QRBD

QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

May 2015

Volume 2
Number 1

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES
SPONSORED BY UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA
ISSN 2334-0169 (print)
ISSN 2329-5163 (online)

Blank inside front cover

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

FROM THE EDITORS

This issue of *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines* begins with a paper written by co-authors Diane Bandow, Joseph Gerweck, and Terry Self, which won the Best Paper Award at the 2015 International Academy of Business Disciplines Conference in Orlando, Florida. Olga Lazitski, a doctoral student, who is currently working on her dissertation, also presented her paper in Orlando in order to get feedback from scholars that she could incorporate into her body of research to make it stronger.

Ronald Taylor, Michael Coolsen, and Cailey Aubrey's paper presents a portrayal of U.S. & U.K Women's Roles in Advertising. Kelley Jones' research provides insight into attitudes toward women managers in male- and female-dominated cultures and explores the dynamics from a female perspective.

Liqiong Deng's research on the effects of regulatory focus on Information Technology substitution highlights why some people are so hesitant to upgrade while others are more than willing to commit to the newest trends in technology. The issue concludes with the research of Aimee Shelton and Xenja Lindberg, which explains the necessity for service learning and offers solutions to implement it into academic programs.

We hope you enjoy reading the papers in this issue as much as we did.

Margaret A. Goralski, *Quinnipiac University,* Editor-in Chief
Kaye McKinzie, *University of Central Arkansas*, Associate Editor

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

The *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines (QRBD)* is published by the International Academy of Business Disciplines quarterly in February, May, August, and November.

Manuscript Guidelines/Comments. *QRBD* is a blind peer-reviewed journal that provides publication of articles in all areas of business and the social sciences that affect business. The Journal welcomes the submission of manuscripts that meet the general criteria of significance and business excellence. Manuscripts should address real-world phenomena that highlight research that is interesting and different – innovative papers that begin or continue a line of inquiry that integrate across disciplines, as well as, those that are disciplinary. The Journal is interested in papers that are constructive in nature and suggest how established theories or understandings of issues in business can be positively revised, adapted, or extended through new perspectives and insights. Manuscripts that do not make a theoretical contribution to business studies or that have no relevance to the domain of business should not be sent to *QRBD*. Submissions to *QRBD* must follow the journal's Style Guide for Authors, including length, formatting, and references. Poorly structured or written papers will be returned to the authors promptly. Manuscript length is approximately 16–20 single-spaced pages. Acceptance rate is 25-28%.

Description. The *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines* is a quarterly publication of the International Academy of Business Disciplines (IABD); a worldwide, non-profit organization established to foster and promote education in all of the functional and support disciplines of business. The objectives of *QRBD* and IABD are to stimulate learning and understanding and to exchange information, ideas, and research studies from around the world. The Academy provides a unique global forum for professionals and faculty in business, communications, and other social science fields to discuss and publish papers of common interest that overlap career, political, and national boundaries. *QRBD* and IABD create an environment to advance learning, teaching, and research, and the practice of all functional areas of business. *Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines* is published to promote cutting edge research in all of the functional areas of business.

Submission Procedure. An electronic version of the manuscript must be submitted in MS Word to the Editor-in-Chief, Dr. Margaret A. Goralski at Margaret.Goralski@quinnipiac.edu. Upon completion of a review by expert scholars who serve on the *QRBD* Editorial Review Board, the first author will be informed of acceptance or rejection of the paper within a one to two month timeframe from the submission date. If the paper is accepted, the first author will receive a formal letter of acceptance along with the *QRBD* Style Guide for Authors. IABD members and authors who participate in the IABD annual conference are given first priority as a matter of courtesy. For additional information, please visit www.iabd.org.

Subscription. The annual subscription price for QRBD is US$100 plus postage and handling. Single issue price is $35 per issue plus postage and handling.

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

MISSION STATEMENT

The organization designated as the International Academy of Business Disciplines is a worldwide, non-profit organization, established to foster and promote education in all of the functional and support disciplines of business.

WWW.IABD.ORG

The Quarterly Review of Business Disciplines (QRBD) is listed in *Cabell's Directory of Publishing Opportunities.*

QRBD - QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

VOLUME 2 NUMBER 1 MAY 2015

ISSN 2329-5163 (online)
ISSN 2334-0169 (print)

CONTENTS

ARTICLES

This page has been intentionally left blank.

SUPPORTING AND EMPOWERING KNOWLEDGE WORKERS AND COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE

Diane Bandow, Troy University
bandow2@troy.edu

Joseph Gerweck, Manager, Project Controls, DTE
gerweckjt@dteenergy.com

Terry B. Self, MSHRM, Independent Researcher
terrybself@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Much has been written about the potential for knowledge workers and communities of practice (CoPs). The potential for innovation, creativity, and knowledge sharing is intriguing and shows promise. The appropriate work environment and organizational culture are necessary to support knowledge workers and the promise of CoPs; this may be a change for some from the existing work environment and expectations, which are structured under more traditional management approaches. A review of organizational culture and the roles of technology and social media describe some of the challenges organizations must address. The alignment with knowledge management efforts and CoPs is discussed in terms of tacit and explicit knowledge. Social networks contribute to learning, creativity, and innovation. CoPs should identify technology needed to support work activities, which then can be enabled by management. Reviewing practices relative to employee empowerment and participation are necessary as well as acknowledgment that knowledge workers and their CoPs, not management, are responsible for sharing knowledge and improving their performance in the organization. As CoPs and their members can become significant capital assets, competitive advantage may be at risk without necessary support.

Keywords: communities of practice (CoPs), knowledge management (KM), tacit knowledge, explicit knowledge, knowledge sharing

INTRODUCTION

Organizations must satisfy both shareholders or owners and the human capital that gives the organization power – knowledge workers (Drucker, 1999). As Drucker noted, competitive advantage will determine organizational survival; he proposed the need to attract and keep knowledge workers as a fundamental requirement. This means organizations must actively pursue human capital to better serve stakeholders. How can organizations create the environment necessary to stimulate learning; support knowledge creation and innovation; and foster job satisfaction, continuous improvement, and higher performance to benefit all stakeholders? Two areas have emerged as possibilities: knowledge management (KM) and, in the last decade, communities of practice (CoPs). Archibald and McDermott (2008, p.16), referred to CoPs as the

"darling of KM…" because CoPs are an effective way to share the deep, tacit knowledge necessary to instill "know-how". CoPs are identified as "…essential building blocks of the knowledge economy" (Shenkel & Teigland, 2008, p. 106). CoPs provide a practical application for KM (Iversen & McPhee, 2002).

Some of the benefits related to CoP activities include the reduction of rework and reinvention, an increase in employee satisfaction, the development of new capabilities, and a decrease in learning curves. In addition, individual members also perceived a greater and positive impact based on their individual performance, even more so than the improvements in organizational performance (Archibald & McDermott, 2008). Organizations have pursued the concept of KM with optimism, seeking ways to document and secure existing knowledge, only to discover that documented or codified knowledge is only part of the solution. Tacit knowledge, the information that is typically difficult to document, is identified as perhaps the most important knowledge asset. Sometimes referred to as implicit knowledge, tacit knowledge represents expertise or know-how, which has been gained through individual experience (Ipe, 2003; Mooradian, 2005; Nonaka, 2008; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Because it is gained through individual or personal cognitive and experiential processes, tacit knowledge is perceived as subjective knowledge (Gupta, Iyer, & Aronson, 2000). Regardless of the name assigned to tacit knowledge, the utilization of and the passing along of this type of knowledge is essential to reducing the learning curves in organizations and CoPs.

Drucker (1999) acknowledged that work would require restructuring so KM, including tacit knowledge, is included as part of the system. As an example, Drucker (1999) cited U.S. Caterpillar Company [Caterpillar, Inc.], which determined that it was not getting paid for its machinery, but instead it was paid for what the machinery does for a customer – in other words, a service orientation intended to produce high-quality outcomes. This provides the basis for CoPs and KM, as the development of a system to create service with quality outcomes. Much of the research in KM and related areas such as CoPs is not often found in management literature, yet management in terms of leadership and processes is responsible for continuous improvement and leveraging knowledge for organizational advantage. This paper is focused on management aspects and reviews some components of a system necessary for consideration by organizations seeking to establish or improve KM in general and to support CoPs. KM and CoPs will be briefly discussed, followed by a theoretical perspective. Organizational elements such as culture and information technology (IT) processes are noted relative to the roles these may play in support of CoPs and KM. This discussion is followed by lessons learned, recommendations, and conclusion.

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

It is an almost impossible task to store, reclaim, and disseminate possessions that do not exist in an organized or codified form (Kreiner, 2002). This is the theory behind traditional KM programs that concentrated on acquiring, codifying, and distributing explicit knowledge and on translating tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge to make it manageable (Kreiner, 2002). As expounded by Proctor (2013, p. 167), KM focuses on three elements: the individuals who generate and utilize knowledge; the different processes and technologies that are used to develop,

sustain, and access knowledge; and the artifacts, such as data files, books, and reports, that are used to store knowledge.

Iversen and McPhee (2002) explained two basic approaches to today's KM: the codifying and storing information and the interactional, people-focused approach that connects those with knowledge. Bresnan, Edelman, Newell, Scarborough, and Swan (2003) concurred and discussed these models as the cognitive model and the community model. The cognitive model focuses on codifying knowledge and is concerned with retaining the knowledge and sharing it within the organization through the application of information technology (Bresnan et al., 2003). This is arguably the most common approach to KM and is supported by increasingly sophisticated information-based tools and organizational intranets. However, the heavy reliance on technology is only a partial aspect of knowledge sharing. The cognitive model emphasizes explicit knowledge; whereas, the focus of the community model is on tacit knowledge, which is more difficult to capture or articulate (Ipe, 2003; Mooradian, 2005; Nonaka, 2008; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Explicit knowledge, which is relatively easy to organize, store, distribute, and communicate (Gupta et al., 2000; Ipe, 2003) through the cognitive model, has been described by Gupta et al. (2000) as knowledge that is more objective, rational, and technical than tacit knowledge, which is more subjective by its nature. CoPs can serve as a people-focused community model to address the capturing and dissemination of tacit knowledge. Søndergaard, Kerr, and Clegg (2007) concluded that technical and social factors are both needed for successful knowledge sharing. This conclusion supports the dual approaches to KM that is championed by Iversen and McPhee (2002) and Bresnan et al. (2003).

Swart and Harvey (2011) suggested that knowledge must be managed across natural boundaries, which are defined by job function, organizations, and positions. Effective communication must link the knowledge together regardless of the boundaries. The development of collective knowledge assets is further enabled when individual and shared knowledge (community knowledge) are treated as assets and the interrelationships are allowed to develop and flourish. However, if left unused, knowledge may dissipate because teams in a project context will disband and such knowledge may be lost when the project has been completed. This also can occur when reorganization occurs within groups, divisions, and corporations. Different methods of organizing and generating knowledge, as represented by processes and supply chains, also help determine boundaries. Even though tacit knowledge is more difficult to document than explicit knowledge, Swart and Harvey (2011) suggested that tacit knowledge is deeper and more effectively integrated and quickly accessible, even more so than explicit knowledge. For example, one of the challenges in project management literature is that the context often neglects social and human dimensions, which contradicts the need to further develop tacit knowledge and that intrinsic value is a key motivator related to human and social dimensions.

Swart and Harvey (2011) also suggested that knowledge is developed through interaction and usage without constraints. They referred to this as a "contact sport," which is supported by a strong foundation of personal initiative, trust, training, and information. Organizations must continue to develop knowledge assets, but must identify which assets exist at the collective level, at the individual level, and then proceed with employee development based on this information. Knowledge is most frequently developed where current ideas can be applied in a new environment, but without usage, the knowledge may decay. Also, closed systems or hard

boundaries in organizations limit opportunities for knowledge generation. Further, sharing knowledge is a social dilemma because barriers are created by unwillingness to share (Swart & Harvey, 2011). Predictions of benevolent individuals who, without rewards, will voluntarily provide intrinsic knowledge are simply not realistic. Other issues can include conflicts of interest in the lack of incentive. A transactional cost could be involved for those who are self-promoting and use opportunistic behavior, thus, sharing information becomes unlikely.

It should be noted that Chu, Krishnakumar, and Khosla (2014) proposed that some of the barriers listed above may be overcome or, at least, mitigated if organizations incorporated into their selection process the five-factor model for personality traits to identify candidates who possess those personality types that would be more apt to support knowledge sharing and who would work well in a CoP environment. Through literature review, Chu et al. (2014) determined the personality traits more suitable for CoPs with various business strategies. For example, if the primary strategy of an organization or its CoPs is innovation, then their selection process should focus on knowledge workers with the Openness to Experience personality trait. Knowledge workers with this personality trait would work well in CoPs that involved the need to facilitate interfaces, maintain human networks, and support a knowledge entity (Chu et al., 2014). Regardless of the selection process that an organization and/or its CoPs elect to use, it is critical to remember that the motivation of an individual appears to be crucial in determining whether or not the individual will facilitate or inhibit knowledge sharing. Søndergaard et al. (2007) argued that individuals with their "motivations and incentives to share and seek out new knowledge are important factors to look for in terms of knowledge sharing" (p. 430).

COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE

Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder (2002, p.4) defined a CoP as a group of people who "share a concern, set of problems or passion about a topic, who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis." Wenger (1998) provided three characteristics of CoPs "…mutual engagement, negotiation of a joint enterprise and a shared repertoire" (p. 261). As Wenger (1998) explained, negotiation of an enterprise or project provides a sense of purpose and coherence to the CoP; the interaction of members defines the significance and shapes practices in reaction to a larger context. The shared repertoire may include stories, theories, forms, and technical terms or jargon that are used and understood by members and provide "proof" of membership. All of these promote meaning and shared understanding in the CoP. For example, members in a group collectively know that the codified instructions for a work application are insufficient. Using their experience, these workers supplement the deficient directions by executing the additional steps needed to ensure a positive outcome. In turn, this group of workers teaches others the additional steps they need to take to achieve a positive result. In essence, the members of this CoP, using their combined tacit knowledge, modified explicit knowledge to correct incomplete instructions. These members, by combining their tacit knowledge and then sharing this combined tacit knowledge with others, reduced the need to reinvent a solution to the problematic written instructions and shortened the learning curves of others who were tasked with performing the same work application. Had these members elected not to share their corrective steps with others through training, then their tacit knowledge would be lost to the organization. It is through mutual engagement that the value of a CoP is realized,

analyzing the complexities of organizational knowledge, which is grounded in activity and common interests, far beyond simple interaction (Iversen & McPhee, 2002).

However, Østerlund and Carlile (2005) suggested the need for a more skeptical approach when evaluating knowledge sharing. They concluded that some knowledge-sharing practices tend to be viewed as properties of community and not embedded in fluid social relations (Østerlund & Carlile, 2005, p. 105). They cautioned that this assumption by organizations and individuals often leads to over-confident portrayals of communities as being the answer to any knowledge-sharing difficulties plaguing the organization (Østerlund & Carlile, 2005).

Wenger et al. (2002) identified three key structural elements – domain, community, and practice – in a CoP. While weak leadership structure can be an issue, legitimate leadership develops over time, as capability is demonstrated by the individual and recognized by the community. Legitimate leadership requires trust and commitment as well as community acceptance. The ability of leaders to influence others within their group is an important component in knowledge sharing (Søndergaard et al., 2007). In addition, Crosby and Bryson (2010) argued that it is important for leaders to be able to work across boundaries and bring diverse groups together for the common good. In this respect, the traditional management structure and the role of management still exists for CoPs. However, because knowledge workers are responsible for the development and sharing of knowledge, traditional management must become a support role and be available as needed by the CoP (Chua, 2006). This can include human, financial, and technology resources. CoPs are responsible for their own learning and self-management. Management must make certain that there is value alignment among individuals, the organization, and the CoP, as individuals are interested in work that they can impact. This supports Kreiner's (2002) posit that the management of knowledge places more importance on leadership, because leaders must encourage and support others in the creation of knowledge locally. Leadership can be found among management and among those naturally occurring leaders within CoPs.

Implementing CoPs must be considered as a significant effort that involves all aspects of the organization and includes a willingness to change and the need to manage expectations of members. Organization leaders must commit wholeheartedly to this concept and demonstrate this commitment daily in order for the implementation of CoPs to be successful. This includes being willing to serve as role models, demonstrating by action how knowledge sharing should occur within the organization (Søndergaard et al., 2007). As part of role modeling knowledge sharing, organization leaders should interpret business strategies, offer guidance to their employees, and, if needed, provide collaboration and coordination (Søndergaard et al., 2007). Sometimes this commitment can be demonstrated by top managers' willingness to step aside and allow CoPs to spring up naturally within the organization.

KM & CoPs

There are different approaches to KM, and CoPs have been recognized for the significant potential in numerous areas such as socializing new employees and engaging them in the organization and the culture, generating new knowledge, motivating individuals, spanning

boundaries with other organizations, providing a source of innovation where known practices are applied in new situations and new environments, which can lead to new practices.

Bresnan et al. (2003) noted how tacit knowledge, by its nature, is difficult to capture and retain because it requires shared mental models and shared meaning. Social norms and settings of groups may not be supportive, such as in project management, which is more task-focused. They further suggested that knowledge diffusion can best be supported by mechanisms that support knowledge sharing and learning processes. Ipe (2003, p. 341) defined knowledge sharing as, "the act of making knowledge available to others within the organization" and, as such, it provides organizations a method by which to capture tacit knowledge ongoing. Knowledge sharing reinforces the opinion that humans are the source of tacit knowledge and that technology, as a mechanism that can assist disseminating this tacit knowledge, is secondary to the human element (Gupta et al., 2000). Identifying opportunities where experiences and tacit knowledge can be applied may be the best way to disseminate information in a project context, as common understandings and shared meanings typically flow through social networks and are supported with an effective culture.

In addition to a project context, there are a number of work designs that promote social networks by establishing interdependencies among jobs, which necessitate more interactions and greater information sharing among workers and work groups (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005). For example, organizations can avoid the use of structured jobs, which include well-defined tasks, and focus on shaping work around a series of assignments that would compel workers to interact across groups, departments, and functions on each assignment. Working closely with others in different groups helps create cross-functional linkages that could involve multiple business units or even multiple locations (Cabrera &Cabrera, 2005). Of course, work can be designed around teams, which facilitates knowledge sharing by intensifying the need for collaboration and coordination among employees (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005). In addition to encouraging knowledge sharing, it is hopeful that, through careful work design, organizations can foster CoPs, if they do not already exist. The careful development of work designs by management for the purpose of facilitating knowledge creation among workers is an example of the importance of leadership in the management of knowledge (Kreiner, 2002).

THEORY

Bresnan et al. (2003) explained social construction as the construction of meaning where individuals collaborate to share ideas often by working together and discussing the work and processes within the CoP. Hansson (2002) discussed the importance of social processes and how a social-constructivist dialogue and the approach to learning can transform people and create dynamic social processes. Hansson (2002) also emphasized the importance in social construction relative to leadership and professional development. Developing dialogue and necessary relationships is a key function of CoPs but difficult for some organizations to achieve because groups can be divided within the organizations due to geography and different job functions, especially in matrix organizations and project environments. In addition, if organizations use a project environment, project knowledge is task-focused by its nature and not focused on community and social structure that support shared meaning.

However, social construction does not include technology. Iversen and McPhee (2002) argued that a working model for knowledge sharing must also include databases and information technology (IT). Søndergaard et al.'s (2007) empirical research supported this belief that both technology and social construction are needed for successful knowledge sharing. Iversen and McPhee (2002) offered a theoretical construct intended to explain the interactive roles of information systems and people, providing a model to explain how KM is constructed socially, transferred, and managed within systems. Iversen and McPhee (2002) also emphasized the need to cultivate CoPs. The very nature of a CoP denies management control; instead, CoPs engage participants, who negotiate and share. Wenger et al. (2002) noted that organizations may also create the environment necessary for successful CoPs, including valuing learning, making time and resources available, encouraging participation, and removing potential barriers. This would include integrating these communities into the organization, providing a voice in decisions, and providing legitimate influence in operating units. Wenger et al. (2002) also identified the need for CoPs to develop processes and manage the value they create. CoP theory emphasizes the need to translate and story tell as part of learning, articulate ideas and directions, and then collaborate. Knowledge managers, the leaders of their respective communities, must "… achieve dual loyalty, to the community and to their organization" (Iversen & McPhee, 2002, p. 264).

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

CoPs were originally recognized as self-evolving groups (Chu et al., 2014). However, many organizations and researchers recognize the potential strategic importance of CoPs as a means to overcome or lessen those problems that are inherent to organizations with a slow-moving traditional hierarchy when faced with a fast-moving knowledge economy (Chu et al., 2014, p. 64). With this recognition comes the understanding that organizations need to identify and create an environment conducive to the development of CoPs as strategic partners. Even though research into the benefits of aligning CoPs' strategies with their organization's strategies is limited, Chu et al. (2014) argued that existing studies support that strategic "alignment should be bottom up, i.e. the knowledge work should be aligned to organization objectives" (p. 64).

Appropriate environments to support the development of CoPs focus on employee empowerment. This is a significant change from past centuries of power and hierarchy. Wenger et al. (2002) noted the need for conducive organizational practices, culture, and values to allow CoPs to develop. Without the supportive environment and employee empowerment, there is little reason in cultivating CoPs. Managing CoPs requires an entirely different approach, as management has little influence other than to acknowledge and support the existence of the CoPs and provide resources. Instead, management must remove barriers to performance, including communication barriers, to facilitate and enable the emergence of knowledge and facilitate behavior.

According to Søndergaard et al. (2007), one such barrier to knowledge sharing is the perceived lack of shared organizational goals or a shared strategic vision. When workers perceive conflicting priorities within the organization, they may find it difficult to or be reluctant to work across organizational boundaries to share knowledge with individuals who do not appear to have the same organization goals (Søndergaard et al., 2007). Therefore, it is imperative for leaders throughout the organization to communicate the strategic vision and let workers know how

important achieving this vision is to the overall success of the organization. Sharing a bond based on common values and beliefs may encourage individuals to share different types of constructive knowledge (Proctor, 2013).

REWARDS AND MOTIVATION

Swart and Harvey (2011) noted the attention that must be given to reward systems and motivators in organizations relative to knowledge workers and CoPs. Intrinsic motivation can be undermined by extrinsic rewards and could even encourage knowledge hoarding. An individual may perceive a reduction in locus of control that would then be matched by a reduction in altruistic behavior. Organizations should avoid giving incentives for specific performance or behaviors because this would create a transactional relationship instead of a relational focus; however, extrinsic motivators such as recognition and reward for those who provide feedback may confirm personal competency and potentially support self-esteem (Swart & Harvey, 2011). This is supported by Ulrich and Brockbank (2005), who argued that individuals do the things for which they are rewarded. Not sharing individual knowledge is a social dilemma. Individuals may hoard information because they may perceive any improvement in their own opportunities or their personal value may be diminished by sharing; this is further reinforced when those who do not contribute are not penalized and the few who do contribute are not rewarded. Developing a sharing culture can be dependent on initial socialization into the organization and a clear understanding of cultural expectations that require knowledge sharing. In addition, work design, which supports both individual and cultural norms and the perception of fair and manageable incentives and practices, will also support knowledge sharing (Swart & Harvey, 2011). Knowledge sharing is critical to the overall growth, dissemination, and management of knowledge throughout an organization (Ipe, 2003). Organizations are dependent upon individuals who create knowledge to share it with others. Should individuals elect not to share their individual knowledge with others in the organization, then their hoarded knowledge will have minimal or no influence on the efficacy of the organization (Ipe, 2003; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Therefore, it is critical that leaders clearly communicate the need to share knowledge and make certain that the organization's rewards and recognitions are in alignment with this need. If employees perceive that sharing knowledge, either directly or indirectly, provides fewer opportunities for success within their work group and the organization as a whole, they will not be motivated to impart knowledge to others (Søndergaard et al., 2007).

