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Abstract

Job satisfaction is of primary importance in the professional world. The best performers are most noticed as overall satisfied workers. While performing well on the job is a very important part of any professional's life, it is closely linked to a balance that they maintain with their life, overall. It is believed that Work Life Balance (WLB) leads to job satisfaction (JS). In addition to WLB, Leadership Engagement in the Workplace (LEW) and Conflict Management Training (CMT) has also been observed as a key variable in terms of Job Satisfaction (JS) during the development of this research model. This research has been specifically conducted on Women in Technology (WT) in Pakistan. A quantitative research method was used to carry out analysis of these factors affecting the JS in project-based work environments. In this research the focal point of reference for identification of impacts of LEW, WLB and CMT through structured research on various project levels. The results clearly represent the need to emphasize the importance of the role of structured management techniques through certain beneficial behaviours of LEW, CMT and WLB in order to ensure employee retention and avoid turnover rate of employees due to job dissatisfaction. The theoretical model proposed is recommended to be tested for application in other parts of the world as well. It has been revealed through this study that JS is particularly dependent on the aforementioned variables.

Key words: *Work life balance, Women in technology, Leadership Engagement in the Workplace, Conflict management training, Conflict Management, Project Management, Job Satisfaction*

Introduction

1.1. Background:

Job satisfaction is of primary importance in the professional world. Happier people may be more satisfied with their jobs and perhaps vice versa. The best performers are most noticed as overall satisfied workers. While performing well on the job is a very important part of any professional's life, it is closely linked to a balance that they maintain with their life, overall. It is believed that Work Life Balance (WLB) leads to job satisfaction (JS). In addition to WLB, Leadership Engagement in the workplace (LEW) and also conflict management training (CMT) has also been observed as a key variable in terms of Job Satisfaction (JS). Keeping in view the gender demands in the general professional sector of Pakistan with a special focus on women in technology of Pakistan, a questionnaire survey was conducted from the Telecom companies, Defense organizations and IT women professionals in Pakistan. This paper determines the importance of the impact of LEW, CMT and WLB on JS in the female professionals.

The impact of the term work life balance (WLB) is heard of but previously, its importance was not clearly undertaken as management's responsibility. The advent of the awareness of evolved leadership practices could bring a positive influence and impact a significant amount on Job Satisfaction (JS) in the form of reduced employee turnover. With the advent of Multinational projects, corporations and more notably "Project Management Practices" the perception of managing the WLB and turnover intentions of employees due to job dissatisfaction in successful project teams has also evolved. This study is an effort to contribute to the database that exists regarding women in technology and how the variables undertaken in this research interact to provide clarity on a potential When an employee of any gender is faced with physical, mental and emotional exhaustion they resort to various coping behaviors.

The negative and positive effect of any chosen coping behaviors on work/ project performance and their impact on functional capabilities is also widely misinterpreted. The management's role in setting a standard to balance an employees work and domestic life has been widely ignored, in general, until the project management practices and researches in WLB have come to light, more significantly in 2005-2010, which was accompanied by an intense project management practices' awareness in Pakistan's work environment. The requirement being that the process itself should be structured and conducted properly. Leadership engagement in the workplace has set the trend for overall more satisfied team members at the project level itself. In most cases the importance WLB and Leadership indulgence in the project work itself is waived aside because they are often misinterpreted or misunderstood due to the wrongful cultural and traditional leadership techniques. Also WLB are often misconstrued being the point of focus for resolution in an imbalance of Work & Life of an employee. Whereas this may be the case in some organizations, it is not true for most, as project management has evolved so as the project management teams' exposure to changing management/leadership styles. Compared to the past Pakistani trends, the strategies for JS is now more focused on applying the latest project management styles and hence the concept of a "WLB" is coming into being a more and more reliable way to build effective or "happy" teams or direct a project keeping in mind that the correct methods are focused upon for successful implementation of said strategies. Some organizations which have a very high turnover rate in female employees have resorted to regular Time/Stress/Anger/Conflict management training sessions as one way to resolve the emotional burnout aspect of WLB imbalances.

Project sponsors, Project managers and Project teams have become more and more aware of project management practices, the importance of conflict management techniques and skills along with the positive impact WLB management may have on the overall outcome of a project as a result of Job Satisfaction JS..

1.2. Rationale of the study:

The rationale of this study is to stress upon the importance of the LEW, WLB, CMT & JS factors and behaviors as well as their impact on successful project outcomes in any project oriented environment. Work Life Balance's concept has gained the importance in recent past. Initially, this subject was raised by the working mothers during the 1960s and 1970s in the UK. This concept has emerged as a result of the performance culture that expects more and more from the employees, especially now, with more and more women stepping actively in equality with men in the work force even in developing countries like Pakistan.

It is pertinent to note that in this research, we discuss the WLB and JS in women in the telecom, engineering and IT profession in Pakistan. Although an argument can arise that their WLB and CMT factors vary due to the cultural aspect such as leaving work after getting married and/or vice versa but in fact, the cosmopolitan women that we have chosen for this research are not bringing the perceived culture of our region into this professional research at the moment. They believe they are at par with the male peers and make a valuable contribution to this cause. They have answered questions based on purely professional and basic domestic responsibilities that now even men have to participate in such as caring for children and paying timely bills, balancing family time and such.

The influence of Work Life Balance on overall job satisfaction needs to be stressed to a greater limit. Previously, a similar study was specifically undertaken to evaluate the Work life balance (WLB) and Job Satisfaction (JS) of doctors in Pakistan. Organizations are now prone to recognize the positive role of management techniques through research. The misconception that we have in Pakistan that organizations will be unwilling to share their data or information for such a research is no more, as more and more organizations are willing to partake in research to find helpful ways of evaluating which conflict management factors have a positive or negative impact on the outcome of their projects.

1.3. Aim of the study:

The study intends to add to the database of knowledge that exists in terms of project based women in technology and their WLB and JS with their effect on overall Job Satisfaction (JS). In addition to WLB, the effect of LEW and CMT in the workplace is also observed quantitatively and its impact on JS is studied. This study is aimed at breaking down those variables provided in a prior study along with two additional variables which have not been observed together with WLB in any prior research the author has observed. The applicability of these three variables is tested in the mentioned professional sectors in Pakistan and the study intends to recommend a model which can be applied to other developing and developed countries around the globe. The reason for choosing these Independent variables i.e. Leadership Engagement in the Workplace (LEW), Work Life Balance (WLB) and Conflict Management Training and Resolution (CMT) is to explore and gather correct data and to research, one by one, what factors in the process have a significant positive or negative impact on Job Satisfaction (JS).

1.4. Research Objective:

The research objective of this study is to gather insight from Project Managers and project based teams members, specifically women in technology on the project level on how they identify the existence of LEW, WLB and CMT and its impact on their JS. This research is going to focus on these three independent variables and their effect on overall JS in female professionals in telecom, engineering and in IT in Pakistan.

1.5. Research Question:

The research question for this study is do the factors i.e. Leadership Engagement in the Workplace (LEW), Work Life Balance (WLB) and Conflict Management Training and Resolution (CMT) have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction?

1.6. Delimitations of the study:

The delimitations of the study are the application of this research to construction, asynchronous teams, academia and other project related industries around the globe.

2. Literature Review:

2.1. Concept & Definitions:

Different authors give various definitions of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable, emotional, state resulting from appraisal of one's job, an effective reaction to one's job (Weiss, 2002). Moreover, job satisfaction is considered a strong predictor of overall individual well-being (Diaz-Serrano & V.Cabral, 2005), as well as a good predictor of intentions or decisions of employees to leave a job (Gazioglu and Tansel, 2002). Job satisfaction is defined, as it is result of various attitudes the person hold towards the job, towards the related factors and towards the life in general (Glimmer Consultants 1999). Job satisfaction is defined as "any contribution, psychological, physical, and environmental circumstances that because a person truthfully says, 'I am satisfied with my job'" (Vroom, 1964). Job satisfaction is also identified as employee's judgment of how well his job on the whole is satisfying his various needs (Smith, 1969). Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive state of mind resulting from appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976).

One of the biggest preludes to the study of job satisfaction was the Hawthorne studies. These studies (1924–1933), primarily credited to Elton Mayo (1926-1940) of the Harvard Business School, sought to find the effects of various conditions (most notably illumination) on workers' productivity. These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase.

The term job satisfaction was brought to lime light by Hoppock in 1935. He revived 35 studies on job satisfaction conducted prior to 1933 and observes that Job satisfaction is combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances. That causes a person to say. "I am satisfied with my job". Such a description indicate the variety of variables that influence the satisfaction of the individual but tell us nothing about the nature of Job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been most aptly defined by Pestonjee in 1973 as a job, management, personal adjustment & social requirement. Morse (1953) considers Job satisfaction as dependent upon job content, identification with the company, financial & job status & priding group cohesiveness.

These studies ultimately showed that novel changes in work conditions temporarily increase productivity (called the Hawthorne Effect). It was later found that this increase resulted, not from the new conditions, but from the knowledge of being observed.

This finding provided well-built evidence that people work for purposes other than pay, which lined the way for researchers to examine other factors in job satisfaction.

Scientific management (aka Taylorism) also had a significant impact on the study of job satisfaction. Frederick Winslow Taylor's 1911 book titled Principles of Scientific Management, argued that there was a single best way to perform any given work task. This book contributed to a change in industrial production philosophies, causing a shift from skilled labor and piecework towards the more modern approach of assembly lines and hourly wages. The initial use of scientific management by industries greatly increased productivity because workers were forced to work at a faster pace. However, workers became exhausted and dissatisfied, thus leaving researchers with new questions to answer regarding job satisfaction.

It should also be noted that the work of W.L. Bryan, Walter Dill Scott and Hugo Munsterberg set the tone for Taylor's work.

Sometimes it is argued that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, a motivation theory, laid the foundation for job satisfaction theory. This theory explains that people seek to satisfy five specific needs in life – physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, self-esteem needs, and self-actualization. The model by Maslow also served as a good basis from which early researchers could develop job satisfaction theories.

