**. A department's PSOC is enhanced when it provides satisfying experiences. At minimum, most faculty members prefer a pleasant work environment. Many also enjoy the intellectual stimulation that can exist. Unfortunately, some faculty members do not care about "pleasant" and seem to enjoy constant turmoil and drama.

4. **Shared emotional connection**. When all of the above elements are "right," the department members generally have an emotional connection, which may be the most important element of sense of community.

WHAT FACTORS HELP ENRICH A POSITIVE SENSE OF COMMUNITY?

In my experience, the sense of community for academic departments ranges from "off the charts" positive to absolutely toxic – fortunately, most departments fall into the acceptable middle ground. The following discussion focuses on highlighting those behaviors than serve to enrich departmental PSOC, and some behaviors likely to destroy PSOC.

I have organized the discussion around a simple "formula:" PSOC = f(6 Cs + DREAMPLE)

Or, from a behavioral perspective, PSOC is a function of (or affected by) various behavioral elements. These elements are summarized with the two acronyms: 6 Cs and DREAMPLE, which are discussed below. You will see that there is sometimes a great deal of overlap among the various elements.

The 6 Cs

The 6 Cs are:
- Competence
- Collegiality
- Civility
- Cooperation
- Constructiveness
- Commitment

1. **Competence**. In this context, I am referring to competence in teaching, research, and service. People generally feel good about any organizational membership if they can look around and see other individuals who are competent and generally striving for continuous improvement. Conversely, if a faculty member feels that many of his or her colleagues are poor teachers and/or researchers, while others put either little effort or destructivity in their service work, PSOC will certainly be damaged.

2. **Collegiality.** Collegiality lies at the heart of PSOC. Collegiality does NOT mean that everyone in a department has to be likeable, sociable, or exude friendliness. Nor mean does it mean that everyone has to agree on everything and with everybody! We are all in the "academy" -- one hundred percent agreement on everything would scary! Collegiality does mean working well and positively with others, even with those you might not like!

Our academic world seems to be changing relative to collegiality. Relative to job satisfaction, the size of junior professors' paychecks is not nearly as important as how well they get along with their colleagues. Consider the results of a survey by Harvard University's Graduate School of Education. It found that tenure-track faculty members care more about departmental climate, culture, and collegiality than they do about workload, tenure clarity, and compensation. The results suggest that today's young professors differ markedly from previous generations, whose single most important concern was autonomy in the workplace, according to Cathy A. Trower. Ms. Trower, a Harvard researcher, and Richard P. Chait, an education professor there, directed the survey. (Fogg, 2013)

I attended an outstanding webinar focused on collegiality conducted by Dr. Bob Cipriano, who provided additional downloadable materials. One item was an intriguing document

which contained a list of collegiality "do's" and "don'ts," something akin to "You might be collegial if…." Much of the following two lists of "tips" were drawn from this material.

When faculty members exhibit the following behaviors, departmental PSOC is enhanced.

- *Be humble about your greatness*. Conversely, bragging and other forms of self-promotion are detrimental to PSOC.
- *Your word is your bond*. Establish a reputation for being dependable. Conversely, not carrying through on what you say is detrimental.
- *Be absolutely honest with everyone…..always*. Do not manipulate the truth to serve your own purposes.
- *Promote and project a professional image* – within and outside your department. I am referring to demeanor and conduct, not just dress.
- *Be willing to negotiate and compromise*. In an academic setting, the best ideas are those which are a synthesis derived from a thesis and antithesis – the fifth or eighth iteration may be the best idea! All of us have dealt with the faculty member who believes that their first knee jerk idea must be the ideal idea, because he or she thought of it! Again, such behavior is detrimental to PSOC.
- *Demonstrate tolerance toward opposing opinions* of colleagues. Just because someone does not agree with you does not make them an adversary. Sometimes you just have to agree to disagree.
- *Recognize that differences in opinion are inevitable; conflict is optional.*
- *Be a good listener* – team players listen! Everyone knows that listening is a (or the?) critical part of good communication. Listen to understand and build knowledge, rather than to identify the points to use against another person's argument. When department members practice this art, good PSOC tends to develop.
- *Try to avoid causing colleagues to lose face*. No one is perfect. Help your colleagues recover gracefully from "bad" situations.
- *Respond promptly and politely to e-mail and voice messages from colleagues*. Unfortunately, there are faculty members who check their email only every 2-3 days, and others who simply do not respond at all. This practice shows disrespect towards colleagues.
- *Be consistently helpful to colleagues when they make reasonable requests.*
- *Pride yourself in regularly meeting deadlines*. Examples include co-authoring activities, grading papers, and many others. Do not let your colleagues, students, or any else down.
- *Minimize your risk of being accused of cultural insensitivity or discrimination.*

When faculty members exhibit the following behaviors, a positive PSOC is very difficult to maintain. Or, you may NOT be collegial if:

- You refuse to get involved with student research.
- You refuse to attend department meetings.
- You refuse to prepare adequately for faculty and committee meetings.

- You always get involved/enmeshed in departmental politics.
- You chronically complain.
- You steadfastly decline to advise students.
- You usually refuse to serve on university and department committees.
- You constantly demand more than your fair share of departmental resources.
- You do not do your fair share of student recruitment activities.
- You spend hours (or minutes) at your office (or around campus) gossiping.
- You aggressively discourage your colleagues from conducting research, publishing, or teaching in areas that are of interest to you.
- You are, or you are perceived as being territorial with your colleagues.
- You refuse to mentor young colleagues.
- You do not collaborate with colleagues.
- You refuse to come to campus to attend committee meetings on days when you are not teaching.
- You demand to have your teaching load reduced in order to publish or apply for grants.
- You proselytize colleagues for your religious or moral/ethical beliefs.
- You are insensitive to the feelings of colleagues when commenting on their teaching, service or scholarship.
- You make negative comments to students or peers about colleagues.
- You have developed a reputation for being inflexible.
- You have developed a reputation for not being willing to negotiate and compromise.
- You are often labeled as passive-aggressive.
- You are often thought of as a bully.
- You are viewed as a pot-stirrer and a troublemaker.
- Your professional disagreements often become loud and personal.
- You have a reputation as "never forgetting" a colleague who disagrees with you.
- You have a reputation of a person who loves confrontation.

3. **Civility**. Pick up any dictionary and it will have a definition for civility something like *formal politeness and courtesy in behavior or speech.*

Burgess and Burgess (1997) expand this definition and provide some astute guidance regarding civil discourse. Civility means more than politeness, while it cannot mean "roll over and play dead." A department cannot avoid important tough questions just because they are unpleasant. Any reasonable description of civility must recognize that the many differing perspectives that can divide our increasingly diverse departments can produce an endless series of confrontations over difficult issues. While continuing confrontation is sometimes inevitable, the enormous destructiveness which often accompanies these confrontations is not.

Burgess and Burgess (1997) use an approach they call *constructive confrontation*. This approach emphasizes how two "opposing" sides can work individually and collectively to increase the constructiveness of departmental debate.

Examples of these elements include:

- *Separate people from the problem.* For a visual perspective, stand shoulder-to-shoulder with the person who is disagreeing, and place the problem on the wall so that you can "look" at it rather than each other. Recognize that other thoughtful and caring faculty members have different "decision filters" that lead to different views. Constructive debate should focus on the problematic issue rather than on personal attacks. Solutions should be based on the relative merits of the alternatives and NOT on personal "us vs. them" animosities.

- *Obtain available technical facts*. Factual disagreements should be resolved wherever possible.

- *Limit interpersonal misunderstandings*. Make an honest effort to understand the perspective and reasoning of other individuals. The challenge in a diverse academic department is that two very bright individuals can easily interpret the same set of data in very different ways. One might, for example, use human factors to dominate their interpretation, while another might use technical or financial analysis to dictate their position.

- *Use fair processes.* Potentially contentious issues should be addressed via processes that are fair in both appearance and actuality. Everyone relevant should be heard. Further, advocates of the status quo (the NO CHANGES ALLOWED perspective) should not be allowed to prevail by introducing endless procedural delays or non-relevant arguments.

- *Limit escalation*. Escalation is potentially the most destructive element in a confrontation situation. It arises when accidental or intentional provocations beget greater counter-provocations. This situation can easily result in an intensifying cycle that transforms a substantive debate characterized by honest problem solving into one in which mutual hatred becomes the primary motive. De-escalation and escalation avoidance strategies are needed to limit this problem.

- *Separate win/win from win/lose issues.* Try to reframe the issues so that it is a win/win situation.

- *Limit the backlash effect.* Short term victories can sometimes generate a powerful backlash. Forcing individuals to do things against their will can be expected to launch a "counterattack" at the earliest opportunity. Limiting this backlash effect involves justifying the decision on the basis of broadly acceptable principles of fairness and greater good. A sound justification can generate more reasonable positions on both

sides, while making it more difficult for contending parties to pursue purely selfish objectives.

- *Keep trying to persuade and allow yourself to be persuaded.* Recognize that it is possible that you are wrong and that someone else might have a better idea. Seriously consider the persuasive arguments made by opponents.

- *More persuasion, more exchange, less force.* The best ways to produce stable, long-term change and a positive PSOC is through (1) persuasion in which individuals are converted to their opponent's point of view, or (2) negotiated, mutually beneficial win-win trade-offs. This implies that the use of force should be minimized wherever possible.

One of the most destructive civility issues in academic departments involves email "nastygrams" to other faculty members or, worse, to the entire faculty of a department or college. In addition to damaging PSOC, nastygrams become part of the "official" record, therefore legal documentation. We have all seen emails which make the sender vulnerable to claims of libel or creating a hostile work environment.

4. **Cooperation.** Collegiality and civility generally lead to cooperation, and vice versa. Simple cooperation, however, does not necessarily involve conflicts. Consider the following requests from colleagues, administrators, and students:

- I have a doctor's appointment. Will you take my class for me Monday?
- Will you look over this (completed) manuscript for me?
- Can you attend a committee meeting Friday at 10:00 a.m.?
- We have two electives scheduled for the same time next semester. Are you willing to move your 9:00 section to 11:00?
- Can you attend the student recruiting event on the 23rd?
- Can we move the due date for this project from Friday to Monday?

While you cannot and should not say "yes" to every request, you should certainly strive to be cooperative.

5. **Constructiveness.** Dictionary definitions of constructiveness contain words such as *serving to improve, develop, or advance; helpful*. For the academic department, I see this as being willing to help build a better department, college, and/or university.

The polar opposite of constructiveness is destructiveness which involves the tendency or intention to damage or destroy. Fortunately, I have been exposed to only a few instances of

broadly targeted destructiveness efforts (e.g., aimed at another academic department or individual).

Those faculty members who are obstructionist, lie somewhere between constructive and destructive faculty members. We all have dealt with faculty who object to any new idea or change, particularly if it was not their idea.

6. **Commitment.** Dictionary definitions contain words such *as promise, pledge, engaging oneself*. Do you take ownership in your department? Are you committed to improving your department? Are you committed to improving yourself?

DREAMPLE

DREAMPLE is an acronym for the following elements:

- Dependability
- Respect
- Ethics
- Availability
- Mentoring
- Productivity
- Loyalty
- Energy generator vs. drainers

1. **Dependability.** Synonyms for dependable include *reliable, trustworthy, faithful, steady, responsible,* and *steadfast*. The key question here is "Can your institution and colleagues depend on you to do what is right, all of the time?" To me, this is absolutely one of the most important characteristics of a good faculty member. If a department is filled with dependable faculty, it will most likely be one with a high PSOC.

A corollary question is "Are you a "go to" person?" For example, are you a person that the administration can ask to make a presentation to the public? to community or business audience? to an Advisory Board? to prospective students? Are you concerned about being associated with and helping create and maintain excellence?

2. **Respect.** Respect involves *holding an individual or organization in esteem or honor.*Conversely, rude conduct is usually considered to indicate a lack of respect or disrespect. Haidt (2007) states that respect for tradition and legitimate authority is identified

is one of five fundamental *moral values* shared to a greater or lesser degree by different societies and individuals.

The AAUP guidelines (1999) has this to say about respect: "Membership in the academic community imposes….an obligation to respect the dignity of others, to acknowledge their right to express differing opinions, and to foster and defend intellectual honesty, freedom of inquiry and instruction, and free expression on and off the campus. The expression of dissent and the attempt to produce change, there, may not be carried out in ways that injure individuals…."

It is rather obvious that when all departmental members demonstrate respect for everyone involved – each other, administrators, staff, and students – the department's PSOC has an excellent chance to be excellent.

Consider the following selected "tips:"

   a. Treat ALL students with respect – not just the "best" ones.
   b. Separate your evaluation of the PERSON from your evaluation of the person's PERFORMANCE.
   c. You may not be able to like everyone, but you CAN treat those you do not like with respect – all the time.
   d. Treat everyone's opinions with respect.
   e. Just because someone disagrees with does NOT make them your enemy!
   f. Just because someone has a different opinion does NOT mean that they are injuring you!
   g. We are all members of the "academy." Different points of view should be expected and encouraged.
   h. The key is to use disagreements to find a better solution. Remember "thesis ➔ antithesis ➔ synthesis."

3. **Ethics.** Ethical behavior involves *what people consider moral and right*. It means being politically correct and fair. Good departments contain individuals that are ALWAYS ethical in everything they do.

Here are some examples at least skirt the line of demarcation.

   a. Attempting to manipulate colleagues' opinions or actions. Be open and up front regarding your personal agendas.
   b. Ignoring the wishes of the department when serving on university committees and, instead, voting based on personal agendas.

    c. Voting on issues based on personal agendas, rather than according to established criteria. This is particularly important relative to tenure and promotion votes.

    d. Bullying anyone, particularly young faculty! Bullying is the use of force or coercion to abuse or intimidate others. Bullying targets may be the object of unwanted physical contact, violence, obscene or loud language during meetings, disparaged among their colleagues in venues they are not aware of, or face difficulties when seeking promotion.

4. **Availability.** Fortunately, most faculty members feel obligated to share their time with colleagues and students. Unfortunately, some faculty members are like ghosts – they show up only to teach their classes, but are reluctant to keep office hours and are difficult to schedule for committee meetings. Further, some faculty do a poor job of checking and/or responding to phone and email messages (a sign of disrespect!). While information technology certainly makes it much easier to "work from home," visibility helps foster PSOC.

5. **Mentoring.** Mentoring involves *a personal development relationship in which a more experienced or more knowledgeable faculty member helps to guide a less experienced faculty member*. In addition to answering occasional questions or providing ad hoc help, good mentoring also involves an ongoing relationship of learning, dialog, and challenge. Departments whose members provide rich informal and formal mentoring have a better chance of generating a positive PSOC.

6. **Productivity.** Competence was mentioned earlier. Productivity in this context is a little narrower, specifically focused on research and teaching. Being a productive researcher involves generating publications (and/or grants) in sufficient quantity and quality to help the department achieve its mission. For example, if you are at a school accredited by AACSB International, you need to be "academically qualified." If you are at a "R1" institution, even more scholarly activity is needed, particularly from a quality perspective. Note that great publishing does not justify slacking off in other areas! We have all encountered faculty members who feel that "I am a great publisher and do not have to do anything else well."
Relative to teaching, productivity relates to generating student credit hours (SCHs). Yes, I know that senior faculty gravitate towards upper level and graduate courses, and that their total SCHs will tend to be smaller than those faculty members who teach introductory type courses. Still, all faculty members should handle their fair share of SCHs.

7. **Loyalty.** Loyalty is generally defined *as faithfulness, allegiance, or devotion to a person, country, group, or cause.* Many young faculty members leave their doctoral programs with a strong loyalty to self and their discipline. As time goes by, this loyalty often expands to include the academic department (hopefully), college, and university.
An example of how loyalty can be manifested involves a faculty member coming to the defense of his or her colleagues relative to unjust criticism. Similarly, loyal faculty members will brag on their when appropriate.

8. **Energy generator vs. drainer**. Departments with a healthy PSOC will contain faculty members who are energy generators, rather than energy drainers.

An e*nergy drainer* is:

  a. generally negative,
  b. makes simple cases more complicated than they really are,
  c. sees a dark side in almost everything,
  d. has a strong tendency to complain about anything and everything, both at home and at work, and/or
  e. tends to blame others for their shortcomings.

The negative and dissatisfactory nature of their comments and behavior tend to waste other people's time, thereby draining their energy. An e*nergy generator* seldom complains and is almost always positive, even when things go wrong. Instead of wasting the group members' time and energy with complaints, they try to help searching for a constructive solution to problems.