Good interpersonal relationships, trust, and commitment are essential in CoPs. Brown and Duguid (1991) addressed both the organizational environment that encourages trust and building working relationships, and individuals who are willing to trust others and share what they learn in a collaborative environment. Huysman and de Wit (2004) identified another problem relative to information sharing with knowledge workers: There may be difficulty in expressing how the work is meaningful, because meaning is developed at an individual level. Time and job pressures may also prevent knowledge workers from sharing information unless this is an inherent practice in the work processes within that organization. This further reinforces the need to embed practices for knowledge sharing into daily jobs and not treat knowledge sharing as an "add on". It is possible that communication patterns and relationships already exist for sharing information but have gone unnoticed. For example, Bright (2010) saw older employees as owning attachments and other strong social bonds; these attachments and relationships may be more

meaningful to employees than potential advancement opportunities, and often these employees may not want "opportunities" that remove them from their networks and work relationships.

THE ROLE OF TECHNOLOGY

Huysman and de Wit (2004) identified basic connections found through e-mail, the telephone, video conferencing, and groupware, which provide access to individuals to span geographic and time differences. However, all of these methods must be established within existing networks and cannot be treated as "add-ons" or superimposed in organizations. Too often the old adage "you will get used to it" becomes a directive from management or the information technology (IT) department when a new tool or system is implemented. This directive may breed frustration and resentment within workgroups who already have established processes and sharing networks within their workgroups and, in the worst case, could be a contributing factor in potential failure. People will not use sophisticated technology tools if they see no reason to share (Huysman & de Wit, 2004). This reinforces the need to identify the existing natural communication networks and review the need to establish electronic networks to be sure they support the natural networks that already exist. Organizations also must understand knowledge sharing is not an individual activity; it is a collective activity that cannot rely solely on tools (Huysman & de Wit, 2004). Therefore, not only should management create a favorable environment for established processes and sharing networks within workgroups, but also they should ensure that everyone in the organization is aware of all of the technology that is available for employee use and how to utilize it. Because organizations are dependent upon individuals to create knowledge, organizations need to find appropriate methods to facilitate how the information can be shared with others.

For example, organizations historically have tended to place the training and the technical functions of KM in different departments – training and development and IT. These groups often have not aligned their objectives with each other or with the organization's strategic goals (Davenport, Prusak, & Strong, 2008). To ensure effective KM and knowledge sharing through technology, the training and development group and the IT group must be aligned with each other and with the organization's strategic goals for KM and knowledge sharing. This means that the two groups must collaborate with each other and with departments throughout the organization to ensure that employees receive continuing training and development on the various platforms, such as database software, corporate intranets, and Web portals (Davenport et al., 2008). As part of its support role to CoPs and knowledge sharing, management should be committed not only to provide user-friendly technology for employees' use, but also to allocate the time required for employee training and training transfer into the work environment. Davenport et al. (2008) contended that this type of organizational support will encourage employees to share their knowledge.

SOCIAL MEDIA

More recently Web 3.0, even though it is not yet available and there are no estimations when it might be, has been presented as a significant evolution to enable better collaboration and communication, support interactivity and provide an integration of mobile devices, 3-D video, and ways of integrating all of the current technologies. Although this would be an improvement

over Web 2.0 (Panahi, Watson, & Partridge, 2013), any assumptions are preliminary as the technology is not yet available. In addition, although significant theoretical arguments support the assumption that social media can facilitate knowledge sharing, this has yet to be proven by empirical research. One of the issues with introducing social media into the workplace is that there is an implicit assumption that everyone will use it; this may be an overreach. Older employees may or may not find value in social media even if younger employees do, and such an introduction implicitly assumes that time will be given to maintain social media in the workplace, whether it is for personal use or work use. Employees who already perceive themselves to be overly committed may be unlikely to take on yet another tool for which they see it has little value relative to their jobs, especially if they are not familiar with it already. Some employees may see adding yet another blog, instant messaging, or other social media tools only as additional demands on their time, which may be limited at best, and potentially overwhelming. Borstnar (2012) saw the social media environment as lacking structure, rules, and generally chaotic. There is little or no research that indicates how social media in the workplace can be used to support organizational performance with or without trust, structure, and rules. Social media is also supported, primarily by IT departments, as a positive addition to the workplace on the basis that it will allow employees to stay more connected (Leng, Lee, & Lim, 2013). Regardless of Proctor's (2013) supposition that personal networking and collaboration are important to the development of ideas, has anyone asked the employees if they wish to be more connected than they already are and to develop deeper relationships with their peers? Social relationships, as supported by such tools as Facebook and Twitter, are arguably different than working relationships. Those individuals who follow each other on Facebook and Twitter usually share common interests, values, and/or beliefs. It is questionable if employees will voluntarily develop more than working relationships with peers unless they choose to do so. At best, researchers can only hypothesize and speculate (i.e., Leng et al., 2013; Levy, 2013) on the value of social media in the workplace. Although the establishment of an IT network and the implementation of social media might encourage knowledge sharing, this remains to be determined empirically. Organizations should not rely on the promise of IT alone, as employees may not readily adopt any tool unless they see added value for themselves and their work. Further, Billington and Billington (2012) explained how management cannot seek to control social media in the conventional sense that traditional tools such as e-mail and Internet access may be controlled, as this may inhibit KM efforts. Once social media is used in the workplace, managers may likely have to deal with employees using work time to update personal accounts such as in Facebook and YouTube. It may be difficult to separate work-related social media time from personal social media activities. There is no one best answer and the appropriate response may likely be found in multiple approaches implemented in coordination. However, the management of knowledge is critical to competitiveness and improvement and should be part of an everyday routine.

A limited survey conducted by the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) of its membership provided an indication of how some organizations have approached the use of social media in the workplace. The survey revealed that 79% of those organizations responding used social media for sharing information, 49% for group discussions, 36% for collaboration, and 20% for problem solving (SHRM, 2012). In regard to the predicated future for social media in their organizations, 55% of respondents expected their organizations to increase social media usage (SHRM, 2012). However, social media in the workplace is not without problems and it is

not completely clear how social media provides added value for the organization in this survey. Of those responding to the SHRM survey, 40% said their organizations had a formal social media policy. Of those with formal social media policies, 33% of the respondents said their organization had taken disciplinary action within the previous 12 months against employees who had violated those policies (SHRM, 2012).

Another potential problem associated with social media such as Facebook is security. Owyang (as cited by Weston, 2009) argued that, even though using Facebook to communicate work-related information may not cost a company money, its use by employees could be a security risk for the company. Instead, he advocated the use of private social networks commonly referred to as community platforms. According to Owyang, these platforms provide social networking functionality behind the protection of a company's firewall. In other words, access to company-specific information, such as group discussions, workgroup or CoP collaboration, or project management problem solving, could not be accessed by those outside the company, unless the company's intranet is hacked into illegally. In addition, Owyang (as cited by Weston, 2009) explained that community platforms provide more flexibility than Facebook offers, because these platforms can be modified to meet the specific needs of a work group or organization.

The social interaction facilitated by these community platforms supports Fernado's (2010, p. 504) concept of social media, which includes the dissemination of information through extremely accessible publishing systems. Fernado (2010) argued that community-driven, information-focused social media technologies offer an enormous capacity for organizations to foster communities whose purpose is the exchange of knowledge. Community platforms have the potential to facilitate the evolution of KM from its original strategies that focused on attaining, codifying, and disseminating knowledge, to a strategy of educating and innovating (McElroy, 2000, p. 199).

LESSONS LEARNED

Chua (2006) provided four lessons for others considering communities of practice. Some of these points included the need to develop CoPs from communities that already exist, as they cannot be formed arbitrarily because of the need for existing communication networks, relationships, and similar interests that are already in place. Such groups would have already developed trust and commitment, which are necessary elements for success. Informal knowledge leaders, highly regarded by peers as having influence, should be the leaders and are the most appropriate candidates for leadership positions in the CoPs. At the beginning, the focus should be on performance, outcomes, and accomplishments; resources should be considered after successes are demonstrated. Alignment within the CoPs and their focus, including alignment with organizational goals, is critical as this alignment enhances motivation and commitment and support strategic goals. Braganza and Mollenkramer (2002) added to the lessons learned, including the need to manage interdependencies with other communities; these cannot be neglected. Knowledge must be defined in specific terms, as processes are unique and terms may have different meanings between different groups and different processes. Knowledge sharing must impact everyday jobs, as sharing this information among individuals in the same process will enable more effective descriptions. However, once knowledge is identified, subdomains can be established, as long as clear context is available. This is why content needs to be identified by those who perform the activities and belong to the natural group in the business process. If

explicit knowledge is the primary focus, a great deal of knowledge will be lost; tacit knowledge must receive at least as much consideration and this is passed along through stories, sharing, and formal and informal meetings of those in the business process. Finally, external consultants, if used, often bring different and potentially conflicting language, techniques, and methods that may cause overlap. Consultants should not be positioned between top leadership and project teams or CoPs, or be directly responsible for KM and CoP efforts (Braganza & Mollenkramer, 2002). However, those who can contribute to the CoP such as other stakeholders or relevant experts can be included at the discretion of the community.

Organizations must also be aware that underlying assumptions and existing perceptions must be examined. Huysman and de Wit (2004) identified several traps that could stall or hinder efforts to cultivate CoPs. Although technology supports the codification of knowledge and, often using technology, focuses on how organizations are driven by technology, this only addresses explicit knowledge. The other problem is that knowledge that exists in documents and expert systems rapidly becomes outdated, especially in IT. Organizations need to be aware of the rapid deterioration associated with knowledge bases. Any perception that KM is seen as benefiting only management or is constructed from the management perspective may defeat any efforts before they begin. This is a call for transparency within the organization to allow workers to gain knowledge, develop, and create within their job functions whatever is necessary to reduce redundancies, and support learning across divisions and natural boundaries such as time zones and departments. Managers interested in intellectual capital to support and enable organizational success must recognize that core competencies are examples of tacit knowledge that reside within individuals, not databases. Because databases store information and not experience, individuals must learn from their own experiences and the experiences of others. This represents the basic challenge of databases, which is the lack of face-to-face interaction for members of the community.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Brown and Duguid (1991) explained how leadership may be surprised to learn that unofficial CoPs, which are based on social networks, may already exist in their organizations. Rather than being imposed by structure and policy, employee relationships lie at the heart of CoPs and are evidenced by the social networks that are built around these relationships. To effectively support work, learning innovation, and collaboration, leadership must acknowledge these unofficial communities and work with them to determine how to best support their activities, which allows development and pursuit of goals aligned between personal interests of the members and the strategic plans of the organization. Independence and autonomy are necessary to some extent, and interplay among different communities is an essential element for innovation (Brown & Duguid, 1991).

Leadership must also understand that the community cannot be isolated if learning and collaboration are to occur. Instead, these communities must determine their own boundaries and with whom they collaborate, as work processes are best defined by those who work in the processes. As communication is the basic element in CoPs, technology must support the social networks that are already in existence and cannot be superimposed. Formal and informal meetings, e-mail, conference calls, live video, and other forms of technology will work only if

they support existing communication patterns. Without knowledge of how CoPs really work, management may waste resources or even contribute to a negative impact or failure in an effort to support employees in their jobs, if technology is provided in an inappropriate response to a social situation.

One of the challenges for CoPs that was addressed by Huysman and de Wit (2004) is the general lack of process through which knowledge is collectively shared. This is caused by the weak or nonexistent local learning and knowledge sharing processes, regardless of locations and endeavors. Without processes in place at the local level, this does not bode well for the organization, the group, or the individual. Initiatives must connect people to facilitate the sharing of individual knowledge and this requires more than electronic networks. Some organizations rely on physical networks such as special interest groups (SIGs). A combination of learning processes that would provide individuals access to collective knowledge, support individual learning, and allow individuals and groups access to this knowledge would be strongly recommended as a means to support group learning. Providing collective access from shared group knowledge to organizational knowledge will support organizational learning.

The importance of personal networking and collaboration to the development of ideas (Proctor, 2013) cannot be stressed enough. To this end, CoPs require people who are capable and willing to transfer knowledge. This reflects on the culture and practices of the organization, as trust and effective working relationships are necessary. Organizations may unintentionally disrupt the social networks with "rightsizing," consolidations, and re-organizations; therefore, care must be taken not only to assess and compensate for potential negative impacts, which may prove disruptive and create a harmful effect on innovation and communication, but also for any action that removes a CoP from direct interaction with the environment (Brown & Duguid, 1991). Without direct interaction, new knowledge is unlikely.

Supporting CoPs means finding ways to support the existing social network and communication patterns, providing access to the environment, and enabling the time and space to support effective working relationships. Huysman and de Wit (2004) provided Unilever as an example. Unilever established a practice of organizing workshops through which individual employees share their expertise across multiple product lines and, in particularly, across geographic areas. Not only does this help identify knowledge gaps and collect knowledge for databases, the practice itself developed into a facilitation effort for CoPs, because the workshops promote encounters with people who hold similar interests, develop relationships, and extend contact with each other after the workshops, thus developing into a social network. In support of this type of activity, Proctor (2013) conjectured that individuals who possess "a common bond of beliefs and values may do much to promote the sharing of all kinds of useful knowledge" (p. 170).

CONCLUSION

KM and CoPs provide a pathway to support the evolution necessary for personal development at the individual level, collaboration and learning at the group level, and strategic advantage at the organizational level. To enable CoPs, organizations must allow knowledge workers to be responsible for their own contributions and their decisions as well as the consequences. This empowerment leads to accountability: Knowledge workers, who are given autonomy and

responsibility, are also held accountable for quality and quantity. When used effectively, CoPs can provide continuous innovation based on day-to-day activities, continual learning, and diligent teaching. As such, the employees and the CoPs can become significant capital assets. However, management must keep in mind that this human capital is mobile, and their relationship with the organization is a key concern relative to turnover, commitment, productivity, and job satisfaction. Organizations should review not only their culture, but also their current practices relative to employee empowerment and the decision-making processes, how employees communicate, and if there are processes such as performance measurements and rewards (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005) in place that support learning and sharing. The success of KM and CoPs is dependent on knowledge sharing, which is a complex process and demands more than traditional-business-as-usual practices (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2005). Competitive advantage may be at risk if organizational cultures do not support the environment that enables engagement, employee participation and empowerment; space, time and opportunities to develop communication networks, and support for existing social networks to cultivate knowledge workers and CoPs.

REFERENCES

Archibald, A., & McDermott, R. A. (2008). Benchmarking the impact of communities of.practice. *KM Review, 11*(5), 16-21.

Billington, M. G., & Billington, P. J. (2012). Social media tools for leaders and managers.*Journal of Leadership, Accountability and Ethics, 9*(6), 11-19.

Borstnar, M. (2012). Towards understanding collaborative learning in the social media.environment. *Organizacija, 45*(3), 100. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.2478/v10051-012-0010-8

Braganza, A., & Mollenkramer, G. J. (2002). Anatomy of a failed KM initiative: Lessons from PharmaCorp's experiences. *Knowledge and Process Management, 9*(1), 23-33.

Bresnan, M., Edelman, L., Newell, S., Scarborough, H., & Swan, J. (2003). Social practices and the management of knowledge in project environments. *International Journal of Project Management, 21*, 157-166.

Bright, L. (2010). Why age matters in the work preferences of public employees: A comparison of three age-related explanations. *Public Personnel Management, 39*(1), 1-14

Brown, J. S., & Duguid, P. (1991). Organizational learning and communities-of-practice: Toward a unified view of working, learning, and innovation. *Organization Science,* 2(1), 40-57.

Cabrera, E. F. & Cabrera, A. (2005). Fostering knowledge sharing through people management practices. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 16*(5), 720-735.

Chu, M-T, Krishnakumar, P., & Khosla, R. (2014). Mapping knowledge sharing traits to business strategy in knowledge based organisation**.** *Journal of Intelligent Manufacturing, (25)*1, 55-65. doi:10.1007/s10845-012-0674-1

Chua, A. (2006). The rise and fall of a community of practice: A descriptive case study.*Knowledge and Process Management, 13*(2), 120-128. doi:10.1002/kpm.239

Crosby, B. C., & Bryson, J. M. (2010). Integrative leadership and the creations and maintenance of cross-sector collaborations. *Leadership Quarterly, 21*(2), 211-230. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.01.003

Davenport, T. H., Prusak, L., & Strong, B. (2008, March 10). Organization; putting ideas to work: Knowledge management can make a difference—but it needs to be more pragmatic. *The Wall Street Journal, Eastern edition,* p. R11.

Drucker, P. F. (1999). Knowledge-worker productivity: The biggest challenge. *California Management Review, 41*(2), 79-94.

Fernado, I. (2010). Community creation by means of a social media paradigm. *The Learning Organization, 17*(6), 500-514. doi:10.1108/09696471011082367

Gupta, B., Iyer, L. S., Aronson, J. E. (2000). Knowledge management: practices and challenges. *Industrial Management and Data Systems, 100*(1), 17.

Hansson, T. (2002). Leadership by activity theory and professional development by social construction. *Systemic Practice and Action Research, 15*(5), 411-436.

Huysman, M., & de Wit, D. (2004). Practices of managing knowledge sharing: Towards a second wave of knowledge management. *Knowledge and Process Management, 11*(2), 81-92. doi:10.1002/kpm.192

Ipe, M. (2003). Knowledge sharing in organizations: a conceptual framework. *Human Resource Development Review, 2*(4), 337-359.

Iversen, J. O., & McPhee, R. D. (2002). Knowledge management in communities of practice: Being true to the communicative character of knowledge. *Management Communication Quarterly, 16*(2), 259-266. doi:10. 1177/089331802237239

Kreiner, K. (2002). Tacit knowledge management: The role of artifacts. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 6*(2), 112-123. doi:10.1108/13673270210424648

Leng, N. C., Lee, S. H. A., & Lim, T. (2013). A study on the element of sentiment toward knowledge sharing among knowledge workers in a virtual CoP. *Information Management and Business Review, 5*(11), 553-560.

Levy, M. (2013). Stairways to heaven: Implementing social media in organizations. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 17*(5), 741-754. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JKM-02-2013-0051

McElroy, M. W. (2000). Integrating complexity theory, knowledge management andorganizational learning. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, *4*(3), 195-203.

Mooradian, N. (2005). Tacit knowledge: philosophic roots and role in KM. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 9*(6), 104-113. doi:10.1108/1367327051062990

Nonaka, I. (2008). *The knowledge-creating company*. Boston. MA: Harvard Business Press.

Nonaka, I. & Takeuchi, H. (1995). *The knowledge-creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation*. New York, NY: Oxford Press

Østerlund, C., & Carlile, P. (2005). Relations in practice: Sorting through practice theories on knowledge sharing in complex organizations. *The Information Society*, *21*, 91–107. doi:10.1080/01972240590925294

Panahi, S., Watson, J., & Partridge, H. (2013). Towards tacit knowledge sharing over social web tools. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 17*(3), 379-397. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/JKM-11-2012-0364

Proctor, T. (2013). Collaboration and networking in the process of innovation: the path to precision time keeping. *Journal of Management History, 19*(2), 167-188. doi:10.1108/17511341311307372

Shenkel, A., & Teigland, R. (2008). Improved organizational performance through communities of practice. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 12*(1), 106-118. doi: 10. 1108/13673270810852421

SHRM Research Spotlight: Social Media in Business Strategy and Operations (2012, January). *Shedding Light on the Business of HR*. Retrieved from www.shrm.org/research

Søndergaard, S., Kerr, M., & Clegg, C. (2007). Sharing knowledge: Contextualizing socio-technical thinking and practice. *The Learning Organization, 14*(5), 423-435. doi:10.1108/09696470710762646

Swart, J., & Harvey, P. (2011). Identifying knowledge boundaries: The case of network projects. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 15*(5), 703-721. doi:10. 1108/13673271111174285

Ulrich, D., & Brockbank, W. (2005). *The HR value proposition.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of practice - Learning, meaning and identity.* Cambridge University Press, New York, NY.

Wenger, E., McDermott, R., & Snyder, W. M. (2002). *Cultivating communities of practice*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Weston, R. (2009, March 20). Facebook: Your company's intranet? *Forbes*. Retrieved from http://www.forbes.com/2009/03/20/facebook-intranet-serena-entrepreneurs-technology-facebook.html

This page has been intentionally left blank.

SEARCHING FOR ANTAGONISTIC COUNTERPART OF MANIPULATION: DOES GENUINE COMMUNICATION EXIST?

Olga Lazitski, University of California San Diego
olgalazitskaya@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Much of the discussion concerning propaganda and mass persuasion developed during World War I and World War II. At the time, the word *propaganda* was replaced by words such as *communication* and *information* because they do not imply value judgment and tend to embrace the development of new communication technologies. In the core of propaganda and persuasion there is the intention of a sender of the message to manipulate recipient's behavior/perception. Although some scholars argue that modern communication has become almost equal to manipulation (Lasswell, 1927; Lippmann, 1997), there are authors who have something to oppose to it (Habermas, 1984; Peters, 1999). On the opposite from manipulation side of communication they see what I call "genuine communication." Drawing on the work of Peters, Arendt, Lazarsfeld, and Merton, this paper defines genuine communication and examines its complicated overlapping relations with manipulation.

Keywords: genuine communication, manipulation, propaganda, Russian media, annexation of Crimea

INTRODUCTION

"We are governed, our minds are molded, our tastes formed, our ideas suggested, largely by men we have never heard of," stated the founding-father of Public Relations Edward Bernays (1928). Similarly to this glum and dystopian view, Jacques Ellul (1965) argued that manipulation has become "an inescapable necessity for everyone" (p. xv) because it enables people to participate in important events such as elections. Ellul (1965) also contends that nearly all messages in society are propagandistic since they are more likely biased (consciously or unconsciously); thus, manipulation cannot be judged in moral categories because it uses both truth and limited truth. It might be said that Arendt (1998) to a certain extent also supports this claim by arguing that it is reasonable to persuade for the general public good. In this regard Coombs and Nimmo (1993) see manipulation (especially in the form of propaganda) as "an indispensable form of communication" and "a major form of public discourse," which is so sophisticated that it is "exceedingly difficult to distinguish what is propaganda from what is not" (p. 45).

Drawing on this notion of omnipresent manipulation, I am restating an ancient question, Does manipulation equal communication? And if it does not, Does communication have something to oppose to manipulation?

The notion of communication as persuasion exists since Aristotle's *Rhetoric*. The ancient Greece government encouraged citizens to openly voice their opinions and make political and judicial

decisions. But at the same time, according to Jowett and O'Donnell (2012), Aristotle's *Rhetoric* "tends to be detached from issues of morality" (p. 39). In the spirit of this idea, Walter Lippmann (1997) and Harold Lasswell (1927) developed their theories of mass manipulation with a cool-headed purely technical approach to the tools of "manufacturing consent" without any concerns about morality and ethics. It seems like nowadays this approach and these theories are still occupying the public realm gradually shrinking the space for genuine communication. Habermas (1984) called this process "colonization" of the lifeworld by the system that uses manipulative methods of "strategic communication." Arendt referred to this process as to the characteristic of dark times when "the public realm has been obscured" (1995, p. 10).

Both Arendt and Habermas – in contrast to Lippmann and Bernays - argue that the type of communication that I generalize under the term "genuine" exists. For Arendt (1998) it is a sincere talk in the public realm in opposition to a "mere talk" of propaganda; for Habermas (1984) it is communicative action in the lifeworld settings. Unlike Arendt, Habermas strictly opposed communicative action to the strategic communication claiming that the latter cannot be used for obtaining mutual understanding; whereas Arendt justified the use of manipulative methods of strategic communication in open public discussion for the sake of truth-seeking.