2.2. Literature Gaps:

Impact of different factors on job satisfaction has been analyzed in the literature Review. Some studies focus on demographic determinants of workers job satisfaction but, the others relate it with nature of work and working conditions at the workplace. Similarly, work life balance and burnout factors are also among the popularly studied variables. This study contributes the impact of role of leadership engagement and stress management skill set at work and work life balance on job satisfaction. The above literature review leads to the conclusion that when it comes to scholarly work, a database exists regarding the analysis of WLB behavioral factors of women (non specifically but not typically in the healthcare sector) impacting Job Satisfaction (JS) but not in the specific context of women in technology. In fact, this subject has mostly been explored in healthcare professionals but rarely in professionals in technology and more specifically only women. The adoptability of the model extracted from the research carried out by Muhammad Imran Malik*, Farida Saleem and Mehboob Ahmad in their research carried out in 2010 titled "Work-Life Balance and Job Satisfaction Among Doctors in Pakistan" has not been integrated with any other proposed model and applied to Pakistan's project oriented work environment as yet. The applicability of Job Satisfaction (JS) attainability while maintaining a LEW,WLB and CMT is explored and integrated in the proposed model applied to the tech sector in Pakistan in this research in the pursuit to shed some light on this often unexplored area.

• Women in Technology (WT)

In the past decades, more and more organizations are striving to encourage more girls and young women to develop computer skills and pursue technology jobs and careers. According to an online article by Courtney Hunt (2014) many of these groups focus on STEM (science, technology, engineering and math) fields more broadly, but there's a particular emphasis on computer science in most of them. While there is a consensus among women that we need more females in STEM fields and support the individuals and organizations that are striving to break down barriers and create opportunities to improve the gender balance in technology fields and firms in particular. However the term is not specified to only individuals who Code or work solely in Information Technology.

Women are considered “Women in Technology (WT)” whether they are a coder, a tech entrepreneur or not – at least not in the commonly-assumed sense. Women who are making strong contributions in technology-focused areas without being employed by technology firms or educated only in technology-related fields. Such is the diverse field of work where WT contribute and hence particularly the organizations striving to encourage more girls and young women to develop computer skills and pursue technology jobs and careers. Many of these groups focus on STEM (science, technology, engineering and math) fields more broadly, but there’s a particular emphasis on computer science in most of them. The consensus is in favor of more females in STEM fields and also in the support of the individuals and organizations that are striving to break down barriers and create opportunities to improve the gender balance in technology fields and firms in particular. However, one can’t escape the fact that women are considered “Women in Technology,” even if they are neither a coder nor a tech entrepreneur – at least not in the commonly-assumed sense. And the professional industry is regularly reminded that there are many women who are making strong contributions in technology-focused areas without being employed by technology firms or educated in technology-related fields.

• **Determinants of Job Satisfaction (JS)**

According to Lee and Ho (1989) participation of employees in decision making process adds positively in employee’s job satisfaction. Job satisfaction and work motivation among the managers of Chinese restaurant in Hong Kong was studied by Lam et al. (2001). The result of the study showed that the job itself, work environment and rewards are the important determinants of job satisfaction in that industry. WLB has important consequences for employee attitudes towards their organizations as well as for the lives of employees (Scholarios & Marks, 2004).

The work-life boundary may be important in the management of the highly-skilled workers for instance, technical professionals, whose commitment may be a challenge to the employer (Scandura & Lankau, 1997; Davenport, 1999). Ivancevich et al. in 1997, defined job satisfaction as feeling and perception of a worker regarding his/her work and how he or she feels himself well in an organization. According to Davis & Newstrom in 1999, job satisfaction is an experience which has various aspects. The most significant aspects are those which are relevant to working conditions and the nature of work. Low job autonomy, low job security, low wages and lack of expectation for promotion negatively affect job satisfaction of employees (Guest, 2004 & Silla et al., 2005). Garrido et al. also conducted the research in 2005 to discover the factors that determine the job satisfaction of sales managers.

When work interferes with family life it also reduces the satisfaction from job and from life as a whole (Adams et al., 1996). Markow and Klenke in 2005 and Milliman et al. in 2003 documented that leadership spiritually is a major determinant to enhance the employees’ efficiency, job satisfaction, and loyalty coupled with a decrease in employees’ turnover intentions. According to Hackman and Oldham in 1980 job satisfaction is a multifaceted phenomenon that consists of factor such as supervision at work, work itself, compensation and benefits, promotion policies of organization, appraisal and coworkers’ attitude. People are much concern about pay and leadership behavior. Having a group culture is a key factor in the extent to which leadership behavior is adopted, as well as how effective adopting HRM practices are for increasing labor productivity and job satisfaction (Patel & Cardon, 2010). The importance of work spiritually is consistently found to be growing as the spiritual cause leads to strategic benefits to the business unit and due to the significant contribution of team work spiritually (Gogoi , 2005).

A team or group of people in work area (Dunkerley, 1975) direction is provided by top management and alignment with customers also. Dynamic changes in a company are only possible with complete understanding of management. An effective management has capability to understand failure in a team work. The concept autonomy has its roots in political, bioethical and moral attitude. Having this background, it represents the capacity to make an unforced and informed decision by a rational individual. In the literature of political and moral philosophy, autonomy is considered as a foundation for determination of moral responsibility for an individual’s actions.

This term also refers to state of the self-governing of the people (Smith, 1993). Leadership create the eagerness for improvement in productivity, growth and abilities of workers by building perception of organization based on the principles of love, sincerity and care to achieve the objective of loyalty of workers with organizations (Aydin & Ceylan, 2009).

• **Job Satisfaction (Dependent Variable)**

Job satisfaction can be defined as the extent to which a person’s desires, hopes and expectations about the employment he is engaged in are fulfilled. Job satisfaction is dependent variable in this study. Job satisfaction depends on the various factors; few of them are discussed in the study; Leadership Engagement at Work, Work Life Balance and Conflict Management Training and Resolution (CMT). Job Satisfaction is impacted and affected by the Independent variables.

• **Leadership Engagement at Work - LEW(Independent Variable)**

Leadership Engagement at work offers multiple facets out of which we will observe three. The psychological state engagement, behavioral engagement and trait engagement of leadership in the observed population. Being another one of the independent variables in this study, this was one of the variables highly encouraged during questionnaire testing phase. In addition, we offer recommendations regarding the effects of leadership engagement on various levels in the workplace itself.

• **Work Life Balance - WLB(Independent Variable)**

Work–life balance is a wide model including suitable prioritizing between ‘work’ (career) on the one hand and ‘life’ (Health, sports, family, pleasure) on the other. Work Life Balance is one of the Independent Variables in this study. Work life balance is known to affect the job satisfaction and it is aimed to study to what significant value or insignificant value it does.

• **Conflict Management Training/ Skill building – CMT (Independent Variable)**

Conflict management training comprises of associated management components such as stress management and anger management during conflict management techniques. A simple component such as CMT creates the awareness and was found in this study to reduce the conflict engagement by trained professionals The reason quoted during interviews as being that they were better skilled to manage their anger during conflict and also identify the causes of conflict in their environment. Hence, CMT training aids in managing and mitigating various negative feelings that interfere with the task during a project life cycle itself. CMT is one of the Independent Variables in the study. CMT is also found to affect the job satisfaction.

Also, it is observed that the same model may be researched for its applicability on virtual asynchronous teams working from within Pakistan and may be extended to other regions of the world.

2.3. Critical analysis of the literature

Factors of job satisfaction (Dawson, 1987), the effect of rank, age, gender and length of service on job satisfaction of employees was studied by Oshagbemi (2003) for the universities in United Kingdom (UK). The study establishes individual’s rank within the organization as a main forecaster of job satisfaction and there was significant correlation between the rank and job satisfaction. Further on the length of service was significantly and negatively correlated to the job satisfaction. But the relationship between job satisfaction, gender & age was found to be insignificant for employees of the UK institutes.

There is a lot of conversation in literature on the position of gender in job satisfaction but, there is a great controversy in such studies. Some studies institute that women employees are more satisfied with their jobs than men employees but, the other studies on the gender issue prove the opposite (Weaver, 1974; Shaprio and Stern, 1975; Forgionne and Peters, 1982; Clark, 1997; Ward and Sloane, 1998).

According to him this difference in expectation may be the cause of difference in the level of job satisfaction between women and men. According to Lee and Ho in 1989, participation of employees in decision making process adds positively in employee's job satisfaction. According to Eason, 1989, lack of training, insufficient support of top management and workers union and non-supportive behavior of supervisors are main obstruction in building high powered teams. This is where an attempt to study LEW and CMT skills are integrated in the proposed research, in order to study the effects of some of these factors better. Improper planning is among the largest mistakes made at the time of attractive reward system and team building is the easiest thing to forget. And anywhere you have teams, conflict is natural and possibly productive. For the survival and proprietary of self-directed teams, extrinsic reward systems as well as intrinsic play a vital role according to Hackman in 1990. In a recent study it was found that among conflict management behaviors (CMB), competition CMB has been seen to have the most significant impact on a successful outcome in a project, possibly due to the work culture and effective techniques to deal with high stress situations in most turnkey projects. CMBs all mirror some apprehension for the mission as all parties look for full information and work resolutely for the solution. For time-limited project teams, a conflict management method may assist arrange and focus team communications such that information is discovered more swiftly and more effective work is permitted. This may raise the productivity with performance of the teams and can have a positive outcome on project success (Shirazi, S., 2014). It is very important to look into the factors behind the declining job satisfaction. Satisfaction level of the employees working as a team is very important because it directly involves their performance on their job. Identification of such factors precisely becomes the key to hang on to and elevate the satisfaction level of the employees (James, 1996).

3. Theoretical Framework

3.1. Theoretical/Conceptual Framework and Description of Variables

In this research the independent variables are the "Leadership Engagement at Work, Work Life Balance and Conflict Management Training" and the dependent variable is "Job Satisfaction". These variables will be measured through data collection which we will gather through questionnaire and their impact will be analyzed through the measuring technique selected for this research.