FINAL OBSERVATIONS

Leadership plays an important role in the development of a departmental sense of community. Individual faculty members certainly can exert leadership, hopefully positive. Collectively, department faculty members have a choice regarding whether they want to have a department with a positive sense of community. Further, the department chair or head sets the tone and direction for the evolution of sense of community.

If you have colleagues who are setting a negative tone, *do not let others' behavior affect YOUR behavior*. Yes, people around you and above you will occasionally do things that you find outrageous. Yes, it is difficult to soar like an eagle when you are surrounded by a flock of turkeys, but you need to try! It is so much more fun to go to work when you enjoy the experience. I urge you to be a positive contributor to your department's sense of community.

REFERENCES

AAUP (1999) http://www.aaup.org/report/collegiality-criterion-faculty-evaluation

Burgess, Guy & Burgess, Heidi (1997). The Meaning of Civility. Copyrighted by the Conflict Research Consortium, University Colorado.

Cipriano, Bob. Professor Emeritus and former Chair of Southern Connecticut State University's Recreation and Leisure Studies Department, 'Collegiality' Webinar.

Fogg, Piper (2013). Young Ph.D.'s say collegiality matters more than salary, *Chronicle of Higher Education*, March 26, 2013.

Gusfield, J. R. (1975). *The community: A critical response*. New York: Harper Colophon.

Haidt, Jonathan & Graham, Jesse (2007). When morality opposes justice: conservatives have moral intuitions that liberals may not recognize. *Social Justice Research* 20 (1): 98–116.

McMillan, D.W., & Chavis, D.M. (1986). Sense of community: A definition and theory. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 14(1), 6-23.

Powers, Charles and Ray Maghroori. (2006) How to avoid having dysfunctional departments on your campus." *Academic Leader 22*(2).

Pretty, G. (1990). Relating psychological sense of community to social climate characteristics. *Journal of Community Psychology,* 18, 60-65.

Pretty, G., Andrews, L. & Collett, C. (1994). Exploring adolescents' sense of community and its relationship to loneliness. *Journal of Community Psychology,* 22, 346-358.

Pretty, G., & McCarthy, M. (1991). Exploring psychological sense of community among women and men of the corporation. *Journal of Community Psychology, 19,* 351-361.

Sarason, S.B. (1974). *The psychological sense of community: Prospects for a community psychology*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. (Out of print. See *American Psychology and Schools*.)

Tönnies, F. (1955). *Community and association*. Norfolk, UK: Lowe & Brydone.

DEVELOPING EMPATHY AS A MEANS OF EDUCATING LEADERS
TO BECOME SERVANTS

Jeffrey L. McClellan, Frostburg State University
jlmcclellan@frostburg.edu

ABSTRACT

Servant leadership is emerging as a major model for leadership practice and education. Nonetheless, little has been written about how the servant nature, or motivation to serve, of servant-leaders may be developed through sound educational practices. This article explores the research on empathy education as a means of promoting servant-leadership development.

INTRODUCTION

"It is easier to make a 'leader' than a 'servant,' to indulge hierarchies and control than to embrace service and collaboration" (Beazley & Beggs, 2002, p. 61).

Over the past few years, the concept of servant leadership has been increasing in popularity. Even in the academy where servant leadership has traditionally received criticism due to the limited research that had been done on the topic (Northouse, 2004), opinions appear to be changing. This is likely due to the increasing interest in and quantity of research on servant-leadership (McClellan, 2008) and the growing evidence that it is both different from other models (Smith, Montagno, & Kuzmenko, 2004; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003) and a major predictor of leadership outcomes (McClellan, 2008).

As a result of this growing interest in servant-leadership, a large number of academic and professional programs have emerged that focus on teaching and training people to practice servant-leadership. Many of these programs focus on teaching theory and promoting the development of the skills and practices associated with servant-leadership. In Greenleaf's terms, much of this work is focused on helping natural servants to develop as leaders. Unfortunately, very little has been done to explore how education and training efforts might help individuals to become servants. This article explores this question by examining the fundamental theoretical core of servant-leadership and its foundation in empathy. Based on this foundation, essential elements of a curriculum for servant oriented education are discussed.

SERVANT-LEADERSHIP AND EMPATHY

In Greenleaf's seminal work on servant leadership, he declared "it [referring to servant leadership] begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice inspires one to lead." This statement differentiates servant leadership from all other leadership models because it places the emphasis the emotional realm of leadership. According to Greenleaf, one feels ones way in to servant-leadership. This is consistent with the emphasis placed on caring, compassion, and love (the heart of a servant) in the servant-leadership literature (Greenleaf, 2002; Spears & SanFacon, 2009). Nonetheless, this emphasis begs the question of how one might develop the heart of a servant. This emotion-based drive to serve others out of compassion that ultimately contributes to one's conscious choice to lead. The answer is likely empathy.

Numerous scholars in various fields of study have come to recognize that at the very center of the human capacity to care for others lays the both innate and learned skill of empathy (Slote, 2007). Empathy is a complex-multifaceted, and difficult to define concept. Indeed, Batson (2009) identified eight different approaches to defining empathy. These range from and include being aware of others internal states, mimicking or understanding those states, and actually feeling what others feel. Regardless of how it is defined specifically, however, there appears to be at least some agreement that empathy involves recognizing the emotions of others through conscious and subconscious neural processes that results in a connection with the other and an understanding of his or her needs.

As, Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002) explained:

> The ability to empathize . . . stems from neurons in extended circuitry connected to, and in, the amygdala that read another person's face and voice for emotion and continually attune us to how someone else feels as we speak with them. This circuitry sends out a steady stream of bulletins. . . which the prefrontal zone and related areas use to fine tune what we say or do next. . . . This circuitry also attunes our own biology to the dominant range of feelings of the person we are with, so that our emotional states tend to converge (p. 48).

To a large extent the capacity to empathize is an innate component of our genetic inheritance based on the ability humans possess to recognize and respond to facial expressions (Ekman, 2007), our natural tendencies to mimic others "facial expressions, vocal expressions, posture, and instrumental behaviors" (Hatfield, Rapson, & Le, 2009, p. 26), the existence and impact of mirror neurons (Hatfield et al., 2009; van Baaren, Decety, Dijksterhuis, van der Leij, & van Leeuwen, 2009; Watson & Greenberg, 2009) and the role of pheromones in influencing mood states (Buck & Ginsburg, 1997).

The existences of these innate processes for facilitating empathic responses do not, however, infer that empathy is purely an innate capacity. As is the case with many genetic components of identity, experience and learning can shape how strongly empathy is expressed how well it is developed. Thus, numerous semi-conscious and conscious processes exist that influence empathic expression. Many of these involve imagination. Through projection, humans are able to think about how others may feel and, as a result, promote similar mood states in themselves (Watson & Greenberg, 2009). Intentional inquiry regarding the actual state of others complements this process and further amplifies empathic accuracy (Feshbach & Feshbach, 2009; Goleman, 2011).

Through these processes of emotional attunement, we come to share emotions with, identify with, and ultimately care about others (Eisenberg, 2005; Gano-Overway et al., 2009), as long as we are not overwhelmed by the emotions that we experience during the process (Batson, 2009; Eisenberg, 2005; Laurenceau, 1998; Noddings, 2003). In other words, we develop the heart of a servant and may, as a result, choose to lead.

DEVELOPING EMPATHY AND THE DESIRE TO SERVE

If empathy lies at the root of the caring and compassion that motivates one to serve others, then the answer to the question of how to develop servant leaders is that one does so by promoting the development of empathy. It is worth noting, however, that unlike traditional educational practices that are designed to promote understanding or skill development, empathic education is focused on altering the emotional responses of others. This is not an easy task' nor one that is learned quickly.

Emotional learning requires deeper level learning, as well established patterns of behavior and neurologic processes must be revised (Goleman, 2011). As the old priest in the novel *The Brothers Karamazov* explained to his young apprentice, "Love . . . does not come easily, one achieves it through relentless and protracted effort, because one must not love casually, just for an instant, but to the very end" (Dostoevsky, 1994, p. 401). This can be achieved through educational practices that both promote an understanding of the importance of empathy development in leadership and the use of educational practices designed to strengthen empathic interaction.

PROMOTING THE IMPORTANCE OF EMPATHY EDUCATION

According to Gardner (2004), those wishing to advocate and educate for empathy development among leaders have seven tools at their disposal for changing people minds. These seven mechanisms include: rational persuasion (Reason), empirical support (Research), emotional resonance (Resonance), an abundance of ways of conveying the idea convincingly

(Representational Re-descriptions), offers of support and rewards (Resources and rewards), the occurrence of events in the environment that reinforce the change (Real world events), and addressing the person's specific concerns and limitations in relation to the desired change (Resistances).

As Gardner (2004) explained, "a mind change is most likely to come about when the first six factors operate in consort and the resistances are relatively weak" (p. 18). This is, fortunately, the case for the argument related to empathy development in leaders. Reason and research both suggests that a connection between leaders and followers is necessary for leadership to even occur (Bennis, 1999; Kelley, 1992; Wang, Law, Hackett, Duanxu, & Chen, 2005; Yun, Cox, & Sims Jr, 2006). Furthermore, truly effective leadership requires the development of a relationship based on mutual understanding of needs, values, and positive interaction that is based in interpersonal skills, which require empathic understanding (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Cameron, 2008; Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Goleman et al., 2002; Northouse, 2004; Seligman, 2011; 2002).

Resonance is also clearly important as the very definition implies the creation of an emotional connection between leaders and followers. Re-descriptions and real world events further support the need for empathy as leaders who lack the ability to understand, connect, and respond to the needs of others are frequently in the news as a result of performance failures, ethical violations, and other challenges that caused them to lose their connection with their followers and, as a result, their leadership position (Heifetz, 1994; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002; Kellerman, 2004).

Rewards and support can be a little more problematic as many organizations are only beginning to provide rewards and support for relational approaches to leadership in addition to the more traditional support offered for short-term outcomes. As this occurs and awareness of the importance of empathic education increases, educators and trainers can promote empathic development through a focus on promoting attention and awareness, augmenting listening skills, emphasizing emotional intelligence, and insuring accountability for empathic responding.

PROMOTING ATTENTION AND AWARENESS

Given the innate capacity humans have to empathize with others, it is not always a lack of desire that interferes with empathy, but rather the tendency to overlook or become distracted from the emotional stimuli that surround one thereby limiting the potential for empathic responsiveness (Ekman, 2007). This is because virtually all neurological processes begin with the conscious or subconscious application of attention as a means of achieving awareness (Goleman, 2011; LeDoux, 1997; Lehrer, 2009; Rock, 2009). In the case of empathy, the subconscious processes of emotional contagion are partially dependent on attention and awareness. One must see, hear, smell, or otherwise sense emotionally salient stimuli for them to have an impact. If one is not listening, one cannot hear the emotion in another's tone of voice. If a leader is not looking at a

follower, he cannot respond to emotional facial expressions or engage mirror neurons. If attentiveness is only partial or the individual's self-orientation is too high emotional signals will be weak, confused with one's own emotions, or simply less accurate.

In relation to the conscious, imaginative processes of empathy, attentiveness and awareness are essential. Indeed, they require a significant direction of attention and effort, which Noddings (Noddings, 2002, 2003) refers to as engrossment or motivational displacement. Other scholars refer to this attitude of engagement as presence or being present (Buber & Kaufmann, 1970; Gerzon, 2006; Palmer, 2004; Roberts, 2007; Seligman, 2011; Senge, Sharmer, Jaworski, & Flowers, 2004). Quinn called it the fundamental state of leadership (Quinn, 2004). Greenleaf referred to it as opening wide the doors of perception or seeking (Greenleaf, 2002).

The core procedural components of this attitude of attentiveness involve developing a big picture perspective or broad view of the situation, followed by suspending judgment and increasing ones openness to external stimuli. As more information is brought in the individual retreats mentally to a state of reflection on the content and its relevance to the situation. This leads to insights, often flashes of intuitive insight that one acts upon in order to address the needs of the moment (Andreasen, 2005; Goleman, 2011; Nachmanovitch, 1990; Rock, 2006). Mindfulness training appears to be central to the capacity to develop and retain this type of receptive attitude (Boleyn-Fitzgerald, 2010; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Ekman, 2007; Goleman, 2011; Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003).

LISTENING ABILITY

To develop an attitude of attentiveness and to capitalize on it in order to to promote growth as a servant, one must develop the ability to listen empathically. Throughout Greenleaf's (1996, 2002, 2003) writings, listening is considered an essential characteristic and skill of servant leaders. Furthermore, Greenleaf (2002) argued that a sustained practice of listening represented the primary means of helping non-servants become servants. Listening begins where attention leaves off. Indeed, attention, along with attitude, is what primes one for listening well. As Greenleaf (1996) wrote,

Listening might be defined as an attitude toward other people and what they are attempting to express. It begins with attention, both the outward manifestation and the inward alertness. It includes constructive responses that help the other person express both thoughts and feelings. The good listener has trained his or her memory to retain what is expressed and to refrain from piecemeal value judgments. (p. 70).

Thus, listening begins with attention. Not only attention to the words one hears, but rather to the larger cacophony of inputs (both internal and external) from the environment. This should be

done with an attitude of seeking to capture relevant information necessary to understand and respond to what is occurring (Brownell, 2008; Hesselbein, 2006). Obviously, all of this information cannot be processed consciously and simultaneously. Consequently, listening becomes a process that begins before one communicates with another person and continues as one considers one's own thoughts and feelings, the context, history and background for the communication. As one communicates, one is open and receptive and intently aware of what is being said, as well as what is going on within oneself, within the context, and within the other. One also speaks in order to listen, typically through questioning or parroting information in order to better understand and to communicate understanding. Finally, listening continues beyond the actual communication setting as one reflects on what occurred with a continually open stance of striving to understand the situation and making relevant and appropriate decisions in relation thereto (Brownell, 2008; Glaser, 2004; Thompson, Leintz, Nevers, & Witkowski, 2004).

Listening, like speaking, requires that a leader clearly articulate the purpose for listening and engage in effective listening practices, including seeking feedback to ensure accuracy. Through analyzing the stages of effective coaching and the type of listening required at each stage, I have identified the following positive purposes for listening: to build a relationship by demonstrating caring, to encourage or reinforce, to understand, to assist in problem solving, and to support. In contrast, one can also listen to hurt, to discourage, or to argue with others. The literature generally supports these categories as relevant to listening and responding (Cameron, 2008; Seligman, 2011; Thompson et al., 2004). Obviously, the purpose for which an individual is listening impacts the information one attends to and considers and may impact the techniques used.

With regard to engaging in effective listening practices, it is worth distinguishing between listening techniques that are designed to make one look like one is listening as opposed to techniques that actually facilitate listening. Techniques that facilitate listening include taking notes, allowing time for responding, asking questions, requesting clarity, providing and seeking feedback, and attending (Estes, 2010; Gallo, 2007; Greenleaf, 1978). These contrast with appearance oriented behaviors like maintaining eye contact and sitting on the edge of one's seat. While the latter are indicators of listening attentively; if one is thinking about doing them, he or she is probably not listening. Regardless developing listening skills requires listening effectively over time to both the message and the emotion of oneself and the other via empathic listening (Covey, 1989). Any attempt to foster empathy will of necessity include training in effective empathic listening. Greenleaf (1996) specifically suggested,

Everyone who aspires to strength should consciously practice listening, regularly. Every week, set aside an hour to listen to somebody who might have something to say that will be of interest. It should be conscious practice in which all of the impulses   to argue, inform, judge, and "straighten out" the other person are denied. Every response should be calculated to reflect interest, understanding, seeking for more knowledge. Practice listening for brief periods, too. Just thirty seconds of concentrated listening may make the difference between understanding and not understanding something important. (p. 70)

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

As a result of their emphasis on promoting the holistic growth of followers, servant leaders of necessity strive to promote what positive psychology refers to as flourishing or well-being. The key components of this model are positive emotionality, positive relationships, meaning, achievement, and engagement or flow (Seligman, 2011). In order to promote such positive development, those who are not servant leaders must be taught to manage their own emotions in order to influence others (Feldman & Mulle, 2007; Goleman, 1995, 2006, 2011; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Caruso, & Hee Yoo, 2009). Thus, servant leadership and emotional intelligence are closely related concepts (Winston & Hartsfield, 2004), Consequently, emotional intelligence represents an essential component of any developmental training of would be servant-leaders. This requires instruction and experiential development relative to both controlling negative emotions and engaging in positive emotional influence.

The ability to effectively manage emotion in these ways is based on core competencies related to emotional self-awareness, emotion regulation, awareness of others emotions, and emotional influence (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995; Goleman et al., 2002; Low & Nelson, 2006; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008) Given the close connection between these skills and empathy, the need for this kind of training, in relation to servant-leadership development, is highly intuitive.