Examining work of Arendt, Merton, Katz and Lazarsfeld, and Peters, I argue that although genuine communication as a kind of counterbalance to manipulation does exist, it cannot be perceived as an antagonistic counterpart of manipulation, which leaves the question of colonizing the whole spectrum of communication by excrescent manipulation open.

In order to substantiate the claim in my argument about the role and place of genuine communication and its relations with manipulation, first, I will examine how Heidegger, Habermas, and Peters understand the concept of genuine communication, its possibilities and limitations. Second, I will analyze Lippmann's and Lasswell's account of manipulation. And finally, with the help of Arendt's, Merton's, and Lazarsfeld's work I will reveal the overlapping area of both types of communication, depict two processes of interpenetration and repulsion, which are going on in that overlapping area, and describe how these processes result in the outcome of both manipulation and genuine communication.

GENUINE COMMUNICATION

Genuine communication can be perceived as an ideal authentic type of communication, which is almost unattainable and, according to Peters (1999), "not only impossible, it is also never enough" (p. 266). Scholars of modernity understand the concept of ideal genuine communication differently. Peters (1999) sees the goal of this type of communication in "authentic representation of self or world" (p. 266). Leo Lowenthal (1967) considers genuine communication as meeting of minds, psychosemantic sharing, even fusion of consciousness: "True communication entails a communion, a sharing of inner experience" (as cited in Peters, 1999, p. 8). For Ogden and Richards (1923), communication is not the revelation of otherness, but a matching of minds; successful communication for them "remains the identity of consciousness between speaker and hearer" (as cited on Peters, 1999, p. 14).

Many of the ideas about this ideal have evoked from the utopian model of communication, which

implies that hearts are open, expression is uninhibited, and nothing is misunderstood. Basically, it is a dream "of telepathy, a meeting of minds that would leave no remainder" (Peters, 1999, p. 16). But since "direct sharing of consciousness is impossible" (Peters, 1999, p. 4), humans have to deal with the barriers that mediate (aka impede) genuine communication. Based on this notion, there are still doubts that genuine communication is even possible and that it exists (or that humans can actually experience it).

Summarizing different approaches to defining communication may result in a general definition of communication as a process in which a sender transmits a message to a receiver through a channel. This channel (whether words, languages, mass media or electronic devices) is a gatekeeper that is not able to accurately transmit all gamut of the information the sender would like to share. Plus, the receiver also tends to consume only part of the information that was sent; receiver's personal interests, traits, context around, etc. would filter the essential message. That is why Peters (1999) conceives communication as "a risky adventure without guarantees. Any kind of effort to make linkage via signs is a gamble, on whatever scale it occurs" (p. 267).

Then how do we know that the act of communication has happened? Peters (1999) suggests that "if both ends know the message has arrived, then communication has occurred" (p. 8). It is like seeing in the Facebook messenger the notification that the text you have sent is seen by the addressee. But if there is no such thing as a Facebook notification, how can one make sure that all of the thoughts/meanings one wanted to share are received. I contend that in the case of genuine communication, which has the only intention to present the sender's interiority to others, it is never possible to make one hundred percent sure that the act of communication has actually occurred. And this – paradoxically – makes this communication genuine and almost non-existent. In case of manipulation, on the contrary, the sender is able to track the message via watching its influence on the receiver. If the receiver has changed his or her behavior in the way favorable to a manipulator, the sender succeeds.

Martin Heidegger in *Being and Time* (1996) argues that the key of communication is not in the sender's intention, but in the readiness of the recipient to hear "the other's otherness" (Peters, 1999, p. 16). Examining possibilities for genuine communication, Heidegger (1996) makes the distinction between the authentic self and its inauthentic counterpart that both are thrown into the world. According to Wheeler (2014), who has interpreted *Being and Time*, Heidegger understands Being-in-the-world in terms of *thrownness, projection* and *fallen-ness*. Being thrown into the world with others, or being social, is fundamental to humans' existence. Arendt and Habermas, following Heidegger, also support this claim. Being fallen into the world, according to Heidegger, is dangerous for authenticity. Wheeler (2014) explains that such fallen-ness is manifested in *idle talk*, *curiosity*, and *ambiguity*, which result, in Heidegger's words, in "Being-lost in the publicness of the 'they' " (as cited in Wheeler, 2014). "They" – in Peter's interpretation – are "the chattering crowd," the "anonymous anyone," the dictators, who "can swallow up authentic selfhood" (1999, p. 17). That resembles the anonymous character of propaganda that will be discussed later in this paper. However, maintaining authenticity for Heidegger (1996) is "not about being isolated from others, but rather about finding a different way of relating to others such that one is not lost to the they-self" (Wheeler, 2014).

For Peters (1999), communicative authenticity is something that "cannot be reproduced" (p.

190); it is an act where "any speaker must take responsibility for something one can never master – the way one's words and deeds play before the soul of the other" (p.266). According to Peters (1999), a limit of this ideal "is not language's slipperiness, it is the unfixable difference between the self and the other" (p. 266), which again refers back to Heidegger's conflict.

Similarly to Heidegger, Peters also analyzes human interaction with the world through the giving-receiving approach. He divides communication types according to two kinds of love: Eros (passion) and Agape (compassion). The Eros type is receiving-oriented, mostly interpersonal; it implies intense reciprocal exchange of information (dialogue); that is where, according to Peters (1999), "occasional touch of otherness" (i.e. genuine communication) happens. The Agape type is giving-oriented, where giving is considered as a form of power; it is characterized as a one-way communication that implies non-responsiveness, generalization, and dissemination of information. It is interesting to notice that in the most neutral sense propaganda means nothing but dissemination of particular ideas. So, manipulation seems to happen via this giving-oriented communication, but at the same time it looks like a domain for the Habermas' communicative actions, which also can be understood as genuine communication.

Habermas (1984) argues that practicing communicative action is the only way to gain mutual understanding. People engaged in communicative actions should discuss their validity claims to truth, rightness, and sincerity in the domain of the lifeworld, which is "a reservoir" of shared meanings and "unshaken convictions that participants in communication draw upon in cooperative processes of interpretation" (Habermas & MacCarthy, 2005, p. 124). The lifeworld is a keystone concept of the Habermas's theory of communicative action

> The lifeworld is, so to speak, the transcendental site where speaker and hearer meet, where they can reciprocally raise claims that their utterances fit the world (objective, social, or subjective), and where they can criticize and confirm those validity claims, settle their disagreements, and arrive at agreements. (Habermas & MacCarthy, 2005, p. 126)

Thus, the lifeworld is needed for genuine communication to occur. However, as Habermas admits, the lifeworld is becoming more and more "colonized" by the system and its devices in the form of manipulative strategic communication, particularly, by the sheer media of money and power. That again poses the question of existence of genuine communication that appears to be almost devoured by manipulation.

MANIPULATION

Much evidence indicates that in modern communication manipulation is taking over genuine communication. Their confrontation had been started back in the ancient times of Plato, whose account "of communication as an ideal of interpersonal understanding" was defined in contrast to its perversion by Aristotle's rhetoric and manipulation (Peters, 1999, p. 6). Peters refers to history, "Communication as propaganda was famously captured in the quip of Juvenal, the Roman satirist, that it takes nothing more than *panem et circenses* to satisfy the masses - bread and circuses" (1999, p. 20).

Not much has changed since that time – people still demand "bread and circuses" as their priority over issues of morality and truth seeking. Consider, for example, the glut of entertainment in the U.S. and Russian media. While there is "bread," it is easier to manipulate people with "circuses." In the course of recent economic default in Russia, I have to mention that when means of subsistence are under the threat, the government launches heavy artillery of manipulation tools.
Under the umbrella term of manipulation I mean the whole spectrum of techniques for influencing others, i.e. for moving a recipient to a predetermined point of view or for deliberate manufacturing of perceptions, cognitions, and behavior in order to achieve a purpose that is advantageous to a manipulator. In this form of communication I include persuasion with its subcategories of propaganda, commercial advertising, public relations, spin as a form of manipulation of political information, product placement, public service announcements, etc. It might be a government agency trying to raise a wave of patriotism in a national audience, a terrorist network trying to recruit followers in a jihad, a social service promoting vaccination, a corporation pursuing a credible image to maintain its legitimacy among its customers, or a company competing with a rival in the marketplace.

A goal of manipulation may be good and even beneficial to the society, but this type of communication always has "the elements of deliberate intent and manipulation, along with a systematic plan to achieve a purpose that is advantageous to the propagandist" (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 16). Jowett and O'Donnell here distinguish intentions of propagandists from intentions of persuaders. However, I would not make this distinction since I consider intentions of propagandists and persuaders having the same nature. That is why I generalize all the subcategories of manipulation as encompassing the main characteristics of this type of communication.

So, clearly, manipulation is distinguished from a free and open exchange of ideas. Being a one-way communication, it doesn't take into consideration "the otherness of the others."

Earlier in this paper the media as barriers to communication were discussed. While they impede genuine communication, they come in handy to manipulation. Lippmann (1997) considers the media as vehicles for informational transmissions that are immutably vulnerable to manipulation. All those barriers that impede the public's ability to objectively interpret the world are inexhaustible sources of distortion. Lippmann argues, "In order to conduct propaganda there must be some barrier between the public and the event. Access to the real environment must be limited, before anyone can create a pseudo-environment that he thinks wise or desirable" (p. 43).

Lippmann tends to believe that communication overall equals manipulation and after development of new instruments of communication the unprecedented conditions for the manufacture of consent among dispersed populations have emerged. Summarizing Lippmann's, Lasswell's, and Bernays's accounts, Peters (1999) concludes, "Communication was conceived of as the power to bind a far-flung populace together for good or ill" (p. 12). The propaganda theorists of the 1920s believed in the manipulability of the many and in the calculated production of public opinion. Lippmann (1997) suggested that control over the "bewildered herd" should be given to social-scientific experts instead of politicians:

> The opportunities for manipulation open to anyone who understands the process are plain

> enough… Under the impact of propaganda, not necessarily in the sinister meaning of the word alone, the old constants of our thinking have become variables. It is no longer possible, for example, to believe… that the knowledge needed for the management of human affairs comes up spontaneously from the human heart. Where we act on that theory we expose ourselves to self-deception, and to forms of persuasion that we cannot verify. It has been demonstrated that we cannot rely upon intuition, conscience, or the accidents of casual opinion if we are to deal with the world beyond our reach. (pp. 248-249)

This quote shows the notion of dissolving genuine communication as such. As I argue, its larger part has been devoured by manipulation, or, in Habermas's terms, "colonized" by it. Moreover, manipulation successfully utilized some of the devices of genuine communication, especially those that in abundance can be found in the "reservoir" of shared meanings in the lifeworld domain. Lippmann (1997) explains how symbols, beliefs, and stereotypes became prime movers of social organization and constructors of mass opinion; perceptions are engineered by exposing to the public visual images and slogans that reduce critical thinking by playing on prejudices and emotions:

> For the most part we do not first see, and then define, we define first and then see. In the great blooming, buzzing confusion of the outer world we pick out what our culture has already defined for us, and we tend to perceive that which we have picked out in the form stereotyped for us by our culture. (p. 81)

Jowett and O'Donnell (2012) show how Lippmann's methods of manipulation through stereotypes and creating a pseudo-environment worked during the second Iraq war, "President Bush, wearing combat clothing, visited troops on the aircraft carrier USS *Abraham Lincoln* on Thanksgiving Day 2003 where, beneath a banner that said 'Mission Accomplished,' he held up an artificial replica of a roasted turkey" (p. 10).

Lasswell's (1927) account of manipulation is even darker and more hopeless. He describes the techniques of propaganda with inconceivable composure and neutrality, as they are norm and even cure for the society in crisis: "A new and subtler instrument must weld thousands and even millions of human beings into one amalgamated mass of hate and will and hope… The name of this new hammer and anvil of social solidarity is propaganda" (p. 221). For Lasswell, manipulation as a principle of modern social order is inevitable. This idea is also discerned from Lasswell's model of communication, which necessarily includes not only Who (say) What (to) Whom, but also (in) What Channel and (with) What Effect. This formula doesn't consider existence of genuine communication that doesn't imply occurrence of effect. But similarly to Lippmann, Lasswell has also grounded some of the manipulation techniques on the tools of the lifeworld. According to Lasswell (1927), manipulation "refers solely to the control of opinion by significant symbols, or, to speak more concretely and less accurately, by stories, rumors, reports, pictures, and other forms of social communication" (p. 9).

Talking about antidote to manipulation, the only thing that Lasswell has offered is manipulation itself: "Propaganda as a mere tool is no more moral or immoral than a pump handle… The only

effective weapon against propaganda on behalf of one policy seems to be propaganda on behalf of an alternative" (as cited in Sproule, p. 69).

This again shows that, unlike Habermas, the propaganda scholars of the 1920s don't see any antagonistic counterpart of manipulation in modern communication. Moreover, they consider genuine communication impossible.

RELATIONS BETWEEN MANIPULATION AND GENUINE COMMUNICATION

So far it might be said that although manipulation theorists don't believe in genuine communication, this form of ideal communication can exist. In this part of my essay, I will examine the complicated relations between manipulation and subtle genuine communication in order to figure out if genuine communication can play a role of an antagonistic counterpart of manipulation.

Ideally, these two forms of communication have to function separately and be far apart from each other. In this case, genuine communication may be considered as an antagonistic counterpart of manipulation.

But what we see in modern communication is that these two types of communication are overlapped and in that overlapping area Merton's (2004) mass persuasion, Katz and Lazarsfeld's (1995) personal influence of opinion leaders, Arendt's (1998) acting/speaking in a political realm, and Jowett and O'Donnell's (2012) propaganda occur.

Jowett and O'Donnell's *Propaganda and Persuasion* (2012) distinguishes *informative* and *persuasive* types of communication. Informative – "when ideas are shared, something is explained, or instruction takes place" (p. 44) - may be considered as a part of genuine communication. Jowett and O'Donnell conclude that propaganda "is a subset of both information and persuasion" (p. 48). "Information communicated by the propagandist may appear to be indisputable and totally factual," but the intension of the manipulator in this case is not "to promote mutual understanding but rather to promote his or her own objectives" through control over the information flow (p. 44).

Katz and Lazarsfeld's *Personal Influence* (1995) also demonstrates how genuine communication can serve manipulation. Their hypothesis of "the two-step flow of communication" suggests that ideas would be disseminated to the mass public more effectively if they first flow *"from* radio and print *to* the opinion leaders and *from* them to the less active sections of the population" (p. 309). According to Katz and Lazarsfeld (1995), those opinion leaders are part of everyday personal relationships that occur in the "primary groups," such as families, friends, and informal work teams: "Such groups are usually characterized by their small size, relative durability, informality, face-to-face contact and manifold, or more or less unspecialized, purpose" (p. 48) – that is what Peters calls Eros type of communication. If not used by a manipulator, those opinion leaders might be actors and providers of genuine Eros type communication; but being involved in the process of deliberate influence as mediators of Agape type dissemination, they destroy genuine communication and strengthen manipulation potential.

Merton's concept of mass persuasion also operates in the overlapping area of genuine communication and manipulation. Analyzing the art of persuasion that "directs attention to those aspects of a subject that will influence the mind of the person to be persuaded," Merton et al (2004) state, "People are moved by emotions, by fear and hope and anxiety, and not by information or knowledge" (p. 186). According to Merton, to be effective mass persuasion has to take forms of interpersonal genuine communication, utilize its devices, such as sincere tone of voice and intonation, intensity, and pronunciation. Russian famous pro-Kremlin propagandists Dmitriy Kiselyov and Vladimir Solovyov are very good at these techniques; it seems like in their TV shows they are carefully following Merton's concept. Merton at al (2004) called mass persuasion "propaganda-in-deed" noticing that it is "proved persuasive among some who rejected propaganda of the word" (p. 177).

Unlike Lippmann and Lasswell, Merton at al (2004) started the discussion about the moral dimension of "varied techniques and devices… employed to move the audience from a state of mind to definite action" (p. 175). While describing the possibility of manipulating on people's sense of morality, Merton uses morality against some of the effective persuasive techniques:

> For when effective mass persuasion is sought, and when "effectiveness" is measured solely by the number of people who can be brought to the desired action or the desired frame of mind, then the choice of techniques of persuasion will be governed by a narrowly technical and amoral criterion. And this criterion exacts a price of the prevailing morality, for it expresses a manipulative attitude toward man and society. It inevitably pushes toward the use of whatsoever techniques "work." (p. 185)

For Arendt (1998), morality and sincere talk in public realm settings are the central issues of her theory. Although she believes in genuine communication, her concept of effective truth-seeking discussion also operates in the overlapping area of genuine communication and manipulation. She justifies use of manipulative devices in debating important public issues, but the identity of the actor/speaker, according to Arendt, has always to be disclosed. She argues (1998, p. 180) that when "when people are only for or against other people" or when they "go into action and use means of violence in order to achieve certain objectives for their own side," then genuine communication turns into manipulation:

> Speech becomes indeed "mere talk," simply one more means toward the end, where it serves to deceive the enemy or to dazzle everybody with propaganda; here words reveal nothing, disclosure comes only from the deed itself, and this achievement cannot disclose the "who," the unique and distinct identity of the agent. (p. 180)

In the spirit of Arendt, Jowett and O'Donnell (2012) consider concealed identity and purposes of manipulators to be the main distinction of propaganda: "The propagandist seeks to control the flow of information, manage public opinion, and manipulate behavioral patterns. These are the kinds of objectives that might not be achieved if the true intent were known or if the real source were revealed" (p. 44).

The Russian Deputy Minister of Communications and Mass Media, Alexey Volin, demonstrated his expertise in propaganda theory. On February 9, 2013, he was presenting at the annual

journalism conference at Moscow State University, where he restated Jowett and O'Donnell's point about concealment, "If a journalist declares himself as a propagandist, he is a bad propagandist because propaganda shouldn't be obvious. It must be hidden and only then does it become effective." [the last reference in the list. I'm not sure how to cite it correctly. I'd be really grateful for your help here! Thank you!]

Drawing on the ideas mentioned above, I identify two processes in the relation between genuine communication and manipulation: interpenetration and repulsion. The closer these two types of communication are to each other the sharper manipulation; the farther they are from each other, the blunter manipulation is.

INTERPENETRATION

Although interpenetration can happen from both sides – penetration of genuine communication into the area of manipulation (as in Arendt's case) and penetration of manipulation into the area of genuine communication, I am focusing on the latter case since it is more common and detrimental to a society.

In a desire to become effective, sharp, and sophisticated, manipulation would always try to occupy the area of genuine communication, take its forms in order to disguise and strengthen itself. The process also may be characterized as devourment of genuine communication; and, as I would argue, manipulation in our age of endarkenment has almost swallowed it up. Mixed with authenticity, manipulation becomes almost indistinguishable from genuine communication, as, for example, in the case of "white propaganda."

Jowett and O'Donnell (2012) divide propaganda into white, black, and gray forms - in correlation to the source and its accuracy of information (p. 16). According to their theory, white propaganda, which comes from a correctly identified source and transmits accurate information, can be considered as seemingly altruistic communication, as in the example of the Voice of America (VOA) behind the Iron Curtain during the Cold War. Its Soviet listeners "found satisfaction for their hunger for information, and thus it appeared that VOA had altruistic motives" (p. 14). Positive attitude towards warfare acts, as in cases of Iraq campaign in the U.S. or Crimea annexation by Russia, also relate to white propaganda, as well as Sochi Olympics and "other national celebrations, with their overt patriotism and regional chauvinism" (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 16).

Black propaganda for Jowett and O'Donnell is "when the source is concealed or credited to a false authority and spreads lies, fabrications, and deceptions" (p. 17) - as in Nazi Germany, where Hitler's propaganda minister Joseph Goebbels practiced the maxima "the more improbable the lie, the faster people believe it." Russian President Vladimir Putin, commenting on this Nazi technique at the meeting with Russian rabbis on July 9, 2014 in Moscow, suddenly acknowledged that "Goebbels always achieved his goals and was a talented person." These, Putin's positive words for the Nazi propagandist Goebbels, caused a stir on the Russian segment of the Internet, especially in the light of the Crimea annexation and the war in the South-Eastern Ukraine.

During these events a gray propaganda has been flourishing in Russia, when "the source may or may not be correctly identified, and the accuracy of the information is uncertain" (Jowett & O'Donnell, 2012, p. 20). Jowett and O'Donnell give an example of the Bay of Pigs invasion in Cuba in 1961, when the VOA moved over into the gray area denying any U.S. involvement in the CIA-backed activities. I would provide an example of the Russian national broadcast network that in March 2014 denied any Russian military presence in Crimea.

Jowett and O'Donnell (2012) argue that the gray propaganda category is not limited to government, it also includes "companies that distort statistics on annual reports, advertising that suggests a product will achieve results that it cannot, films that are made solely for product placement" (p. 21). Although the results of manipulation, as well as any other form of communication, are never guaranteed, manipulation penetrated into the area of genuine communication has more chances to enhance its efficiency. Some of the necessary conditions for that are:

- to know the audience, its needs, beliefs, values, fears and hopes;
- to pretend that the project is mutually beneficial satisfying the needs of both persuader and persuadee;
- to take into consideration the concept of "projection of self," which implies that people would tend to accept from the whole stream of information only what they want to hear, what matches their pictures of the world. As Peters (1999) questions, "Where do projections of my self end and where do authentic signals from the other begin?" (p. 204).

Keeping in mind these conditions, it becomes clear why in some cases manipulation works so well. For example, the Kremlin project of turning the vast majority of the Russian citizens into warmongers and supporters of the annexation of Crimea. The manipulators have played on the common feeling of disappointment with the country's underdog position in the arena of global politics and on the people's sense of resentment and enclosure from the rest of the world that has remained yet from the Cold War times. In these settings, people were happy to accept any redemptive moves that have a hint of positivity. Reunification with Crimea was taken as a long-awaited redemption; it became a projection of Russian selves who wanted to see the country strong and as a deterrent for "others." At the same time they didn't want to hear about the price they would have to pay for this annexation. Moreover, most of them now don't want to see the connection between the recent severe economic default and the annexation.

REPULSION

The process of repulsion in the dynamics between manipulation and genuine communication gives hope for the restoration of the communication equilibrium. It is weak, rear, and almost imperceptible, but it lays down the ways in which manipulation doesn't work. Some of the scholars mentioned in this paper have tried to identify those ways. As Peters (1999) summarizes, "Each of the Dewey-Habermas and Heidegger-Levinas-Derrida lineages grasp important truths about communication that are inaccessible to the propagandists, semanticists, and solipsists in our midst" (p. 21).

Peters (1999) noticed about genuine communication, "Attainment of communicative goods can never be easy or if formulaic; so much depends on dumb luck, personality, place, and time" (p. 30). However, the same can be said about manipulation that is able to play sincerity and to control the media and content, but would never be able to be authentic and to fully control the context in which manipulation is placed and the unintended consequences of its deeds.

CONCLUSION

In this paper I've been addressing the question of whether modern communication has something which is opposed to manipulation or it is in fact equal to manipulation. After thorough examination of the concepts of genuine and manipulative communications by the leading communication theorists of modernity, I conclude that in reality manipulation doesn't have an antagonistic counterpart, but nevertheless it is not equal to the whole communication either. Genuine communication is serving manipulative techniques utilizing them for its own objectives as well. This process of interpenetration is the main reason why genuine communication is not an antagonistic counterpart of manipulation so far. The overlapping area of these two types of communication is vast, but a small subtle area of genuine communication still remains due to the process of repulsion. This clean area is the main hope for augmentation of a real tantamount antagonistic counterpart of manipulation.

REFERENCES

Arendt, H. (1995). *Men in dark times*. San Diego, Calif.: Harcourt, Brace & Company.