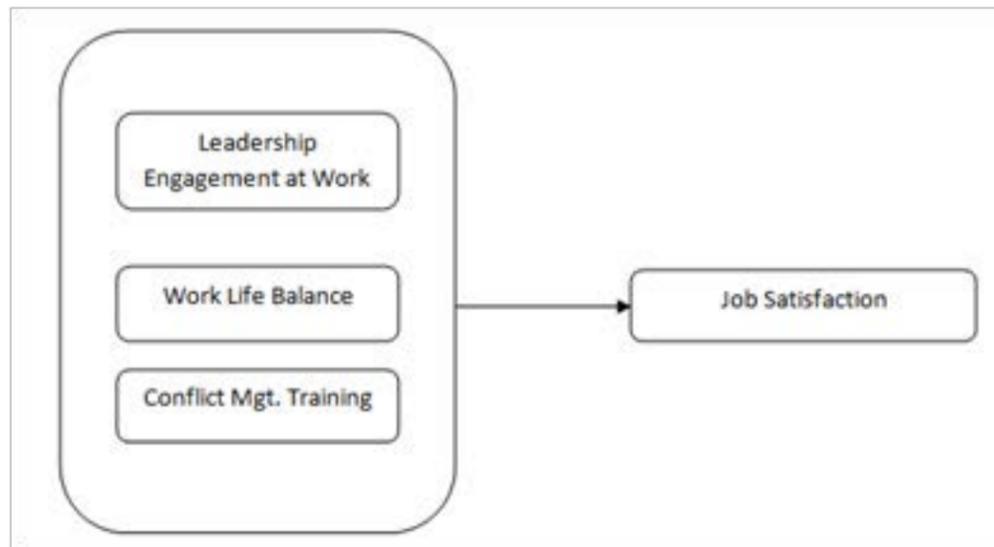


Figure 1

3.2. Proposed Model

The dependent variable in the study is Job Satisfaction, whereas independent variables i.e.; Leadership Engagement at Work, Work Life Balance and Conflict Management Training. The relationship between independent and dependent variable is measured with the help of the selected questionnaire.

Based on interviews of project managers from a few firms, there are significant evidences that those working in the project based telecom/engineering/IT sector in Pakistan are not accustomed to the presence of a more obvious WLB and CMT oriented management concern, especially after the telecom and IT boom took place in the region around 2005. The fact that LEW, WLB and CMT is making waves in the current landscape of the industry is credited to the multinational work environment, project management practices and a shift in the project management styles which the Pakistani professionals were exposed to and that they eagerly accepted. It has been observed and through interviewing techniques in this research paper, that project based professionals are now acknowledging the presence of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among teams as it is very basic human nature to have an independent point of view instead of perceiving it as insubordination. Conflict management awareness and training has caused a greater understanding of what drives conflict and how to manage it best during various project phases in order to gain productivity out of various conflict management behaviours. The focus of organizations has shifted from firing de-motivated employees to reinforcing systems that aid in increasing LEW, WLB and CMT in order to retain their top and up and coming performers. The hypotheses for this study are:

H1: Leadership Engagement at Work has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction

H2: Work life balance has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction

H3: Conflict Management Training has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction

4. Research Methodology

4.1. Sample Selection

In this research data is collected from various sources including Engineering, IT & Telecom Project based organizations and interviews. Fortunately, the strict terminology of "Work Life Balance and Job Satisfaction" is well known to respondents, so it was convenient to brief the respondents about the subject initially. To gather the data, a list was initially prepared the list of potential respondents through brainstorming and expert judgment techniques. Based on the convenience sampling technique, questionnaire was to various respondents. Convenient sampling was used for the collection of the data by questionnaires. Response rate greater than 80 % was achieved.

4.2. Measurement Frame

This study inspects the relationship between job satisfaction with WLB, LEW and CMT on JS in women in Technology. The questionnaire was developed in 2014, tested and then data was gathered from the relevant organizations. Part of the questionnaire was adopted from the study done by Muhammad Imran Malik, Farida Saleem and Mehboob Ahmad - Work-Life Balance and Job Satisfaction among Doctors in Pakistan in 2010. The sections of the questionnaire that were applied were the ones that relate only to the relevant variables which is the correlation between WLB & JS.

As these areas, especially job satisfaction (JS) indicates, work life balance can have a very demanding and complex impact on a professional's capability to perform effectively on a project. The questionnaire was measured on a five point scale from 1-5 where 1 = Strongly Agree, 2 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Disagree, and 5 = Strongly Disagree. This scale was pre-tested and found to be valid and reliable with Chronbach's Alpha equal to more than 0.7. As most market researchers prefer that the optimal level of scale entries should be content specific and respondents should make a specific response instead of a socially acceptable neutral midpoint rating scale.

4.3. Procedure

This study was supported on primary data. The questionnaire was personally explained to groups which further monitored the respondents in their organizations and professional circles. The questionnaire was distributed among 140 respondents. Only one questionnaire was given to each respondent. Before handing over the questionnaires, questions were explained to the respondents so they could complete the questionnaire and the results could be extracted.

4.4. Unit of Analysis

The collection of data in any study can be focused on organization, departments, work group and individuals. For this study the main source of information was Project based engineering, IT & telecom organizations and concerns. Basically wherever we have women in tech, these questionnaires were distributed. The population frame chosen for this particular research is a number of engineering organizations and software companies comprising of performance related tech projects, the respondents who answered the questionnaires prefer to remain anonymous in order to deliver honest responses.

4.5. Type of Study

This research is quantitative as well as qualitative as the interview technique was also used in some cases to get a theoretical point of view of the typical project manager and teams. The study can be categorized in to exploratory research, descriptive research and hypothesis testing. Exploratory research is under taken to gain better understand of dimensions of a problem whereas descriptive research is use to describe the characteristics of a population. Hypothesis testing is use to explain relationship between different variables.

4.6. Time Horizon

This study was conducted in multiple engineering, IT & telecom project based organizations. This research & model may be extended to larger and asynchronous project teams, education and academia as well. Hence, respondents in this study also form three types. On the other hand, this study is only focused on three dimensions or factors of WLB on Job Satisfaction (JS). More factors may be incorporated to extend the model for more diversity such as conflicting perceptions of individual roles in project teams and conflicting cultural and /or personal values among project team members.

5. Data Analysis Methodology

5.1. Data Collection

Suitable data collection method was used; incomplete and faulty questionnaires were discarded. Problems faced during data collection were that each project manager had to be explained the concept and expectation from the perspective of this research personally. The master training technique was also used in about 20 cases in order to ensure that the questionnaires filled by people who the author was unable to interact with are properly educated by the project manager who acts as a master trainer as well as a liaison between the author and the respondents.

5.2. Description of participating organizations:

The participants that responded to the questionnaire were from a variety of female professionals in Engineering, IT & Telecom Project based organizations. Faulty questionnaires were discarded and the results were calculated based on 70 correct questionnaires. Table 1 shows a brief breakdown of types of organizations and number of respondents picked from each organization.

Table1. Participating Organizations

Sr. No.	Organization Type	Respondents	Remarks
1	Defence Organization	35	Identities of organizations and respondents is confidential upon request to ensure honest responses
2	IT in healthcare	15	
3	Telecom/ IT sector	35	
Total		85	

5.3. Data Analysis Techniques

The instrument chosen to be adapted for the data collection is the questionnaire developed in 2010, also for a similar research on asynchronous teams. The Likert scale is used on a scale of 5. The Data analysis software was SPSS, also known as PASW (Predictive Analytic Software) within which Correlation and Regression techniques were used to investigate the impact, strength, direction and significance between Independent Variables and the Dependent Variable.

5.5. Data Analysis and Reliability Tests

After the completion of data collection and data input, a check was run for any missing values or outliers, having found none, the normality of data was checked and since the skewness was between -1 to +1, the data was found to be normal. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to apply various statistical tests to the data gathered via questionnaires. Before running more complex tests to analyze he relationship and variance between variables, a pretest was conducted to check the reliability and validity of the instrument. In order to qualify for the reliability the Chronbach’s coefficient must be greater than 0.6 (Hair et al., 2006). 0.6 is said to be a safe range for data. Chronbach’s Alpha (reliability) for all the variables is more than 0.7. Collected data is reliable. Table 2 shows Chronbach’s Alpha’ for each research construct. It has been proved through the gathered results that, the constructs are quite reliable and acceptable.

Table 2
Reliability Test - Chronbach's Alpha

Variables	Chronbach's Alpha
Leadership Engagement	0.768
Work-Life Balance	0.898
Conflict Res. Trng	0.774
Job Satisfaction	0.756

To test our hypotheses, we have conducted Correlation analyses on LEW, WLB, and CMT& JS as independent variables and Job Satisfaction (JS) as the dependent variable. As the data is normally distributed so the Pearson’s correlation two-tailed significance test is applied. This test is used to measure the relationship between independent and dependent variable. The positive correlation validates that the variables are significant at the 0.01 level and all independent variables are strongly correlated with Job Satisfaction (JS). Hence, it verifies one of the research assumptions that LEW, WLB, CMT have a significant impact on Job Satisfaction (JS). Correlation was tested following the Chronbach’s Alpha reliability test. Table 3 displays the findings of the correlation testing and the relationship of the factors (the correlation results between LEW,WLB, CMT & JS).

Table 3
Correlation

	Leadership Engagement	Work Life Balance	Conflict ResTrng	Job Satisfaction
Leadership Engagement	1	0.861**	0.627**	0.740**
WorkLifeBalance		1	0.638**	0.769**
ConflictResTrng			1	0.775**
Job Satisfaction				1

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

The findings are that there is positive and high correlation between the three IVS and DV. LEW, WLB, CMT are highly correlated to Job Satisfaction (JS) whereas out of these three variables WLB is the least at 0.769. LEW is positively and highly correlated with a value of $r=0.74$ with a significant value of $p<0.5$. CMT is positively correlated with a high value of $r=0.775$ with a significant value of $p<0.05$. WLB is also positively correlated with a high value of 0.769 with a significant value of $p<0.05$. The correlation between the three independent variables is also found to be satisfactory.

Followed by correlation, regression analysis was computed to assess overall impact of LEW, WLB, CMT on Job Satisfaction (JS). In the findings of the Table 4 it has been ascertained that a statistical value of R-square is 0.857 which means that the relationship among dependent and independent variables is very strong and positive, while the Adjusted R Square value shows that the effect of other variables is also very highly significant.