Traditionally, much of the training and development within such programs has focused on fostering awareness of negative emotions and negative emotion management (Bar-On, Maree, & Elias, 2007; Feldman & Mulle, 2007; Goleman, 1995; Reynolds, 2004). However, for leaders to promote growth and development via positive organizational practices and cultures, it is essential that they also learn to generate positive emotion within themselves and those they lead (Cameron, 2008; Csikszentmihalyi, 2003; Hallowell, 1998; Seligman, 2011). While formal training represents an important component of successful such emotional intelligence education, coaching appears to be one of the better methods for development in this arena (Bharwaney, 2007; Boyatzis, 2007; Shankman & Allen, 2008; Wolfe., 2007). While there exists an abundance of literature on emotional intelligence training, relatively little of it focuses on the use of positive emotion in leadership (Bar-On et al., 2007; Feshbach & Feshbach, 2009; Goleman et al., 2002).

ACCOUNTABILITY IN RESPONDING

If leaders are to become effective in demonstrating empathy as a means of developing servant leadership, they must become accountable, personally and professionally, for demonstrating empathy. Virtually all intentional personal learning and leadership development are based on feedback and accountability (Argyris & Schön, 1996; Bloom, 1978; Brown & Duguid, 2001;

Goleman et al., 2002; Jensen, 1998; Kline & Saunders, 1998; Leamnson, 1999; Senge, 1990; Smilkstein, 2003; Zenger & Folkman, 2002).

Individuals should, therefore, identify specific attitudes, competencies, and behaviors in which they desire to improve and then they must account for and receive feedback regarding their improvement. Consequently, leaders who would become servant-leaders must practice the attitude of empathy and engage in the practical behaviors associated with empathy (listening, perspective taking, emotion regulation, etc.) while receiving feedback from followers and other observers if they wish to develop the heart of the servant.

At first, the behaviors may seem rehearsed or unnatural. This is to be expected in the early stages of practice; however, over time these will become more natural and emotional and behavioral congruency will improve. The best means of assuring feedback and accountability in the process of learning is to incorporate 360 degree evaluations, coaching, and action learning communities (Goleman et al., 2002; Mezirow & Taylor, 2009; Revans, 1977; Ting & Riddle, 2006; Zenger & Folkman, 2002; Zenger & Folkman, 2005). These approaches allow for the iterative learning that is essential to the development of emotional skill.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, empathy is a critical component of what it means to engage in servant leadership. Furthermore, it is a natural ability that can be developed and refined to amplify leadership influence and success. To this end, intentional efforts should be placed not only on developing the leadership skills of natural servants, but also on developing the empathic ability of both natural servants and those who may not tend towards this approach.

In order to do so, leadership development practitioners and educator should focus on promoting the importance of empathy in leadership and educate for increased awareness and attentiveness, effective listening, and emotional intelligence. In addition, they should emphasize the importance of accountability and feedback throughout the development process. Through intentional design and structuring of educational environments that include traditional instruction, mindfulness training, coaching, and action learning, empathy can be taught, developed, and can influence the overall abundance and effectiveness of servant leaders in society.

REFERENCES

Andreasen, N. C. (2005). *The creative brain: The science of genius*. New York: Plume.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. A. (1996). *Organizational learning II*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.

Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence. *Psicothema, 17*(supl), 13-25.

Bar-On, R., Maree, K., & Elias, M. J. (2007). *Educating people to be emotionally intelligent*. Westport, Conn.: Praeger Publishers.

Batson, C. D. (2009). These things we called empathy: Eight related but distinct phenomena. In J. Decety & W. J. Ickes (Eds.), *The social neuroscience of empathy* (pp. 3-15). Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Beazley, H., & Beggs, J. (2002). Teaching servant-leadership. In L. Spears & M. Lawrence (Eds.), *Focus on leadership: Servant-leadership for the twenty-first century* (pp. 53-63). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Bennis, W. (1999). The end of leadership: Exemplary leadership is impossible without full inclusion, initiatives, and cooperation of followers. *Organizational Dynamics, 28*(1), 71-79.

Bharwaney, G. (2007). Coaching executives to enhance emotional intelligence and increase productivity. In R. Bar-On, J. G. Maree & M. J. Elias (Eds.), *Educating People to be Emotionally Intelligent* (pp. 183-198). Westport, CT: Praeger.

Bloom, B. S. (1978). New views of the learner: Implications for instruction and curriculum. *Educational Leadership, 35*(7), 563-575.

Boleyn-Fitzgerald, M. (2010). *Pictures of the mind: What the new neuroscience tells us about who we are*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: FT Press.

Boyatzis, R. E. (2007). Developing emotional intelligence through coaching for leadership, professional, and occupational excellence. In R. Bar-On, J. G. Maree & M. J. Elias (Eds.), *Educating People to be Emotionally Intelligent* (pp. 155-168). Westport, CT: Praeger.

Boyatzis, R. E., & McKee, A. (2005). *Resonant Leadership: Renewing yourself and connecting with others through mindfulness, hope, and compassion*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Brown, J. S., & Duguid, P. (2001). Balancing act: How to capture knowledge without killing it *Harvard business review on organizational learning* (pp. 1-20). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Brownell, J. (2008). Exploring the strategic ground for listening and organizational effectiveness. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 8*(3), 211-229.

Buber, M., & Kaufmann, W. A. (1970). *I and Thou*. New York,: Touchstone.

Buck, R., & Ginsburg, B. (1997). Communicative genes and the evolution of empathy. In W. Ickes (Ed.), *Empathic Accuracy* (pp. 17-43). New York: Guilford Publications.

Cameron, K. S. (2008). *Positive leadership: Strategies for extraordinary performance*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Cameron, K. S., Dutton, J. E., & Quinn, R. E. (2003). *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Covey, S. R. (1989). *The seven habits of highly effective people*. New York: Simon and Schuster.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2003). *Good business: Leadership, flow, and the making of meaning*. New York: Viking Penguin.

Dostoevsky, F. (1994). *The Karamazov Brothers* (I. Avsey, Trans.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Eisenberg, N. (2005). The development of empathy-related responding. In G. Carlo (Ed.), *Moral motivation through the life span* (pp. 73-117). Lincoln University of Nebraska Press.

Ekman, P. (2007). *Emotions revealed: Recognizing faces and feelings to improve communication and emotional life* (2nd ed.). New York: Owl Books.

Estes, E. L., 110(2), 169-178. (2010). Listening, Language, and Learning: Skills of Highly Qualified Listening and Spoken Language Specialists in Educational Settings. *Volta Review, 110*(2), 169-178.

Feldman, J., & Mulle, K. (2007). *Put emotional intelligence to work: EQuip yourself for success*. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.

Feshbach, N. D., & Feshbach, S. (2009). Empathy and education. In J. Decety & W. J. Ickes (Eds.), *The social neuroscience of empathy* (pp. 85-97). Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Gallo, C. (2007). Why Leadership Means Listening. *BusinessWeek, Online, 30*, Retrieved from EBSCO*host*.

Gano-Overway, L. A., Magyar, T. M., Kim, M.-S., Newton, M., Fry, M. D., & Guivernau, M. R. (2009). Influence of caring youth sports contexts on efficacy related beliefs and social behaviors. *Developmental Psychology, 45*(2), 329-340.

Gardner, H. (2004). *Changing Minds: The art and challenge of changing our own and other peoples minds*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Gerzon, M. (2006). *Leading through conflict: How successful leaders transform differences into opportunities*. Boston: Harvard Business School.

Glaser, J. E. (2004). Precision listening. *Executive Excellence*(21), 8.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (2006). *Working with emotional intelligence* (Bantam hardcover reissue ed.). New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (2011). *The brain and emotional intelligence* (Digital Edition ed.). More Than Sound: Northhampton, MA.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1978). *Servant, leader & follower*. New York: Paulist Press.

Greenleaf, R. K. (1996). *On becoming a servant-leader: The private writings of Robert K. Greenleaf*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Greenleaf, R. K. (2002). *Servant leadership: A journey into the nature of legitimate power and greatness* (25th Anniversary ed.). New York/Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.

Greenleaf, R. K. (2003). The servant as leader (Original 1970 edition). In H. Beazley, J. Beggs & L. C. Spears (Eds.), *The servant-leader within : A transformative path* (pp. 29-74). New York: Paulist Press.

Hallowell, E. M. (1998). The human moment at work. *Harvard Business Review, 77*, 58-66.

Hatfield, E., Rapson, R. L., & Le, Y.-C. L. (2009). Emotional contagion and empathy. In J. Decety & W. J. Ickes (Eds.), *The social neuroscience of empathy* (pp. 19-30). Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Heifetz, R. A. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Heifetz, R. A., & Linsky, M. (2002). *Leadership on the line: Staying alive through the dangers of leading*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Hesselbein, F. (2006). The art of listening. *Leadership Excellence, 23*(5), 6.

Jensen, E. (1998). *Teaching with the brain in mind*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Kellerman, B. (2004). *Bad leadership: What it is, how it happens, why it matters*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Kelley, R. E. (1992). *The power of followership: How to create leaders people want to follow, and followers who lead themselves* (1st ed.). New York: Doubleday/Currency.

Kline, P., & Saunders, B. (1998). *Ten steps to a learning organization* (2nd ed.). Arlington, VA: Great Ocean Publishers.

Laurenceau, J.-P. (1998). Intimacy as an interpersonal process: The importance of self-disclosure, partner disclosure, and perceived partner responsiveness in interpersonal exchanges. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(5), 1238-1251.

Leamnson, R. (1999). *Thinking about Teaching and Learning*

LeDoux, J. E. (1997). Emotion, memory, and the brain. *Scientific American, 7*(1), 68-75.

Lehrer, J. (2009). *How we decide*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Low, G. R., & Nelson, D. B. (2006). Emotional intelligence and college success: A research-based assessment and intervention model. *A paper submitted to the Center for Education Development & Evaluation Research (CEDER).* Retrieved September 18, 2010, from http://www.tamuk.edu/edu/kwei000/Research/Articles/Article_files/EI_and_College_Success-2006_cederpaper.pdf

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D., & Salovey, P. (2000). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for intelligence. *Intelligence, 27*(4), 267-298.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Implications for Educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2008). Emotional intelligence: New ability or eclectic traits? *American Psychologist, 63*(6), 503-517.

McClellan, J. L. (2008). *A Correlational Analysis of the Relationship between Servant-Leadership and Psychological Hardiness Among Leaders in Higher Education.* Ph.D. Dissertation, Gonzaga University, Spokane, WA.

Mezirow, J., & Taylor, E. W. (2009). *Transformative learning in practice : insights from community, workplace, and higher education* (1st ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Nachmanovitch, S. (1990). *Free play: Improvisation in life and art*. New York: Penguin Putnam.

Noddings, N. (2002). *Starting at home: Caring and social policy*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Noddings, N. (2003). *Caring: A feminine approach to ethics and moral education* (2 ed.). Berkley, CA: University of California Press.

Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. London: Sage.

Palmer, P. J. (2004). *A hidden wholeness: The journey towards an undivided life: Welcoming the soul and weaving community in a wounded world*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Quinn, R. E. (2004). *Building the bridge as you walk on it: A guide for leading change*. San Francisco Jossey-Bass.

Revans, R. W. (1977). An action learning trust. *Journal of European Industrial Training, 1*(1), 2-5.

Reynolds, M. (2004). *Outsmart your brain: Get happy, get heard, and get your way at work*. Phoenix, AZ: Covisioning.

Roberts, D. C. (2007). *Deeper learning in leadership: Helping college students find the potential within*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Rock, D. (2006). *Quiet leadership: Help people think better -- don't tell them what to do: Six steps to transforming performance at work* (1st ed.). New York: Collins.

Rock, D. (2009). *Your brain at work: Strategies for overcoming distraction, regaining focus, and working smarter all day long* (1st ed.). New York: Harper Business.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition, and Personality, 9*(185-211).

Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D., & Hee Yoo, S. (2009). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 237-248). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Seligman, M. E. P. (2011, 2002). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. New York: Free Press.

Senge, P. M. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York: Doubleday/Currency.

Senge, P. M., Sharmer, C. O., Jaworski, J., & Flowers, B. S. (2004). *Presence: Human purpose and the field of the future* (1st ed.). Cambridge, MA: SoL.

Shankman, M. L., & Allen, S. J. (2008). *Emotionally intelligent leadership: A guide for college students* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Slote, M. A. (2007). *The ethics of care and empathy*. New York: Routledge.

Smilkstein, R. (2003). *We're born to learn: Using the brains natural learning process to create today's curriculum*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Smith, B. N., Montagno, R. V., & Kuzmenko, T. N. (2004). Transformational and servant leadership: Content and contextual comparisons. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 10*(4), 80-91.

Spears, L. C., & SanFacon, G. (2009). Holistic servant-leadership. *The International Journal of Servant Leadership, 5*(1), 35-47.

Stone, A. G., Russell, R. F., & Patterson, K. (2003). *Transformational vs. servant leadership: A difference in leader focus.* Paper presented at the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable.

Sutcliffe, K. M., & Vogus, T. J. (2003). Organizing for resilience. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Thompson, K., Leintz, P., Nevers, B., & Witkowski, S. (2004). The Integrative Listening Model: An Approach to teaching and learning listening. *JGE: The Journal of General Education, 53*(3/4), 225-246.

Ting, S., & Riddle, D. (2006). A framework for leadership development coaching. In P. Scisco & Center for Creative Leadership. (Eds.), *The CCL handbook of coaching : a guide for the leader coach* (1st ed., pp. 34-62). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

van Baaren, R. B., Decety, J., Dijksterhuis, A., van der Leij, A., & van Leeuwen, M. L. (2009). Being imitated: Consequences of nonconsciously showing empathy. In J. Decety & W. J. Ickes (Eds.), *The social neuroscience of empathy* (pp. 31-42). Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R. D., Duanxu, W., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal, 48*(3), 420-432.

Watson, J. C., & Greenberg, L. S. (2009). Empathic resonance: A neuroscience perspective. In J. Decety & W. J. Ickes (Eds.), *The social neuroscience of empathy* (pp. 125-137). Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Winston, B. E., & Hartsfield, M. (2004). *Similarities between emotional intelligence and servant leadership.* Paper presented at the Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, Regent University.

Wolfe., C. J. (2007). The practice of emotional intelligence coaching in organizations: A hands on guide to successful outcomes. In R. Bar-On, J. G. Maree & M. J. Elias (Eds.), *Educating People to be Emotionally Intelligent* (pp. 169-182). Westport, CT: Praeger.

Yun, S., Cox, J., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2006). The forgotten follower: A contingency model of leadership and follower self-leadership. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21*(4), 374-388.

Zenger, J. H., & Folkman, J. (2002). *The Extraordinary leader: Turning good managers into great leaders*. San Francisco: McGraw Hill.

Zenger, J. H., & Folkman, J. (2005). How to make leadership development pay off *UVSelf Leadership Development Forum*. Utah Valley State College, Orem, UT.

EXAMINING QUESTION FORM AND FUNCTION
IN THE DISASTER PRESS CONFERENCE

John R. Fisher, Utah Valley University
john.fisher@uvu.edu

ABSTRACT

This study uses a structural functional perspective in examining the form and function of questions in a presidential disaster press conference on May 27, 2010 about the Deepwater BP Oil Spill. Clayman and Heritage (2002) proposed a framework to examine the questions and responses in a press conference while Fisher (1991) offered a method to study media function. These were both applied to the disaster press conference. Findings were used to develop recommendations for public officials and PIOs in working with the media. Despite the fact that this case suggests an adversarial relationship between public officials and the media, public officials need to focus on public information needs in meeting with the press. In addition to questions about the reasons and impact of the disaster, public officials need to be prepared to respond to questions about accountability and responsibility for disasters.

INTRODUCTION

Officials in public safety and emergency management organizations are responsible for ensuring that the affected public receives accurate and timely information during an emergency. Armed with good information, people are better able to make good decisions and, by doing so, contribute to the overall response goal of saving lives and protecting property. One of the primary ways for emergency management officials to provide this vital information to the public is through the media. One of the tools they use is the press conference (FEMA, 2009). However, many public officials when they hear the words, "press conference," feel apprehensive. The pen-ultimate press conference is when the press meets the president, which Larry Speakes compared to a "Roman Circus" (Mountains out of Washington molehills, 1985). No wonder ordinary executives, including those at the city level or county level, find the press conference intimidating. This paper examines the literature related to press conferences in public service, looking at the role of the press conference in emergencies, and making recommendations to emergency management officials for using it more effectively. Because the presidential press conference is the most studied press conference, it is appropriate that it be examined in the context of disasters and lessons learned applied to public officials at all levels. This study uses a structural functional perspective in examining the form and function of disaster press conferences.