Arendt, H. (1998). *The human condition* (2nd ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Combs, J. E., & Nimmo, D. D. (1993). *The new propaganda: The dictatorship of palaver in contemporary politics*. New York: Longman.

Doob, L. W. (1966). *Public Opinion and Propaganda* (2nd ed.). Shoe String Press Inc.

Edward, B. (1928). *Propaganda*. Retrieved from http://www.historyisaweapon.com/defcon1/bernprop.html

Ellul, J. (1965). *Propaganda: The formation of men's attitudes*. New York: Vintage Books.

Habermas, J. (1984). *The theory of communicative action*. Cambridge: Polity.

Habermas, J., & MacCarthy, T. (2005). *Lifeworld and system: A critique of functionalist reason*. Boston: Beacon.

Heidegger, M. (1996). *Being and Time.* Retrieved from http://www.naturalthinker.net/trl/texts/Heidegger,Martin/Heidegger,%20Martin%20-%20Being%20and%20Time/Being%20and%20Time.pdf

Jowett, G., & O'Donnell, V. (2012). *Propaganda & persuasion* (5th ed.). Retrieved from http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/11847_Chapter1.pdf

Katz, E., & Lazarsfeld, P. F. (1995). *Personal influence: The part played by people in the flow of mass communications* (2nd ed.). New Brunswick, N.J.: Transaction.

Lasswell, H. D. (1927). *Propaganda technique in the World War*. Retrieved from http://babel.hathitrust.org/cgi/pt?id=mdp.39015000379902;view=1up;seq=8

Lippmann, W. (1997). *Public opinion*. New Brunswick, N.J., U.S.A.: Transaction.

Leo Lowenthal (1967). Communication and Humanitas. In F. W. Matson & A. Montagu (Ed.), *The Human Dialogue: Perspectives on Communication.* News York: Free Press.

Merton, R. K., Lowenthal, M. F., & Curtis, A. (2004). *Mass persuasion: The social psychology of a war bond drive*. New York: H. Fertig.

NewsFromUkraine. (2014, July 10). *Putin called Joseph Goebbels a talented person.* [Video file]. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aiq9zLqfSjo

Peters, J. D. (1999). *Speaking into the air: A history of the idea of communication* (Pbk. ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Sproule, M. J. (1997). *Propaganda and democracy: The American experience and media and mass Persuation*. Uk ; Usa: Cambridge University Press.

Wheeler, M. (2014). Martin Heidegger. In E. N. Zalta (Ed.), *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Fall ed.). Retrieved from http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/heidegger/

www.Academsmi.ru. (2013, February 10). *Russian Deputy Minister of Communications and Mass Media, Alexey Volin* [Video file]. Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vunrXEhqAuU

THE PORTRAYAL OF U.S. & U.K. WOMEN'S ROLES IN ADVERTISING: TESTING THE MIRROR THEORY

Ronald Taylor, Shippensburg University
rktayl@ship.edu

Michael Coolsen, Shippensburg University
mkcool@ship.edu

Cailey Aubrey, Shippensburg University
ca9969@ship.edu

ABSTRACT

A debate over the past forty years has centered on the role of television advertising. The two dominant positions in this debate have been the "mold" and "mirror" theories. The "mold" theory states that advertising leads societal attitudes, values, and beliefs while the "mirror" theory suggests the opposite. The majority of work supporting these positions comes from earlier studies conducted in the United States. However, this study sought to test the validity of the "mirror" by examining the portrayal of women in the UK television advertising, and comparing results with those of an earlier U.S. television advertising study.

Keywords: Television Advertising, Roles of Women, Mirror Theory

INTRODUCTION

Television advertising is a part of life in modern societies. In 2012, television advertising expenditures in the United States exceeded $75 billion (Geskey, 2013). However, just what role television and indeed all advertising plays in these societies is a point of debate. Two major areas of thought stand in opposition to each other on this topic. One position holds that advertising influences the values and beliefs of the society in which it exists (Pollay, 1986). The counter position states that advertising is a reflection of society's values and beliefs (Holbrook, 1987).

Previous research (Dominick & Rauch, 1972; Ferrante, Haynes, & Kingsley, 1988) on United States (U.S.) television advertising indicates that the portrayed roles of demographic groups in television advertising tend to lag behind the actual demographic changes in these groups. This lag effect, by virtue of its reactive nature, gives credence to the "advertising as a mirror" theory supported by Holbrook, rather than the "advertising as a mold" theory posited by Pollay.

HISTORIC LITERATURE REVIEW

Increased pressure from the women's movement in the late 1960s and early 1970s, led to greater interest in studies that focused on sexual stereotyping. The results from early 1970s' studies

provide evidence that television advertising did not portray women as autonomous, independent human beings, but primarily as sex-typed (Courtney & Whipple, 1974).

In the celebrated study of sex-role stereotyping in British television advertisements by Manstead and McCulloch (1981) autonomy, expertise, and authority characterize male roles. Conversely, females were shown as consumers of products and occupying roles defined primarily in relation to other people. An analysis of role portrayals in British magazine advertisements reveals women infrequently depicted in non-traditional activities and more commonly depicted as sex objects (Lysonski, 1984). A study by Hamilton, Haworth, and Sardin (1984) found that advertisements portraying less restricted, more contemporary female roles were consistently found to enhance the marketing effectiveness of brand advertising (Hamilton et al., 1984). Additionally, if the depiction of women is derogatory or demeaning, some women might take offense and react negatively to the company featuring these advertisements (Lysonski, 1984).

An extension and refinement of the Manstead and McCulloch study (1981), replicated by Harris and Stobart (1986), further reinforced the original findings of the Manstead and McCulloch study. Harris and Stobart (1986) also conclude that women in television advertisements appeared more frequently in the home and in dependent roles. Furthermore, the portrayal of women presents them as products users and associated with domestic goods (Harris & Stobart, 1986). Another study (Ferrante, Haynes, & Kingsley,1988) revealed that although some advertising changes did occur with regard to the stereotyping of women, the role portrayal of women still centered on the home, while the role portrayal of men still focused on the business world.

METHODS

Using past research on U.S. television advertising as a starting point, this study attempted to test the validity of the "advertising as a mirror" theory by comparing television advertising aired in the U.S. to television advertising aired in another society. Due to long shared histories and numerous societal commonalities, television commercials aired in Great Britain were chosen for comparison. The study hypothesized these societies should exhibit similarities in the manner in which television advertising portrays demographic groups. In particular, the current work focused on the comparative portrayed roles of women in British and American television advertising.

The reasons for this decision were two fold. First, the recent increase in the study of sexual stereotyping provides strong background support and documentation. Second, this focus allowed for replication of a previous study to compare results Ferrante et al., 1988).

The method of research used in the current as well as the replicated study was content analysis. A simple explanation states that "Content analysis is a scientific, objective, systematic, quantitative, and generalizable description of communications content" (Kassarjian, 1977).

The total communication stimuli is broken down into analyzable elements and placed into specific categories. This study examined three elements: voice-over, on-camera representative, and background characters. Voice-overs are defined as off-camera, vocal messages. The element categorization is male, female, or a combination (chorus). The on-camera representative is

defined as a visual character who either comes into physical contact with, or verbally endorses the advertised product. Background characters are defined as on-camera figures, who while not directly involved in the endorsement of the advertised product, appear for more than three seconds, or have at least one line of dialogue. The categories for on-camera representatives and background figures appear in Tables 1 and 2.

Content analysis used in the current study was consistent with the method employed by Ferrante, Haynes, and Kingsley (1988). These studies were based on the 1972 work of Dominick and Rauch whose research was considered the foundation in the field. The original categories were followed as closely as possible to ensure a high rate of inter-judge reliability. A review of each commercial attempted to determine the following: (a) the gender of the off-camera announcer (voice-over); (b) the gender of the on-camera representative; (c) the location of the commercial (setting); (d) the occupation of the characters portrayed; and (e) the age of the characters portrayed. This study omitted the category of product type because of unacceptable inter-rater reliability.

The sample was drawn from commercials, which aired from July 31, 2011 to August 20, 2011 on the major British television networks (BBC1, BBC2, ITV/LTV, & Channel 4). In order to test a representative sample, commercials were taken from all time slots, morning (7:00-10:00 a.m.), daytime (1:00-4:00 p.m.), early evening (6:00-8:00 p.m.) and late prime-time (8:00-11:00 p.m.).

Again, following the method of previous studies (Dominick & Rauch, 1972; Ferrante et al., 1988), the study included only those characters who appeared on-screen for three or more seconds or who had at least one line of dialogue. The study did not code children, network promotional advertising, or entertainment advertising. A total number of 159 male and 137 female characters were coded in the research. The sample encompassed 258 commercials.

At a pretest, two independent raters coded the characters appearing based on the previously established guidelines. To ensure an acceptable level of inter-rater reliability, each rater independently coded a sample of thirty commercials. The results of this pre-test showed inter-rater reliability average 93.1% with a range across categories from 86.4% to 100%. For the entire study, the inter-rater reliability average was slightly less than the pre-test (90.4%).

The research results of each category were compared to the U.S. study of Ferrante, Haynes, and Kingsley (1988) using a one-tailed t-test. Since differences between each study's categories are apparent through visual inspection, there was no utilization of a two-tailed t-test. Instead, a one-tailed t-test examined whether or not this study's results were significantly different (greater or less than) the results of Ferrante, Haynes, and Kingsley (1988). The null hypothesis was that a significant increase (or decrease) between each U.S. category and the current research category did not exist. The alternative hypothesis stated that a significant increase (or decrease) between the results of each study did exist.

Tables One and Two contain the results of the one-tailed t-test. A single asterisk denotes a significant difference (increase or decrease) between two categories at an alpha level of .05. A double asterisk and a triple asterisk represent significant differences at alpha levels of .01 and .001 respectively.

Table 1. Gender of Voice-Over Announcer, On-Camera Representative, and Occupation, U.S. and U.K.

	U.S.	U.K.
Population	N=763	N=258
Voice-Over	n=763	n=258
Male	83.1%	81.0%
Female	8.1%	16.1%*
Chorus	8.8%	2.9%**
On-Camera Product Representative	n=326	n=240
Male	57.4%	54.6%
Female	42.6%	45.4%
Occupation of Females	n=329	n=137
Wife/Mother	53.5%	37.4%***
Flight Attendant	0.3%	0.8%
Model	7.0%	4.9%
Celebrity	6.7%	2.9%
Cook/Maid/Servant	2.4%	0.8%
Secretary/Clerical	2.1%	1.6%
Businessperson	3.0%	7.3%*
Others	25.2%	44.0%
Occupation of Males	n=316	n=159
Husband/Father	23.4%	19.6%
Athlete	0.9%	4.7%
Celebrity	5.4%	5.4%
Construction Worker	3.5%	0.0%
Salesperson	4.1%	5.4%
Businessperson	15.8%	13.5%
Pilot	0.6%	0.7%
Others	46.2%	50.7%

Note *p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Table 2. Setting and Age of Male and Female Characters, U.S. and U.K.

	Females	
	U.S.	**U.K.**
Setting	n=609	n=228
Home	30.2%	32.5%
Outdoors	21.2%	12.2%*
Business	13.1%	11.4%**
Limbo	15.6%	13.8%
Restaurant	0.0%	8.9%
Combination	4.4%	13.1%**
Others	15.4%	8.1%
Age	n=609	n=228
Young (20-35)	69.8%	66.7%**
Middle (36-50)	25.0%	25.2%**
Old (50+)	5.3%	8.1%**

	Males	
	U.S.	**U.K.**
Setting	n=489	n=270
Home	14.7%	18.9%
Outdoors	26.2%	31.7%
Business	24.5%	13.5%**
Limbo	10.2%	8.8%
Restaurant	0.0%	6.8%
Combination	3.1%	8.8%**
Others	21.3%	11.5%
Age	n=609	n=270
Young (20-35)	40.5%	52.7%**
Middle (36-50)	46.0%	33.1%**
Old (50+)	13.5%	14.2%

*p<.05 **p<.01

Note: The Setting category "restaurant" was merged into "other" in the U.S. Study, as the percentage of characters appearing there was negligible.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A visible difference exists between the percentages of women used as off-camera representatives (the voice-over category) in Great Britain versus the United States. While the female voice-over is more prevalent in Great Britain than in the United States, the lower usage of chorus voice-over, rather than a drop in the use of male voice-overs, is responsible for the majority of the difference. These results are consistent with previous findings (Mamay & Simpson, 1981; Ferrante et al., 1988; Geis, Brown, Jennings, & Porter, 1994) that explain the predominance of male voice-overs due to the higher perceived authority value of the male voice.

The results of this study found commercials airing on British television to portray women's occupational roles in a stereotypical manner. Census figures from 1987 showed 62.6% of British women aged 16-65 as part of the labor force. This figure is almost a 100% increase from the 1977 figure of 31.6%. However, the largest category seen in commercials was that of wife/mother. The lag effect in advertising seemed noticeable when advertisers deal with women's occupations. These findings support earlier studies, which showed women appearing in predominantly traditional or submissive roles.

Past research on British magazine advertising (Lysonski, 1985) revealed a trend towards similar role portrayal. Over a seven-year period, the number of women in dependent or housewife/mother roles dropped significantly. However, no increase was seen in the number of women in career-oriented roles although there was a significant increase for women in the work force.

While the prevalent characterizations portrayed women in stereotypical roles, this study also found women portrayed in a broad spectrum of occupational roles. No one role stood out significantly; hence the large percentage of women in the "other" category. Furthermore, the female characters in this category were often young and perceived as single and non-dependent. This research echoes the results of similar studies (Manstead & McCulloch, 1981; Harris & Stobart, 1986) in finding that while the portrayals of women constitute a wider variety of roles; overall, the stereotypical roles are still prevalent. While advertising appears to be changing, its role portrayals still lag far behind actual shifts in the make-up of society. In this respect, British and American television advertising share a common problem.

The "setting" category findings coincided with the occupation findings, showing women in stereotypical locations. As with the U.S., the largest category of setting for female characters was in the home. Existing research notes a shift of female characters away from traditional settings (i.e. the home). Findings by Merlo and Smith (1987) concluded that while advertisers are slowly shifting women's settings, they are hesitant to place women in traditional male settings (i.e. outdoors). Comparison of the percentages of women appearing in outdoor settings in American versus British television advertising reveals Great Britain trailing behind the United States in the movement away from traditionalism. This pronounced lag effect supports the hypothesis that British television advertising is reactive to demographic changes rather than a cause of change.

In age classifications, television advertising in the United States and in Great Britain persists in showing female characters predominantly in the 20-35 age group, although demographic trends

in both countries show this age group to be decreasing. Television advertisers in the United States and Great Britain place emphasis on youth and beauty in their portrayal of female characters. This follows the overall trends in both societies towards a fascination with youth (Dominick & Rauch, 1972; Ferrante et al., 1988).

CONCLUSION

The similar lag effects present in both television commercials airing in Great Britain and the U.S. extend the validity of Holbrook's "advertising as a mirror" theory. While the lag detracts from Pollay's "advertising as a mold" position, it also shows Holbrook's mirror to be somewhat blurry. Whether or not advertising will ever catch up with society, as a whole is a matter for further debate, and perhaps an area that warrants future examination. Additional longitudinal research will be necessary to track changes in advertising's attempts and ability to mirror society truthfully. Finally, continued cross-cultural studies can further test the societal limits of Holbrook's mirror.

REFERENCES

Courtney, A. E., & Whipple, T. W. (1974). Women in TV Commercials. *Journal of Communication*, *24*(2), 110-116.

Dominick, J. R., & Rauch, G. E. (1972). The Image of Women in Network TV Commercials, *Journal of Broadcasting*, *16*(1), 259-265.

Ferrante, C. L., Haynes, A. M., & Kingsley, S. M. (1988). Image of Women in Television Advertising, *Journal of Broadcasting and Electronic Media*, *32*(2), 231-237.

Geis, F., Brown, V., Jennings, J., & Porter, N. (1994). TV Commercials as Achievement Scripts for Women. *Sex Roles*: *Journal of Research*, *20*(10), 513-525.

Geskey, R. D. (2013). Media Planning & Buying in the 21St Century, (2d Ed.). Marketing Communications, LLC.

Hamilton, R., Haworth, B. & Sardin, N. (1984, April). *Adam and Eve: An Empirical Study of the Relative Marketing Effectiveness of Traditional and Modern Portrayals of Women in Certain Mass Media Advertisements.* Presented at the Marketing Consultancy and Research Studies, Lancaster University School of Management and Organizational Sciences.

Harris, P. R., & Stobart, J., (1986). Sex-Role Stereotyping in British Television Advertisements at Different Times of the Day: An extension and refinement of Manstead and McCulloch (1981), *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *25*(2), 155-164.

Holbrook, M. B. (1987). Mirror, Mirror on the Wall, What's Unfair in the Reflections on Advertising. *Journal of Marketing*, *51*(4), 95-103.

Kassarjian, H. H. (1977). Content Analysis in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *4*(3), 8-18.

Lysonski, S. (2004). "Role Portrayals in British Magazine Advertisement," *European Journal of Marketing, 19*(7), 37-55.

Mamay, P. D., & Simpson, R. L. (1981). Three female roles in television commercials. *Sex Roles: Journal of Research*, *7*(12), 1223-1232.

Manstead, A.S.R., & McCulloch, C. (1981). Sex Role Stereotyping in British Television Advertisements. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *20*(3), 170-180.

Merlo, J., & Smith, K.M. (1987, August). *Gender Role Stereotyping in Television Advertising: A Three Year Log-linear Analysis.* Paper presented at the Society for the Study of Societal Problems Annual Meeting, Molloy College, Rockville Centre, NY.

Pollay, R. W., (1986). The Distorted Mirror: Reflections on the Unintended Consequences of Advertising. *Journal of Marketing*, *50*(2), 18-36.

WOMEN'S ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN MANAGING IN MALE AND FEMALE-DOMINATED CULTURES: ARE THERE DIFFERENCES?

Kellye Jones, Clark Atlanta University
kjones@cau.edu

ABSTRACT

The number of women occupying mid-management positions in organizations has steadily increased. Subsequently, generations of organizational employees may have been supervised by a female manager. Moreover, the types of organizations where these women manage are increasingly diverse yet some of the sectors are traditional in nature and remain male-dominated. Perspectives about these managerial women as well as initiatives designed to facilitate their effectiveness continue to evolve. Since these women have garnered increased responsibilities within organizations, studies have explored their management styles as well as the challenges they encounter. Few studies, however, explore female subordinate attitudes about these women. More specifically, little is known empirically about the dynamic between managerial women and their female subordinates.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the presence of and attitudes towards women who manage within male and female-dominated cultures and to gain knowledge about the nature of their presence within these environments. Women's attitudes and perceptions about managerial women in male and female-dominated organizational cultures is examined. The study also explores whether female subordinate attitudes and perceptions vary based on organizational type. Two hundred twenty-six participants completed a self-assessment instrument. ANOVA results indicate that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures were dissimilar in their attitudes toward women managers.

Keywords: Women Managers; Female Subordinates; Male and Female-Dominated Organizational Cultures

INTRODUCTION

Women in the US have achieved consistent employment gains. They currently comprise approximately 47% of the US labor force (Catalyst, 2013). Over the last ten years, the number of women in management and professional positions has slightly increased and they currently occupy roughly 51% of these positions (Catalyst, 2014a). Upon examination of various sectors, women are: 35% of all employees in investment banking and securities dealing; 21% of all employees in car manufacturing; and 26% of all computer professionals (US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 2013; US EEOC, 2013a; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Despite these advancements, women in senior executive positions, however, have not fared as well. According to Catalyst (2014a) approximately 5% of *Fortune 500* CEO's are women. Moreover, these corporate women occupy approximately 16% of Board seats, and are 8% of top earners at *Fortune 500* firms (Catalyst, 2014). More specifically, in investment banking, car manufacturing, and information technology, women occupy approximately 16.1%,

16.5%, and 17% of executive positions, respectively (US EEOC, 2013; US EEOC, 2013a; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013).

These data suggest that management and executive occupations in the labor market remain relatively segregated by biological sex and women are underrepresented in senior level positions. This situation is somewhat surprising given women's educational attainment, which includes earning roughly 34% of MBA degrees over the last decade (Catalyst, 2014b). Moreover, they have made inroads into traditionally male-dominated occupations. Women in the senior managerial ranks comprise the pipeline for the next group of executives. As the pipeline increases, the number of women tapped for senior leadership roles should also, theoretically, increase. Women who hold these positions are representative of their organization's culture and values as they have been selected to execute strategies and attain goals of the organization. Moreover, they may serve as role models for young women desirous of occupying a management position. Regardless of whether managerial women secure a position in a traditionally male-dominated, or a traditionally female-dominated industry, insights about their presence as well as attitudes toward them would prove beneficial.

The purpose of this study is to investigate attitudes toward women who manage within male and female-dominated cultures and to gain knowledge about the nature of their presence within these environments. Specifically, there is interest in exploring women's attitudes and perceptions about managerial women in male-dominated and female-dominated organizational cultures. Moreover, the study examines whether attitudes and perceptions vary based on organizational type.

MALE AND FEMALE-DOMINATED INDUSTRIES

In a male-dominated industry, women typically comprise 25% or less of the total employment (Department of Labor, 2009). Despite women gaining entry into the majority of employment sectors, a gender gap remains in many industries (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). The oil and gas, utilities, and technology sectors are amongst industries heavily populated by men when examining mid and senior level positions. Moreover, these sectors have experienced tremendous growth. According to Langdon, McKittick, Beede, Khan, and Doms (2011) from 2000 to 2010, oil and gas, energy, and high tech employment grew three times the rate of other industries in the US. Moreover, this sector is expected to grow by 17% through 2018. With respect to female-dominated industries, retail, office administration, primary education, and nursing remain the sectors most populated by women. Given these industries tend to be segregated by biological sex, there are unspoken behavioral expectations associated with managing within both industry types. Moreover, women may face additional challenges when navigating within these environments (Warren, 2009).

Firm industry has been widely studied in attempts to better understand men, women, and management (Bilimoria, 2006; Nelson & Levesque, 2007). Results suggest that firms with a service focus, with a great number of women stakeholders and firms that are children-oriented have a greater tendency to hire and promote women managers (Brady, Isaacs, Reeves, Burroway & Reynolds, 2011). Other studies such as Tharenou (2001) report that few gender differences exist in women's executive representation. Nelson and Levesque (2007) indicate that there is

limited distinction in the number of women in high growth technology, retail, and wholesale trade sectors. Women's scant representation in various industry sectors, nonetheless, is clear. There are, however, no definitive conclusions about the relationship between gender, management, and women's presence in various industry sectors.

Studies have been conducted to shed light on why gender based sector differences occur. One proposition is the presence of the clone theory whereby new hires, or those under consideration for promotion, are similar to the hiring or promotion manager. The theory suggests that there is a sense of comfort that exists with the hiring or promotion manager and the candidate given perceived commonality in certain characteristics. As such, candidates with dissimilar characteristics from the hiring or promoting manager may be more readily excluded from consideration. Another proposition suggests that firms requiring a high level of interaction with various stakeholders may be why some industry sectors have greater numbers of women managers (Goodman, Fields, & Blum, 2003). The prevalent notion is women tend to be well skilled in establishing rapport and connection with others and as such, their presence in sectors such as retail sales, childcare, and education is more prominent.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

In addition to characterizing the nature of a firm's industry, awareness of organizational culture is also salient. Schein (1985) defines culture as the prevailing values, beliefs, attitudes, and assumptions that are shared among individuals in an organization. Javidan, Dorfman, Howell, and Hanges (2010) suggest that organizational culture influences the behavior of leaders. Additional studies suggest that there is a symbiotic relationship between national culture, industry dynamics, and the prevailing organizational culture of a firm (Hofstede, 1980; Lyness & Kropf, 2005). Given the dynamics associated with an industry, a firm within the industry is likely to adopt and exhibit characteristics consistent with the prevailing characteristics. Consequently, the organizational culture of a firm in a male-dominated industry will likely reflect competition, individualism, task orientation, independence and respect for authority since these are the prevalent characteristics of the industry (Maier, 1999). Within this context, there is tremendous respect for hierarchy, the chain of command dominates, and an authoritarian management style permeates the organization. Moreover, in this environment individual gains are rewarded and assertiveness and aggression are commonplace (Maier, 1999). One's career has priority over other personal demands and organizational commitment is prized (Rosener, 1995).