Table 4
Regression Analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.857 ^a	.734	.722	.39855

a. Predictors: (Constant), CRT, LEW, WLB

b. Dependent Variable: JS

The regression results show a positive relationship between the dependent and independent variables so hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 are accepted that LEW, WLB, CMT have a positive significant impact on the Job Satisfaction (JS) in the women in tech industry in Pakistan. The results of the regression models provide support for the research question is that the factors i.e. LEW, WLB, CMT have a significant positive relationship with JS. These results provide support to our research question that the factors or variables (LEW, WLB, CMT) taken into research do, in fact, affect Job Satisfaction (JS) significantly. It has been revealed through the above mentioned results that Job Satisfaction (JS) is greatly dependent on the variables as identified as LEW, WLB, and CMT.

In past researches the author has not come across such sure and strong responses as such but due to the nature of the research area, a strong consensus was observed whether it was in favor of the leadership participating at work or their absence.

Easy and open access to higher management also seems to be a contributing factor in increased Job Satisfaction (JS) according to data collected by interview techniques, one reason being consistently quoted as; it improves mutual trust among members of the organization regarding career and project progression and further improves the chances of a reduced turnover rate.

6. Discussion and Recommendations

Past small group research suggests that supporting behavior of supervisors benefits Job Satisfaction (JS) significantly. This specific behavior is cooperative and a solution oriented approach for team conflict. LEW has been seen to have the most significant impact on JS, possibly due to the work culture and effective techniques to deal with high stress situations in most turnkey projects. Past research also suggests that conflict when accepted and managed, may raise the productivity with performance of the teams and can have a positive outcome on project success as well. WLB mirrors some apprehension at work as all parties look for full information and work resolutely for the solution. For project teams and employees working on projects with a long life-cycle, a life and career planning method may assist in employee retention, JS and WLB in the long term.

6.1. Conclusion:

A comprehensive literature search on reference databases (Research papers, PMI Journals, WSEAS Journals and Internet) resulted in the significant number of references that the author expected to find addressing the role of WLB in women but it was mostly with regards to healthcare professionals, typically nurses and doctors. The model developed in 2010 by Muhammad Imran Malik, Farida Saleem and Mehboob Ahmad is recommended to be expanded, integrated and applied to women working in asynchronous teams working in Pakistan.

6.2. Future Work:

Additionally future work can be conducted on the following lines:

- 1) This work may be expanded upon specifically and solely for Academic industry across Pakistan in order to build a similar framework for their evaluation, based on the extensive student interaction and conflict occurrence in one of the busiest professional work environments.
- 2) A comparison between the public and private sector efficiencies based on their levels of TOI and WLB and if they have a significant impact on project success and job satisfaction can also be evaluated.
- 3) A similar study can also be conducted to compare the performance of the service versus manufactured goods providing units of Pakistan based on project outcomes before and after JS levels have been monitored.

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Challenge of education in diverse environment – designing methodology of research

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Statement of the problem

Questions about the place of education in the modern world, its role in society, value, objectives, and functions, are nothing but questions about the meaning of its existence at all. The question “why do we need school?” should lead to a profound reflection on the condition of modern education. This discourse in Poland, while not new, has increased significantly in the last decade after Poland gained access to European Union structures. Educational theorists, scholars, stakeholders and media debated about current education in Poland, its values and vision of school. Public debate also extended to areas as follows: Program content, educational supervision and evaluation, teacher training, educational law, financing of education, etc., focused on designing changes in these fields.

Interest in the topic of diversity has become the subject of discussion in many scientific disciplines including sociology, psychology, pedagogy and management. Diversity is the hallmark of modern society, so it is also a feature of the school. In the context of education, diversity is a challenge, which is measured by contemporary school, in particular with the problem of how to prepare students for living in a diverse society.

Research problems that arise in connection with the subject of social diversity highlight the difficulty at the levels of defining, classifying and understanding of the concept of diversity. This gives rise to problems in managing diversity in schools and use this phenomenon to the development of individual students as well as whole organizations.

Context of the study

Political debate in the European Union at the turn of the millennium concerned problems related to transnational cooperation, “cultural diversity” and “multiculturalism.” The idea of a solution to these problems was intercultural communication and intercultural dialogue. This policy was based on the strategies of “talking through differences” and drafting of dialogue based on mutual respect for cultural affiliation. European policy in this area focuses on promoting a coherent cultural identity among the member countries. [Aman, 2012, p.1].

It would seem that with the modern development of civilization, the progressive integration processes, the gradual increase in the wealth of individual countries and the development of the knowledge society, Europe is no longer threatened by the open conflicts arising from diversity, including armed conflicts, illegal looting of the lands of sovereign states, or totalitarianism. However, Europe has failed on this field and the consequences of it are already felt.

The leaders of the richest countries in Europe: Angela Merkel (Germany), Nicolas Sarkozy (France) and James Cameron (UK) officially admitted that their policy of multiculturalism was a defeat. In addition, “the Ukrainian crisis” exposed the weakness of European policies: security, economic, foreign affairs and educational and the huge problem of diversity of the Old Continent. On one hand, the process of integration, unification of the social life of community follows, on the other hand, parallel, the process of growth of huge differences occurs between regions and countries.

Dealing with diversity has become one of the major challenges of twenty-first century civilization. Coping with this challenge should reveal the ineffectiveness of current European policies and unmask the apparent policy for social diversity that does not actually work.

Exposing the superficiality of the organization, in practice, results in the beginning to criticize the status quo, and public policy changes. Methods of social change are primarily empowerment (strengthening disadvantaged groups and self-control) [Parker, 2002: Sulkowski, 2012, p. 228].

One of the first approaches to the problem of diversity has given rise to acculturation or to the process of exchange of cultural elements in case of mutual contacts. It was practiced in many different forms depending on the state. In Polish context Paweł Boski building on the work of John Berry presented four policy options of acculturation:

1. Exclusion – exclusion, different ethnic cleansing, eliminating the presence of minorities in the common area by deportation, expulsion, deportation, genocide, etc.
2. Segregation - separation, which is the specification and implementation of separate development paths of different races, ethnic groups, religious minorities in a given society, while maintaining the domination of one group.
3. Ethnic melting-pot - republic of citizens, or the removal of links, origin and diversity in the pursuit of homogenization, conversion to a new country nationals.
4. Multiculturalism, which is promoting intensive relations between different groups and at the same time preserving the identity of each of them. Dissimilarity and diversity are affirmed, because each culture has to offer other specific values. [Boski, 2010]

Diversity could also be understood broadly and includes many variables that exist within and across groups that live in different environments. The most popular definition was created by James Banks who lists the following variables: Diversity within the nation, social class, ethnic identity, race, language, abilities and disabilities, religion, sexual orientation, gender. Due to these variables, diversity has become an issue particularly because the groups from the list above are structurally or culturally advantaged (empowered) or disadvantaged (marginalized) within their societies. [Banks, 2005, p.17-18.]

One definition of diversity could also cover larger territory. As Marilyn Loden and Judy Rosener discovered, social characteristics like gender, ethnicity, age, etc. could be dependent on more external factors like work background, income, marital status, military experience, religious beliefs, geographic location, parental status and education. These two researchers propose “The diversity wheel” concept which assumes that anyone can describe themselves by going around the wheel, and it shows how social reality shapes people’s life. [Johnson, 2006, p.15]

On the other hand, Zygmunt Bauman notes that between the midst of all these distinctions (like race and status) is one of the most important, the distinction between “Us” and “Them”. He claims that we can divide people into categories of those who are demonstrating different attitudes and different behaviors. Of course it’s not a division in its literal meaning but it shows the difference between two opposite attitudes: likes and dislikes, trust and mistrust, confidence and anxiety, willingness to cooperate and hostility. “We” means the group which we belong to. We understand everything what happens inside this group, feel safe and comfortable. This group is the natural environment and is where we want to be. “They” are the group which we cannot be part of or I do not want to. We are suspicious of them and feel distance and fear. [Bauman, 1990, p. 47]

Underlying the concepts of diversity is the idea of dialogical human nature, including “I” and “significant Other”. Man is capable of self-determination only through the “Other”. In this sense diversity contains a postulate of openness to other cultures, because every culture at some stage of their development has something value to offer to all people and therefore we are obliged to respect the value of all cultures. [Taylor, in: Guttman, 1997].

Scientific definitions are characterized by a multiplicity of perspectives. It is impossible to list all of them but to make it more complete, the perspective of Samuel Huntington should be added; he notes that presently the “Other” could be the enemy of democracy. This may be, for example, a Muslim who is associated as an enemy of the Western civilization identity. The author stresses that the diversity can be defined through the prism of violence, terrorism and clash between Muslim world and non-Muslim world. In his context the term “Other” is the embodiment of evil, the opposite of “Us” who is seen as good, lawful, ethic society. [Huntington, 1997]

The proposed approaches above are only an attempt to define what diversity is. I assume that it is impossible to

create one general definition of diversity because of two reasons. First, when we follow the history and evolution of the notion of diversity, we can see that it was changed very often. For this paper I use category as follows: traditional approach to diversity which was strongly merged with political context. Characteristic feature of this approach is using metaphors to describe social relations in each country and connecting it with specific political strategies which were entered as official policy towards immigrants, migrants, etc.

The second group of definitions I called the academic approach. This approach goes beyond traditional strategic thinking about diversity and the inclusion of culture/cultural background as the most important factor shaping identity. Important attributes of this are: broad meaning, interdisciplinary connection like anthropological, sociological, philosophical or psychological perspectives. These definitions can also be neutral, non-evaluating its components but can also include positive or negative distinctions.

Researchers and authors who elaborate on diversity often create their own conceptual range of diversity resulting from their field of study, e.g. diversity and social justice [Adams, 2000, Goodman 2001], diversity and democracy [Ayers, 2009, Donovan, 2007], diversity and citizenship [Banks, 2007], diversity and equality [Cooper, 2004, Gale & Davidson 2006], diversity and privilege [Maher & Tetreault, 2009].

From a scientific perspective, diversity is more complicated than we used to think. It depends on our perception of diversity. Basically diversity is what we understand as diversity. The logical consequence of this approach is a dynamic, contextual and relative definition which concerns relations. Furthermore, definitions can be more wide or narrow, specific but also more theoretical or practical.