Using the Press Conference in Emergency Situations

The press conference is an opportunity for public officials to show the media and the public that they are "organized, effective, and responsible…in the face of disaster" (Folkerts, 1999). Regularly scheduled press conferences through the course of the crisis can keep the press up-to-date on developments and provide them with vital information to pass along, thus allaying public concerns and preparing them to deal with the emergency situation. In catastrophes, emergency personnel and health facilities will not be able to meet the needs of everyone affected. While first responders may not be able to reach all members of the public, the media's outreach will provide information to protect them and their property.

The ''Giuliani model'' press conference has received a lot of praise and has become an ideal for crisis communication. Twice a day during the aftermath of 9/11 and the following anthrax attacks, New York's mayor would stand with other officials and respond to media questions. He showed he was clearly in charge, but he also displayed "both empathy and mastery over information." He "helped the city cope with the unbearable by bearing it himself." When he called on officials next to him, he reassured the public by letting them know he trusted those who worked with him. He supplemented the press conferences with other communication tools. During the anthrax response, the city broadcast faxes to hospitals, disseminated fact sheets, maintained a website, and a 24/7 hotline. The mayor constantly communicated with elected officials and community groups and provided expert information to the press to supplement what was said in press conferences (Mullin, 2003, 15-16).

Greater Adversarialness

A growing trend exists in English-speaking countries towards adversarial questioning in news interviews. Journalists formulate their questions in an increasingly challenging or 'hostile' manner which was rarely seen decades ago. This is particularly true in broadcast interviews with politicians or public figures.

Burriss (1989) explored the "changing relationship between the press and Presidents by looking at the questions reporters ask and the answers Presidents give to those questions" (468). Over the period of time studied from 1963 (President Johnson) to 1988 (President Reagan), the length of questions and statements made by reporters, and the length of presidential responses increased significantly. While Burriss couldn't give the reasons for the changes, he surmised, partly because of the dishonesty of the Nixon presidency, that reporters may have become less trusting of the presidency and more aggressive in their questioning. Reporters are more arrogant and combative, according to one viewpoint. The world has also become more complex. Reporters tend to give longer statements with their questions and the length of presidential responses is much longer.

Officials' responses have also changed with the increased adversarialness of reporters' questions. Based on an analysis of 33 televised British political interviews, Bull (1994) developed a set of guidelines for differentiating between questions, replies, and non-replies. Responses to questions in political interviews are not simply dichotomized into replies and non-replies, but examined on a continuum. Politicians choose what question to answer and whether or not to answer it fully or only partially. Using a different approach, Harris (1991) arrived at a similar conclusion based on the analysis of three dimensions of answering, i.e. direct, indirect and challenges, from officials. She concluded that politicians tend to give evasive answers in front of the media, based on her finding that the number of direct answers given by politicians (barely over 39%) were considerably lower than any other groups of interviewees (averaging over 67%). In sum, studies on question-answer sequences in broadcast interviews (including press conferences) seem to suggest that interviewers are more likely to use more aggressive questions, and politicians are more likely to give evasive answers than other groups of respondents.

Ekström (2009) showed how President George W. Bush used a number of techniques to control reporters in press conferences. He interrupted to control who would be able to ask questions, disagreed and rejected criticism, demonstrated certainty and conviction, and made jokes with the journalists. Sequences of jokes and laughter strengthened the interactive power of the President, created affiliations, and questioned the expected neutrality of journalists.

Tingting Sun (2010) examined adversarial questioning and answering strategies in Chinese press conferences and found similar trends, indicating that adversarial questioning is also emerging in Chinese broadcast press conferences. The study examined ten Chinese government press conferences and coded all the question turns based on the four dimensions of adversarial style (initiative, directness, assertiveness and hostility) and a modified set of nine indicators for the design of adversarial questions. Of the nine indicators, two were newly identified in the Chinese context, i.e. target-oriented questioning and question tilt. More adversarialness is occurring despite traditional values such as 'face-saving' and 'face-giving' in the Chinese socio-cultural context. Chinese journalists are asking more challenging questions that employ complex and target-oriented question designs. However, Tingting concludes that foreign journalists are much more aggressive than their Chinese counterparts in asking politicians challenging questions, in particular hostile questions. This may be partly because of greater news freedom in the west and a desire among the local Chinese journalistic community to safeguard national dignity. Chinese officials address the challenging questions in a firm and candid manner. They employ various strategies such as prefacing with an initial comment on the preceding question, challenging the credibility of the interviewer or the appropriateness of the question, using idioms, quotations, and pointing out misconceptions.

What Is Form?

Form is synonymous with structure. Structure is defined as a pattern or observable uniformity in terms of the action or operation taking place. In the social sciences, the focus of analysis has been on the structure of societies and other social systems or the structures (patterns) of actions in general. Patterns become institutionalized as normative patterns develop. When they become institutionalized conformity is expected, and failure to conform is sanctioned or met with indignation. The structure becomes a requisite of the system (Fisher, 2010).

Ostman, Babcock, and Fallert (1981) used the form of questions to examine President John F. Kennedy's use of the press conference. President Kennedy "genuinely liked reporters" and many of his best friends were reporters. He held more press conferences on average than other presidents and he listened carefully to the questions reporters asked. While his answers were not always detailed, he "demonstrated time and again that he had listened, often by using an exact word or phrase which the reporter had voiced in the question" (580). Ostman, Babcock, and Fallert (1981) hypothesized that "good" questions from reporters would elicit "good" answers from the president. As the basis for analysis, they used 16 suggestions for good "interview" questions derived from a review of research. They examined three hundred question and answer sets from 62 press conferences. Reporters who asked questions in keeping with the textbook suggestions generally received the answers they desired. They got "good" answers when they asked questions "without words with double meanings, where time, place and context were specified, where all alternatives were specified, where the unfamiliar was explained, where opinions and self-perceptions were expressed when wanted, where immediate experience was referred to, where emotionally-charged words were not used, and where the President stuck to the topic and subjects broached" (580). Their findings are summarized in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1. ANALYSIS OF REPORTER QUESTIONS IN PRESIDENT KENNEDY'S PRESS CONFERENCES

Good reporter questions	Findings from Kennedy's press conferences
1. Avoid words with double meanings.	Kennedy responded with double meanings more often when reporters asked questions with double meanings.
2. Specify exactly the time.	Resulted in good answers.
3. Specify exactly the place.	Resulted in good answers.
4. Specify exactly the context.	Resulted in good answers.
5. Make explicit all alternatives, or make none of them explicit.	Resulted in good answers.
6. Preface unfamiliar or technical subjects with explanations or illustrations.	Provided in good answers.
7. Ask questions about respondent's immediate & recent experience rather than generalities.	Resulted in good answers.

Good reporter questions	Findings from Kennedy's press conferences
8. Ask questions for facts about a topic of interest.	Direct requests stimulated factual answers more often but not significantly more than when questions made no request for facts.
9. Ask questions which elicit opinions and attitudes of the respondent—what is thought or felt about a particular subject at a particular point in time.	Resulted in good answers.
10. Ask questions which elicit respondent's self-perceptions—the respondent's evaluation of his or her own behavior or thoughts in relation to others.	Resulted in good answers.
11. Avoid "loaded" or "leading" questions (those which suggest to the respondent the answer which the asker wants to hear).	Loaded questions were asked by reporters 40 times out of the 300 questions analyzed (13.3%), President Kennedy responded with "correct" answers on 16 of these occasions, ignoring loaded or leading question.
12. Avoid questions which contain emotion-ally-charged words.	When questions avoided emotionally-charged words, reporters got good answers.
13. Avoid embarrassing questions. They often lead to untrue answers.	When asked embarrassing questions, Kennedy showed embarrassment 11 of 68 times (16.2%). He showed embarrassment in 15 other answers, to questions that were not meant to be embarrassing. The findings suggested President Kennedy consistently demonstrated honesty and openness in answering questions.
14. Adhere to the principles of good grammar when asking questions.	The President responded with good grammar even when reporters used poor grammar.
15. Avoid multi-part questions, which introduce more than one subject.	Multi-part questions led to multi-part answers, giving reporters a broad range of opinions and reflections which may be helpful in reporting. Reporters asked questions which contained from 1 to 5 topics, with a mean slightly over two. The President responded in answers of up to 10 topics, with a mean of 2.25.
16. Avoid long questions.	The shortest question was 1 word and the longest was 119 words. The average number of words in reporters' questions was 42.7. President Kennedy's answers ranged from no words at all (an option chosen only once in 300 times sampled) to 751 words – ave. number of words in the President's answers was 117.56.

These findings from Ostman, Babcock, and Fallert (1981) provide public officials a set of guidelines to follow when anticipating questions and when providing statements or answers to questions. Officials should be clear about time, place and context of events, factual and explicit about details and avoid emotional or embarrassing and loaded or leading questions. Be prepared for questions asking for opinions and attitudes as well as self-perceptions. Use good grammar and avoid multi-part answers and long answers.

Model for Analysis

To measure the degree of "deference or adversarialness" of questions in media interviews, Clayman and Heritage (2002) developed a model for analysis, which they used to examine press conferences of Presidents Eisenhower and Reagan. It consisted of four basic dimensions of adversarial questioning: (a) *initiative* (the practice of questioning in which journalists 'set a more independent and constraining agenda' for interviewees while leaving the latter less leeway to pursue their own agendas); (b) *directness* (referring to the aggressiveness or hostility of journalistic questioning); (c) *assertiveness* (the practice of questioning in which journalists 'push for a particular response' from the interviewee); and (d) *hostility* (the practice of questioning which is overtly critical of interviewee's ability or questioning his or her accountability).

The four dimensions are further divided into ten indicators. Under the initiative dimension were complex questions, question cascades (where the question is repeated several times in different words), and follow-up questions. Directness was marked by other referencing question frames where the reporter suggested the president was unable or unwilling to give a response, demanding a response with words like "would you" or "can you." The opposite, indirectness, resulted in self-referencing question frames, a more polite form of questions that included words like "I was wondering" or "I would like to ask." Assertive questions used preface tilt (seeking a yes/no answer) or were negatively formulated, beginning with statements like "isn't it," "aren't you," or "don't you think that." Hostility questions used preface hostility (where hostile statements are made before the question) and global hostility (where both the preface and question as well as follow-up questions are hostile). Hostility was also shown by accountability questions, using "why did you" or "how could you." Clayman and Heritage's study suggested increased adversarialness in journalists' treatment of U.S. Presidents Eisenhower and Reagan, based on major differences in the adversarial dimension and question design indicators in the two U.S. press conferences. Table 2 summarizes Clayman and Heritage's (2002) model.

TABLE 2: DIMENSIONS OF ADVERSARIAL QUESTIONING

Dimensions of adversarial questioning	Question design indicators
1. Initiative – setting agenda for questioning	- question complexity - question cascades - follow-up questions
2. Directness – aggressiveness	- other referencing question frames - self-referencing question frames
3. Assertiveness – pushing for a particular response	- preface tilt - negatively formulated questions
4. Hostility – overtly critical or questioning accountability	- preface hostility - global hostility - accountability questions

What Is Function?

Functions are those activities that influence the way decisions are made and executed. Function determines the purpose or result of the action. In formal functional analysis the effects of a trait are used to explain the system rather than the trait. In other words, function is studied by looking at its impact on the system (Fisher 2010). Understanding form or structure (patterns) could possibly lead to a better comprehension of the function or purpose of the action.

In 1991, Fisher examined mass media functions in covering education policy making. In his study he suggested 14 media functions in six policy stages. In the first policy stage of problem identification or articulation, he found that the media identified problems and relayed the problems to the public. In stage 2 of policy recommendation or aggregation, the media identified groups and proposals and policymaker proposals, and they made policy suggestions. In the third stage of policy decision and adoption they helped to set the tempo for decision making, recommended how politicians should vote, and informed the public of content. In the fourth stage of policy implementation, the press described administration of the policy and alerted the public to problems in administration of the policy. The fifth stage was policy evaluation where the media evaluated the effectiveness of the policy and reacted to the policy. During the final stage of resolution or change, the media stimulated review or proposed change or termination. Fisher's (1991) model is summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3: MEDIA FUNCTIONS IN POLICY MAKING

Policy stages	Media functions
1. Problem identification / articulation	- Identification of problems - Relaying problems to public
2. Policy recommendation / aggregation	- Identification of groups & proposals - Identification policymaker proposals - Media suggestion of content
3. Policy decision / adoption	- Setting tempo of decision making - Recommending how to vote - Informing public of content
4. Policy implementation	- Describing administration - Alerting public to problems
5. Policy evaluation	- Evaluating effectiveness - Reacting to policy
6. Issue resolution or change	- Stimulating review - Proposing change or termination

What Is The Function Of The Press Conference?

As mentioned previously, public officials use the press conference to provide information to the public so that they in turn can make decisions to protect themselves and their property. On the other hand, executives in private business use the press conference to protect the interests of their stakeholders (stockholders, employees, customers) and assure business continuity. Generally, the media use the press conference to learn what happened and why it happened. Figure 1 suggests the relationship between the public official, media and the public.
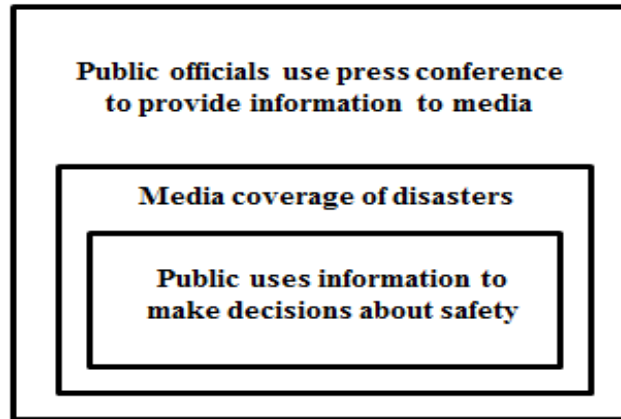
FIGURE 1: FUNCTION OF THE DISASTER PRESS CONFERENCE

STUDY QUESTIONS AND PROPOSITIONS

This study attempts to answer the following questions:

- What is the purpose (function) of the press conference in disaster situations?
- Does the pattern of questions (form or structure) lead to a better understanding of the purpose (function) of the press conference?
- Does an adversarial tone exist in reporter questioning during disaster press conferences?

The review of the literature suggests a number of propositions that are worth examining in the context of a study of the disaster press conference. While not all these propositions can be confirmed within the limitations of one study of one press conference, this study should provide insights into most of the propositions.

1. The public officials' purpose is to provide information to the public so they can make decisions that will protect their safety.
2. The media purpose is to find out the reasons for the disaster and the impact of the disaster.
3. Press conferences for man-made disasters will be more adversarial than press conferences for natural disasters.
4. As adversarialness increases questions and answers will become longer and more multi-faceted.
5. Understanding the patterns of questions (form) leads to greater comprehension of the purpose (function) of the press conference.

METHODOLOGY

This study uses the frameworks proposed by Clayman and Heritage (2002) (see Table 2) and Fisher (1991) (see Table 3) to examine form and function in the May 27, 2010 Presidential Press Conference about the Deepwater BP Oil Spill. Following a statement by President Obama, he invited 10 reporters to ask questions. These questions are examined using the dimensions of initiative, directness, assertiveness, and hostility and the 10 forms of questions proposed by Clayman and Heritage as well as the 14 media functions proposed by Fisher. A worksheet (found in the Appendix) was used in performing the analysis. This study is limited in its scope and findings because it uses only one methodology (content analysis) and examines only one disaster press conference. Thus, generalizability of results is also limited.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Table 4 shows results from the analysis of the questions at the presidential press conference about the BP Deepwater oil spill. Ten reporters asked 29 questions on 18 topics. The original questions averaged 95 words (ranging from 40-162 words). Four reporters asked seven follow-up questions (ranging from three to 46 words). Only two people asked 1 question on one topic. Twenty-two of the questions (76 percent) focused on the main topic of the oil spill. Seven of the questions dealt with four topics different from the main topic: one about the war in Afghanistan, one about immigration, one proposing an embargo of Arizona, and a fourth about ethics in an appointment.

TABLE 4. RESULTS FROM ANALYSIS OF PRESS CONFERENCE QUESTIONS

Questions	Number	Average	Range
Original question	10 reporters	95 words average	40-162 words
Follow-up	4 reporters, 7 questions	14 words average	3-46 words
Total questions	29 questions	Average 2.9 questions per reporter	1-7 questions *
Topics	18 topics	Average of 1.8 topics per reporter Median 2	1-3 topics

* 2 people asked 1 question each on 1 topic

An examination of the findings about the form (or structure) of questions suggests the following points.