Conversely, female-dominated organizational cultures are characterized by participation, collaboration, involvement, and egalitarianism (Loden, 1985). Group dynamics and processes are highly valued and there is considerable focus on interpersonal relationships. In terms of rewards, intrinsic factors are valued and team recognition dominates (Loden, 1985). Additionally, work-life balance is encouraged and respected (Lyness & Kropf, 2005).

Studies have examined the significance of gender and organizational culture. Van Vianen and Fischer (2002) state that women have a weaker preference for competitive organizational values as compared to their male counterparts. Wicks and Bradshaw (1999) report that women identify an ideal culture as one that emphasizes relationships, acceptance, and less authoritative relationships. The researchers also discuss the prevalence of stereotypical sex based behaviors.

They indicate that men, for example, are rewarded for less than friendly behaviors and women are rewarded for being friendly and accepting authority. These studies demonstrate that the prevalence of masculine cultures may present challenges for women who are navigating the managerial role. The reported findings also suggest that women may have a preference for a female-dominated culture.

Despite perhaps having a preference for working in a feminine culture, it may not be an option for some managerial women given the prevalence of masculine cultures in organizations. Subsequently, women who work in a male-dominated environment may need to demonstrate a style that is consistent with a masculine organizational culture in order to appear competent, maintain their status, and be considered an asset to the organization. Loden (1985) reports that demonstrating ambition, aggressiveness, self-confidence, and individualism comprise the requisite characteristics of the masculine mode of management and as such, are the normative behaviors that are widely demonstrated.

MANAGERIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND GENDER

Studies report there is a tendency for managerial men and women to be associated with specific characteristics and men are more inclined to be associated with traits closely aligned with effective management (Ely & Rhode, 2010). Eagly and Karau (2002) report that despite having similar qualifications and leadership skills men are more inclined to be the preferred leader. Rudman and Kilianski (2000) suggest there is a greater likelihood of having prejudice against women who lead when subordinates expect men to have greater authority. Also, there is greater negativity toward women bosses in masculine sectors and jobs (Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2006).

Research also indicates, there is an expectation that male and female managers conform to sex-role specific behaviors (Ely & Rhode, 2010). Failure to demonstrate sex appropriate behaviors is often penalized. This often-times places managerial women in a double-bind situation. If these women demonstrate traits associated with typical masculinity they tend to be criticized for not being more feminine, approachable, and inclusive (Herrera, Duncan, Green & Skaggs, 2012). Similarly, if these women demonstrate more feminine traits they are criticized for not being tough, decisive, and results-oriented which are masculine qualities that are associated with effectiveness.

SUBORDINATE ATTITUDES TOWARD MANAGERS

Research has examined subordinate attitudes toward male and female managers. Many of the early studies report limited subordinate preference for a male or female manager (Brewer, 1979, Brewer & Kramer, 1985). Many contemporary studies, however, report gender bias among subordinate attitudes toward managerial women. Ely (1994) reveals that women subordinates hold negative perceptions of women managers when there are few women in senior positions. Warning and Buchanan (2009) reveal that male subordinates are more receptive to women bosses as compared to their female counterparts. Weiss (2009) indicates that women are inclined to accept hierarchy from men but not from other women. Tinsley, Chedelin, Schneider and

Amanatullah (2009) state effective women managers who demonstrate masculine behaviors are penalized despite similar behavior being acceptable for male counterparts.

ROLE CONGRUITY THEORY

Role congruity theory posits that stereotyping of gender roles leads to expectations of individual behavior (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Given men and women are perceived to be different, there are appropriate behaviors for each (Heilman, 2001). There is the expectation that women demonstrate communal behavior which entails being helpful and nurturing (Eagly, 1987). Men, conversely, are expected to display commanding or agentic behaviors such as control, assertiveness, and confidence (Eagly, 1987). Subsequently, there is the attitude that men are more inclined towards leadership roles given the characterization of agentic behaviors. Conversely, communal traits are more highly valued for women. When women are perceived to demonstrate greater agentic behaviors, however, role incongruity ensues. This is likely to occur when women hold a traditionally masculine position such as manager or leader and when they are managing within a masculine culture.

SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY AND GENDER IDENTITY

Social identity theory suggests that one's attitudes are shaped by membership in social groups such as gender, ethnicity, and occupation. An evaluation of one's group is compared to another group (Tajfel, 1978). Identification with the in-group occurs as members share an identity and are beneficiaries of advantages associated with being a member of the group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Deaux and Steward (2001) suggest that gender identity refers to an awareness of oneself as male or female. It focuses on gender as a social identity. With respect to male and female managers, social identity theory posits that female subordinates would be more favorable to a female manager as compared to male subordinates. This may be due to an affinity these women may experience since they have similar group membership.

HYPOTHESES

Women are making progress within the managerial ranks of organizations. While many studies have examined the attitudes and behaviors of these women, fewer studies explore female subordinate attitudes toward them and their presence. A contemporary occurrence is that organizational culture is evolving and male-dominated and female-dominated cultural types have emerged. Women occupy managerial positions within both organizational cultural types. The dynamics associated with female-dominant cultures embody qualities such as participation, involvement, and work family balance. Reports suggest that women prefer greater collaboration and inclusion from managers versus competition and a command and control style that tends to characterize the typical behavior of managers within masculine cultures. Moreover, some studies suggest that women may be more receptive to women supervisors. Therefore, it is hypothesized that women subordinates will differ in their attitudes toward women managers in male and female-dominated cultures.

> H1: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their attitudes toward women managers.

Gender group identity is associated with a group's social position in the hierarchy. Within a female-dominated culture where supportive cultural practices and women's presence are enhanced, there should be increased group identity as women should be more connected to their own group. As such, it is hypothesized that female subordinates in female-dominated firms should differ in their gender identification as compared to women in male-dominated firms.

> H2: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their perceived group identity.

Managerial women in supportive or female-dominated cultures have a role in executing policies and procedures and demonstrating desired and acceptable behaviors and practices. Subsequently, this suggests that subordinates may have a greater perception of egalitarianism within these firms. Conversely, male-dominated firms have a traditional culture characterized by competitiveness, assertiveness, hierarchical authority, and there is the practice of win at all costs. This type of culture also has a tendency to prioritize work over other demands. Those who do not embrace and demonstrate these characteristics may feel excluded and devalued. Therefore it is hypothesized that female subordinates will differ in their perceptions of gender bias.

> H3: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their perceptions of gender bias.

Studies report that women have a greater preference for the characteristics and values espoused in female-dominated cultures. Specific qualities such as inclusiveness, consensus building, and participation tend to be exhibited and practiced more widely by women managers. As such, female subordinates will differ in their preference for a female supervisor.

> H4: Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their preference for a female supervisor.

SAMPLE METHOD AND MEASURES

A total of 226 participants were involved in the study and they completed a self-assessment instrument. The instrument assessed attitudes toward women as managers (ATWAM), gender identity, perceived gender bias, and supervisory preference. All participants were women and all have a female supervisor. These women work in industries and for organizations that demonstrate either male or female-dominated cultures. In total, six firms comprise the survey frame. Two firms from financial services and one firm from the information technology sector represent male-dominant cultures. Two firms from the personal care sector and one firm from retail sales represent female-dominant cultures.

The Attitudes Toward Women as Managers (ATWAM) instrument was created by Yost and Herbert (1998). It has 12 items that gauge attitudes about women's ability to serve in a managerial capacity. Sample questions include: It is acceptable for women to assume leadership roles as often as men; Recognition for a job well done is less important to women than it is to men; Women tend to allow their emotions to influence their managerial behavior more than men; Women can be aggressive in business situations that demand it. A low score on the survey

indicates a favorable attitude toward women managers. Conversely, a higher score is associated with a less favorable attitude toward women in managerial roles. The alpha coefficient for the instrument is .76.

The gender identity scale was developed by Foley, Ngo, and Loi (2006). It measures three items. The items include: I identify with members of my gender group; I am like members of my gender group; My gender group is an important reflection of who I am. The alpha coefficient for the scale is .81.

The perceived gender bias scale was developed by Gutek, Cohen, and Tsui (1996) and it measures four items. The items include: Men are promoted faster than women in the organization; My organization prefers to hire men; Men are more likely to receive a generous pay raise; Men are more likely to receive favorable performance evaluations. The scale has an alpha coefficient of .91.

The supervisory preference scale was created by Warning and Buchanan (2009). It assesses two items: I would rather have a female supervisor as compared to a male supervisor; I prefer a male supervisor to a female supervisor. The alpha coefficient for the scale is .70.

The ANOVA technique was used to examine differences between women in the male and female-dominated organizational types. Means were also compared in order to further examine the nature of differences between the groups.

RESULTS

The ANOVA results indicate that hypotheses one, two, and three were statistically significant at the .02 level. All ANOVA results are depicted in table one.

Table 1. ANOVA Results*

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ATWAM	Between Groups	3421.797	1	3421.797	122.107	.000
	Within Groups	6277.163	224	28.023		
	Total	9698.960	225			
IDGM	Between Groups	6.873	1	6.873	18.976	.000
	Within Groups	81.131	224	.362		
	Total	88.004	225			
LIKEGM	Between Groups	9.005	1	9.005	7.352	.007
	Within Groups	274.380	224	1.225		
	Total	283.385	225			
REFLTGM	Between Groups	7.990	1	7.990	5.134	.024
	Within Groups	348.577	224	1.556		
	Total	356.566	225			
PROMOTM	Between Groups	79.844	1	79.844	271.270	.000
	Within Groups	65.931	224	.294		
	Total	145.774	225			
HIREM	Between Groups	91.141	1	91.141	313.657	.000
	Within Groups	65.089	224	.291		
	Total	156.230	225			
RAISEM	Between Groups	16.113	1	16.113	50.549	.000
	Within Groups	70.126	220	.319		
	Total	86.239	221			
PEM	Between Groups	9.623	1	9.623	30.399	.000
	Within Groups	70.912	224	.317		
	Total	80.535	225			
SPREFF	Between Groups	.032	1	.032	.021	.886
	Within Groups	349.477	224	1.560		
	Total	349.509	225			

*Legend
ATWAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers construct
IDGM, LIKEGM, REFLTGM = Group Identity construct
PROMOTM, HIREM, RAISEM, PEM= Perceived Gender Bias construct
SPREFF = Supervisory Preference construct

The first hypothesis states that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their attitudes toward female managers. Attitudinal differences between female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures was significant (F=122.10, p <.00). Mean differences reveal that female subordinates in male-dominated cultures have more favorable attitudes toward female managers. The variable means are reflected in table two.

Table 2. Variable Means*

ORGTYPE		ATWAM	IDGM	LIKEGM	REFLTGM	PROMOTM	HIREM	RAISEM	PEM	SPREFF
0	Mean	26.99	4.25	3.55	3.27	4.49	4.56	4.56	4.48	2.37
	N	110	110	110	110	110	110	106	110	110
	Std. Deviation	2.597	.432	1.097	1.141	.502	.498	.499	.502	1.116
1	Mean	34.78	3.90	3.16	2.90	3.30	3.29	4.02	4.07	2.40
	N	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116	116
	Std. Deviation	6.942	.727	1.116	1.341	.578	.575	.618	.615	1.363
Total	Mean	30.99	4.07	3.35	3.08	3.88	3.91	4.27	4.27	2.38
	N	226	226	226	226	226	226	222	226	226
	Std. Deviation	6.566	.625	1.122	1.259	.805	.833	.625	.598	1.246

*Legend
ATWAM = Attitudes Toward Women as Managers construct
IDGM, LIKEGM, REFLTGM = Group Identity construct
PROMOTM, HIREM, RAISEM, PEM= Perceived Gender Bias construct
SPREFF = Supervisory Preference construct

Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their group identity was the second hypothesis. Female subordinate differences in group identity was significant for each construct: IDGM F=18.96, p<.00; LIKEGM F=7.35, p<.00; REFLTGM F=5.13, p<.02. Mean differences indicate that there is greater group identity among women in male-dominated firms as they indicate they identify with and are like members of their gender group. Respondents also indicate that their gender group is an important reflection of who they are.

The third hypothesis which states that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their perceptions of gender bias was also supported. Female subordinate differences in perceptions of gender bias was significant for each construct: PROMOTEM F = 271.27, p<.00; HIREM F = 313.65, p<.00; RAISEM F = 50.54, p<.00; PEM F = 30.39, p<.00. The means indicate that female subordinates in male-dominated firms perceive greater gender bias as compared to female subordinates in female-dominated firms. They believe men are preferential hires and are promoted faster. They also perceive that men are inclined to receive favorable performance evaluations and pay raises.

The fourth hypothesis that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their preference for a female supervisor was not statistically supported, F=.02, p>.88.

DISCUSSION

This study explores the presence of and attitudes toward women managers in male and female-dominated firms. There was interest in examining whether subordinate female attitudes toward women managers, gender group identification, perceptions of gender bias, and supervisory preferences differed. With the exception of supervisory preference, subordinate women in male and female-dominated firms were dissimilar in their attitudes.

Results indicate that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures differ in their attitudes toward women supervisors. Female subordinates in male-dominated cultures have more favorable attitudes toward women supervisors as compared to female subordinates in female-dominated cultures. One explanation of this outcome may be that since women are in the minority, there is simply a sense of solidarity. Given women are managing within the context of a male-dominated culture, perhaps there is an appreciation for them because the subordinate women are aware of the challenges that the supervisors encounter. For female subordinates, the case may very well be that the masculine culture is less palatable and supervisory women demonstrate a semblance of desired supervisor characteristics.

Conversely, female subordinates have less favorable attitudes toward women supervisors in female-dominated cultures. One rationale is there may be increased competition for resources, recognition, and promotion opportunities. Subsequently, managers may embrace more traditionally masculine behaviors in order to distinguish themselves from other managers. Moreover, the managers may exhibit a more masculine style in order to be taken seriously, meet performance goals, and be considered effective. Consequently, female subordinates might perceive them less favorably.

The assertion of the second hypothesis was that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures would differ in their group identity. The subordinates did indeed vary in their group identity. Subordinate women within the male-dominated culture report greater group identity. Since they are few in number, they may consider themselves outsiders and as such, perceive a greater bond with other women. Moreover, there may be a greater perception of solidarity among the women. Given the reported differences in group identity based on firm culture, it raises the question of why there was less identification within female-dominated cultures particularly since there is a tendency to have greater supportive practices within these firms.

Female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will vary in their perceptions of gender bias was the expectation expressed in the third hypothesis. Results indicate that female subordinates in male-dominated cultures perceive greater gender bias. They believe that men are more inclined to be hired and promoted, and that men are more likely to receive better raises and performance evaluations. These perceptions may be created, substantiated, and perhaps reinforced, by taking note of the gender composition of the workplace. Mere observations may reveal a gender imbalance. Moreover, closer scrutiny may shed light on the hierarchical positions men hold relative to women. Perceived gender bias can clearly have potentially damaging effects given the implications for the firm's reputation as well as success in recruiting and retaining the best and brightest women. The competitiveness of the firm may also be compromised if all talent is not maximized.

The last hypothesis states that female subordinates in male and female-dominated cultures will differ in their supervisor preference. This proposition was not supported. Subordinates within both cultural types did not prefer a female supervisor. While the finding was unexpected, it is consistent with the results of other studies. Why is it that women don't prefer a female supervisor? It seems that women believe in women's ability to manage, yet, they don't prefer them. Perhaps there are behaviors that women demonstrate that simply do not resonate with

other women. Given the greater number of women present in female-dominated cultures, maybe there is a wide range of behaviors exhibited that move beyond those typically found within this context. Traditional masculine behaviors may be demonstrated as women compete for organizational resources. Moreover, these values might be considered an essential part of a female manager's arsenal in her attempts to climb the corporate ladder.

In male-dominated cultures women may not prefer a female supervisor given the traditional characteristics of the culture. They may perceive that women managing within this context might have to embrace the prevailing characteristics of the culture. In fact, they may feel that women ratchet up traditionally masculine behaviors in order to be accepted by their male counterparts. Clearly, this dynamic needs further study.

This investigation provides insight into the presence of and attitudes toward women managers within male and female-dominated cultures. The study explores these dynamics from a female subordinate perspective. The results suggest that differences based on firm cultural type exist. Increased awareness of these differences would prove useful in cultivating effective organizational cultures in both male and female-dominated contexts.

Based on the findings of the study, greater effort should be placed on forging the gender identity of women in female-dominated cultures which could then assist in preparing the next generation to move through the corporate ranks. Exploiting the values espoused within female-dominated cultures would also prove beneficial to these firms as they could capitalize on creating a reputation for valuing all talent which might positively impact recruitment and retention efforts. In male-dominated cultures, having a greater sensitivity to the perceptions of gender bias is salient. Identifying the root of these perceptions by reviewing, and perhaps, modifying human resource policies and practices would prove useful. Since women are managing within both cultural contexts, having a greater understanding as to why they are least preferred as supervisors is sorely needed.

Clearly, senior executives and decision-makers need to examine the dominant cultural values within their firms. Having knowledge about these workplace dynamics can create greater awareness of and appreciation for all talent, which may translate into greater competitiveness.

REFERENCES

Bilimoria, D. (2006). The relationship between women corporate directors and women corporate officers. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 18,* 27-61.

Brady, D., Isaacs, K., Reeves, M., Burroway, R., & Reynolds, M. (2011). Sector, size, stability and scandal: Explaining the presence of female executives in *Fortune* 500 firms. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, *26,* 84-104.

Brewer, M. (1979). In-group bias in the minimal intergroup situation: A cognitive-motivational analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 86,* 307-324.

Brewer, M. & Kramer, R. (1985). The psychology of intergroup attitudes and behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology, 36,* 219-243.

Catalyst (2013). *Catalyst pyramid: US women in business.* New York.

Catalyst (2014a). *Catalyst quick take: Women in the US*. New York.

Catalyst (2014b). *Women's share of MBA's earned in the US.* New York.

Deaux, K., & Stewart, A. (2001). Framing gender identity. In R. Unger (Ed.) *Handbook of the psychology of women and gender,* 84-97. New York: Wiley.

Department of Labor, Women's Bureau (2009). Quick facts on nontraditional occupations for women. *2008 Annual Averages.*

Eagly, A. (1987). *Sex differences in social behavior: A social role interpretation.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Eagly, A., & Karau, S. (2002). Role of congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Bulletin, 111*, 3-22.

Ely, R. (1994). The effects of organizational demographics and social identity on relationships among professional women. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 39,* 203-238.

Ely, R., & Rhode, D. (2010). Women and leadership: Defining the challenges. In N. Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.) *Handbook of leadership theory and practice. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.*

Foley, S., Ngo, H., & Loi, R. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of perceived personal gender discrimination: A study of solicitors in Hong Kong. *Sex Roles, 55,* 197-208.

Garcia-Retamero, R., & Lopez-Zafra, E. (2006). Prejudice against women in male-congenial environments: Perceptions of gender role congruity in leadership. *Sex Roles, 55,* 51-61.

Goodman, J., Fields, D., & Blum, T. (2003). Cracks in the glass ceiling: In what kinds of organizations do women make it to the top? *Group & Organization Management, 28,* 475-501.

Gutek, B., Cohen, A., & Tsui, A. (1996). Reactions to perceived discrimination. *Human Relations, 49,* 791-814.

Heilman, M. (2001). Description and prescription how gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues, 57,* 657-674.

Herrera, R., Duncan, P., Green, M., & Skaggs, S. (2012). The effect of gender on leadership and culture. G*lobal Business and Organizational Excellence*. Wiley Online Library.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Javidan, M., Dorfman, P., Howell, J., & Hanges, P. (2010). Leadership and cultural context: A theoretical and empirical examination based on Project GLOBE. In N. Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.) *Handbook of leadership theory and practice*, 335-376. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Press.

Langdon, D., McKittrick, G., Beede, D., Khan, B., & Doms, M. (2011). STEM: Good jobs now and for the future. *Economics and Statistics Administration Issue Brief No. 03-11.*

Loden, M. (1985). *Feminine leadership or how to succeed in business without being one of the boys.* New York: Times Books.

Lyness, K., & Kropf, M. (2005). The relationships of national gender equality and organizational support with work-family balance: A study of European managers. *Human Relations, 58,* 33-60.

Maier, M. (1999). On the gendered substructure of organization: Dimensions and dilemmas of corporate masculinity. In G. Powell (Ed.) *Handbook of gender & work.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Nelson, T., & Levesque, L. (2007). The status of women in corporate governance in high-growth, high-potential firms. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice, 31,* 209-232.

Rosener, J. (1995). *America's competitive secret: Utilizing women as a management strategy.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Rudman, L., & Kilianski, S. (2000). Implicit and explicit attitudes toward female authority. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26,* 1315-1328.

Schein, E. (1985). *Organizational culture and leadership.* San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups. Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations.* New York: Academic Press.

Tajefel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In G. Austin and S. Worchel (Eds). *The social psychology of intergroup relations,* 33-47. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Tharenou, P. (2001). Going up? Do traits and informal social processes predict advancing in management? *Academy of Management Journal, 44,* 105-117.

Tinsley, C., Chedelin, S., Schneider, A., & Amanatullah, E. (2009). Women at the bargaining table: Pitfalls and prospects. *Negotiation Journal, 25,* 233-248.

US Bureau of Labor Statistics, current population survey (2013). *2012 Annual Averages.*

US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). (2013). *National aggregate report by NAICS-5 Code 52311: Investment banking & securities dealing.* Job patterns for minorities and women in private industry.

US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). (2013a). *National aggregate report by NAICS-4 Code 3361: Motor vehicle manufacturing.* Job patterns for minorities and women in private industry.

Van Vianen, A., & Fischer, A. (2002). Illuminating the glass ceiling: The role of organizational culture preferences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 13,* 315-337.

Warning, R., & Buchanan, F. (2009). An exploration of unspoken bias: Women who work for women. *Gender in Management, 24,* 131-145.

Warren, A. (2009). *Cascading gender biases, compounding effects: An assessment of talent management systems.* Catalyst.

Weiss, D. (2009). Women lawyers feel betrayed when female bosses are not nurturing. *ABA Journal,* Law News Now: 1-2.

Wicks, D., & Bradshaw, P. (1999). Gendered organizational cultures in Canadian work organizations: Implications for creating an equitable workforce. *Management Decision, 37,* 372-383.

Yost, E., & Herbert, T. (1998). Attitudes toward women as managers scale. *The Pfeiffer Library*, *12,* 1-9, Jossey-Bass/Pfeiffer.