According to Kurt Lewin, when we analyze human relations we should analyze every group which is part of this interaction. Over the past years, we realized that the problems of minorities are also problems of majorities. Problem of black people is also problem of whites, problem of Jewish is a problem of non-Jewish, etc. [Lewin, in: Cervinkova and Gołębniak, 2010, p.16].

Summary of research methodology

Research problem

Assuming the anthropological/ethnographic perspective deliberately I did not formulate hypotheses. The research problem was formulated to narrow the scope of research and identify the general framework within the research that will be conducted. During field research, the problem would change or would be modified in accordance to methodological principles of ethnographical research presented by Malinowski, Garfinkel, Ogbu, Czarniawska, etc.

“Methodological responsibility of the researcher is in detail an account of its proceedings and of thinking. Before starting the research, ethnographer does not finally formulate the problem and how it should be. [Czarniawska, 2013]

The purpose of the study

The purpose of the research is to describe the role of schools/education in preparing young people for living in a diverse society based on study results from the students. Assuming a critical perspective in studies focused on the experiences of students who gain a voice in the study. The techniques used include critical reflection on data from analysis to understand the phenomenon of diversity and its potential use by schools/institutions for personal growth/success of the students. The result of the research will provide new knowledge about the phenomenon of diversity, which in a broader perspective can be used to provide proposals for educational policy. The paper describes methodological choices in answering the research questions. It also provides the background on the research settings and overview of research design, methodology instrumentation and data analyses. It contains the substantiation of research methodology and ethical considerations.

The educational policy of many countries treats diversity in education as a priority of teaching in every educational institution. The study is designed to answer the problem of education in diverse environments. The goal is

to provide theoretically and empirically grounded answers to actual challenges for education. Additionally, both theoretical (literature review) and empirical (own research) highlight problem of critical dialogue about democracy, race, gender, social class, nation, globalization, freedom and community. [Denzim, Lincoln 2010]

Epistemology	Strategy	Methods	Research practice
comprehension	narrative research	emerging research in progress	dealing own position
the multiplicity of interpretations	phenomenology	open questions	collecting the opinion of participants
social and historical construction	ethnography	data from interviews, observations, and audiovisual documents have	focusing on one concept or phenomenon
creating the theory of politicization	grounded theory	text and iconographic analysis	taking into account personal values
the emphasis on the issue of empowerment (empowerment)	case studies	interpretation of subjects and patterns	the study participants context or situation
participation			validation of the accuracy of the results
			interpreting the data
			create an agenda for change or reform
			cooperation with the participants

Source: own elaboration based on Creswell, 2009

The table above includes the most important elements of which authors called critical theory or ethnomethodology. According to this approach researcher seeks understanding of the world he/she's living in, giving the subjective meaning for experience in social constructivism theory. The researcher also wonders about the complexity of views, rather than trying to bring them into the one category or ideas: [Crotty, 1998]

- Studies formulate broad and open-ended questions that allow discussion and interaction with other actors in society,
- Meanings are constructed by people who, through contact with the world, make certain interpretation of meanings,
- Researchers gather data personally, thereby they submit personal interpretation of the data,
- The creation of meanings has social character and occurs during interaction in human communities,
- Researchers are aware that their interpretations are shaped by the environment, and so develop the theory in inductive way.

Epistemological considerations based on selected items of the constructivist theory should also mention the activism approach: [Creswell, 2009, p.35]

- Contain the criticism of constructivist approach, which does not encompass marginalized entities,
- Emphasize the need to deal with the problems of the present, including empowerment, social inequality, exploitation, domination, enslavement and alienation,

- Researcher gives voice to the participants (depending on what is studied researcher can realize the pursuit of the audited needs to change/improve the conditions and goes program of action),
- This approach focuses on the needs of individuals or groups marginalized or deprived if rights,
- Researcher is personally involved in the research and aims to introduce changes in practice,
- Studies can help individuals to release themselves from restrictions,
- It is a recognition of emancipation, because it helps in rejecting unfair barriers for unit that are an obstacle to self-realization and self-determination,
- Research participants become active co-authors of the study (study with others, or for others or on other).

The educational research as part of social science research uses the social research methodology as well. [Rubacha, 2012]. John Ogbu, a Nigerian-American anthropologist developed the idea of educational anthropology. This anthropological approach to education tends to focus on the cultural aspects of education, including informal as well as formal education. As education involves understandings of who we are, it is not surprising that the single most recognized dictum of educational anthropology is that the field is centrally concerned with cultural transmission. Cultural transmission involves the transfer of a sense of identity between generations, sometimes known as enculturation and also transfer of identity between cultures, sometimes known as acculturation. Accordingly, it is also not surprising that educational anthropology have become increasingly focused on ethnic identity and ethnic change. [Simons 1998]

Strategy of research based on critical approach:

Educational research is a part of social studies and thus, uses their methodology [Rubacha, 2008]. John Ogbu has promoted the trend in research on education called educational anthropology. Research on education involves the meaning of who we are. The qualitative research strategy was based on previous epistemological assumptions and is a strategy that includes the following components:

- Ethnography - long-term strategy for data collection in the natural environment cultural group. The research process is flexible, contextual, in response to the current conditions of the study. [Creswell, 2013]
- Ethnography of organization - considered inference methodology to study at the local level and does not lead to building a general theory. The knowledge gained from the findings of qualitative research should be socially important, enlightening and instructive for a wider group of people. In contrast to quantitative research that take into account only what is typical, and qualitative research permits to study the complexity of the world and take into account also anomalous, extremely unusual, irregular phenomena or deviations. [Czarniawska, 2013]
- Critical ethnography approach – this approach aims to establish the symbolic mechanisms that distinguish ideology from action. The investigator is inextricably linked to the subject of the study. In addition to speaking on behalf of the people, “critical ethnographers” also seek to identify and express their own perspectives including our own prejudices, limitations, stories, and position. This can be both a political and pedagogical approach. This approach does not imply a purely individual and scientifically objective reporting and analysis. In contrast to conventional ethnography, which describes what is, critical ethnography also asks what could be, in order to interfere with the tacit relationship of power and perception of social inequalities. [Carspecken, 1995]

Methods/own implications:

Qualitative research has become a place of philosophical and methodological revolt against positivism. This rebellion carries the alternative interpretation, hermeneutical and constructivist. [Cresswell, 1996]

Qualitative research allows it to understand people, their motives, their customs and ways of their behavior. They touch phenomena in their natural context in holistic manner. Qualitative methodologies are inductive, so generalizations are built based on empirical material collected. [Czarniawska, 2013]

The present study will use qualitative methods to address the research questions about student conceptualization of diversity and how they struggle with this issue in society.

The study assumes qualitative research methodology which is set of interpretative actions and do not submit

one technique above another. Qualitative research does not have its own theory or paradigm. It is used in many research areas and is not assigned into particular discipline. [Denzim, Lincoln, 2010].

The qualitative field of study is interdisciplinary, transdisciplinary and disciplinary at the same time; it intersects humanities, sociology and natural science. It is a multi-paradigm field of study. In according to these the qualitative approach was chosen as appropriate to study in differences, which do not have one established definition. The research also assumes pragmatic approach, which allows the use of various methods in study. [Creswell, 2013]

Summary and research questions

Schools in Poland are diverse in the context of understanding diversity as a feature of contemporary school. Much has been written about multicultural education but there is still lot of unanswered issues about how students are conceptualizing diversity and what schools do to help students use diversity in their own development. The analysis of literature suggests the need to address the following research questions: [see table no. 2]

Table2. Summary of research question, variety, data sources

Research question	Variety	Question/disposition	Data source
What competencies are useful for living in diverse society?		Selected competencies	Data analyses card. Literature review, reports, documents, etc.
How do polish students conceptualize diversity?	Noticing	How we are diverse? How can we show that we are different in school?	Questionnaire survey. Open and closed question.
	Understanding	If we accept the knowledge that we are different, whether we know what are the consequences?	
	Appreciation	What diversity gives us/ school?	
	Implementing/using	How we take diversity in our action? How do we use diversity?	
How are students developing themselves to live in diverse society?	Diversity of students	What is the social capital of students?	Individual interviews. Deepening questions, not directly questions, eg. tell me about society where you live. What type of society you think you.
	School actions + varieties from above	What school does? Are these actions are adequate?	Individual interviews. Deepening questions, not directly questions. Eg. Tell me about society where you live. What type of society you think you.
Does the school offer an opportunity to achieve success for all students?		How to prepare pupils for life in a diverse world?	Compare students survey responses to interviews

Source: own elaboration

The role of researcher:

Critical ethnographer is more reflective, explores the interactions between I-other, which is typically characterized by fieldwork. [Denzim, Lincoln, 2010]

Anthropological approach to research (called “anthropological frame of mind”) - researcher characterized openness to new meanings, refusal of anything for granted, curiosity, motivation and ability to surprise to the every-

day world [Czarniawska, 2013]

The role of researcher is to observe and interpret reality, including my sensitivity modern, postmodern, critical and humanistic approach to learning. This “research sensitize” and responsive science will allow me to combine different methods and forms that I use to interpret the collected data and presentation of results.

Place of research:

Angrosino lists criteria to justify the choices of location for the research: [Angrosino, 2010]

- A place that provides a clear illustration of the research issues,
- Is a continuation of other studies
- The desire to act in favor of some social cause
- The availability of respondents
- Researcher will not be a burden on the environment.

Scheme no. 1 Educational institutions and acquisition of competences process



Source: own elaboration

*Youth Educational Center (Polish Młodzieżowy Ośrodek Wychowawczy, MOW.),the re-socialization/social norming institution for persons between 13-18 years of age who have specific problems and are socially maladapted.

One of the most important roles of education is to prepare the student for living in a diverse society where they could achieve individual success. Education that will help achieve this success for every student is needed. The Polish education system has many different institutions that serve this role [see scheme no.1]. The “preparation” process is called socialization in the case of regular public schools or re-socialization in the case of institutions, which get socially maladjusted children. The aim of both of these processes is to develop the students’ competencies that will help them succeed in life. The research location will be selected based on following criteria: the transparency, comparability with other studies, action in favor of the respondents and availability.