- Most questions were multi-part questions with preliminary statements, suggesting a high level of question complexity, showing high reporter initiative.
- Cascading questions (multiple questions on the same topic) were used three times.
- Reporters showed little global hostility, but asked accountability questions 12 times.
- Only once did a reporter suggest the president was unwilling to answer a question (other referencing question frames). Only once was an indirect question asked.
- Reporters used preface tilting twice (asking for yes-no responses) and used negatively formulated questions 4 times.

Findings suggest the following about reporter functions derived from the questions they asked.

- Most reporter questions functioned at the policy implementation stage (stage 4), and at the issue change stage (stage 6, stimulating review).
- Reporters described and asked questions that pointed out problems in policy implementation. These alerted the public to these particular problems in administration.
- While reporters repeatedly identified problems (stage 1), only once did a reporter suggestion policy action (stage 2) and only once did a reporter suggest a position the president should take on an issue (stage 3).

CONCLUSION

The study provided responses to the three questions posed in its problem statement.

- *What is the purpose (function) of the press conference in disaster situations?*
  The questions clearly indicated that the press performed functions in asking the questions. Reporters asked questions that pointed out problems in policy implementation and alerted the public to problems in administration. While reporters repeatedly identified problems, only once was a policy proposal suggested.

- *Does the pattern of questions (form or structure) lead to a better understanding of the purpose (function) of the press conference?*
  The form of questions suggests functions of the press in the news conference. For example, accountability questions pointed out problems in the administration of the policy.

- *Does an adversarial tone exist in reporter questioning during disaster press conferences?*
  In this particular press conference all but possibly one reporter adopted an adversarial tone. Even then, while the question was in an indirect form, it suggested the need for administration accountability.

The following section reports on whether the proposed propositions were supported or not:

1. *The public officials' purpose is to provide information to the public so they can make decisions that will protect their safety.* In this case the President did not provide information to protect property or improve quality of life in the area of the oil spill. He mainly defended administration actions in regards to the cleanup of the spill and shifted blame to BP.

2. *The media purpose is to find out the reasons for the disaster and the impact of the disaster.* Clearly the purpose of the media was to point to administration problems in the oil spill clean-up and to hold the administration accountable. Since this press conference was held many weeks into the clean-up, questions about why and what were already answered.

3. *Press conferences for man-made disasters will be more adversarial than press conferences for natural disasters.* While this press conference was highly adversarial, the study did not provide information that would allow conclusions about whether it was more so than press conferences for natural disasters.

4. *As adversarialness increases questions and answers will become longer and more multi-faceted.* No comparison data is available to determine if this is true or not.

5. *Understanding the patterns of questions (form) leads to greater comprehension of the purpose (function) of the press conference.* As reported earlier, the form of questions suggests functions of the media. It would follow this would lead to a greater understanding of the purpose of the press conference. The media clearly felt a need to hold the administration accountable; while the President's purpose was mainly to show how the administration was doing all that it could in the situation.

Further study is needed to determine if this is typical of disaster press conferences at the presidential level or whether this was isolated to the BP deepwater spill. Comparisons of disaster press conferences at other levels (state and local) are needed to determine patterns and distinguish between man-made and natural disasters. Analysis and review of press conferences appears to have potential as a tool in preparing public officials for disaster press conferences. More study is needed to determine whether the tone (adversarialness) of questions is different between man-made and natural disasters? In this case questions showed a high level of adversarialness. However, the study did not make a comparison with other studies to determine whether this level of adversarialness is typical or atypical.

Recommendations for Public Officials

The study suggests the following considerations for public officials and public information officers (PIOs) in the emergency services.

1. Public officials and PIOs need to understand clearly their role in informing and keeping the public safe in disaster situations and how the media can assist in achieving these goals.

2. However, they also need to understand the other motivations the media have for reporting emergencies. The media report disasters because they make "good" news stories and draw in huge audiences. In other words, disasters are news worthy and receive a lot of public attention.

3. The media also perceive a role in holding public officials accountable. This has potential for creating adversarialness. While public officials should never believe they are friends with the media, they should develop a relationship with the media before a crisis happens so that in the midst of the emergency the media focus more on the important news story that of keeping the public safe.

4. Finally, the press conference can be a valuable tool in reaching the public and providing information that will allow the public to make life saving decisions in disaster situations.

A key to effective community response in an emergency is good public information. The press is one of the primary ways of reaching the public in a disaster. The press conference can be a valuable tool in keeping the media current and providing the public up-to-date information in a catastrophe. While most communities prepare extensively in the event of a disaster, "how many of them are prepared to face the media when tragedy strikes? Who will face the press and what will they say? Or, perhaps more importantly, how will they say it?" (Folkerts, 1999) This study and further studies of the disaster press conference can provide guidance to public officials and PIOs in working with the media when disaster strikes so the public is better informed in an emergency.

REFERENCES

Bull, P. (1994). On identifying questions, replies, and non-replies in political interviews. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology 13*, 115-131.

Burriss, L. L. (1989). Changes in Presidential Press Conferences. *Journalism Quarterly*, *66*(2), 468-470.

Clayman, S.E. & Heritage, J.C. (2002). Questioning president: journalistic deference and adversarialness in the press conferences of U.S. presidents Eisenhower and Reagan. *Journal of Communication 52*(4), 149-175.

Ekström, M. (2009). Power and affiliation in presidential press conferences: A study on interruptions, jokes and laughter. *Journal Of Language & Politics, 8*(3), 386-415 doi:10.1075/jlp.8.3.03eks.

FEMA. (2009). Basic public information officer course (G290). Washington, D.C.: Department of Homeland Security Publication.

Fisher, J.R. (1991, Spring). News media functions in policymaking. *Canadian Journal of Communications*, Vol. 16, pp. 139-145.

Fisher, J.R. (2010). "Systems theory and Structural functionalism." In Ishiyama, J. & M. Breuning. *21st Century Political Science: A Reference Handbook.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Folkerts, James M. (1999). Media planning for a disaster. *Disaster Recovery Journal.* Retrieved 5 Nov. 2011. http://www.drj.com/drworld/content/w1_052.htm

Harris, S. (1991). Evasive action: How politicians respond to questions in political interviews. *Broadcast talk*, ed. by P. Scannell, 76-99. London: Sage.

Kipling, R. (n.d.). I keep six honest men serving. Retrieved November 7, 2011 from http://www.kipling.org.uk/poems_serving.htm.

Mountains Out of Washington Molehills? (1985). *Journalism Quarterly, 62*(4), 938.

Mullin, S. (2003). The anthrax attacks in New York City: The "Giuliani Press Conference Model" and other communication strategies that helped. *Journal of Health Communication, 8*, 15-16. DOI: 10.1080/10810730390224848.

Ostman, R. E., Babcock, W. A., & Fallert, J. (1981). Relation of Questions and Answers In Kennedy's Press Conferences. *Journalism Quarterly, 58*(4), 575-581.

Robertson, L. (2002). The Art of Self-Defense. *American Journalism Review, 24*(3), 46.

Strenski, J. B. (1976). Tips for better press briefings. *Public Relations Quarterly, 21*(3), 28.

The White House. (2010, May 27). Presidential Press Conference: BP Deepwater Oil Spill. Retrieved from: http://www.whitehouse.gov/photos-and-video/deepwater-bp-oil-spill-Presidential-press-conference

Tingting, S. (2010). Adversarial questioning and answering strategies in Chinese government press conferences. *Taiwan Journal Of Linguistics*, *8*(2), 131-161.

APPENDIX

ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS FROM PRESS CONFERENCE WITH PRESIDENT OBAMA ABOUT THE DEEPWATER BP OIL SPILL. MAY 27, 2010

	Question	Form	Function
1	(Jennifer Loven) You just said that the federal government is in charge, and officials in your administration have said this repeatedly. Yet how do you explain that we're more than five weeks into this crisis and that BP is not always doing as you're asking, for example with the type of dispersant that's being used? And if I might add one more; to the many people in the Gulf who, as you said, are angry and frustrated and feel somewhat abandoned, what do you say about whether your personal involvement, your personal engagement, has been as much as it should be either privately or publicly?	Question complexity and question cascading shows initiative. Global hostility and questions of accountability show hostility.	Describing administration and alerting public to problems
2	(Jake Tapper) Thanks, Mr. President. You say that everything that could be done is being done, but there are those in the region and those industry experts who say that's not true. Governor Jindal obviously had this proposal for a barrier. They say that if that had been approved when they first asked for it, they would have 10 miles up already. There are fishermen down there who want to work, who want to help, haven't been trained, haven't been told to go do so. There are industry experts who say that they're surprised that tankers haven't been sent out there to vacuum, as was done in '93 outside Saudi Arabia. And then, of course, there's the fact that there are 17 countries that have offered to help and it's only been accepted from two countries, Norway and Mexico. How can you say that everything that can be done is being done with all these experts and all these officials saying that's not true?	Preliminary statements result in question complexity, showing initiative. Questions accountability leading to hostility.	Problem identification. Reporter identifies problems and relays problems to the public.
3	(Chuck Todd) I just want to follow up on the question as it has to do with the relationship between the government and BP. It seems that you've made the case on the technical issues. But onshore, Admiral Allen admitted the other day in a White House briefing that they needed to be pushed harder. Senator Mary Landrieu this morning said it's not clear who's in charge, that the government should be in charge. Why not ask BP to simply step aside on the onshore stuff, make it an entirely government thing? Obviously BP pays for it, but why not ask them to just completely step aside on that front?	Preliminary statement cascading questions Negative question. Questions accountability. Complexity and initiative.	Media suggestion of policy.
4	(Chuck Todd, follow-up) And then also, can you respond to all the Katrina comparisons that people are making about this with yourself?	Accountability questions hostility.	Identifies problems.

	Question	Form	Function
5	(Chuck Todd, follow-up) You understand the credibility of BP seems to be so bad -- that there's almost no trust that they're getting --	Follow-up shows initiative.	Identifies problems.
6	(Steve Thomma) Thank you, sir. On April 21st, Admiral Allen tells us the government started dispatching equipment rapidly to the Gulf, and you just said on day one you recognized the enormity of this situation. Yet here we are 39, 40 days later, you're still having to rush more equipment, more boom. There are still areas of the coast unprotected. Why is it taking so long? And did you really act from day one for a worst-case scenario?	Question complexity Negatively formulated question Accountability questions	Identifying problems. Relaying information to the public.
7	(Chip Reid) Thank you, Mr. President. First of all, Elizabeth Birnbaum resigned today. Did she resign? Was she fired? Was she forced out? And if so, why? And should other heads roll as we go on here?	Question complexity Cascading	Identification of problems
8	(Chip Reid, follow-up) Secondly, with regard to the Minerals Management Service, Secretary Salazar yesterday basically blamed the Bush administration for the cozy relationship there, and you seemed to suggest that when you spoke in the Rose Garden a few weeks ago when you said, for too long, a decade or more -- most of those years, of course, the Bush administration -- there's been a cozy relationship between the oil companies and the federal agency that permits them to drill. But you knew as soon as you came in, and Secretary Salazar did, about this cozy relationship, but you continued to give permits -- some of them under questionable circumstances. Is it fair to blame the Bush administration? Don't you deserve some of that?	Preliminary statement Negatively formulated questions Accountability questions	Describing administration Alerting public to problems
9	(Julianna) Thank you, Mr. President. We're learning today that the oil has been gushing as much as five times the initial estimates. What does that tell you and the American people about the extent to which BP can be trusted on any of the information that it's providing, whether the events leading up to the spill, any of their information?	Accountability questions directed at both the administration and BP	Identifying problems Describing admin. Alerting public to problems
10	(Helen Thomas) Mr. President, when are you going to get out of Afghanistan? Why are we continuing to kill and die there? What is the real excuse? And don't give us this Bushism, "if we don't go there, they'll all come here."	Off topic multiple questions Accountability questions Negative	Describing problems with admin. and altering public
11	(Helen Thomas, follow-up) -- a threat to us?	Follow-up question	

	Question	Form	Function
12	(Jackie Chalmes) Thank you, Mr. President. I want to follow up on something -- exchange you had with Chip. Leaving aside the existing permits for drilling in the Gulf, before -- weeks before BP, you had called for expanded drilling. Do you now regret that decision? And why did you do so knowing what you have described today about the sort of dysfunction in the MMS?	Follow-up question showing Initiative Accountability questions	Describing problems in administration and altering the public
13	(Jackie Chalmes, follow-up) If I could follow up --	Follow-up question	
14	(Jackie Chalmes, follow-up) Do you -- are you sorry now? Do you regret that your team had not done the reforms at the Minerals Management Service that you've subsequently called for? And I'm also curious as to how it is that you didn't know about Ms. Birnbaum's resignation/firing before --	Follow-up cascades Accountabil-ity. Global hostility	Describing problems in administra-tion and alerting public
15	(Jackie Chalmes, follow-up) So you rule out that she was fired?	Follow-up question	
16	(Macarena Vidal) Mr. President, you announced -- or the White House announced two days ago that you were going to send 1,200 people to -- 1,200 members of the National Guard to the border. I want to -- if you could precise what their target is going to be, what you're planning to achieve with that -- if you could clarify a bit more the mission that they're going to have.	Self-referencing showing respect Indirect question	Describing administra-tion and alerting the public
17	(Macarena Vidal, follow-up) And also on Arizona, after you have criticized so much the immigration law that has been approved there, would you support the boycott that some organizations are calling towards that state?	Preface tilt requesting a yes-no answer	Recom-mend a policy position
18	(Major) Two issues. Some in your government have said the federal government's boot is on the neck of BP. Are you comfortable with that imagery, sir? Is your boot on the neck of BP? And can you understand, sir, why some in the Gulf who feel besieged by this oil spill consider that a meaningless, possibly ludicrous, metaphor?	Question cascades Preface tilt toward a yes answer Accountability question	Stimulating review
19	(Major, follow-up) Secondarily, can you tell the American public, sir, what your White House did or did not offer Congressman Sestak to not enter the Democratic senatorial primary? And how will you meet your levels of expressed transparency and ethics to convey that answer to satisfy what appear to be bipartisan calls for greater disclosure about that matter? Thank you.	Accountability question Question complexity	Identifying problems administra-tion Alerting the public
20	(Major, follow-up) From you, sir?	Follow-up	
21	Can you assure the public it was ethical and legal, sir?	Follow-up	

THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL VALUES ON CREATIVITY: COMPARING THE UNITED STATES AND SOUTH AFRICA

Junior Badibanga, University of North Florida
jbadibanga@ymail.com

Smit Shah, University of North Florida
smit.shah@unf.edu

C. Dominik Güss, University of North Florida
dguess@unf.edu

ABSTRACT

Research on the influence of culture on creativity is in its infancy. Organizations world-wide may benefit from such research by implementing work environments that maximize creativity. In this article, we investigate cross-cultural differences in creativity and the cultural values of cognitive uncertainty and desire for change. 383 undergraduates from the University of North Florida (198) and the University of Pretoria in South Africa (185) participated in a study that measured creativity using the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA; Goff & Torrance, 2002) and the Creative Achievement Questionnaire (CAQ; Carson, Peterson, & Higgins, 2005). In addition to measuring creativity levels in both cultures, the researchers investigated cultural values. Results show significant correlations between Cognitive Uncertainty, Desire for Change, and creative achievement. Results are used for implications in setting creative environments within organizational cultures.

INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, there are many organizations surviving or maintaining success due to the creative talents of their employees. Creativity is a factor that has generated much growth in organizational development, and organizations are aware of the successful benefits of creativity (Baer & Oldham, 2006). Companies such as Google, Apple, and Microsoft are examples of the organizational benefits ensuing from high creativity. With creativity being a premium factor in organizational success and organizations world-wide becoming more and more competitive, it is necessary to learn about cultural similarities and differences in creativity. The authors in the present study investigated the relationship between cultural values (Cognitive Uncertainty, Desire for Change) and creativity in the United States and South Africa. Cross-cultural differences were evaluated between the countries.

Creativity across Cultures

Between cultures, there are several ways to define creativity; however, the value of creativity is consistently appreciated across cultures. One definition of creativity is a production of novel, useful ideas or problem solutions (Amabile, 2005). The use of creative ideas can and has been beneficial in most aspects of human development. Creative ideas have helped to shape our world with innovative products such as the telephone, airplane, and automobile. In present day, many of these products are technologically based, such as the apple iPad for web-based meetings as an idea to better communicate globally.