THE EFFECTS OF REGULATORY FOCUS ON IT SUBSTITUTION

Liqiong Deng
jdeng@westga.edu

ABSTRACT

This research draws on the Regulatory Focus (RF) Theory to examine the effects of IT users' regulatory foci on their intention of IT substitution. IT substitution refers to the replacement of one IT with another IT that satisfies identical needs. The decision of IT substitution is likely to evoke considerations of both incumbent and alternative ITs. The RF Theory distinguishes between two motivational orientations – promotion focus and prevention focus, and provides a useful framework to understand IT substitution behaviors. Individuals with a promotion focus are driven by the need for attainment of positive outcomes, and are thereby oriented toward the maximization of gains and advancement. In contrast, individuals with a prevention focus are driven by the need for avoidance of negative outcomes, and hence are oriented toward the minimization of losses and safety. An individual's RF guides his/her information processing and decision making, thereby influencing which information he/she specifically seeks out and retains when making a decision about IT substitution. Accordingly, this research classifies two sets of factors influencing IT substitution intention along the RF perspective. It proposes that the promotion-focused individuals will draw on the advancement-oriented factors (e.g., the relative advantage of alternative IT and the descriptive norm regarding IT substitution) to make IT substitution decisions; while the prevention-focused individuals will reply on the safety-oriented factors (e.g., the satisfaction with incumbent IT, the perceived risk of alternative IT, the perceived effort expectancy of alternative IT, and the injunctive norm regarding IT substitution) to make IT substitution decisions.

Keywords: IT substitution, Promotion Focus, Prevention Focus

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the topic of IT substitution has increasingly received much attention in IS research due to the pervasive use of IT in all aspects of people's daily life. IT substitution refers to the full or partial replacement of one IT product/service with another IT product/service that satisfies identical needs (Ye, Seo, Desouza, Papagari, & Jha, 2008). The wide proliferation of IT products/services providing similar functionalities has made it easy for users to replace an incumbent IT with an IT substitute. For example, successive generations of IT products/services are clear substitutes for the earlier generations (Steffens & Kaya, 2009). Competing IT products/services, for instance Microsoft Internet Explorer, Mozilla Firefox and Google Chrome, are also close substitutes for each other. IT substitution involves not only software applications, but also hardware products (e.g., mobile devices) and technology services (e.g., social networking websites).

IT substitution goes beyond mere adoption of a new IT and involves termination or reduction in using an incumbent IT (Ye et al., 2008). Traditional IT adoption and acceptance research only focuses on the adoption of a new IT in isolation without explicitly considering the existence of an incumbent IT. In actuality, the decision of IT substitution is likely to evoke consideration of several issues pertaining to both the incumbent IT and the alternative IT, such as the perception and experience of the incumbent IT, the evaluation of comparative characteristics of the substitute IT over the incumbent IT, the potential benefits of replacing the incumbent IT with the new IT, the perceived risk inherent in the new IT, and the efforts required to install and learn the new IT. Prior research on IT substitution also found that IT substitution is determined by the users' perceptions of both the incumbent IT and the substitute IT (Ye et al., 2008).

Since the decision of IT substitution entails the choice of one technology over the other, evaluative conflicts may occur when both technologies are perceived to be favorable/unfavorable. For instance, the recognition of a new IT's desirable benefits may conflict with the evaluation of an existing IT as adequate for the user's current needs. While prior research has provided valuable insights into which perceived characteristics of incumbent IT and substitute IT are critical for IT substitution decisions, however, no insight has been offered on the relative salience of different incumbent and substitute ITs' characteristics to technology users. Recognizing the complex nature of IT substitution, this paper attempts to examine how the effects of incumbent IT's and substitute IT's characteristics on IT substitution intention may differ by individuals from the perspective of Regulatory Focus (RF) Theory (Higgins, 1997, 1998). The RF Theory distinguishes between two major motivational orientations – promotion focus and prevention focus. Individuals with a promotion focus are driven by the need for attainment of positive outcomes, and are thereby oriented toward the maximization of gains, such as advancement and accomplishment. In contrast, individuals with a prevention focus are driven by the need for safety and avoidance of negative outcomes, and hence are oriented toward the minimization of losses and security. IT substitution presents an opportunity for change, which may lead to gains (i.e. the realization of a substitute IT's desirable benefits that an incumbent IT cannot offer) or losses (i.e. substituting a disappointing new IT for a satisfying incumbent IT). The RF Theory has significant implications for IT substitution because an individual's RF guides his/her information processing and decision making, thereby influencing which information he/she specifically seeks out, pays attention to and retains when making a decision about IT substitution. A better understanding of the role of motivational orientations in shaping individuals' perceptions of and attentions to various characteristics of incumbent IT and/or substitute IT will provide important insights into the differentiated influences of incumbent IT's and substitute IT's characteristics on different individuals' intentions of IT substitution. These insights will make it possible to examine the relevant characteristics of both incumbent IT and substitute IT simultaneously and assess their relative weights in determining users' intentions of IT substitution.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Traditional Technology Acceptance Research

IT substitution is primarily driven by adoption of new IT products/services. In the IS research field, a number of theories and research models have been developed or applied to predict and

explain acceptance and adoption of IT innovations. The most prominent theories include the Diffusion of Innovations Theory (DIT), Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), and Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT).

DIT posits five characteristics of innovation -- relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability – as important determinants of innovation diffusion (Rogers, 1995). Relative advantage is the degree to which an innovation is perceived to be better than other alternatives (Rogers, 1995). Complexity refers to the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being complex and difficult to use or understand (Rogers, 1995). Compatibility is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as compatible with the existing practices, values, and experiences of potential users (Rogers, 1995). Trialability is the degree to which an innovation can be tried on a limited basis before adoption (Rogers, 1995). Observability refers to the degree to which an innovation provides observable results to potential users (Rogers, 1995). The innovation characteristics of complexity, relative advantage and compatibility have been consistently supported to be significant predictors of information technology adoption behavior (Moore & Benbasat, 1991; Tornatzky & Klein, 1982).

TRA is a general theory that attempts to explain any human behavior from the perspective of social psychology. It suggests that a person's certain behavior is determined by his/her behavioral intention to perform the behavior, which in turn is jointly determined by the person's attitude and subjective norm concerning the behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). TAM builds on and extends TRA to explain user's adoption behavior of information technology (Davis, 1989). According to TAM, a user's intention to adopt a technology is determined by two salient beliefs about the technology – perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use (Davis, 1989). Perceived usefulness is the extent to which a user believes that using the technology will improve his/her job performance, and perceived ease of use refers to the extent to which a user believes that using the technology will be free of effort (Davis, 1989). Both perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use have been found to directly influence technology adoption intention (Davis, 1989).

UTAUT extends TAM by proposing four factors – performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions – as determinants of technology adoption intention and behavior (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003). Similar to TAM's perceived usefulness, performance expectancy is the degree to which a person believes that using the technology will help him/her to enhance job performance (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Effort expectancy, like perceived ease of use in TAM, refers to the degree of ease related to the use of the technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Social influence, which captures the concept of subjective norm construct in TRA, is the degree to which an individual perceives that people important to him/her think he/she should use the technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Facilitating conditions refer to an individual's perception of organizational and technical infrastructure that exists to support the technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003). The inclusion of social influence in the model explained additional 5-10% variance in technology adoption intention. In addition, a set of moderating factors (i.e. gender, age, experience, and voluntariness of use) are posited to moderate the influences of the four key factors on adoption intention and behavior (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

While UTAUT emphasizes the importance of social influence in technology acceptance, however social influence was found to lack predictability in voluntary IT situations (Schepers & Wetzels, 2007). The weak effect of social influence may be due to the narrow conceptualization of social influence (Rivis & Sheeran, 2003). Some social psychologists have argued that social influence should embody two components: injunctive norms and descriptive norms (Cialdini, Kallgren & Reno, 1991; Cialdini, Reno & Kallgren, 1990; Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Donald & Cooper, 2001; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003). Injunctive norms reflect the perceived approval or disapproval of a course of action by others. Both the subjective norm construct of TRA and the social influence construct of UTAUT are injunctive norms because they are the perceptions of whether others think an individual should perform a targeted behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Descriptive norms reflect the perception of whether other people actually perform a course of action (Cialdini et al., 1991; Cialdini et al., 1990). Descriptive norms describe what type of behavior is likely to be effective, appropriate or adaptive in a particular context (i.e. "If everybody else is doing it, then it must be a good/sensible thing to do") (Smith & Louis, 2008). A number of studies distinguished between injunctive and descriptive norms and found their independent effects on behavioral intention improved the explanatory power of the model (Conner & McMillan, 1999; McMillan & Conner, 2003; Warburton & Terry, 2000).

IT Substitution

The traditional technology acceptance and adoption theories however are not sufficient to explain or predict IT substitution because they fail to capture the complexity of IT substitution behavior by assuming a single technology adoption context where competing technologies are not taken into consideration. Ye et al. (2008) define IT substitution as "users' termination or significant reduction in usage of one IT product while replacing it completely or in large part with an alternative product that satisfies identical needs" (Ye et al., 2008, p. 2117). Prior research on consumer and IT product/service substitution suggests that product/service substitution is influenced by both the incumbent and the alternative (Keaveney, 1995; Roster & Richins, 2009; Ye et al., 2008). Ye et al. (2008) found that user satisfaction and breadth of use of the incumbent IT are negatively associated with IT substitution behavior, while the perceived ease of use, relative advantage, and perceived security of the substitute IT are positively associated with IT substitution behavior.

Since IT substitution involves two competing components of incumbent IT and substitute IT, conflicts may arise between users' evaluation of incumbent IT and that of alternative IT. For instance, when deciding whether to replace a fully functional incumbent IT with a more advanced new IT, the perceived benefits of the new IT may conflict with the satisfaction with the incumbent IT that is sufficient to meet current needs. Due to the complex nature of IT substitution and the potential evaluative conflicts regarding incumbent IT and substitute IT, there is a need for a more comprehensive framework that provides better explanatory power by taking into account the relative weights of different incumbent IT's and substitute IT's characteristics in predicting IT substitution intention. A good understanding of how individuals differ in their perceptions of and attentions to different characteristics of incumbent IT and substitute IT when making decisions about IT substitution will make it possible to assess the relative weights of different characteristics in determining different individuals' IT substitution intention. The RF

Theory provides a useful framework for understanding the motivational determinants of individual differences in evaluating incumbent IT's and substitute IT's characteristics as well as other relevant information with respect to decision making about IT substitution.

The RF Theory

The RF theory distinguishes between two major motivational orientations – promotion focus and prevention focus – that guide individuals' goal pursuit behaviors (Higgins, 1997; 1998). The promotion focus driven by the need nurturance concerning an ideal self (the kind of person an individual would like to be) and thus are related to attainment of positive outcomes, such as advancement, accomplishment and aspirations. In contrast, the prevention focus are driven by the need for safety concerning an ought self (the kind of person an individual ought to be) and are related to avoidance of negative outcomes and fulfillment of responsibilities, duties, and obligations. Individuals with a promotion focus are sensitive to positive outcomes. They consider gains as success and nongain as failure and regulate their attentions, perceptions and behaviors toward maximization of gains. Individuals with a prevent focus are sensitive to negative outcomes. They regard non-loss as success and loss as failure and regulate their attentions, perceptions and behaviors toward security and minimization of losses (Higgins & Tykocinski 1992; Shah, Higgins & Friedman, 1998). These two distinct motivational orientation states can be either enduring personality characters or situationally induced by environmental cues (Forster, Higgins & Bianco, 2003; Forster, Higgins & Idson, 1998; Shah & Higgins, 1997). Irrespective of being dispositional or situationally induced, individuals' regulatory foci guide their preferences, information processing, decision making, and behaviors (Dholakia, Gopinath, Bagozzi & Nataraajan, 2006; Pham & Avnet, 2004; Sengupta & Zhou, 2007; Vellido, Lisboa & Meehan, 2000).

Individuals' regulatory foci prompt them to adopt strategies and engage in activities that are consistent with their regulatory orientations. Specifically, individuals utilize an eagerness strategic means to pursue a promotion goal but adopt a vigilance strategic means to fulfill a prevention goal (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Let us consider a signal detection situation where individuals decide whether an action is worth pursuing (Tanner & Swets, 1954; Trope & Liberman, 1996). There are four possible outcomes of each signal-detection trial: 1) a hit – deciding to take a correct action, 2) a miss – deciding not to take a correct action, 3) a correct rejection – deciding not to take a wrong action, and 4) a false alarm – deciding to take a wrong action. Since a promotion focus is concerned with the pursuit of gains and advancements, it entails the eagerness strategy to ensure hits and avoid misses (i.e., a loss of an opportunity for accomplishment). In contrast, since a prevention focus is concerned with safety and avoidance of failures, it involves the vigilance strategy to seek correct rejections and ensure against false alarms (i.e., making a mistake). In line with this reasoning, Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins (1999) found that promotion-focused individuals prefer change, while prevention-focused individuals prefer to maintain the status quo. For example, prevention focused individuals are more willing to resume an interrupted task rather than perform a substitute task and are more reluctant to exchange currently possessed objects for alternative objects than promotion-focused individuals (i.e., the endowment effect; Kahneman, Knetsch, & Thaler, 1990; 1991). Liberman et al. (1999) suggested that individuals with a prevention focus feel more obliged to rely on the original alternatives as long as they are satisfactory, whereas individuals

with a promotion focus are more willing to change if they think that the new alternative is an improvement over the original object.

The phenomenon that individuals prefer the means of goal pursuit that match and sustain their regulatory focus is termed as regulatory fit (Higgins, 2000; 2005; 2006). The fit between an individual's means of goal pursuit and regulatory orientation creates a subjective experience of "feeling right" that in turn increases his/her motivational engagement and enhances the perceived value of the goal pursuit (Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006). Several studies have applied the concept of regulatory fit to examine selective information processing and evaluation (Lee & Aaker, 2004; Pham & Avnet 2004; Pham & Higgins, 2005; Wang & Lee, 2006). Due to human being's limited processing capacity, selectivity of information is often necessary (Payne, Bettman, & Johnson., 1992). Prior research on selective information processing has demonstrated that individuals tend to selectively process and reply on motivation-consistent information (Hart et al., 2009). To the extent that motivational forces influence selective information processes (Hart et al., 2009), regulatory focus plays a key role in directing people's attention to information that fits their regulatory orientation (Wang & Lee, 2006). In other words, people are more likely to selectively pay attention to information that addresses their regulatory concerns. Since people experiencing regulatory fit are more motivated in their goal pursuit activities (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2000), individuals actively seeking information congruent with their regulatory orientations will be more motivated to elaborate on the information pertinent to their respective regulatory focus and, in turn, be more likely to be influenced by that information. More specifically, promotion-focused individuals will selectively pursue and elaborate on information that addresses concerns about growth and advancement, whereas prevention-focused individuals will seek out and elaborate on information that addresses concerns about safety and security (Wang & Lee, 2006).

Prior research on regulatory fit has demonstrated that promotion focus versus prevention focus is associated with change versus stability (Liberman et al., 1999), distant versus proximal temporal perspective (Pennington & Roese, 2003), abstract versus concrete mental representations (Lee, Keller & Sternthal, 2010), and desirability versus feasibility considerations (Liberman & Trope, 1998). The distinction between feasibility and desirability of goal-directed actions corresponds to the distinction between means and ends of actions (Gollwitzer & Moskowitz, 1996; Liberman & Trope, 1998). Specifically, desirability refers to the value of an action's end state reflecting the superordinate why aspects of an action, whereas feasibility refers to the ease or difficulty of reaching an action's end reflecting the subordinate how aspects of an action (Carver & Scheier, 1990, 1999; Liberman & Trope, 1998; Vallacher & Wegner, 1987). Feasibility versus desirability is also an important dimension of level of mental construals (Eyal, Liberman, Trope & Walther, 2004). High-level construals entail developing abstract and global conceptualization, whereas low-level construals involve constructing concrete and local conceptualization (Trope, Liberman & Wakslak, 2007). Therefore, high-level construals represent attitude objects or events in terms of their abstract, essential features (Liberman, Sagristano & Trope, 2002). In contrast, low-level construals represent attitude objects or events in terms of their concrete, incidental features (Liberman et al., 2002). Desirability considerations constitute high-level construals of actions, and feasibility considerations constitute low-level construals of actions, because the why aspects of an action are more abstract and general and better convey the action's meaning than the more specific how details of the action (Vallacher & Wegner, 1987; 1989). Since prevention-

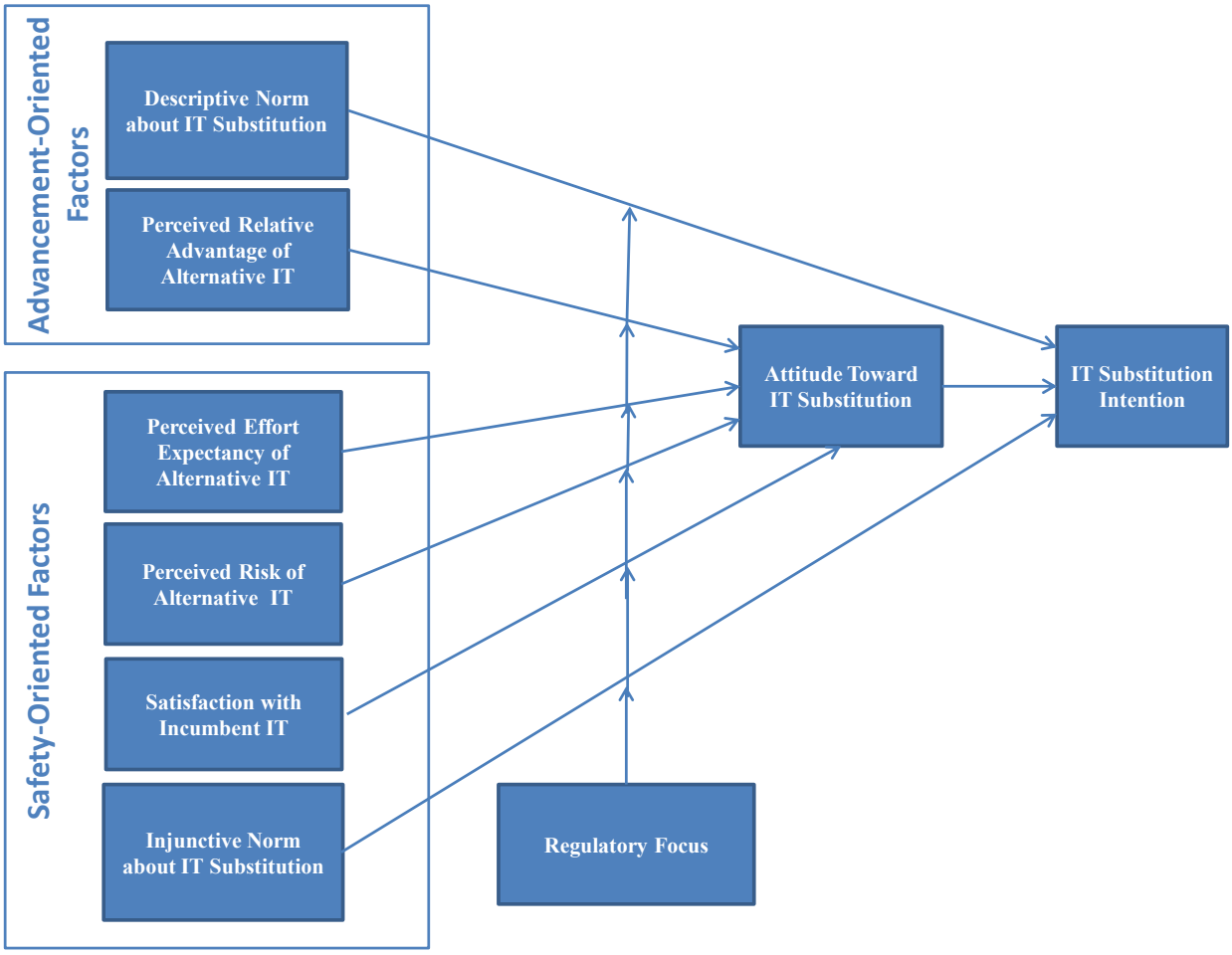
focused individuals vigilantly steer away from negative outcomes and losses, they would be more detail-oriented and use low-level construals to learn about all available information, especially the details that may jeopardize the success of the action. Hence, the feasibility concerns that reflect the "how aspects" of actions would be more prominent to promotion-focused people. They would focus on the local details of the means in considerations and adopt concrete processing of action alternatives by which they can increase the chance to avoid negative outcomes. For promotion-focused individuals who eagerly strive to gain desirable outcomes and benefits, the desirability concerns reflecting the "why aspects" of actions would be more salient. They tend to go beyond the scrutiny of local details pertaining to the means and use high-level construals to engage in broader, more abstract consideration of .the general value of the end state and why it should be attained.

IT substitution presents users with the chance for obtaining benefits from a more advanced new IT or the risk of making a wrong decision by replacing a satisfactory incumbent IT with a malfunctioning substitute IT. Since promotion-focused individuals are motivated to attain benefits and prevention-focused individuals seek to avoid losses, users' regulatory foci will influence their IT substitution decisions that are differentially associated with achievement of benefits and avoidance of risks. Accordingly, in the situation of IT substitution, a user will be selectively sensitive to and pay attention to the factors that are congruent with his/her regulatory focus motivation. Therefore, an individual's regulatory focus will determine which characteristics of incumbent IT and substitute IT he/she is sensitive to, pays attention to, and places emphasis on when making a decision about IT substitution.

RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Drawing on the traditional technology acceptance theories, IT substitution research, and the RF theory, this paper proposes a research model of two sets of factors influencing IT substitution attitude and intention along the RF perspective (Figure 1). This model focuses on the effects of perceived characteristics of both incumbent and alternative ITs (perceived relative advantages of alternative IT, perceived effort expectancy of alternative IT, perceived risks of alternative IT, and satisfaction with incumbent IT), attitude toward IT substitution, social influence regarding IT substitution (descriptive norm and injunctive norm about IT substitution), and IT users' RF orientations. According to the RF theory, I argue that individuals will be sensitive to the factors relevant to their regulatory foci. The advancement-oriented factors (perceived relative advantages of alternative IT and descriptive norm about IT substitution) give rise to eager stimulation relevant to the promotion focus, whereas the safety-oriented factors (perceived effort expectancy of alternative IT, perceived risks of alternative IT, satisfaction with incumbent IT, and injunctive norm about IT substitution) induce vigilant simulation relevant to the prevention focus. To the extent that regulatory focus acts as a filter for individuals to process information selectively, promotion focused individuals and prevention focused individuals would respond differently to advancement-oriented factors and safety-oriented factors.

Figure 1. Research Model of Factors Influencing IT Substitution Intention



Fishbein and Ajzen's TRA (1975) holds that an individual's intention to perform a behavior is determined by his/her attitude toward performing a behavior. Accordingly, an individual's intention of substituting a new IT for an incumbent IT is determined by his/her attitude toward IT substitution. Here, attitude refers to the extent to which an individual has an overall favorable or unfavorable evaluation of IT substitution. In line with Fishbein and Ajzen's TRA (1975), attitude toward IT substitution will have a positive influence on intention of IT substitution, as stated in the following hypothesis.

> Hypothesis 1: Attitude toward IT substitution positively influences intention of IT substitution.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen's TRA (1975), the social influence an individual perceives on whether he/she should perform the behavior is also an important determinant of the individual's behavioral intention. Due to the narrow conceptualization of social influence in TRA, this paper distinguishes between injunctive norms and descriptive norms. Prior research has emphasized the importance of distinguishing between descriptive and injunctive social norms (Cialdini & Trost, 1998; Deutsch & Gerard, 1955), arguing that it is "crucial to discriminate between the is

(descriptive) and the ought (injunctive) meaning of social norms because each refers to a separate source of human motivation" (Cialdini et al., 1990, p. 1015). Injunctive norms represent the individual's perception that IT substitution is expected by people who are important to him/her. And descriptive norms refer to the individual's perception of whether other people similar to himself/herself actually replace the incumbent IT with the alternative IT. Descriptive norms can make people focus on why others perform a behavior, which leads to thoughts regarding personal benefits (if most people are doing this, it must be good) and social benefits (if I do what others do, I will fit in) (Melnyk, Van Herpen, Fischer & Van Trijp, 2011). Describing others' behaviors, descriptive norms can motivate people by demonstrating the benefits that following others are likely to bring (Cialdini et al., 1990; Melnyk, Van Herpen, Fischer & Van Trijp, 2013; Prislin & Wood, 2005). Since descriptive norms are perceived as a way to obtain benefits and accomplish desired ideals (Cialdini, 2006), they fit well with advancement-oriented goals and desires that are salient under promotion focus. Injunctive norms, in contrast, refer to what people should do in a given situation and thus are "the influence to conform to the positive expectations of others" (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955, p. 629). Rather than being concerned with the achievement of personal ambitions, injunctive norms are based on the avoidance of perceived sanctions associated with norm violations (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). Injunctive norms motivate people to fulfill their obligations or avoid punishments (Hornsey, Majkut, Terry, & McKimmie, 2003), and hence are congruent with the avoidance and safety-oriented goals under prevention focus.