Instrumentation:

The first part of research assumes the selection of competencies based on literature review, reports and other documents, which include important information for the research. All the data will be cataloged and put into “Competence card” – special tool designed for the research.

The second part of research will be a questionnaire survey. This part aims to discover students noticing, understanding, acting, appreciating and profiting from diversity. This research tool will include open and closed questioned based on research question no. 2 and includes all variables.

The third part of research will be individual interviews (IDI) with students and observations. The construction of the interview scenario will depend on the second part of search and include questions which should deepen the

issues from send part of research. This depends on asking the interviewee more or less formal questions. This part of research process also provides observation. After every day of research/visit in institution, the researcher will take notes from observations.

Sample:

The research methods employed in this study were designed to explore how students of diverse schools/institutions understood the diversity. I chose methods that focused primarily on the student. I did this for two reasons. First, I assume that perception of diversity for students could be different than for others (adults, parents, teachers, etc.). They are the ones who are consciously or unconsciously part of it - they are its components. The second reason why I chose students was to give them a voice in research. It is the researcher's opinion that in current society, children's' voices are being silenced by others who speak for them, such as parents, teachers, educators, politicians and researchers. I found that that these groups often with their own interests and have their own insight of what is happening in schools or should be happening in schools. This study is designed to give students chance to speak for themselves and about the situation in which they are exist.

Qualitative method was chosen because flexibility of the technique could help to provide the forum that would allow new information and insights to come to light. I also believe that qualitative interviews are necessary to probe the complexity of the process that I want to understand: the students have to have space to use their own language to describe phenomena that could be easily captured in the words of others. Previous research has focused mainly on the adult's opinions and interpretations of diversity and possible comparison these reviews. These groups have different agendas. For the purposes of this study, the researcher has adopted the perspective of students and their interpretation of the phenomenon of diversity to avoid misinterpretation and let them speak about reality which they are part of.

Data Analysis

Stage I - Preparation of the collected data for analysis; transcription of interviews, digitizing notes from observation, organizing data, classification data typing depending on the source of information. In my case, the data be generated from questionnaires and interviews.

Stage II - Summary of the contents of all data; preliminary assessment of the merits of the respondents, the assessment of insight, reliability and usefulness of the information.

Stage III - Detailed analysis, coding of interviews.

Stage IV - Use of the encoding process to describe the topics for analysis; determination of the most important results (5-7), supported by citations and concrete evidence.

Stage V - Presentation of research results.

Stage VI - Explanation of the research results. What are the results of research? Do these results lead to new questions?

Limitations

- Limitations resulting from intentional sampling for testing does not allow for generalization.
- "Logic of representation" - each respondent has "own truth" and subjective feelings, whereas the role of the researcher is to have this awareness, to abstain from assessments and gather information from various sources, meant to show a broader picture of the observed reality,
- Lack of trust for the researcher.

Summary

Shaping the global identity has become a fundamental challenge of education. Modern school faces a difficult and complex task - determining a value of diversity education.

In the available literature much is said about the fact that the Polish education system is not prepared to meet all the requirements of European diversity education. The reason for this is the lack of qualified teachers, teach-

ers who would be preparing for the education of children in the spirit of diversity [Stańkowski, 2007, p.27]. The genesis of reflections on education in diverse environments in Polish schools have been recent developments in several European countries associated with the problem of foreigners in France and the UK. Media in Poland were writing about a failure of integration policy in European countries; for example, France and Germany. There were armed conflicts in Ukraine and increased roles of separatist movements. Social sense of security has been shaken and society, in the face of crisis, wanted to find someone or something guilty of this situation. The easiest way to blame for crisis, violence, insecure, danger was to find guilt in someone who is different (looks different, behave different and have different values). The countries which not so long ago were regarded as role models of diverse societies, suddenly faced a huge crisis, which could not cope in almost every aspect of life, including social communication, work, policy, media, and (the most interesting topic for me) education. The basic inspiration to carry out research on diversity in education in Poland was that the researcher was convinced that Poland - in order to avoid mistakes of other countries - should look for solutions not in politics but in education. This would allow achievement of long-term effects, not only (as in the case of policies) short-term effects.

The education in diverse societies has tasks, the implementation of which will allow the proper development of this society. Economists, sociologists and philosophers agree with each other in terms of increasing complexity and interdependence of processes. This is also confirmed by reports, such as UNESCO report "Intercultural competences" or Institute for the Future "Future work skills 2020" which emphasize the role of education in learning multicultural competence, strengthen emotional intelligence, building students skills of adaptation, tolerance and using new method of communication, which is called intercultural communication.

The purpose of my research is to answer the question how students understand the diversity. The average child in the family culturally diverse cross the threshold of school brings their own baggage of experience and heritage that teachers tend to skip the idea of justice and equality.

As I tried to indicate, based on literature review, the diversity notion proved to be very contextual and impossible to embrace in frames with only one definition. This kind of flexibility and openness changes the educational perspective and highlights the new role of education which is the promotion of joy of learning and the connection of this process to the individual experiences. According to literature, understanding and accepting diversity is not enough. More important is using it to development. This is what is huge challenge and effort for education, which should be built on foundations of respect, freedom of speech for different groups.

The problem I have undertaken is not a new phenomenon, nor that, which are not discussed publicly. However, I believe that the discussions do not play a substantial role in the reflection on ways of diversity education in Polish schools. Young people have too little awareness of the changes that have taken place after Polish accession to the European Union. The school in this case is a special place because it begins the process of shaping a young person to live in a new society.

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The importance of Strategy & Innovations to an Organization's Success

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Introduction

The decision of when to enter into a new market or industry is a big dilemma for most organizations. This challenge in decision making has caused firms to fully examine the fastest possible way to enter a new market or industry. Firms must examine the benefits and consequences of entering a new market when making business decision. The firm's decision enter a new emerging market could also be too costly since the firm lacks the market knowledge and experience needed to succeed (Hawk et al., 2013).

Innovation is defined as the introduction of new product and service offerings as well as new processes into a new market successfully, which yields organizational growth and performance (Buisson & Silberzahn, 2010). In this study we shall examine different innovation strategies such as the blue ocean strategy, Imitation strategy, open innovation strategy, disruptive innovation strategy and business innovation strategy. This study will also examine the case study of Redbox and GlaxoSmithKline to help examine successful companies who have adopted these innovation strategies and how the chosen innovation strategy has shaped their futures.

Blue Ocean Strategy

This strategy was made popular by Kim and Mauborgne in 2004. Blue Ocean innovation strategy can be defined as the first entrance of a firm into a new market with strong differentiated products and services to create new profit opportunities. It is also known as the “first mover advantage”. Blue Ocean strategy encourages firms to create new market and exploit the opportunities rather than competing with an existing market characterized by similar products. Kim and Mauborgne, (2004) argued that identifying and creating new markets is the best way for firms to achieve more market shares and also increase their profitability. There has been a lot of arguments about the blue ocean strategy by different scholars (Buisson & Silberzahn, 2010), some of who argued that a blue ocean mover can still be dominated by a second mover if the first mover does not continue to innovate and invest more in R&D. A good example is Google who was a late entrant in the internet market, but was able to still dictate the market and become a market leader despite being a second mover. These critics further argued that the only advantage of being a first mover is that, first movers are able to set standards and influence the market to their advantage at least for a little while (Buisson & Silberzahn, 2010).

Imitation Innovation Strategy

Imitation strategy has become an alternative to blue ocean innovation strategy. Many firms like IBM, Microsoft, etc., all entered into their various industries by imitating an existing product or service (Lee & Zhou, 2012). Imitation has been seen by some scholars as the best way to achieve organization growth and profits. Imitation strategy is defined as the strategy adopted by a firm to replicate its competitors' products and services by offering a better, superior product or service in order to gain market share. Imitators are late movers that builds on competitor's mistakes and short comings to introduce better products and services (Lee & Zhou, 2012). This strategy is cheaper to execute compared to the blue ocean innovation strategy because the ground work or R&D is already done by the pioneer company (Lee & Zhou, 2012). In determining whether to imitate or innovate, it is important to understand the environmental forces that influences and impacts both strategies. It is also important to examine the impact of market research, which helps to choose between each innovation strategies that will achieve a better competitive advantage (Lee & Zhou, 2012).

Imitation approach involves adopting a “copy-but-improve” approach to gain more competitive advantages over rivals. Therefore, to better understand the role of the Imitation approach, it is essential to understand the various types of imitation strategies (Lee & Zhou, 2012). Product imitation is divided into two: Pure and creative imitations. Pure imitation is when a firm designs its product and service offerings to be closely identical to its rival's original, but sells at a lower price to attract more customers. Creative imitation strategy is when a firm designs its product and service offerings to be closely identical to its rival's original, but with added features or

modifications. It comes with a higher price compared to other competitors. The price hike could be perceived by customers as been a superior product thereby making the product more preferable to the originals (Lee & Zhou, 2012).

The advantage of creative imitation is that this strategy allows firms to take advantage of R&D efforts already put in place by market leaders and learn from their mistakes. Imitation strategy could be more effective in gaining competitive advantage compared to other forms of innovations, as Shenkar (2010b, p. 29) states, “97.8% of the value of innovations goes to imitators” (Lee & Zhou, 2012).

Business Model Innovation

Business model is the avenue through which an organization creates and captures customer value to increase its competitive advantages (Euchner & Ganguly, 2014). Business models needs to be revisited and changed according to the changing business environments. There is need for them to be adaptive to the market trends and environmental forces. Business model innovation is the ability of a firm to create a new market or the ability of a firm to disrupts the competitive advantage been enjoyed by the incumbent (Euchner & Ganguly, 2014).

Business models was defined by Magretta (2002), as a system that reveals how the pieces of a business fit together by using stories to explain how enterprises work together. A more accurate definition of business model was provided by Zott and Amit (2001, 2007, 2008), focusing on the creation of value and e-business technological trends. Amit and Zott (2001), defined business model as a system that describes the content, structure, and governance of dealings intended to create value by exploiting business opportunities’.

Business model innovation is new way companies design their business strategies. It can be replicating or adapting new generation of strategies by comparing with previous strategy. Comparing the strategy are needed to design new business models meanwhile it still need analysis to protect the competitive advantage (Permatasari & Dhewanto, 2013).