It is important to note that creative constructs differ amongst cultures. Hofstede (1984, p. 82) defined national culture as "the collective programming of the mind." According Hofstede's definition, national culture consists of many shared tendencies and aspects, which result in less variance when measured within countries than between countries. As cultures vary, the assessment and value of creativity varies (De Dreu, 2010). For example, Morris and Leung (2010) found that Western cultures compared to Eastern cultures, place a higher value on originality and novelty of creative ideas rather than usefulness and appropriateness. Bechtoldt (2010) showed that Western cultures increased their creation of original ideas but not useful ideas when motivated to do their best on a task. Eastern cultures showed the opposite effect, as they were found to generate more useful ideas than original ideas. These results substantiate that creativity does vary between cultures. One culture may embrace an idea as creative because of its unique or original characteristics while another culture may not value that same idea as creative, but rather embrace an innovation's practical use to be of importance.

Cultural Values

Cultural differences have been evident when measuring creativity (Zhou, & Su, 2010). Cognitive Uncertainty (CU) and Desire for Change (DC) are two cultural values that may influence cross-cultural differences in creativity. Cognitive Uncertainty can be described as the extent to which an individual prefers order, planning, structure in an uncertain environment, and less ambiguity. Desire for Change can be described as the extent to which an individual prefers novelty and change (Greco, & Roger, 2001). Higher scores in CU depict an individual's preference for control and certainty and higher scores in DC depict an individual's preference for new and unknown conditions. Previous research shows that individuals prefer less ambiguity when given forced choice options between high ambiguity and low ambiguity choices (Curley et. al., 1986). According to Al-Kailani (2011), the avoidance of high ambiguity is due to the threat of an ambiguous situation being uncertain. Hofstede (1984) identified stability, predictability, risk avoidance, strict control systems, resistance to change, and discomfort with the unknown as characteristics of cultures with a preference for certainty. The opposite may be said for cultures whose norms are a preference of the uncertain. Such societies are characterized by risk-taking, tolerance to innovation and new ideas, openness to change, comfort with the unknown, and optimism about the future.

Creativity and Cultural Values

The embracement or avoidance of uncertain situations can be related to creativity amongst different cultures. DiRienzo et al. (2007) suggest that cultures high in Cognitive Uncertainty are less reluctant to challenge authority, rules, order, and structure. Assessment of the research on Cognitive Uncertainty suggests that high Cognitive Uncertainty should decrease innovation, particularly a form such as radical innovation; as one can infer that the creation of a radical idea brings upon uncertainty. Radical creativity is characterized by high risk (Taylor & Greve, 2006), and this type of innovation can result in greater payoffs (Gilson & Madjar, 2010).

One goal of this study was to explore whether differences in Cognitive Uncertainty and Desire for Change between cultures are related to higher levels of creativity. In the study, the relationship between Cognitive Uncertainty, Desire for Change, and creativity is explored in South Africa, the United States, and overall in both countries. Is it possible that the most creative individuals pursue change and uncertainty more than less creative individuals? Implications of this research may be beneficial to organizations globally. Organizations can implement the preferred organizational style (e.g., an organizational environment low in uncertainty) to maximize creative success.

The Two Cultures of Comparison

The two countries examined in this study were the United States and South Africa. Data collection took place in English as both countries have English as a national language. South Africa, a traditional country, has experienced many changes over the last 20 years. A complete shift in government after the election of President Nelson Mandela in 1994, South Africa has faced many challenges in their post-Apartheid period. Challenges such as increased spread of HIV, increased criminal violence rather than government violence, and emigration of 250,000 white South Africans has left many citizens uncertain about their futures as they cope with a conflicted pessimism and optimism about the future of their country (Colvin, 2003). As today's South African strives in the present to find identity and space in the future, it is important for South African businesses to embrace the creativity of their employees in a country continuing its journey to rebuild, reshape, and redeem its past. As there is little creativity research in South Africa, this study will help identify how cultural values influence creativity in a country enduring profound changes.

The United States, a modern country with a creative culture, continues to influence the global economy. The United States embraces a culture of self-expression, uniqueness, and originality and has been found to report high comfort with uncertainty (Parnell, Lester, Long, & & Köseoglu, 2012). Research by Zhou and Su (2010) has shown U.S. participants scoring higher than Chinese participants in the creativity domains of fluency, flexibility, and originality. The researchers of the current study focused on comparing a modern creative culture (United States)

against a traditional culture (South Africa), with the potential for high creative output as South Africans transition through dynamic changes. Furthermore, South Africa, a country regarded as the most developed nation in Africa, is often underrepresented in cross-cultural research. The results of this study will help generalize creativity research to the South Africa region.

HYPOTHESES

H-1: in order to assess construct validity, it was expected that cognitive test scores of creativity measured by the ATTA will correlate positively with test scores of creative achievement in real life measured by the CAQ, in both the United States and South Africa (Hypothesis 1).

H-2: the research on Cognitive Uncertainty led the researchers to expect lower CU scores to correlate with higher creativity scores. The second hypothesis predicts a negative correlation between CU scores and creativity scores on the ATTA and the CAQ (Hypothesis 2).

H-3: it was anticipated that individuals with a higher Desire for Change will report higher creativity scores. The third hypothesis predicts a positive correlation between DC scores and creativity scores on the ATTA and the CAQ (Hypothesis 3).

The final set of hypotheses refers to possible country differences. Finally, previous research shows the United States reported greater comfort with uncertainty and scored higher in the creativity domains: fluency, flexibility, and originality. In order to compare the two countries, the researcher split the fourth hypothesis into subparts. Hypothesis 4a predicts mean ATTA scores to be significantly higher in the United States than in South Africa. Hypothesis 4b predicts mean CAQ scores to be significantly higher in the United States than in South Africa. Hypothesis 4c predicts mean CU scores to be significantly higher in South Africa than in the United States. Last, hypothesis 4d predicts mean DC scores to be significantly higher in South Africa than in the United States, as South Africa has experienced dynamic changes over the past two decades with transitions in their political and social systems (Colvin, 2003).

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants were 198 undergraduate students at the University of North Florida, United States and 185 undergraduate students at the University of Pretoria, South Africa. Participant ages ranged from 18 to 55 years old ($M = 22$; $SD = 4.98$). Of the 383 participants, 288 were

female and 95 were males. A large majority of the participants (244) majored in the social sciences.

Instruments

- Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA): The ATTA is a shortened version of the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT; Torrance and Horng, 1980). The ATTA measures creativity by quantifying verbal and figural responses. The ATTA is made up of three activities. Activity 1 instructs participants to list as many problems that might occur if the participant could walk on air or fly without being in an airplane or similar vehicle. Sample responses include "loss of jobs in the airplane industry" and "I would get bugs in my teeth." Activities 2 and 3 instruct participants use incomplete figures and triangles to create pictures. Scores from these responses and pictures are summed up with fifteen criterion-referenced creativity indicators that total together to equal a creativity index score. The main aspect of the overall creativity score is originality, fluency, elaboration, and flexibility. The higher the creativity index scores the higher the level of creativity.

- Creativity Achievement Questionnaire (CAQ): The CAQ is a self-report measure that assesses creative achievement across 10 domains (Carson et al., 2005). These domains include: visual arts, music, dance, architectural design, creative writing, humor, inventions, scientific discovery, theater and film, and culinary arts. Sample questions within the domains include, "I have no training or recognized talent in this area" (score = 0) and "my composition has been recorded" (score = 5). An overall creative achievement score was calculated by adding the sum of each of the 10 domains.

- Cognitive Uncertainty and Desire for Change are two independent constructs selected to measure cultural values on the individual level and not on the cultural level. The two constructs had low correlations in both the United States and South Africa overall and in each country respectively (see tables 1-3). The constructs were measured from a shortened version of Greco and Roger's (2001) Uncertainty Response Scale measuring Cognitive Uncertainty (CU) and Desire for Change (DC). Responses were recorded on a 1-4 Likert scale; 1 indicating "never", 2 indicating "sometimes", 3 indicating "often", and 4 indicating "always". A sample question from the CU scale includes "I like to know exactly what I'm going to do next." A sample question from the DC scale includes "New experiences excite me." The CU sub scale had a Chronbach's alpha = .88 (.88 for the U.S. sample and.86 for the South African sample) and the DC sub scale had a Chronbach's alpha = .87 (.90 for the U.S. sample and .82 for the South African sample).

- A demographics survey was administered as well including items such as age, gender, and undergraduate major to name a few.

Procedure

Each participant received a packet consisting of the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA; Goff & Torrance, 2002), Creative Achievement Questionnaire (CAQ; Carson et. al., 2005), a shortened version of the Uncertainty Response Scale measuring Cognitive Uncertainty and Desire for Change (URS; Grecko & Roger, 2001), and Demographics Questionnaire. The participants received instructions and time limits for each portion of the packet (ATTA, CAQ, and surveys). Data in the United States was collected in groups of 15 – 20 participants, with each session lasting approximately 45 minutes. Data collection in South Africa was collected in three total sessions; session 1 included 111 participants, session 2 included 33 participants, and session 3 included 41 participants. Data collection in each session also lasted approximately 45 minutes.

Data Analyses

All of the participants' responses were recorded on the participants' packet in accordance to the directions. In some cases where directions were not followed, data were omitted and indicated as missing values (999999). Surveys and tests were administered in English in South Africa because English is an official South African language. Data in South Africa were coded by the first author and a South African student who was trained by the first author on the ATTA for 4 hours. Inter-rater reliability was established between the first author and the coder in South Africa with a Pearson correlation of r (185) = .99, p < .001. Data in the United States were coded by the first author and another U.S. student. Inter-rater reliability was established between the two coders in the United States with a Pearson correlation of r (198) = .79, p < .001. Upon establishing inter-rater reliability, means were calculated between the two raters' scores of the ATTA responses. To test the hypotheses, correlations were calculated among Creativity Index scores of the ATTA, the Creative Achievement Questionnaire, Cognitive Uncertainty, and Desire for Change. Finally, to test mean differences between the two countries, United States and South Africa, independent samples t-tests were calculated.

RESULTS

United States and South Africa

Table 1 shows the overall correlation matrix for the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA), Creative Achievement Questionnaire (CAQ), Cognitive Uncertainty (CU), and Desire for Change (DC) in both the United States and South Africa. As the table shows, there is a significant positive correlation between the ATTA and the CAQ, r (382) = .12, p < .05, supporting hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that CU scores would negatively correlate with scores on the ATTA and the CAQ. This relationship was not found between CU scores and ATTA scores, however, there was a significant negative correlation between CU and the CAQ, r (382) = -.12, $p < .05$.

The third hypothesis predicted that DC scores would correlate positively with scores on the ATTA and the CAQ. This relationship did not exist between DC scores and ATTA scores, however, scores on DC correlated positively with scores on the CAQ, r (381) = .24, $p < .01$.

TABLE 1: CORRELATIONS OF MEASURES IN THE UNITED STATES AND SOUTH AFRICA

| Measure	ATTA	CAQ	CU
1. ATTA			
2. CAQ	.12*		
3. CU	-.01	-.12*	
4. DC	.05	.24**	-.08

*$p < .05$. **$p < .01$

Figure 1 presents mean scores for the ATTA in both countries. Figure 2 presents mean scores for the CAQ in both countries. Figure 3 presents mean scores for Cognitive Uncertainty in both countries and Figure 4 presents mean scores for Desire for Change in both countries.

Independent samples t-tests were calculated to investigate possible mean differences between the two countries across ATTA, CAQ, Cognitive Uncertainty, and Desire for Change. To reduce Type I error, p-values were adjusted using Bonferroini adjustment, $p = .05 / 4 = .0125$. Results support hypothesis 4a with the U.S. population scoring higher than the South African population on the ATTA, t (381) = 2.25, $p < .05$. Additionally, the United States scored significantly higher than South Africa on the ATTA's creativity sub-domains of fluency, t (381) = 2.75, $p < .01$, originality, t (381) = 3.88, $p < .01$, and elaboration, t (381) = 1.39, $p < .01$. There was no significant difference between the two countries in the flexibility domain.

Hypothesis 4b was partially significant as the U.S. population reported slightly higher scores than South Africa on the CAQ, t (380) = 1.69, $p = .09$. Specific differences on the CAQ subfields between the United States and South Africa include mean differences in the Dance subfield, t (374) = 2.67, $p < .01$, and mean differences in the Inventions subfield, t (377) = 2.01, $p < .05$, as U.S. participants scored higher than South African participants in both.

Hypothesis 4c was also supported as the South African population scored higher than the U.S. population in Cognitive Uncertainty, t (381) = -2.73, p < .01. Finally, hypothesis 4d was rejected as both countires did not signficantly differ in their culutral value scores of Desire for Change.
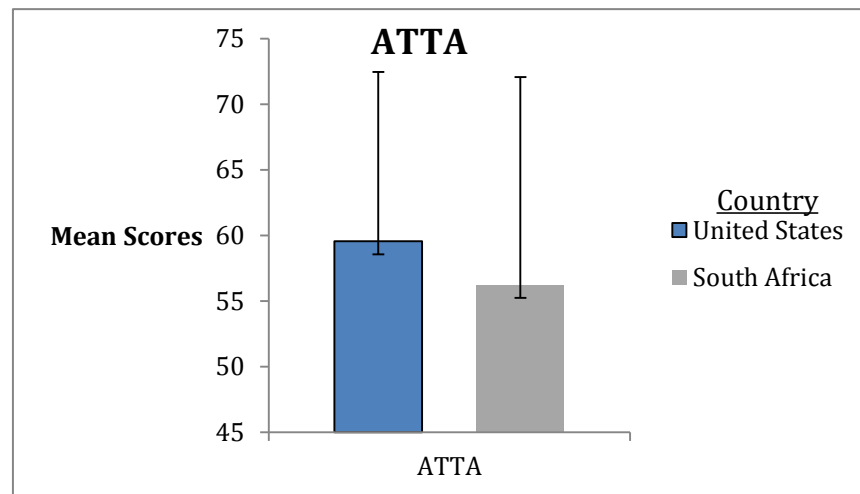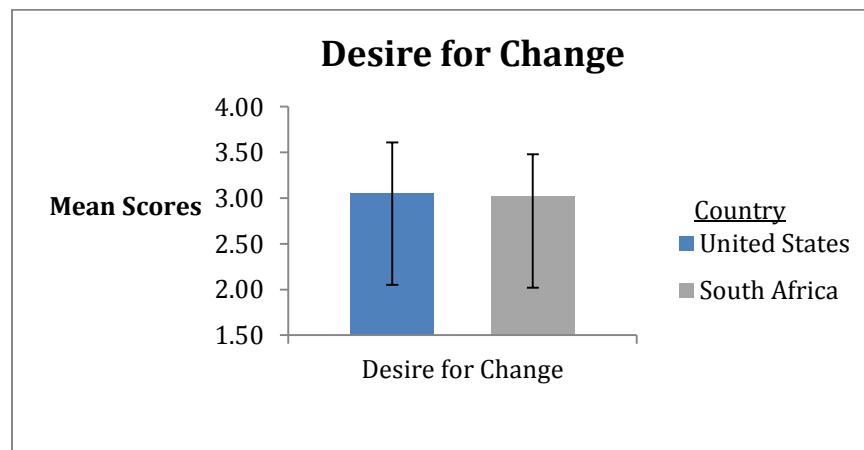

FIGURE 1: MEAN SCORES OF ABBREIVIATED TORRANCE TEST FOR ADULTS
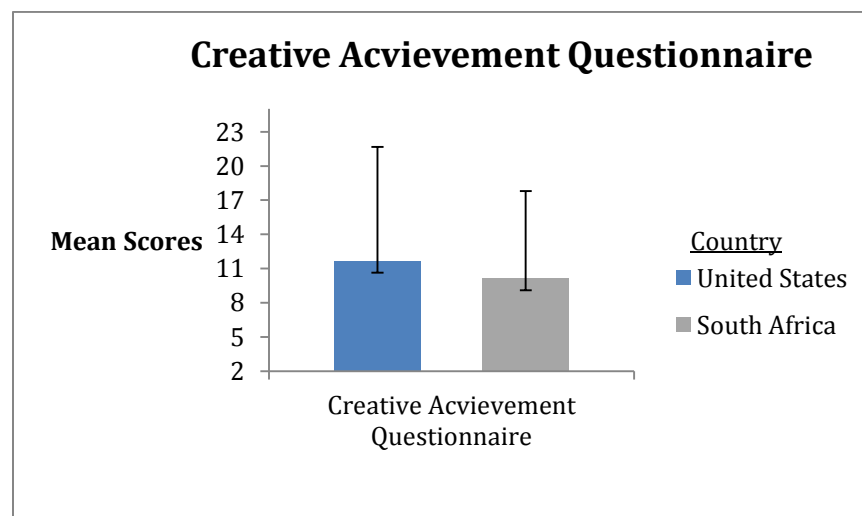
FIGURE 2: MEAN SCORES OF CREATIVE ACHIEMVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
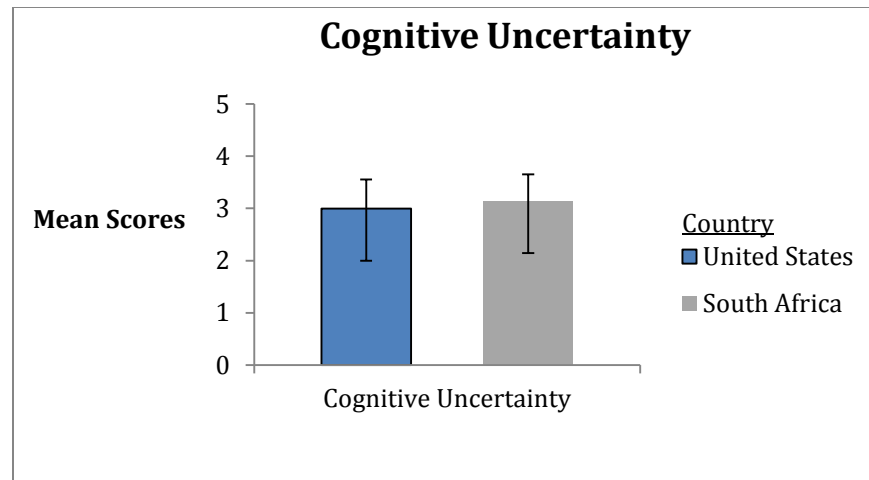
FIGURE 3: MEAN SCORES OF COGNITIVE UNCERTAINTY

FIGURE 4: MEAN SCORES OF DESIRE FOR CHANGE

United States

Table 2 shows the correlation matrix for the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA), Creative Achievement Questionnaire (CAQ), Cognitive Uncertainty (CU), and Desire for Change (DC) in the United States. As shown in the table, there is a partially significant correlation between the ATTA and CAQ, r (198) = .13, p = .07, partially supporting hypothesis #1. Also shown in the table, there is a significant relationship between DC and the CAQ, r (198) = .32, $p < .001$, supporting hypothesis #3. Hypothesis #1 and hypothesis #2 were not supported, indicating a lack of construct validity among the U.S. population and a lack of correlation between CU and the CAQ or ATTA.