Likewise, the perceived characteristics of both incumbent and alternative ITs can also be differentiated into advancement-oriented factors and safety-oriented factors according to their compatibility with promotion focus vs. prevention focus. Prior research suggests the perceived characteristics of technology innovation play a significant role in technology adoption and diffusion (Davis, 1989; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Rogers, 1995; Venkatesh, et al., 2003). More specifically, according to Fishbein and Ajzen's TRA and Davis' TAM, attitude toward new IT adoption is a function of salient beliefs about certain IT attributes. The perception of relative advantages offered by a new technology has been found to determine the technology adoption (Rogers, 1995; Venkatesh, et al., 2003). Here, relative advantage refers to the extent to which a new IT product/service is perceived to be better than the incumbent IT product/service it supersedes. In order for a new technology to be widely adopted, the technology has to be perceived to offer advantages relative to the existing comparable technologies it intends to replace. This is especially true for IT substitution, in which one's attitude depends on the perception of a new IT's additional benefits and values compared with an incumbent IT. The perceived relative advantage of alternative IT is an advancement-oriented factor reflecting the benefits of IT substitution and addressing the desirability concerns of IT substitution prominent under promotion focus.

Another important determinant of new technology adoption is perceived effort expectancy of technology, which refers to the expected amount of effort required in using the new technology (Venkatesh, et al., 2003). It reflects the degree of ease associated with the use of the technology (Venkatesh, et al., 2003) and embodies the concepts of perceived ease of use in TAM (Davis, 1989) and perceived complexity in DIT (Rogers, 1995). Perceived effort expectancy is especially critical during the initial stage of IT substitution, when the complexity of initial installation of an alternative IT or perceived difficulty in learning or using an alternative IT may significantly

increase the perception of required effort in adopting the alternative IT and cause unfavorable attitude toward replacing the incumbent IT with the alternative IT. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that the higher the effort required in using an alternative IT to replace an incumbent IT, the less favorable the attitude toward IT substitution; and vice versa. The perceived effort expectancy of alternative IT can be considered a safety-oriented factor closely related to the feasibility concerns of IT substitution that are salient under prevention focus.

The perceived risk of alternative IT is also a critical factor influencing attitude toward IT substitution. The adoption of a new IT is by nature risk laden. Uncertainty about the outcome of adopting a new IT can be problematic for users. Risk is "the product of a harmful consequence of an activity or event and the probability of its occurrence" (Wlodarczyk & Tennyson, 2003, p. 179). The degree to which an individual perceives risk or uncertainty in a new IT will influence his/her adoption of the new IT to replace the incumbent IT. If the new IT fails to deliver its expected outcome, it will result in a loss to the user (financial, performance, psychological, physical, social, and convenience) (Pires, Stanton, & Eckford, 2004). For instance, financial risk refers to the potential monetary loss that users may encounter after switching to a new IT. Performance risk is the likelihood that the new IT does not perform as expected. Physical risk is related to safety problems arising from using the new IT, especially those directly related to health and security. Psychological risk is the possibility that the new IT will be consistent with the user's self-image. Social risk refers to the perceptions of significant others towards the new IT. Convenience risk represents the additive problematic inconveniences which the users will encounter when they switch to the new IT. The perceived risk of alternative IT, similar to the perceived effort expectancy of alternative IT, is also a safety-oriented factor concerned with feasibility considerations of IT substitution prominent under prevention focus.

User satisfaction with incumbent IT also influences attitude toward replacing the incumbent IT with the alternative IT. In behavioral IS research, user satisfaction construct has been a central construct of interest, employed by IS researchers and practitioners to measure user attitude about system, evaluate IS effectiveness, and predict user behavior or behavioral intention (Melone, 1990). IS research on user satisfaction suggests that user satisfaction is an important measure of information systems success (Delone & McLean, 1992; Ives & Olson, 1984). As an evaluative response to the use experience of IT products/services and disconfirmation of performance expectations (Bhattacherjee, 2001a; Thong, Hong & TAM, 2006), satisfaction with IT products/services influences subsequent use behaviors with the products/services. According to Fishbein and Ajzen's TRA (1975), satisfaction indicates positive attitude, which will result in increased positive behavioral intentions or behaviors. Therefore, it is expected that satisfied IT users are more likely to continue their use of that IT product/service (Thong et al., 2006). User satisfaction has been consistently supported to be an important factor influencing user's intention to continue using IT products/services (Bhattacherjee, 2001a; Bhattacherjee, 2001b; Flavian et al., 2006; Thong et al., 2006). Therefore, satisfaction with the incumbent IT is likely to lead to continued use of the incumbent IT and negatively influence attitude toward IT substitution. Prevention-focused individuals who are concerned with avoiding errors of false alarms and ensuring correct rejections would consider a satisfactory incumbent IT a relatively safe choice and favor the incumbent IT over the alternative IT. In contrast, regardless of whether promotion-focused individuals are satisfied with the incumbent IT, if the alternative IT has the potential to offer an advantage over the incumbent IT, they are likely to substitute the alternative IT for the

incumbent IT. Therefore, satisfaction with incumbent IT is a safety-oriented factor addressing the safety and security concerns of prevention-focused individuals.

When individuals consider social influences and evaluate attributes of both incumbent and alternative ITs with regard to IT substitution decision, the advancement-oriented factors could be more accessible to individuals with a promotion focus, whereas the safety-oriented factors could be more salient to individuals with a prevention focus. The promotion focus propels people to focus on the descriptive norms about IT substitution and the perceived relative advantage of alternative IT, whereas the prevention focus makes people more worried about the perceived risk and effort expectancy of alternative IT and concentrate on the injunctive norms about IT substitution and their satisfaction with incumbent IT. Therefore, the following hypotheses can be proposed.

Hypothesis 2: Descriptive norms about IT substitution have a stronger positive influence on intention of IT substitution for promotion-focused individuals than for prevention-focused individuals.

Hypothesis 3: Perceived relative advantage of alternative IT has a stronger positive influence on attitude toward IT substitution for promotion-focused individuals than for prevention-focused individuals.

Hypothesis 4: Injunctive norms about IT substitution have a stronger positive influence on intention of IT substitution for prevention-focused individuals than for promotion-focused individuals.

Hypothesis 5: Perceived effort expectancy of alternative IT has a stronger negative influence on attitude toward IT substitution for prevention-focused individuals than for promotion-focused individuals.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived risk of alternative IT has a stronger negative influence on attitude toward IT substitution for prevention-focused individuals than for promotion-focused individuals.

Hypothesis 7: Satisfaction with incumbent IT has a stronger negative influence on attitude toward IT substitution for prevention-focused individuals than for promotion-focused individuals.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Sample and Data Collection

To test the proposed research model and its associated hypotheses, a web-based survey will be conducted to collect data from people who are considering replacing an IT. To solicit participation, an email invitation will be sent to all registered students, faculty and staff members at a southeast university in the USA. Interested participants may click on the link in the email invitation to be directed to the survey website. A screening question will be included at the

beginning of the survey to determine whether the respondent is currently considering replacing an IT. The survey website will be designed in such a way that only those who are considering replacing an IT will be able to proceed with the survey. To encourage participation, prizes (Amazon.com Gift Cards) will be provided by means of a lucky draw. Respondents will be asked to describe the alternative IT and the incumbent IT they are considering replacing and to respond to all survey questions related to their intentions to substitute the alternative IT for the incumbent IT.

Measures

The survey instrument will be developed by incorporating and adapting existing valid and reliable scales where appropriate. The promotion focus and prevention focus will be measured using Lockwood, Jordan and Kunda's (2002) measurement scales. The measurement scales of perceived relative advantage, perceived effort expectancy, and perceived risk of alternative IT will be adopted from the work of Moore and Benbasat (1991) and Shimp and Bearden (1982). Flavian, Guinaliu, and Gurrea's (2006) measurement scale of satisfaction will be used to measure the satisfaction with incumbent IT. The measures of descriptive norms and injunctive norms about IT substitution will be borrowed from the work of Rimal and Real (Rimal & Real, 2003) and Venkatesh et al. (2003). The measures of attitude toward IT substitution and intention of IT substitution will be derived from the prior work on technology acceptance (Davis, Bagozzi & Warshaw, 1989; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Finally, the participants' voluntariness of IT substitution will be measured as a control variable to assess the extent to which they perceive the decision of IT substitution to be non-mandatory. Since individuals are likely to engage in IT substitution in a mandatory IT substitution context (e.g., in the case of an administrative decision mandating substitution of a new business IT for an incumbent business IT at workplace) regardless of their personal attitudes toward IT substitution, it is necessary to statistically partial out the confounding effect of the participants' voluntariness of IT substitution on their intention of IT substitution.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper explores and models the important factors affecting the intention of IT substitution. The major contributions of this paper are as follows. First, this research recognizes the complex nature of IT substitution and classifies two sets of factors influencing IT substitution attitude and intention along the RF respective. It proposes the differentiated effects of these two sets of factors on different individuals' intentions of IT substitution. This is the first attempt to investigate the antecedents of IT substitution intention from a motivational perspective. Second, this research adds to the RF theory (Higgins, 1997) by developing a model of the moderating effects of regulatory focus on the influences of normative factors and incumbent and alternative ITs' characteristics on IT substitution intention. Third, the proposed research model examines simultaneously the effects of relevant characteristics of both incumbent and alternative ITs and makes it possible to assess their relative weights in determining individuals' intentions of IT substitution. It also further expands beyond the traditional technology adoption research in explaining IT substitution intention. Finally, this paper provides guidance for implementing intervention measures to help in IT substitution.

REFERENCES

Avnet, T., & Higgins, E. T. (2006). How regulatory fit affects value in consumer choices and opinions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *43*, 1–10.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2001a). Understanding information systems continuance: An expectation-confirmation model. *MIS Quarterly*, *25*(3), 351-370.

Bhattacherjee, A (2001b). An empirical analysis of the antecedents of electronic commerce service continuance. *Decision Support Systems*, *32*, 201-214.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1990). Principles of self-regulation. In E. T. Higgins, and R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.). *Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior* (Vol. 2, pp. 3–52). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. F. (1999). Themes and issues in the self-regulation of behavior. In R. S. Wyer (Ed.), *Advances in social cognition* (Vol. 12, pp. 1–106). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cialdini, R. B., Kallgren, C. A., & Reno, R. R. (1991). A focus theory of normative conduct. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *24*, 201–234.

Cialdini, R. B., Reno, R. R., & Kallgren, C. A. (1990). A focus theory of normative conduct: Recycling the concept of norms to reduce littering in public places. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *58*, 1015–1026.

Cialdini R. B., & Trost, M. R. (1998). Social influence: Social norms, conformity, and compliance. In D. T. Gilbert, and S. T. Fiske (Eds.). *The handbook of social psychology* (4th ed., pp. 151-192). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Cialdini, R. B. (2006). *Influence: The psychology of persuasion*. New York: Collins Business Essentials.

Conner, M., & McMillan, B. (1999). Interaction effects in the theory of planned behavior: Studying cannabis use. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *38*, 195-222.

Crowe, E., & Higgins, E. T. (1997). Regulatory focus and strategic inclinations: Promotion and prevention in decision-making. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, *69*, 117-132.

Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. *MIS Quarterly*, *13*(3), 318–330.

Davis, F. D., Bagozzi, R. P., & Warshaw, P. R. (1989). User acceptance of computer technology: a comparison of two theoretical models. *Management Science, 35,* 982-1003.

Delone, W. H., & Mclean, E. R. (1992). Information systems success: The quest for the dependent variable. *Information Systems Research*, *3*, 60-95.

Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influences upon individual judgment. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *51*, 629-636.

Dholakia, U. M., Gopinath, M., Bagozzi, R. P., & Nataraajan, R. (2006). The role of self-regulatory focus in the experience and self-control of desire for temptations. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *16*(2), 163-175.

Donald, I., & Cooper, S. R. (2001). A facet approach to extending the normative component of the theory of reasoned action. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *40*, 599–621.

Eyal, T., Liberman, N., Trope, Y., & Walther, E. (2004). The pros and cons of temporally near and distant action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *86*(6), 781– 95.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: an introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Flavian, C., Guinaliu, M., & Gurrea, R. (2006). The role played by perceived usability, satisfaction and consumer trust on website loyalty. *Information & Management*, *43*, 1-14.

Förster, J., Higgins, E. T., & Bianco, A. T. (2003). Speed/accuracy decisions in task performance: Built-in trade-off or separate strategic concerns*? Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *90*, 148 - 164.

Förster, J., Higgins, E. T., & Idson, L. C. (1998). Approach and avoidance strength during goal attainment: Regulatory focus and the "goal looms larger" effect. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, *75*, 1115-1131.

Gollwitzer, P. M., & Moskowitz, G. B. (1996). Goal effects on action and cognition. In E. T. Higgins, and A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.). *Social psychology. Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 361-399). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Keaveney, S. M. (1995). Customer switching behavior in service industries: An exploratory study. *Journal of Marketing*, *59*, 71–82.

Hart, W., Albarracin, D., Eagly, A. H., Brechan, I., Lindberg, M., Lee, K., & Merrill. L. (2009). Feeling validated versus being correct: A meta-analysis of selective exposure to information. *Psychological Bulletin, 135*(4), 555-588.

Higgins, E. T. (1997). Beyond pleasure and pain. *American Psychologist*, 52, 1280-1300.

Higgins, E. T. (1998). Promotion and prevention: Regulatory focus as a motivational principle. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 30, pp. 1-46). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Higgins, E. T. (2000). Making a good decision: Value from fit. *American Psychologist*, *55*, 1217-1230.

Higgins, E. T. (2005). Value from regulatory fit. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *14*, 209-213.

Higgins, E. T. (2006). Value from hedonic experience and engagement. *Psychological Review*, *113*, 439-460.

Higgins, E. T., & Tykocinski, O. (1992). Self-discrepancies and biographical memory: Personality and cognition at the level of psychological situation. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, *18*, 527-535.

Hornsey, M. J., Majkut, L., Terry, D. J., & McKimmie, B. M. (2003). On being loud and proud: Nonconformity and counter-conformity to group norms. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *42*, 319–335.

Idson, L. C., Liberman, N., & Higgins, E. T. (2000). Distinguishing gains from nonlosses and losses from nongains: A regulatory focus perspective on hedonic intensity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *36*(3), 252-274.

Ives, B., & Olson, M. H. (1984). User involvement and MIS success: A review of research. *Management Science*, *30*(5), 586 - 603.

Kahneman, D., Knetsch, J. L., & Thaler, R. (1990). Experimental Tests of the Endowment Effect and the Coase Theorem. *Journal of Political Economy*, *98*, 1325-1348.

Kahneman, D., Knetsch, J. L., & Thaler, R. (1991). Anomalies: The Endowment Effect, Loss Aversion, and Status Quo Bias. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *5*(1): 193-206.

Lee, A. Y., & Aaker, J. L. (2004). Bringing the frame into focus: The influence of regulatory fit on processing fluency and persuasion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *86*, 205–218.

Lee, A. Y., Keller, P. M., & Sternthal, B. (2010). Value from regulatory construal fit: The persuasive impact of fit between consumer goals and message concreteness. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *36*, 735– 47.

Liberman, N., & Trope, Y. (1998). The role of feasibility and desirability considerations in near and distant future decisions: A test of Temporal Construal Theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *75*, 5–18.

Liberman, N., Idson, L. C., Camacho, C. J., & Higgins, E. T. (1999). Promotion and prevention choices between stability and change. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *77*, 1135-1145.

Liberman, N., Sagristano, M. D., & Trope, Y. (2002). The effect of temporal distance on level of mental construal. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *38*, 523–34.

Lockwood, P., Jordan, C. H., & Kunda, Z. (2002). Motivation by positive or negative role models: Regulatory focus determines who will best inspire us. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 854–864.

Melnyk, V., Van Herpen, E., Fischer, A. R. H., & Van Trijp, H. C. M. (2011). To think or not to think: The effect of cognitive deliberation on the influence of injunctive versus descriptive social norms. *Psychology & Marketing*, *28*, 709–729.

Melnyk, V., Van Herpen, E., Fischer, A. R. H., & Van Trijp, H. C. M. (2013). Regulatory fit effects for injunctive versus descriptive social norms: Evidence from the promotion of sustainable products. *Marketing Letters*, *24*, 191–203.

Melone, N. P. (1990). A theoretical assessment of the user-satisfaction construct in information systems research. *Management Science*, *36*(1), 79-92.

McMillan, B., & Conner, M. (2003). Using the theory of planned behaviour to understand alcohol and tobacco use in students. *Psychology, Health, and Medicine*, *8*, 317–328.

Moore, G. C., & Benbasat, I. (1991). Development of an instrument to measure the perceptions of adopting an information technology innovation. *Information Systems Research*, *2*(3), 192-222.

Payne, J. W., Bettman, J. R., & Johnson, E. J. (1992). Behavioral decision research: A constructive processing perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *43*, 87-131.

Pennington, G. L., & Roese N. J. (2003). Regulatory focus and temporal distance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *39*, 563–76.

Pham, M., & Avnet, T. (2004). Ideals and Oughts and the Reliance on Affect versus Substance in Persuasion. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *30*(4), 503-518.

Pham, M. T., & Higgins, E. T. (2005). Promotion and prevention in consumer decision making: State of the art and theoretical propositions. In S. Ratneshwar, and D. G. MICK (Eds.). *Inside consumption: consumer motives, goals and desires* (pp. 8-43). London and New York: Routledge.

Pires, G., Stanton, J., & Eckford, A. (2004). Influences on the perceived risk of purchasing online. *Journal of Consumer Behavior*, *4*, 118-131.

Prislin, R., & Wood, W. (2005). Social influence in attitudes and attitude change. In D. Albarracín, B. T. Johnson, and M. P. Zanna (Eds.). *The handbook of attitudes* (pp. 671–706). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rimal, R. N., & Real, K. (2003). How behaviors are influenced by perceived norms: A test of the theory of normative social behavior. *Communication Research*, *32*(3): 389–414.

Rivis, A., & Sheeran, P. (2003). Social influences and the theory of planned behavior: Evidence for a direct relationship between prototypes and young people's exercise behavior. *Psychology and Health*, *18*, 567-583.

Rogers, E. M. (1995). *Diffusion of innovations*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Roster, C. A., & Richins, M. L. (2009). Ambivalence and attitudes in consumer replacement decisions. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *19*, 48-61.

Schepers, J., & Wetzels, M. (2007). A meta-analysis of the technology acceptance model: investigating subjective norm and moderation effect. *Information and Management*, *44*(1), 90-103.

Sengupta, J., & Zhou, R. (2007). Understanding impulsive eaters' choice behaviors: The motivational influences of regulatory focus. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *44*(2), 297–308.

Shah J., & Higgins, E. T. (1997). Expectancy X value effects: Regulatory focus as determinant of magnitude and direction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *73*, 447–458.

Shah, J., Higgins, E. T., & Friedman, R. S. (1998). Performance incentives and means: How regulatory focus influences goal attainment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *74*, 285–293.

Shimp, T. A., & Bearden, W. O. (1982). Warranty and other extrinsic cue effects on consumers' risk perceptions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *9*, 39-46.

Smith, J. R., & Louis, W. R. (2008). Do as we say and as we do: The interplay of descriptive and injunctive group norms in the attitude-behavior relationship. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *47*, 647-666.

Steffens, P. R., & Kaya, M. (2009). Drivers of technology substitution: successive generations of high tech products. In L Gillin (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 6th AGSE International Entrepreneurship Research Exchange* (pp. 965-966). Swinburne University of Technology, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, S. Aust.

Tanner, W. P., & Swets, J. A. (1954). A decision-making theory of visual detection. *Psychological Review*, *61*, 401-409.

Thong, J. Y. L., Hong, S., & TAM, K. Y. (2006). The effects of post-adoption beliefs on the expectation-confirmation model for information technology continuance. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, *64*, 799-810.

Tornatzky, L. G., & Klein, K. J. (1982). Innovation characteristics and innovation adoption implementation: a meta-analysis of findings. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, *29*(1), 28-44.

Trope, Y., & Liberman, A. (1996). Social hypothesis testing: Cognitive and motivational mechanisms. In E. T. Higgins and A. W. Kruglanski (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 239–270). New York, NY: Guilford.

Trope, Y., Liberman, N., & Wakslak, C. (2007). Construal levels and psychological distance: Effects on representation, prediction, evaluation, and behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *17*(2), 83–95.

Vallacher, R. R., & Wegner, D. M. (1987). What do people think they are doing? Action identification and human behavior. *Psychological Review*, *94*, 3–15.

Vallacher, R. R., & Wegner, D. M. (1989). Levels of personal agency: Individual variation in action identification. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *57*, 660–671.

Vellido, A., Lisboa, P. J. G., & Meehan, K. (2000). Quantitative characterization and prediction of on-line purchasing behavior: A latent variable approach. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, *4*(4), 83-10

Venkatesh, V., Morris, M. G., Davis, G. B., & Davis, F. D. (2003). User acceptance of IT: Toward a unified view. *MIS Quarterly*, *27*(3), 425–478.

Wang, J., & Lee, A. Y. (2006). The role of regulatory focus in preference construction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *43*, 28–38.

Warburton, J., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Volunteer decision making by older people: A test of a revised theory of planned behavior. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, *22*, 245–257.

Wlodarczyk, T. L., & Tennyson, J. (2003). Social and economic effects from attitudes towards risk. *Impact Assessment and Project Appraisal*, *21*(3), 179-185.

Ye, C., Seo, D., Desouza, K., Papagari, S., & Jha, S. (2008). Influences of IT substitutes and user experience on post-adoption user switching: an empirical investigation. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, *59*(13), 2115-2132.

IMPLEMENTING SERVICE LEARNING INTO ACADEMIC PROGRAMS

Amiee J. Shelton, Roger Williams University
ashelton@rwu.edu

Xenja Lindberg, Roger Williams University
Xlindberg499@g.rwu.edu

ABSTRACT

Engaging in community partnerships provides unique benefits to students, faculty, institutions, and community organizations around the world. Benefits of creating such relationships – known as community engagement in some circles, and in other circles as 'service learning'– leads to financial benefits for the institution, enhances the prestige and visibility of the institution, and strengthens democratic values by reinforcing civic responsibility in students, while expanding job opportunities for graduates. Despite the benefits from creating academic projects designed to engage students in the community as a part of the educational experience, implementation of service learning is not universal. This paper reviews some of the benefits of service learning, identifies commonly perceived difficulties in implementing service learning, offers solutions on how to overcome such difficulties, and finally provides real suggestions to begin implementing service learning, either individually or institutionally.

Keywords: Community partnerships, community engagement, service learning, collaborative learning projects, hands-on-learning,

INTRODUCTION

Service learning and community partnerships are a benefit to students, faculty, institutions, and community partners, in the United States and around the world. Unfortunately, not all institutions utilize service learning to help their students gain vital experiences and skills necessary to advance professionally and become engaged with their communities. This paper reviews the primary benefits of service learning, identifies commonly perceived difficulties to implementing service learning, and offers solutions on how to overcome such difficulties, finally providing models and suggestions for individuals and institutions to begin implementing service learning.