Casadesus-Masanell & Zhu, 2013) defined business model innovation as the search for new ways of creating and capturing value for customers by a firm. This innovation strategy also seeks for ways to increase the company’s profitability while creating more value for the company’s stakeholders. Business model innovation strategy has proved to be the driver of business success and increased competitive advantage. New firms have also succeeded to over thrown some incumbents, simply by imitating their business models and making it better (Casadesus-Masanell & Zhu, 2013).

In the business perspective, innovation can be placed into three categories: product innovation, process innovation, and service innovation (Harvard business essentials, 2003). Product innovation is again divided into radical innovation and incremental innovation. Radical innovation produces something new to the world, and incremental innovation follows. The process innovation usually comes after product innovation (Yongkyun, 2012).

Lastly, service innovation considers how best to serve customers. Among these three types of innovation, product innovation and service innovation are strongly related to business model innovation. In other words, these innovations provide values or attributes different from the ones that other existing companies consider important, and they can create new business models (Yongkyun, 2012).

Disruptive Innovation

The term “Disruptive innovation was first used by Bower & Christensen, (1995). The concept was later popularized by Christensen in his book “Innovator Dilemma”. Christensen tries to answer the question of why companies engaged in innovation are been easily taken over and dominated by new entrant with disruptive products and technologies. Disruptive technologies does not only replace existing product and service offerings, but it also has the ability to expand existing markets with new product features. (Corsi & Di Minin, 2014).

Chandra and Shu-Jung (2011), defined the term “Disruptive innovation” as a new technology that has both lower cost and performance in relation to existing dominant design and takes on a different trajectory from mainstream technologies in the market. The authors argued that disruptive innovation should not be defined from a technological success perspective alone, but should also include market success. Chandra and Shu-Jung, (2011)

further characterized disruptive innovation into the following: affordability, simplicity, and unexpected replacement of incumbents by new, smaller entrants (Chandra & Shu-Jung, 2011).

RedBox Disruptive Innovation

RedBox is a good example of a disruptive company. The video rental industry has taken a very competitive form in recent years, with Redbox becoming a market leader second to Netflix. Redbox was able to enjoy the competitive advantage thanks to its “customer driven distribution strategies, which comprises of direct online video ordering and self-service kiosk distribution strategies. The company has been able to disrupt the video rental industry and has continued to create more value for his customers (Vander Schee et al., 2012).

Redbox took advantage of the fluctuating demand for new movie releases to gain a competitive advantage over its rivals. Redbox created a new market in the entertainment industry through his unique distribution model, which was widely accepted by customers because the company located its kiosks near the entrance of various convenient stores and pharmacies (Vander Schee et al., 2012). Redbox put the buying experience in the hands of customers by allowing customers to choose any redbox location to return their rented DVDs. The company also ensures that customers have access to new movie releases 28 days after its release dates. All these has help Redbox gain more market shares compared to its rivals as well has increased its profitability (Vander Schee et al., 2012).

Open Innovation

Hoegland, Lichtenthaler and Muethel (2011), argued that the increase in companies involved in open innovation and collaborations has forced managers to focus of adopting open innovation strategies by collaborating with external actors. The authors further argued that a company might lose its technological competitive advantage as well as the benefits of open innovation strategies if proper implementation process is not in place. Hoegland, Lichtenthaler and Muethel (2011), identified employee attitude that favors open innovation as the major obstacle to effectively implementing open innovation strategies. Therefore, organizations should adopt strategies to reduce resistant from employees.

A good example was Procter & Gamble incentive system established to encourage open innovations. Rufat-Latre, Muller and Jones (2010), states that many organizations have been able to establish practices in such a manner that has led to sustainable growth and industry leadership. The authors also identified organizational culture and practices that is resistant to change, especially when it involves exchanging of ideas and intellectual properties with external actors.

GlaxoSmithKline Open Innovation strategy

GlaxoSmithKline (GSK) is a global healthcare group, headquartered in London, UK, with business ventures in the discovery, development, manufacture, and marketing of pharmaceutical products and health-related consumer products (Alexander & Huggins, 2012). One of the innovation strategies adopted by GlaxoSmithKline is open innovation strategy. This strategy encourages organizations to focus on the products and services that is within the organizations core-competences and in which it has comparative advantages over its competitors. GlaxoSmithKline encouraged open innovation among its employees by creating the Spark Network, which was aimed at creating a conducive environment for members to develop and share creative ideas (Gassmann & Reepmeyer, 2005).

There has been a trend in the pharmaceutical industry towards collaborative R&D as a way to gain competitive advantage. Gassmann and Reepmeyer, (2005) states that the major breakthroughs in the field of science and technology are more likely to occur outside of the organization. The information and knowledge flowing from new science and technologies is too complex for any organization to process alone, which has forced pharmaceutical companies like GlaxosmithKline to adopt open innovation strategies to accommodate and involve external researchers. It is important to establish open innovation networks, because the probability of generating all necessary substances in-house is relatively low by a single company. Therefore, there is a need for collaboration with various types of external entities such as biotech firms or university research labs to help conduct pharma-

ceutical research and discovery (Gassmann & Reepmeyer, 2005).

Collaboration is essential in the pharmaceutical industry due to the increase in technological risks during drug discovery. In responding to this risk, most pharmaceutical companies like GlaxoSmithKline have been concentrating on its core competencies to evolve around technology platforms and therapy areas (Gassmann & Reepmeyer, 2005). GlaxoSmithKline (GSK) has put measures in place to prove its commitment to greater openness, transparency and collaboration.

GSK leadership has supported and adopted the “open innovation” approach to R&D in order to help offer solutions to the pressing health issues and challenges been faced in the world today. GlaxoSmithKline has made major changes to its business model in the past few years in preparation to help the company be more open to sharing its intellectual property and knowledge. These changes were also aimed at establishing partnerships to help encourage more R&D into diseases that most affects developing countries (GSK Committed to ‘Open Innovation’, 2012).

Pit falls to avoid when implementing open innovation strategy.

1. There is need for managers to communicate the open innovation strategy effectively throughout the company. This will help set the expectations for employees to follow.
2. Business executives have a role to play by openly supporting open innovation initiatives. Therefore, business leaders need to be at the forefront of the open innovation campaign.
3. Managers should help motivate employees towards achieving open innovation goals by establishing structured incentive systems.
4. Organization should organize its structure in a way that it makes open innovation easier across different levels of the organization.
5. Corporate culture needs to include open technology transfer attitudes.

Innovation Strategy for Pharmaceutical Industry

- Pharmaceutical companies need to understand the impacts culture has on their innovation. Since most pharmaceutical products are manufactured and distributed by mostly developed countries, it is important that they understand the cultures of other countries during their product designs and experimentations.
- Pharmaceutical companies require expensive research during product development, therefore it is important to adopt open innovation strategies where these pharmaceutical companies sponsors and encourage other research centers to help out in developing new promotes. This comes in the form of investing and funding private research by schools.
- Also, pharmaceutical companies need to engage the customers and ensure they are involved in the innovation process. Some companies have encouraged patients interactions through their websites to gain feedback and how best to serve their patients.
- Pharmaceutical companies must network and partner with external companies in solving the world’s health issues. The world health issues are numerous especially in less developed countries that it is important for pharmaceutical companies to partner with local companies in various countries to create awareness on health issues.

Conclusion

In this study we were able to examine the definitions and different innovation strategies and concepts. The arguments for and against these strategies was also examined. A case study of Redbox and GlaxoSmithKline companies was examined to explain the innovation strategies adopted by these two companies to gain more market shares as well and gain more competitive advantages. Also, an innovation strategy was also proposed for pharmaceutical companies, explaining the importance of understanding cultures of other countries they service, encouraging open innovation by investing in research and development and the importance of partnering with external companies to help solve health issue.

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Abstract

Failure accompanies most organizational change efforts. A change agent's use of motivational interviewing (MI) to help employees resolve ambivalent attitudes may improve the success rate of organizational change initiatives. This experimental research evaluated MI effectiveness to increase readiness to change. The theoretical framework was the transtheoretical model of change and the theory of planned behavior. Through random assignment, 56 employees of a company undergoing change populated the experimental and control groups. Members of the experimental group participated in 3 MI sessions over a 30-day period. Participants indicated their readiness by completing the Job Change Ladder. Within and between group differences from a mixed ANOVA revealed that MI significantly increased readiness to change. The findings suggest that leaders of organizational and societal change initiatives could incorporate MI to prepare individuals and groups to embrace the change process, thereby improving the chances that the change initiative will be successful.

Key words: *organizational change, reactions to change, readiness to change, resistance to change, ambivalent attitudes, theory of planned behavior, transtheoretical model of change, stages of change, motivational interviewing*

Organizations are in a continuous need to change as they confront new challenges and adapt to the turbulence of their operating environments (Oreg&Berson, 2011). However, a general implementation failure rate of approximately 70% (Burnes, 2014), in some cases reaching as high as 93% (Decker et al., 2012), brings caution to the undertaking of organizational change-related efforts as these efforts could represent a costly organizational endeavor (Ijaz&Vitalis, 2011). Organizational changes inherently require employees to change their behaviors (Burke, 2011) and in pursue of the desired end state, managers adopt the role of change agents needing to influence their followers (Choi & Ruona, 2011).

Change recipient's reactions play a significant role in determining the magnitude of the organizational change (Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011). Results from a survey of over 115,000 employees impacted by organizational change identified the quality of change management as a key driver of change (Parry, Kirsch, Carey, & Shaw, 2013). Other researchers linked leaders' behaviors with employees' attitudes towards change (Oreg&Berson, 2011). As such, change leaders can benefit from the adoption of a person-centered approach (Lawrence, 2015) when interacting with other organizational members.