TABLE 2: CORRELATIONS OF MEASURES IN THE UNITED STATES

Measure	ATTA	CAQ	CU
1. ATTA			
2. CAQ	.13		
3. CU	.06	-.09	
4. DC	.05	.32**	-.12

*p < .05. **p < .01

South Africa

Table 3 shows the correlation matrix for the Abbreviated Torrance Test for Adults (ATTA), Creative Achievement Questionnaire (CAQ), Cognitive Uncertainty (CU), and Desire for Change (DC) in South Africa. As shown in the table, there is a significant correlation between the CU and the CAQ, r (184) = -.15, p < .05, supporting hypothesis #2. Hypotheses #1 and hypothesis #3 were not supported, indicating a lack of construct validity in the South African population and a lack of correlation between DC and the CAQ or ATTA.

TABLE 3: CORRELATIONS OF MEASURES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Measure	ATTA	CAQ	CU
1. ATTA			
2. CAQ	.11		
3. CU	-.05	-.15*	
4. DC	.05	.11	-.20*

*p < .05. **p < .01

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between creativity and cultural values between two countries, the United States and South Africa. Negative correlations between Cognitive Uncertainty and both creativity measures (ATTA and CAQ) would validate the effects

of ambiguity and uncertainty on creativity. Positive correlations between Desire for Change and both creativity measures would validate the effects of "new experiences" on creativity. Additionally, mean differences in scores between the two countries would provide generalizations regarding cross-cultural differences.

First, ATTA scores and CAQ scores correlated significantly in both countries overall and partially in the U.S. population alone. Although it is fair to assume that high scores on the ATTA may predict high scores on the CAQ, this was not the case in South Africa. This could be because the ATTA appears more suitable for an American-Western culture than a South African culture. For example, Activity 1 asked the participant to list potential problems in a hypothetical situation. Many responses to Activity 1 from the South African population referred to being possessed by or having a spell cast on you by a witch doctor. Although these responses may be considered unique and original within the U.S. population, this should not be the case among the South African population as such a response is not regarded as original among South Africans. The test does not recognize cultural distinctions in its format. On the other hand, the CAQ appears to be more flexible in accommodating for cultural distinctions than the ATTA. Questions such as "I have composed a piece of music" and "My work has won an award or prize" appear to better in generalizing between cultures (Carson et al., 2005). Additionally, the ATTA did not correlate significantly with Cognitive Uncertainty or Desire for Change in neither the United States, South Africa, or both countries overall.

Second, Cognitive Uncertainty correlated negatively with the CAQ in South Africa and also in both samples overall. There was no correlation between CU and the CAQ in the U.S. sample. These results were not surprising as previous research shows that Americans reported high levels of comfort with uncertainty (Parnell et al., 2012). Also, the relationship between CU and the CAQ may be non-significant because the CAQ measures creative achievement throughout an individual's entire lifespan. It should be considered then, that responses on the CAQ may reflect creative accomplishments at different life stages where uncertainty may not have been influential to the person's creativity. For example, a young boy wins a dance contest at the age of 8 years when uncertainty might not play an influential role in the child's life. Such conditions may very well reflect a missing relationship between the CAQ and Cognitive Uncertainty in the U.S. population.

On the other hand, the CAQ did correlate significantly with Desire for Change in the U.S. sample and also in both samples overall, but not in the South African sample. It is possible that a relationship between the CAQ and Desire for Change did not appear in the South African sample because the culture has experienced a lot of socio-cultural changes in recent history. Although these changes have benefited many, there are citizens of the country who find it more difficult to transition to these changes (Reardon & Govender, 2011). Such difficulty may result in a lack in Desire for Change, and might explain the absence of a correlation with the Creative Achievement Questionnaire in South Africa.

Finally, Zhou and Su (2010) provided several examples of cross-cultural differences when measuring creativity. These authors found that American samples consistently scored higher than Chinese samples on fluency, flexibility, and originality across different age groups. These results were similar when comparing an American sample with a South African sample. ATTA scores differed significantly between the United States and South Africa and also within the ATTA sub domains of fluency, originality, and elaboration. There was a marginally significant difference in CAQ scores, and significant differences in Cognitive Uncertainty scores between the two countries. Country was not a significant factor for the Desire for Change cultural value. It is not surprising that U.S. students scored higher on the ATTA, as mentioned above, the test's format appears to favor the American-Western culture over the South African or international population. Significant differences in Cognitive Uncertainty, also, do not come as a surprise being that the political developments and the social demographic developments seem more in flux in South Africa.

Americans have typically reported greater comfort with uncertainty as the American culture has been found to have a higher tolerance for uncertainty (Rinne et. al, 2012). Finally, the lack of difference in Desire for Change mean scores was likely. As stated above, South Africa has experienced many socio-cultural changes in recent history, and there are citizens who have found the transition very difficult (Reardon & Govender, 2011). The United States has also experienced many changes in recent times with recession of the American economy and the many changes in government laws/policies (i.e., health care reform). Although each country may have different starting points, it appears that both populations are relatively equal in their Desire for Change.

Research Limitations

Limitations of the study could be related to the measurements. As mentioned above, the ATTA appears to be more suitable to the American-western culture than the South African culture. Several South African participants responded to Activity 1 of the ATTA with, "people will think that I am possessed," "people will think I dabble in witchcraft," "people might think someone has put a spell on me." Such answers are not listed as typical non-original responses in the ATTA scoring manual for Activity 1. Scoring such responses as original, when they are non-original within the South African culture may alter the accurate measuring of creativity. South Africans also scored significantly lower than Americans in the originality sub domain of the ATTA. As previous research has found, western cultures place a greater value on originality and uniqueness rather than usefulness and appropriateness (Morris & Leung, 2010). The measuring of original outputs on the ATTA may then be more suitable for U.S. participants over South African participants. The value of creativity varies as cultures vary

Implications

This research can be used to the benefit of businesses, organizations, educational settings, and to anyone or group looking to optimize creativity. Data were presented in both the United States and South Africa relating creativity to cultural values. Businesses, for example, may use these research findings by identifying and mimicking a workplace environment that corresponds to the highest creative output (e.g. low in uncertainty and or high in desirability for change). If the business is located in the United States, upper management and executives may design a workplace environments based on a culture that embraces change, novelty, the unknown, and other characteristics depicting a high Desire for Change. If the business is located in South Africa, upper management and executives may design a workplace environment based on less structure, order, planning, and other characteristics depicting low Cognitive Uncertainty. The same can be said for organizations, educational settings, and groups of people looking to maximize creative efforts in the respective countries.

Future Research

Future research examining the relationship between cultural values and creativity would benefit the cross-cultural literature. As businesses and individuals continue to interact on a global scale, it is important to identify what factors play a key role in their creative production.

From this study, it can be inferred that, at least, some relationships exist between creativity and Cognitive Uncertainty and Desire for Change. Future studies should be designed to examine more cultural values such as Collectivism versus Individualism, and Power Distance, in assessing the cross-cultural relationships of these constructs and creativity (Hofstede, 1983) or social axioms and their relationship with creativity (Leung & Bond, 2004). Furthermore, investigating the relationships between cultural values and certain types of creativity, such as evolutionary and revolutionary creativity, is recommended as part of a future research agenda (Gilson, D'Innocenzo, & Moye, 2012). Continued research on these subjects may profoundly increase creativity from culture to culture.

REFERENCES

Al-Kailani, M., & Kumar, R. (2011). Investigating uncertainty avoidance and perceived risk for impacting internet buying: a study in three national cultures. International Journal of Business and Management, *6*(5), 76-92. doi:10.5539/ijbm.v6n5p76

Amabile, T. M., Barsade, S. G., Mueller, J. S., & Staw, B. M. (2005). Affect and creativity at work. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *50*(3), 367-403. doi:10.2189/asqu.2005.50.3.367

Baer, M., & Oldham, G. R. (2006). The curvilinear relation between experienced creative time pressure and creativity: Moderating effects of openness to experience and support for creativity. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, *91*(4), 963-970. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.4.963

Bechtoldt, M. N., De Dreu, C. W., Nijstad, B. A., & Choi, H. (2010). Motivated information processing, social tuning, and group creativity. *Journal of Personality And Social Psychology*, *99*(4), 622-637. doi:10.1037/a0019386

Benner, M. J., & Tushman, M. L. (2003). 'Exploitation, exploration and process management: the productivity dilemma revisited', Academy of Management Review, *28* (2), pp. 238-256. Retrieved from http://www.gepeq.dep.ufscar.br/arquivos/Artigo-GerenciadeProcessos-InovacaoExploitation.pdf

Bharadwaj, S. and Menon, A. (2000), Making innovation happen in organizations: individual creativity mechanisms, organizational creativity mechanisms or both? Journal of Product Innovation Management, *17*(6), 424–434. doi: 10.1111/1540-5885.1760424

Carson, S. H., Peterson, J. B., & Higgins, D. M. (2005). Reliability, Validity, and Factor Structure of the Creative Achievement Questionnaire. *Creativity Research Journal*, *17*(1), 37-50. doi:10.1207/s15326934crj1701_4

Colvin, C. J. (2003). Introduction: contingency and creativity: South Africa after apartheid. *Anthropology and Humanism*, *28*(1), 3-7.

Cotterell, N., Eisenberger, R., & Speicher, H. (1992). Inhibiting effects of reciprocation wariness on interpersonal relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *62*(4), 658-668 doi:10.1037/0022-3514.62.4.658

Curley, S. P., Yates, J., & Abrams, R. A. (1986). Psychological sources of ambiguity avoidance. *Organizational Behavior And Human Decision Processes*, *38*(2), 230-256. doi:10.1016/0749-5978(86)90018-X this looks like grey font??

De Dreu, C. W. (2010). Human creativity: Reflections on the role of culture. *Management and Organization Review*, *6*(3), 437-446, doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.2010.00195.x

Dewar, R. D., & Dutton, J. E.1986. The adoption of radical and incremental innovations - an empirical-analysis. *Management Science, 32*(11),1422-1433. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.32.11.1422

DiRienzo, C. E., Kathryn, J. D., Cort, T., & Burbridge, J. (2007), "Corruption and the role of information". *Journal of International Business Studies, 38*(2), 320-32. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400262.

Gilson, L. L., & Madjar, N. (2010). Radical and incremental creativity: Antecedents and processes. *Psychology Of Aesthetics, Creativity, And The Arts*, doi:10.1037/a0017863

Gilson, L. L., Lim, H., D'Innocenzo, L., & Moye, N. (2012). One size does not fit all: Managing radical and incremental creativity. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, *46*(3), 168-191 doi:10.1002/jocb.12.

Goff, K., & Torrance, E.P. (2002). *Abbreviated Torrance test for adults manual*. Illinois: Scholastic Testing Service.

Greco, V., & Roger, D. (2001). Coping with uncertainty: The construction and validation of a new measure. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *31*(4), 519-534, doi:10.1016/S0191 8869(00)00156-2.

Hofstede, G. (1983). National cultures revisited. *Behavior Science Research*, *18*(4), 285-305 doi:10.1177/106939718301800403.

Hofstede, G. (1984). Cultural dimensions in management and planning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 1(*2), 81-99, doi:10.1007/BF01733682.

Kharkhurin, A. V., & Samadpour Motalleebi, S. N. (2008). The Impact of Culture on the Creative Potential of American, Russian, and Iranian College Students. *Creativity Research Journal*, *20*(4), 404-411. doi:10.1080/10400410802391835

Leung, K., & Bond, M. H. (2004). Social Axioms: A model for social beliefs in multicultural perspective. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 36,* 119–197. Doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(04)36003-X

Morris, M. W., & Leung, K. (2010). Creativity east and west: Perspectives and parallels. M M*anagement and Organization Review*, *6*(3), 313-327. doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.2010.00193.x

Parnell, J. A., Lester, D. L., Long, Z., & Köseoglu, M. (2012). How environmental uncertainty affects the link between business strategy and performance in SMES: Evidence from China, Turkey, and the USA. *Management Decision*, *50*(4), 546-568,, doi:10.1108/00251741211220129

Reardon, C. A., & Govender, K. (2011). "Shaping up": The relationship between traditional masculinity, conflict resolution and body image among adolescent boys in South Africa. *Vulnerable Children and Youth Studies*, *6*(1), 78-87. doi:10.1080/17450128.2011.554578

Rinne, T., Steel, G., & Fairweather, J. (2012). Hofstede and Shane revisited: The role of power distance and individualism in national-level innovation success. *Cross-Cultural Research: The Journal of Comparative Social Science*, *46*(2), 91-108. doi:10.1177/1069397111423898

Taylor, A., & Greve, H. R. (2006). Superman or the fantastic four? Knowledge combination and experience in innovative teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, *49*(4), 723-740. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/20159795.

Tinaztepe, C. (2012). The effect of desire for change on the relationship between uncertainty and job related affective well-being. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies, 4,* 1309, 127-136. Retrieved from http://www.sobiad.org/eJOURNALS/journal_IJSS/arhieves/2012_2/cihan_tinaztepe.pdf

Torrance, E., & Horng, R. (1980). Creativity and style of learning and thinking characteristics of adaptors and innovators. *Creative Child & Adult Quarterly*, *5*(2), 80-85. Retrieved from http://130.203.133.150/showciting;jsessionid=E0E52631BB86C84047DFFBC919F702 AC?cid=6773771

Zhou, J., & Su, Y. (2010). A missing piece of the puzzle: The organizational context in cultural patterns of creativity. *Management and Organization Review*, *6*(3), 391-413 doi:10.1111/j.1740-8784.201.

GROUNDED THEORY METHOD: NEW MEANS TO ASSESS STAKEHOLDERS' PERCEPTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES

Roxana Maiorescu, Purdue University
maiorescu@purdue.edu

ABSTRACT

This article proposes a research methodology for assessing the convergence between corporate values defined and enacted by management and employees' perceptions of these values. Since perceptions are volatile, fluctuant, and subjective, this article proposes a mixed-methods approach toward assessing corporate value convergence. This method of assessment consists of the adaptation and quantification of frame analysis, a meaning-making theory. Further on, this methodology is most suitable for assessing value perceptions in online settings. By not distinguishing a clear audience, users of social media and public blogs communicate in a more free flow than in offline settings. This allows for a better assessment of the process through which they internalize and perceive corporate values.