Creating academic projects designed to engage students in the community as a part of the educational experience provides valuable benefits to both academic and business sectors. Benefits of creating such relationships – known as community engagement in some circles, and in other circles as 'service learning'– leads to stronger financial standing, enhances the prestige and visibility of the institution, strengthens democratic values by reinforcing civic responsibility in students, while expanding job opportunities for graduates.

Service is not simply a good in itself, but a means to many ends. Participation makes better citizens. Service learning opportunities lead to subtle changes in participants' character, and

while these changes may come about slowly, they prove to be powerful (Cress, Collier, Reitenauer, & Associates, 2013). Anyone who has actively participated in service takes away the feeling that the experience has changed him or her. Those who observe active participation of others often believe that they see its long-term effects on the citizens' character. "Feelings and opinions are recruited, the heart is enlarged, and the human mind is developed only by the reciprocal influence of men upon one another" (Tocqueville, 2004, p. 631). Community engagement or service learning for our purposes is defined as "a form of experiential education in which students engage in activities that address human and community needs together with structured opportunities intentionally designed to promote student learning and development" (Jacoby and Associates, 1996, p. 5).

It is believed that citizens who participate in such service programs often transform into lifelong volunteers and civic leaders. Service can act as a training program for idealists, many of whom go on to take leading roles in nonprofit and government agencies (Kerns, Shelton, & Puglisi, 2014). Service learning can strengthen the ties that bind us together and have been shown to lead to a lifetime of civic engagement (Bee & Guerrina, 2014).

> Civic engagement is acting upon a heightened sense of responsibility to one's communities. This includes a wide range of activities, including developing civic sensitivity, participation in building civil society, and benefiting the common good. Through civic engagement, individuals—as citizens of their communities, their nations, and the world—are empowered as agents of positive social change for a more democratic world. (Jacoby, 2009, p. 9)

When service is seen as a bridge to genuine political and civic responsibility, it can strengthen democratic government and foster republican virtues (Dionne, 2003). Service connects groups of people that have little to do with each other otherwise. According to Justice Rendell, federal judge on the United States Court of Appeals for the Third Circuit, the concepts of civic responsibility are tools for young students to build "active participation in an expanding, pluralistic society in which citizenship, social responsibility, human rights, community and mutual respect are inseparable" (Rendell, 2006). This awareness can only come from an education where civic learning is integrated with normal pedagogic tools, not as peripheral to curricula, but as a vital component in a comprehensive education. Service learning helps to provide a heightened sense of civic responsibility. Therefore, it is important to provide service-learning opportunities to both undergraduate and graduate students. Young people are eager to participate in activities that improve their communities and their own lives while enhancing their resumes. What is missing is not motivation and interest from young citizens, but rather, the structured opportunities to develop the skills, knowledge and values necessary to "build strong communities and democratic and participatory cultures" (Alessi, 2005).

Service learning provides students an opportunity to take part in new experiences, allowing alternative narratives to be introduced – allowing students to grow, develop, and advance their skills in their intended field, and create mutually beneficial community ties. Service learning opportunities provide students, faculty, and the community with new insights and leads to heightened mutual awareness.

BENEFITS OF EXPANDING SERVICE LEARNING OFFERINGS

Community partnerships broaden and deepen academic experiences for students by allowing them to work on real-world projects, through curriculum-based service learning opportunities. These opportunities allow students to collaborate with nonprofit and community leaders as they seek to achieve their organizational missions and academic learning objectives. The services provided by these partnerships would normally not be available to these organizations due to their cost and/or diverse needs (Kerns et al, 2014). Sometimes service learning can "bring people out of isolation and into a community" and is considered as an act of a good or service (Dionne, & Drogosz, 2003).

While there is empirical support for service learning in general, specific benefits of service learning for students, faculty, and community partners was compiled through a three-year long collaboration between three universities. Led by Elizabeth Kerns at Central Washington State University and joined by Amiee Shelton at Roger Williams University and Gemma Puglisi at American University, qualitative data and anecdotal evidence was pooled, and presented at the Educators Academy of the Public relations Society of America's national conference in 2014. Some of these findings are presented below.

Benefits for students

There are many benefits for students. Specifically adding a service learning component in classrooms can provide well-organized and educationally valid real world experience for students during the appropriate phases of their academic careers, and provide trans-disciplinary opportunities for faculty/student collaboration on project-based activities, effectively linking the classroom with the community (Kerns, et al., 2014). In addition, benefits include the enhancement of student learning through the joining of theory with experience and thought with action. Lastly, service-learning projects provide an opportunity for a community to shape students' values to prepare students for community participation after college (Kerns & Shelton, 2014).

Benefits to faculty

Implementing service learning projects into coursework affords the faculty member serving as the service-learning coordinator a high level of community involvement. This in turn provides necessary insight into the community, and provides the necessary "service" component for the faculty member within their workload agreement for promotion. Projects yield data and case studies for research, which also adds to a promotion file, and provides an outlet for faculty to reinforce the curriculum taught, providing a base to make necessary curriculum changes (Kerns & Shelton, 2014). The service learning component also has the ability to create a network of academics and professionals providing collaboration opportunities, with the ability to share resources, gain new knowledge, and enhance the collective impact of the academic field (Kerns, et al., 2014). Lastly, the collaborative nature of service learning projects, which engage the community, provides excellent material to use to apply for a variety of grants (Kerns & Shelton, 2014) both domestically and abroad.

Benefits for community

Businesses benefit from these partnerships by gaining valuable insight from young professionals with an advisor mentoring the students through the specific project (Kerns et al, 2014). The services provided by the service-learning project can be normally cost prohibitive to service sponsors/community members. Therefore, providing multi-disciplinary assistance to communities and organizations on real projects can improve the economic, social and physical environments (Kerns, et al., 2014). Generally speaking, service learning projects assists to meet unmet community needs, exposes and teaches communities about emerging generations of students. Lastly, these projects can help establish access and connections to other resources available at the college or university for communities (Kerns, et al., 2014).

The multiple benefits of service learning for students, faculty, and community partners, explained above, should put to rest any hesitation that one may have toward the need for implementing service learning into all curriculums across all fields of study. However, there remain, for some, real difficulties in actually implementing service learning that we will discuss.

OVERCOMING DIFFICULTIES IN IMPLEMENTATION

Some institutions do in fact utilize service learning in certain curriculum; the problem is that it often exists in only a few departments within only a handful of classes (Umpleby & Rakicevik, 2008). For many, community engagement is not a universal practice. In the departments where professors are taking initiatives, it can be a struggle to gain recognition and win support from the university as a whole. There are many reasons for why institutions have not, as of yet, realized the enriching impact service learning has on all students in all disciplines. In this section we will highlight a few common difficulties and proven ways of overcoming them. The suggestions provided below are tried and tested by multiple professors from a assortment of institutions.

One key difficulty in the implementation of community projects stems from the terminology. Under socialism, in the Soviet Union for example, there was a strong emphasis on working for the good of the whole society (rather than for the individual), where service was usually required. In fact, it was common practice for the government to announce that students from a particular university, residents of a neighborhood, or workers in a particular factory, would be conscripted for a day or several days to perform a needed task. That "voluntary activity" usually meant a "work day" or "subotnik," thus the term service learning may have negative connotations as people may see the community engagement project as compulsory, uncompensated work. Therefore, framing your community engagement project as one that provides assistance to the community, and focusing on the benefits to the community may overcome negative or mixed feelings.

Another problem we have encountered regards the client selection process for these collaborative learning projects. For some, the decision is influenced by political considerations. For example, faculty members and students might be told to work with one political party over another. Consequently, historical experience causes some to interpret collaborative educational projects as a form of unpaid labor to aid the politically powerful and therefore to be rejected. This is where framing also comes into play. The messages underpinning service-learning projects should

use key words such as “democratic engagement” and “core purpose” of 21st century higher education learning (Calderón, 2007, xxi-xxv).

A lack of confidence has been cited as a potential obstacle in implementing service learning in curricula (Umpleby & Rakicevik, 2008). As many professors probably have not had any experience with service learning as students, they will be cautious about introducing service learning in their courses. To this end, faculty members working together can implement service learning across courses or disciplines. In this way, each instructor will have the support and confidence of the other, allowing them to overcome fears and hesitation jointly (Kerns & Shelton, 2014). There are also a myriad of courses, workshops, and literature available on credible, thoughtful and logistic approaches to creating service learning opportunities and conference across the world feature presentations and panels discussing service-learning opportunities. Examples of organizations include the Public Relations Society of America’s Educator Academy conference, The International Communication Association, The Council of Europe, and more. Many disciplines find ways to reward service learning activities. Professional associations provide space at meetings and in journals for presentations and articles based on service learning teaching and research. The *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* is an example of a peer-reviewed forum for publishing articles on service learning research and pedagogy.

Extra work has also been cited as an obstacle (Kerns & Shelton, 2014; Umpleby & Rakicevik, 2008). While there is definitely a learning curve for instructors when beginning to incorporate service learning projects into their class, Kerns & Shelton (2014) find that after the first year, the time commitment of service learning projects is not more than traditional course preparation. While service learning can be labor intensive at first, educators can quickly learn from others the best design and execution methods to reduce the workload, and specific strategies to manage projects successfully. Therefore, Kerns, et al (2014) recommends recruiting as broad a base of support as possible in creating service-learning program and to work on cutting across departmental and program boundaries to create an interdisciplinary support system.

The question of workload is an important one because a critical question for faculty members considering adopting service learning pedagogy is how the university will evaluate it. Presently, while service is a component in the tenure and promotion process at many universities, it often ranks below research, teaching, and curriculum design. Therefore it is important for faculty members to find ways to engage service learning into all areas of their academic venture. One way to do this, for example, is to develop a portfolio system to document the teaching and learning objectives of service learning courses. This would provide data necessary to build a strong file for tenure or promotion review that may feature heavy service learning opportunities (Daloz, 2000). Overall, there is an expanding body of scholarship that is helping promotion and tenure. For example, the Campus Compact's "Invisible College" is designed to offer professional development support for its members, paralleling more traditional discipline paths. The Campus Compact is a national coalition of nearly 1,100 colleges and universities committed to the public purposes of higher education. The network comprises of a national office and 34 state and regional Campus Compacts. As the only national higher education association dedicated solely to campus-based civic engagement, Campus Compact enables campuses to develop students’ citizenship skills and forge effective community partnerships. There are a myriad of resources to

support faculty and staff as they pursue community-based teaching and scholarship. Additionally, Great Britain, Ireland, Germany, Spain, Switzerland, France have service learning efforts and have horning these methods since the late 1960's. For example, Germany has the Das Hochschulnetzwerk, a coalition of universities, working to increase service learning opportunities and the civic commitment of students. Basically, this network of universities and colleges aims to provide corporate social responsibility at universities.

Some colleagues may be skeptical of service learning, equating it with students' independent community service, and opposing the granting of credit for extra curricular activities. Therefore, peer education is needed to distinguish service learning from community service and to promote widespread development of appropriate service learning opportunities across the curriculum. This is where having interdisciplinary support is important. Speaking from different points of views, and using language inherent in different disciplines, albeit with one voice makes communicating the need for service learning easier (Kerns et al, 2014).

Many students see internships as an important component to supplement coursework (even beyond the required internships that most applied academic programs have). While, many companies choose only the best students for internships and usually only the most motivated and assertive students apply for the best internships, service learning projects are also viable for resumes (Kerns & Shelton, 2014). Therefore, it is vital for students to be introduced to service learning projects as resume enhancing opportunities. Therefore, students will need to be primed to understand the unique learning opportunity they have been given (Kerns et al, 2014). One idea that should be developed in students is the idea that this project goes on their resumes (when job-hunting) in a manner that coursework does not. In fact, many students add a line to their relevant experience section on their resumes with the service learning opportunity. Framing these class projects as training for the real world, and providing a line item on student resumes is the best way to engage student's passions and interests in a project (Kerns & Shelton, 2014).

Students are often reticent to find time outside of class to do project work. Creating service learning projects allows time to be spent in the classroom working on the project, as projects reinforce the theories and practices from lessons plans. This is important regarding both student engagement and time management for the instructor. Projects should be chosen based on how well the goals of the project line up with the course objectives. In this way, assessment of student learning can take place for the course based on the projects implementation, and does not take up additional time for either students or instructors.

IMPLEMENTATION OF COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT

Before we begin a discussion on how you can create community engagement opportunities to capitalize on service learning opportunities, consider this example of a missed opportunity to create a beneficial relationship with the community. There are programs in several institutions of higher education that focus on tourism and culture. Once such program, Management of Culture and Tourism, at Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra (Slovakia) has students create tourism projects as requirements in multiple courses. Hands-on-learning in this case is a strong pedagogical position, as it allows students to learn first hand what it takes to produce meaningful communication with potential tourists. Courses that allow for participation or active learning is

essential for individuals to gain knowledge and develop as citizens. However, in this instance, the students do not work with the community on their tourism projects. Instead, students are given 'mock' clients and told to create projects. However, having students work on their own, and not with the community, actually inhibits student growth, and misses out on a beneficial community relationship. A student who creates a program or project without input from the client does not learn necessary skills in diplomacy, budgeting, listening, negotiation or how to successfully pitch or sell their ideas. But more relevant to our discussion here, the beneficial relationship between the professor, students and this community client was ignored. A long-term relationship could have been easily cultivated in this situation either through regular correspondence, communication, or by simply inviting the tourism board/ NGO etc. to review the final projects and provide feedback. This could have led to a more formalized collaboration between academia and business, and led to future opportunities for the program, the students, and the professor. There are several ways in which a relationship such as this could develop in college courses. It can be done individually, or institutionally.

Individual Implementation

The suggestions in this section stem from the collaboration between Kerns, Shelton, and Puglisi (2014). Each of the suggestions provided below have been used successfully for years in a variety of courses and fields. Each of the professor above have their own method of generating clients, and one does not work better then another. Individually, professors can approach community leaders, local NGOs, small businesses, and tourism boards to see what projects are needed and volunteer free student services. Recruitment of project work also stems from board in which the instructor sit on, coffee house discussions and cold calling. Through these various methods, instructors create a personal connection between their classroom and business/organization leaders and by extension, the university and the community. In this individualized approach, the instructor creates and maintains a dialogue with the public entity, where the outside organization works with students to provide background information and materials to assist the students in their creative pursuits (Kerns & Shelton, 2014). In this situation, the instructor acts as a bridge between the 'client' and the student learners. Therefore, it is vitally important that the professor/instructor try to establish clear guidelines regarding what the final product delivered by the students will include (Kerns, et al., 2014) and disseminated to both students and community partners.

Often times, the biggest concern for the professor/instructor is to convince the organization to permit the students' access to and permission to use, logos and other organizational collateral material for the purpose of creating this project. When getting access to what come consider propriety information, it is important that the students and community organization understand that the logos and creative materials designed for the project by the students of the outside organization are for the purpose of creating various tangibles. In some cases, the instructor/professor can ensure that these tangibles are not disseminated, but are created for the purpose of an educational experience (Kerns, et al., 2014). At the end of the course, students would present the material to the outside organization, and receive feedback. This presentation usually takes place either at the university or at the community organization at a pre-arranged time acceptable for all entities. The organization would then have permission to use any creative work that came from this relationship. In the U.S., this type of relationship has been found to be

productive regarding student internship opportunities and future employment opportunities (Kerns, et al., 2014). These community partnerships broaden and deepen the academic experiences of students by allowing them to work on real-world projects, through curriculum-based and service learning opportunities, collaborating with nonprofit and community leaders as they seek to achieve their missions. From these relationships, the university and professor is set to receive positive publicity, stronger community support, and the potential for grant money from a variety of funding sources in the United States and internationally.

This individual model works in any classroom, but specifically fits well with courses in project management, tourism, message design, creative endeavors, and even theory courses. The strengths of service learning come from teaching students to be accountable for what they are doing (Cress, et al., 2013). This approach also works in both liberal arts and professional degree programs. Students at both the undergraduate and graduate levels could complete these projects. However, these projects should be meaningful and thoughtful, and address real community needs. These projects provide real world experience that is integrated with student growth as scholars, future practitioners and future leaders of the United States and countries around the world. The participation in collaboration projects between students, faculty, and the community is extremely vital to student education and for the faculty member. Kerns and Shelton (2014) find that these projects need to be planned out stage by stage, with a clear link to course materials. Class time should be set aside or reflection, on behalf of the students, to understand the link to educational content and curricula (Kerns, et al., 2014). For example, students could be asked about their perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of working with a community organization, or if and how engaging in community projects affected their learning experience in the class. In this way, the students and faculty are involved not in isolation or in addition to classroom obligations but as a part of teaching and closely associated with professional learning.

Below are six additional basic guidelines to successfully implement community engagement projects/service learning into classroom (Kerns, et al., 2014):

1. Have an application process (paper or online);

2. Set clear expectations within your syllabus/ handbook, for students;

3. Provide clear learner outcomes on student - client relationship for the client and students;

4. Create a client contract or memo of understanding signed by all parties involved;

5. Set aside time in class for a self reflection component for students to identify the benefit of working with community, and to be able to ask questions;

6. Reinforce common sense for students: Be professional (attire, speech, electronic communication), meet deadlines, know your target publics, work well within groups, ability to multitask etc.

Students have been found to appreciate the engagement opportunities after the fact. Reflection questions often yield responses such as “when working with the community we are able to make

a difference and see our work in affect" (Kerns & Shelton 2014). Classes with community engagement opportunities are noted for emphasizing critical thinking and personal reflection while encouraging a sense of community participation in civic engagement and personal responsibility (Cress, et al., 2013). Students also report "feeling great to be at a university that produces professionals who will go out to the world and use their knowledge and skills to help people" (Kerns & Shelton 2014).

Professors that create community engagement opportunities in their courses, emphasize how crucial it is to engage in our local communities because they depend on institutions of higher education just as institutions depend on them. Service-learning components are an important tool for learning how to take a thoughtfully informed and rational approach to living and working in community that is tempered by active empathy, respect, and care (Cress, et al., 2013).

It is important to note that one department, or even one faculty member, who supports community engagement and service learning, and introduces it within his or her discipline, begins the first step to a university-wide commitment.

Institutional Implementation

A second way of creating these key town-gown relationships is by the creation of a Community Partnership Center in your department or institution. A community partnership center could provide project-based assistance to nonprofit organizations, municipalities, government agencies in low and moderate-income communities in the United States and internationally. One such program, at Roger Williams University (RWU) in the U.S. has as its mission, "to undertake and complete projects that will benefit the local community, while providing RWU students with experience in real-world projects that deepen their academic experiences" (2015). In this way the community partnership center draws upon the skills and experiences of students and faculty from university academic programs in areas such as: English and American Studies, Mass Media Communication and Advertising, Language Pedagogy and Intercultural Studies, Department of Pedagogy and School Psychology, Information Technology, Archeology, Journalism, Folk Studies, and Museum Studies. The services provided by this partnership would normally not be available to these organizations due to their cost and/or diverse needs. Another example is the Coalition for Civic Engagement and Leadership (CCEL) at the University of Maryland. Created in 2004, the CCEL is comprised of university programs that have joined in common purpose to promote the integration of civic engagement and leadership into the educational experience of the university's students. Consistent with the mission of the University of Maryland, the purpose of CCEL is to enhance the education of students to become civically engaged citizens, scholars, and leaders in communities on campus and in the state, the nation, and the world. CCEL consists of a Steering Committee and subcommittees of faculty, staff, and students. It reports jointly to the Vice President for Student Affairs and the Senior Vice President for Academic Affairs and Provost.

A center should, at its onset, have a dedicated person coordinating university efforts to send out fluid, integrated information to the faculty about what this center does and how it can help the instructor in both in class and out of class projects. The coordinator should also be responsible

for two-way communication with various organizations in the community, to explain how this center will benefit them.

According to Roger Williams University (2015), five goals of the center and the coordinator should be:

1. Provide a standardized system for soliciting appropriate projects with qualified community partners and efficiently synthesizing those projects with academic programs.

2. Provide well-organized and educationally valid real world experience for undergraduate and graduate students

3. Provide trans-disciplinary opportunities for faculty/student collaboration on project-based activities, linking the classroom with the community.

4. Provide multi-disciplinary assistance to communities and organizations on real projects.

5. Create and maintain strong, functional, long-term relationships with community and government partners.

Educators from all institutes of higher education must commit their resources, which include facilities, finances, faculty expertise, as well as the energy, idealism, and intelligence of their students, to service learning. For those educators and institutions that are willing to institutionalize community engagement, the result is a revitalized institution and a renewed energy for teaching and learning (Cress, et al., 2013).

CONCLUSION

Service learning and community engagement partnerships are a benefit to students, faculty, institutions, and community partners, in the United States and around the world. Unfortunately, not all institutions utilize service learning to help their students gain vital experiences and skills necessary to advance themselves in their professional endeavors, while being more involved in their communities. This paper shared some of the benefits of service learning, identified commonly perceived difficulties in implementing service learning, offered solutions on how to overcome such difficulties, and finally provided real suggestions to begin implementing service learning, either individually or institutionally.

REFERENCES

Alessi, B. (2004). *Service as a strategy for children and youth*. Innovations in Civic Participation. Washington, D.C. Retrieved from http://www.icicp.org

Bee, B., & Guerrina, R. (2014). Participation, dialogue, and civic engagement: understanding the role of organized civil society in promoting active citizenship in the european union, *Journal of Civil Society*, *10*(1), 29-50.

Campus Compact. (2015). Compact.org. Retrieved from http://compact.org/

Community Partnerships Center. *Partnerships & Initiatives*. Roger Williams University (2015). Retrieved from http://www.rwu.edu/about/partnerships-initiatives/cpc

Calderón, J. (Ed.). (2007). *Introduction to Race, Poverty, and Social Justice: Multidisciplinary Perspectives through Service Learning*, Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Cress, C., Collier, P., Reitenauer, V. & Associates. (2013). *Learning through serving: a student guidebook for service-learning and civic engagement across academic disciplines and culture communities.* Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Daloz, L. A. (2000). Transformative learning for the common good. In J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Learning and transformation: Critical perspectives on a theory in progress*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dionne, E., Drogosz, K., & Litan, R. (Eds.). (2003). *United we serve: national service and the future of citizenship.* Washington DC: The Brookings Institute.

Jacoby, B., & Associates. (2009). *Civic Engagement in Higher Education: Concepts and Practices.* San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Jacoby, B. (1996). *Service-learning in higher education: Concepts and practices*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kerns, E., Shelton, A., & Puglisi, G. (2014, October). *Service Learning Strategic partnerships between universities and businesses.* Panel discussion at the Public Relations Society of America Educators Academy Conference, Washington D.C.

Kerns, E., & Shelton, A. (2014). *Beneficial Outcomes for Universities with Service Learning Initiatives.* [PowerPoint Slides]

Rendell, M. (2006, November). *Representative democracy in America: voices of the people*. Speech presented at Fourth Annual Congressional Conference on Civic Education in Washington, D.C.

Tocqueville, A. (2004). Of The Use Which The Americans Make Of Public Associations In Civil Life. *Democracy in America II, 2(1)*. Bantam, New York.

Umpleby, S., & Rakicevik R. (2008). *The Adoption of service learning in universities around the world. South East European Journal of Economics and Business 2*(2), *69-74.* DOI: 10.2478/v10033-007-0007-z

This page has been intentionally left blank.

Blank inside back cover.

QUARTERLY REVIEW OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES

VOLUME 2 NUMBER 1 MAY 2015

This issue is now available online at www.iabd.org.

A JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL ACADEMY OF BUSINESS DISCIPLINES
SPONSORED BY UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA
ISSN 2334-0169 (print)
ISSN 2329-5163 (online)