INTRODUCTION AND CORPORATE VALUES

Corporate value convergence is of paramount importance for corporations because it has proven to boost stakeholders' level of trust, employee satisfaction, and increase the likelihood of consumer loyalty, among others (Michailova & Minbaeva; 2012; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Corporate values are the core elements of a company's identity and are first defined by the senior management in the company's mission statement (Klemm, Sanderson, & Luffman, 1991). In addition, they represent an indispensable element of corporate culture (Pettigrew, 1979; Michailova & Minbaeva, 2012; Schein, 2004) and "top managers articulate, nurture, and utilize values to shape certain types of individual behavior and to achieve desired organizational goals" (Michailova & Minbaeva, 2012, p.60).

Michailova and Minbaeva (2012) contended that corporate values stand for the beliefs that top management need to use in order to identify objectives and business strategies and practices that the company will engage in. Corporate values are relatively stable over time and, if internalized, are manifest in employees' patterns of behavior (Michailova & Minbaeva, 2012, Schein, 2004). Based on the degree to which they are internalized their presence is evident on a behavioral and cognitive level and a convergence between how management defines corporate values and how employees perceive them is a necessary condition for corporations in general and for multinational corporations in particular. The concept of convergence between corporate values and employees' perceptions was proven to boost job satisfaction and commitment and was studied from various angles, ranging from leadership theory (Fiedler, 1978) to Hackman and

Oldham's (1980) model of job characteristics, and to Finegan's (2000) studies on organizational psychology. Studies showed that reaching corporate value convergence is important because, otherwise, divergent value perceptions held by stakeholders on the one hand and by management on the other hand may lead to conflict and crises. For example, Smith and Eisenberg (1987) determined that Disney's strike in the 1980s had been caused by the divergent views that employees and management held with respect to Disney's core values and mission. Generally, this conflict type, rooted in a lack of value convergence, arises because, by viewing their company differently, both management and employees have different expectations from the company and perform their daily tasks based on what they believe to be representative for the company's mission. A company can ensure this solid convergence by constantly determining and assessing its stakeholders' perceptions. This, in turn, is paramount for establishing and maintaining a relationship that is beneficial for both parties.

What can management do to ensure that corporate values are perceived the way in which the former defined them? Several scholars pointed to the fact that the detailed description of corporate values in mission statements, newsletters, and annual reports does not suffice. Argyrus and Schön (1978), and Simons (1999; 2002) called the values that are presented in such documents espoused values and contended that, without a process of internalization, espoused values create "short-term associations in individual minds" (Michailova & Minbaeva, 2012, p. 61). Therefore, it is recommended that management enact corporate values in a company's daily operations. By acting upon these values together, both management and the company's stakeholders can create a shared understanding of what the corporate values are and what they stand for which, ultimately leads to a specific behavior that benefits both parts (Michailova & Minbaeva, 2012). Consequently, it is important to gain an understanding of how stakeholders perceive and internalize corporate values and the assessment of the (lack of) convergence becomes of paramount importance. By constantly assessing and understanding these perceptions, management can renegotiate the meaning attributed to corporate values in case perceptions are deviant from how the company defined them.

Past research showed that perceptions of corporate values and their alignment with personal values play a paramount role in the way in which a company's stakeholders on the one hand and the management on the other hand perform their activity and make decisions (Liedtka, 1989; Posner & Schmidt, 1993). For example, in a study about employees, Liedtka (1989) considered that the best way to understand the process through which personal and corporate values exert influence on work performance and decision- making is to analyze the interaction between the two value sets. In this respect, she proposed a model of "value congruence" and contended that employees perform and make decisions based on the extent to which their personal values converge with those of their company (Liedtka, 1989; Posner & Schmidt, 1993). In addition, she showed that a clear understanding of corporate values increases commitment and satisfaction and convergence between personal and corporate values leads to a positive work attitude, an idea that had been espoused earlier by Meliglino et al. (1989) and Posner et al. (1985). Further on, O'Reilly et al. (1991) showed that the convergence of personal values and corporate values leads to turnover. The importance of value congruence was also stated by practitioners. Namely, Howard (1990) and Posner and Schmidt (1993) mentioned an interview with Robert Haas,

Chairman and CEO of Levi Strauss & Company in which the latter emphasized the importance of value convergence in performing unified business strategies.

Personal values may shift and change and thus corporate values perceptions are fluctuant and volatile. This is the reason for which the best way to assess the volatile and fluctuant aspects of these perceptions may be through the adaption and quantification of a meaning making theory. In this respect, Goffman's (1974) frame analysis can shed light on the way in which stakeholders perceive and identify themselves with the corporate values based on the context or the frame they enact when they try to make sense of their organization. This context comprises the stakeholders' past personal and professional experiences, their expectations, and their beliefs all of which form their personal values. This socio-psychological background would be difficult to assess through in-depth interviews because the interviewee is cognizant of the interviewing process and may not reveal as much information as needed for a proper assessment. Moreover, observational studies and ethnographies, while allowing for a more thorough analysis do not provide as free a flow of communication as the one found online. Specifically, while writing on public blogs and/or social media sites, users lack a clear understanding of their audiences and tend to express themselves more freely.

GOFFMAN'S FRAME ANALYSIS

Goffman's frame analysis, which looks into conversations and social behavior, helps to determine the interpretative criteria or the context stakeholders draw from when they assess and perceive corporate values. Understanding this context allows the company and its stakeholders to (re)negotiate corporate values with the purpose of establishing an agreement on what the corporation is and what it stands for. This context comprises the employees' professional and personal experiences, likes and dislikes, outlooks on life, expectations, and personal values, to name a few, which would be difficult if not impossible to determine without the use of a meaning-making theory. This happens because the use of a meaning making theory represents "an attempt to become cognizant of the rules of cognition and communication that are bound up with the production of any world" (Gonos, 1977, p. 858).

A concept initially developed by Bateson (1972), framing refers to the context or interpretative criteria through which individuals make sense of a certain situation or event (Goffman, 1974; Johansson, 2007). Applied in a corporate context and to online communication, framing sheds light on the way in which stakeholders perceive corporate values based on rules and values that are rooted in a larger structure or context (Goffman, 1974). During the process of interaction, stakeholders enact constitutive frames that represent their own socio-psychological background. According to Goffman "we can hardly glance at anything without applying a primary framework, thereby forming conjectures as to what occurred before and expectations of what is likely to happen at this moment (Goffman, 1974, p. 38). A similar definition was provided by Ellis (1999) who contended that "a frame is a social representation through which people structure experience" and constitutes "the organizational principles and strategies by which

situations are defined" (p. 84). The process through which frames are employed can take place consciously or unconsciously.

Goffman's frame analysis allows for the determination of a group's central elements of interpretation and meaning that take place in social and communicative settings. These elements constitute the basis of a group's culture, its belief system and its "cosmology" (Goffman, 1974, p. 27). In corporate settings, framing helps to determine the perceptions of corporate values that prevail across the company's stakeholders by first shedding light on the frames that the latter enact in the process of meaning making. Based on the way in which they occur, frames are classified as natural and social and represent the primary cognitive blocks of interpretation (Goffman, 1974).

Natural frames

Natural frameworks classify occurrences that lack intentionality, agency, orientation, or guidance. By enacting a natural frame individuals perceive events as predetermined and void of any intervention that could change the status quo. There are no rewards or punishments applicable, no positive or negative criteria from which to judge an event or a situation. In short, the meaning conferred from the enactment of a natural framework is purely deterministic. The enactment of natural frames signifies that individuals consider occurrences beyond anyone's control.

In studying stakeholders' perceptions of corporate values, the examination of the natural frames can trigger events or states of affairs in the macrosystem in which the organization operates. These are situations beyond a corporation's control in terms of decision making and refer to the political, social, and economic systems in which companies operate. A corporation needs to adapt to the milieu in which it functions. Most of the times corporations cannot change the system through their own operations. The situation has already been determined and is beyond a company's control. Moreover, the daily activity of a corporation needs to be performed according to the rules imposed by the macrosystem. Consequently, natural frameworks are related to the concept of legitimacy. Specifically, stakeholders perceive companies as legitimate when the latter conform with taken-for-granted standards (King & Whetten, 2008). Some examples of taken-for-granted standards are business practices and ethics that corporations need to implement based on the economic, social, and political milieus in which they operate. The presence of natural frameworks in corporate value perceptions will shed light on whether employees consider those values as imposed by the macrosystem and, hence, embraced by the company as a requirement and not out of its own will. For example, it is expected that a value like corporate social responsibility (CSR) will have a higher presence in the natural frame since CSR has been the latest buzzword that business and corporations have enacted worldwide in an attempt to maintain or gain legitimacy. This assumption implies that stakeholders may consider that the company is not sincerely committed to CSR acts but rather adopts them in order to maintain organizational legitimacy.

Social frames

Contrary to natural frameworks, social frames interpret situations that involve agency, intention, motivation, and will. Such situations constitute "guided doings, and reflect purpose and intelligence" (Haslett, 2011). The perceptions that fall under the social frameworks refer to the fact that the company has the power to change or avert events and its performance can be sanctioned, punished, or rewarded by stakeholders. The company's doings are subject to appraisals and guided by rules. Thus, the company can be "coaxed, flattered, affronted, and threatened" (Goffman, 1947, p. 22). Despite the company's intentions to change or alter the status quo, its power is limited by the natural extant conditions. Specifically, social frameworks make allowances for the fact that the company's actions and performance may be restricted by the realm of the natural. Hence, success and failure are measured by taking into account the degree to which the company seeks to exploit the external conditions and/or navigate through them (Goffman, 1947, p. 23). In this case, interpretation involves a frame within a frame since the social frame can be view from a larger perspective that is, constricted by the realm of the natural.

In studying corporate values, social framing refers to the fact that stakeholders' perceptions are formed based on the belief that the company is limited in its operations by the expectations that stem from the macrosystem in which it operates. For example, a company is promoting innovation as its core value but the question that arises is whether its stakeholders perceive that more innovation could be achieved if there weren't restrictions on the market such as the restraints imposed by government regulations, etc.

Extraordinary situations

In addition to occurring in the natural and social frames, organizational values can be present in extraordinary situations that influence and shift perceptions. These situations are negative or positive in connotation, may revolve around agency or be void of it and refer to disruptive and out of the ordinary events. Goffman (1974) classified them as muffings, cosmological interests, and astounding complexes. For the purpose of studying perceptions of organizational value, cosmological interests refer to events that disrupt the regular activity of a company in either a positive or negative way. In addition, the events are under management's control. On the other hand, muffings refer to solely negative events and are characterized by a shift in agency. Such events are the crises that arise as a result of the management's loss of control over a given situation. Finally, cosmological interests characterize perceptions of events or situations that are utterly positive. In the case of cosmological interests, individuals are framed with amazement and consider that only the agent responsible for the event or the situation could have the skills or the ability to be accountable for a certain achievement and there is no other entity that could outmatch its performance.

It is important to note that the process of meaning making can occur simultaneously in natural/social frameworks and in one of the extraordinary situations aforementioned. Thus, the importance of conducting a frame analysis lies in the potential of Goffman's (1974) theory to determine, 'what are the instances in which, despite the fact that stakeholders perceive a value as enacted for the purpose of organizational legitimacy, they still accept it and identify themselves with it.' For example, studies can shed light on whether, if perceived in situations that are inherently positive (cosmological interests), the value of CSR is embraced by stakeholders despite the fact that it has a high presence in the social frame.

PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

Because Goffman's (1974) frame analysis deals with interpretation and meaning making, it needs to be adapted to the specific company whose values are being studied. In addition, corporate values perceptions oscillate depending on the socio-psychological context that triggers them. Hence, the best way to assess the convergence of value perceptions is to conduct a case study research and adapt the frame analysis to each company that requires this assessment. The case study methodology involves a mixed-methods approach especially in cases in which there is little known about previous values perceptions (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007; Weick, 1993). In addition, the qualitative research methodology is the best way to bring to light perceptions since they occur at a cognitive and subconscious level. In order to analyze perceptions of organizational values, the researcher should first engage with the company's mission statement as well as with the company's online content by performing a qualitative analysis. Using the grounded theory methodology, the researcher engages into an inductive/deductive approach to determine the frames and the extraordinary situations in which the company's values occur the most. The researcher is thus able to hypothesize and create research questions. In addition, the grounded theory methodology allows the researcher to compile a thorough and rigorous codebook that he or she will use in the quantitative study that follows.

The second part of the analysis involves a content analysis in which the online content is coded based on the codebook determined through the application of the grounded theory methodology mentioned afore. Specifically, the researcher codes for every occurrence in which the company's values and Goffman's frames are implicitly or explicitly present. Moreover, the researcher needs to make allowances and code for the presence of value convergence. The way in which value convergence coded as present or absent in the posts should be determined based on the results of the prior qualitative analysis. It is recommended that convergence is coded when the author of a blog post expresses approval of a situation or event, clearly states or implies he or she would adopt a similar solution under the same circumstances, praises or lauds the company's stand and actions. Finally, a multiple regression analysis should be run in order to determine the way in which the company's values and Goffman's frames determine value convergence.

CONCLUSION

The advent and the success of the social media and blogs forever changed the way in which corporations engage with their stakeholders. Online communication tends to blur the distinction between internal and external stakeholder groups as the latter engage in online dialogues about the company's products, actions, and deeds. Companies have found various ways to assess online communication mostly by statistically measuring the negative and the positive social media content about their brand. This paper argues that corporations can use social media content to determine the way in which their various stakeholder groups perceive their values. Since perceptions are volatile and fluctuant, companies should assess these perceptions on a regular basis and through a mixed-methods approach that involves the adaptation of an interpretative approach. Finally, this article proposed a way in which such an assessment can be conducted through the application of Goffman's frame analysis.

REFERENCES

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1978). *Organizational learning: A theory of action perspective.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Bateson , G. (1972). *Steps to an ecology of the mind.* New York: Ballentine.

Eisenhardt, K.M., & Graebner, M.E. (2007). Theory building from cases: Opportunity and challenges. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(1), 25-32.

Ellis, D. (1999). *Crafting society.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Finegan, J. E. (2000). The impact of person and organizational values on organizational commitment. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology, 73,* 149-169.

Fiedler, F. E. (1978). The contingency model and the dynamics of the leadership process. In L. Bergowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 60-112). New York: Academic Press.

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research. C C*hicago: Aldine.

Goffman, E. (1974*). Frame analysis.* Boston, MA: Northeastern University Press.

Gonos, G. (1977). "Situation" versus "frame:" The "interactionist" and the "structuralist" analyses of everyday life. *American Sociological Review, 42*, 854-867.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1980*). Work redesign.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Howard, R. (1990). Values make the company: An interview with Robert Haas. *Harvard Business Review, 68,* 132-144.

Johansson, C. (2007). Goffman's sociology: An inspiring resource for developing public relations theory. *Public Relations Review,33*, 275-280.

King, B. G., & Whetten, D.A. (2008). Rethinking the relationship between reputation and legitimacy: A social actor conceptualization. *Corporate Reputation Review, 11*(3), 192-207.

Klemm, M., Sanderson, S., & Luffman, G. (1991). Mission statements: Selling corporate values to employees. *Long range planning, 24*(3), 73-78.

Liedtka, J.M. (1989). Value congruence: The interplay of individual and organizational value   system. *Journal of Business Ethics, 8,* 805-815.

Meglino, B, Ravlin, E.C., & Adkins, C.L. (1989). A work value approach to corporate culture: A Field test of the value convergence process and its relationship to individual outcomes.   *Journalof Applied Psychology, 74*(3), 424-432.

Michailova, S., & Minbaeva, D.B. (2012). Organizational values and knowledge sharing in multinational corporations: The Danisco case. *International Business Review,* 21, 59-70.

Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital and the organizational advantage*. Academy of Management Review*, *23*(2), 242-266.

O'Reilly, C., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal, 34*, 487–516.

Pettigrew, A. (1979). On studying organizational cultures. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 24, 570–581.

Posner, B.Z., Kouzes, J.M., & Schmidt, W.H. (1985). Shared values make a difference: An empirical test of corporate culture. *Human Resource Management, 24*(3), 293-310.

Posner, B.Z., & Schmidt, W.H. (1993). Values congruence and differences between the interplay of personal and organizational value systems. *Journal of Business Ethics, 12*(5), 341-347.

Schein, E. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Simons, T. (2002). Behavioral integrity: The perceived alignment between managers' words and needs as a research focus*. Organization Science, 13*(1), 18–35.

Smith, R.C., & Eisenberg, E. M. (1987). Conflict at Disneyland: A root-metaphor analysis. *Communication Monographs, 54,* 367-380.

Wei,Y.-K. (2002). Corporate image as collect ethos: A poststructuralist approach. *Corporate Communications, 7*(4), 269–278.