In the change management literature, employees' reactions to organizational change include constructs such as resistance to change (Smollan, 2011), cynicism about change (Stanley, Meyer, & Topolyntsky, 2005), readiness for change (Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993), openness to change (Wanberg & Bannas, 2000), commitment to organizational change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), and coping with change (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). As attitudinal responses (Choi, 2011) connected to evaluations of proposed organizational changes (Bohner & Dickel, 2011), employees' reactions became categorized as positive or negative attitudes encompassing feelings, thoughts, and behaviors (Bouckenooghe, 2010). In this polarized view, employees expressed either support or dissent towards change (Giangreco & Peccei, 2005) based on an idiosyncratic evaluation that assigned a favorable or unfavorable valence to the organizational change (Lines, 2005). However, individuals can simultaneously experience positive and negative attitudes towards change as they hold ambivalent attitudes within and between cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions (Piderit, 2000).

The complexities and contradictions of ambivalent reactions to organizational change have been under-researched (Peachey & Bruening, 2012), with over 90% of studies adopting the attitudinal dichotomy of resistance and readiness to change (Bouckenooghe, 2010). The notion of ambivalent attitudes as response to proposed organizational change (Bouckenooghe, 2010; Piderit, 2000) encapsulated in the stages of change (Nigg et al., 2011) and being indicative of readiness, intentions, and motivation (McEvoy & Nathan, 2007) provide the theoretical

nexus of the study. Movements along the stages of change model reflect variations on the person's change-related intentions underlying readiness to change (Nigg et al., 2011).

Ambivalent Attitudes to Change

Ambivalence is a salient response to organizational change indicating that employees simultaneously hold positive views and concerns about the consequences of change (Burke, 2011). Ambivalent attitudes are manifestations of a person's intra-personal, inter-personal, and experiential factors (Peachey & Bruening, 2012; Piderit, 2000) associated with an internal conflict related to the cognitive and emotional assessment of the organizational change (DeMarree, Wheeler, Briñol, & Petty, 2014; Tomprou, Nikolau, & Vakola, 2012).

According to the theory of planned behavior (TPB), employees engage in cognitive evaluative processes as antecedents to intentions to engage in a particular behavior (Ajzen, 2011; Jimmieson, White, & Zajdlewicz, 2009). An individual's intention captures what the person is planning or intending to do and it becomes the most immediate determinant of his/her behavior (Ajzen, 2011). In the organizational change context, intentions to enact change-related behavior derive from the formation of attitudes towards the behavior, perceived social pressure, and self-evaluation of personal abilities (Ajzen, 2011; Jimmieson et al., 2009). The decision-making dynamics include emotional responses and the likely processing of incomplete, inaccurate, and unrealistic information (Ajzen, 2011). Emerging perceptions contribute to the assignment of valence to the proposed organizational change (Jimmieson et al., 2009) that underlies the formation of positive, negative, or ambivalent attitudes (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007; Piderit, 2000).

Ambivalent attitudes have cognitive, emotional, and behavioral implications (Van Harreveld, Nohlen, & Schneider, 2015) and act as moderators of the relationships among variables in TPB (Sparks, Conner, James, Shepherd, & Povey, 2001). The strength of the attitude-behavior and the perceived behavioral control-behavior relationships is weaker for high ambivalence individuals as compared with those with low ambivalence (Conner, Povey, Sparks, James, & Shepherd, 2003). Individuals with low ambivalence also display stronger cognition-intention and cognition-behavior than individuals high in ambivalence (Cooke & Sheeran, 2004).

In the transtheoretical model of change (TTM), the decisional balance captures the ambivalence that individuals experience towards the enactment of new behaviors while the stages of change construct provides a temporal backdrop to a person's cyclical process of behavioral change (Prochaska & Norcross, 2010). Based on Jannis and Mann (1977) description of the decision-making process, the decisional balance involves a cognitive assessment of pros (i.e., positive aspects) and cons (i.e. negative aspects) of the behavior. As the benefits of a decision outweigh its costs, individuals progress through stages of change and move closer to engaging in the new behaviors (Nigg et al., 2011). The five stages of change (i.e., pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance) integrate tenants and processes of change from different theories of psychotherapy and capture when and how people change (Norcross, Krebs, & Prochaska, 2011). Within the stages of change continuum, individuals present different levels of ambivalence (Di Noia & Prochaska, 2010) and confidence (i.e. self-efficacy) in their abilities to change (Nigg et al., 2011) indicative of their readiness (McConaughy, DiClemente, Prochaska, & Velicer, 1989) and motivation (DiClemente, Nidecker, & Bellack, 2008) to change.

The linear relationship between intentions to perform a behavior and the stages of change support the practical integration of TTM and TPB (Armitage, 2009) suggesting that interventions targeting intentions can promote behavioral change (Armitage, 2006). Intentions to enact change-related behaviors signal a person's motivation (McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011), readiness (Ajzen, 2011), and likelihood to engage in change supportive behaviors (Kim, Hornung, & Rousseau, 2011). A person's attitudes influence his/her intentions and predict progressions and regressions throughout the stages (Courneya, Plotnikoff, Hotz, & Birkett, 2001). The decisional balance within TTM captures the attitudinal responses to changes (Armitage, Sheeran, Conner, & Arden, 2004) and expose ambivalence as an underlying dynamic within the stages of change (Nigg et al., 2011). In this context, each stage provides a comprehensive conceptualization of readiness suitable for stage-matched interventions (Clark, 2013) targeting an individual's ambivalent attitudes towards enacting organizational change supportive behavior (Steele-Johnson, Narayan, Delgado, & Cole, 2010).

Ambivalent attitudes are unpleasant for individuals as they become aware of their simultaneous holding of

conflicting thoughts and feelings about an object (Song & Ewoldsen, 2014) in the context of his or her unique experience of cognitive dissonance (Burnes, 2014), need for consistency (Nordgren, Van Harreveld, & Van der Pligt, 2006), and uncertainties about the consequences of a given decision (Ashforth, Rogers, Pratt, & Pradies, 2014). As an aversive attitude, ambivalence produces a level of discomfort that compels people to reduce it (Van Harreveld et al., 2015) and seek information about the perceived source (DeMarree et al., 2014). Employees may attempt to resolve their ambivalence and investigate particular organizational change because of their cognitive dissonance, conflict with changemanagement processes (Burnes, 2014), and the need to decide whether to engage in change-related behavioral support or rejection (Van Harreveld et al., 2015). In this respect, ambivalence can be a strong motivator for change as individuals engage in processing their ambivalent attitudes (Van Harreveld et al., 2015) and responding to the change leader's approach (Oreg & Sverdik, 2011).

Motivational Interviewing to Help Resolve Ambivalent Attitudes

There is an inverse relationship between ambivalence and readiness to change, indicating that individuals progress through the stages of change as they experience a declining level of ambivalence towards the enactment of the new behavior. An individual exhibits more ambivalence in the precontemplation stage than in the preparation stage of change (Nigg et al., 2011). Individuals could resolve their ambivalence in such a manner that their positive cognitions associated with the benefits of change could outweigh their negative cognitions or costs of change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Motivational interviewing (MI) is a dialogic approach that a change agent can use to help participants resolve their ambivalence and increase their readiness to change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). Applications of the MI approach fall within the context of the TTM in which change represents a dynamic process (Macdonald, Hibbs, Corfield, & Treasure, 2012) and a person's level of readiness or motivation to change is concomitant to his/her stage of change (McEvoy & Nathan, 2007). According to MI and TTM, an individual's readiness to change is fluctuating and influenced by the relationship between the change agent and the change recipient (Miller & Rollnick, 2013; Prochaska & Norcross, 2010).

Capturing the resolution of ambivalence, MI as an approach to change proved successful in an array of behavioral changes and showed potential applicability to the field of organizational development and change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). There is ample evidence of the effectiveness of the use of MI to help change individuals' behaviors in the areas of health (Hettema & Hendricks, 2010; Rubak, Sandbæk, Lauritzen, & Christensen, 2005), substance abuse (Lundahl, Kunz, Brownell, Tollefson, & Burke, 2010), education (Goggin et al., 2010), and the criminal justice system (McMurrin & Ward, 2010). In the organizational context, MI had positive effects on changing employees' specific health-related behaviors (Linden, Butterworth, & Prochaska, 2010). Passmore (2011) proposed the use of MI in executive coaching; while Miller and Rollnick (2013) noted similarities with the widely accepted large group organizational intervention known as appreciative inquiry. However, I found no evidence of research into the application of MI to organizational change.

The purpose of this research was to assess the effectiveness of MI as measured by differences in readiness to change between participants randomly assigned to an experimental and a control group. I posited that the use of MI by change leaders might influence readiness to change as indicated by change recipients' progression through the stages of change in TTM. The null hypothesis to test was MI absence of an effect on readiness to change. An ANOVA statistical analysis was performed to determine differences between pre and posttest results, and between the control and the treatment groups.

The research contributes to knowledge in the under-researched area of ambivalence during organizational change by including individuals who simultaneously resisted and supported change (i.e., ambivalent attitude; Peachey & Bruening, 2012). The study advanced the applicability of TTM and TPB to the practice of organizational change. This conceptual background encapsulated ambivalent attitudes and intentions that change recipients experienced when required to engage in new work-related behaviors. I used the stages of change construct in TTM to capture each employee's unique response to organizational change. This conceptual background encapsulated ambivalent attitudes and intentions that change recipients experienced when required to engage in new work-related behaviors. I used the stages of change construct in TTM to capture each employee's unique

response to organizational change. In contrast to the change agent perspective that is pervasive in the practice of organizational change, the emphasis of the study was on a change recipient's perspective to organizational change. Consistent with previous studies on responses to organizational change, research participants were actively engaged in the analysis of the implications of the proposed organizational changes (Oreg & Sverdluck, 2011).

Method

Participants

Participants were employees of an organization with a workforce of close to 100 people that worked first shift. The company was to begin implementing planned organizational change at the time of the study. Employees volunteering to participate were over the age of 18 years old and nine out of 10 of them were over 25 years old. More than half of the sample population (55.4%) held college degrees and almost all participants (98.3%) had been working less than 10 years with the company.

Sampling procedures

The sample unit selection followed a purposive sampling approach that enlisted members of a privately owned logistics organization located in the Midwest region of the United States. The selected organization met the representativeness criteria of being in the early stages of implementing a planned change that exhibited ramifications throughout the entire system and affected all employees. This planned change encompassed a strategic shift requiring restructuring of the systems and processes of the entire organization.

At the time of research, there were organizational members absent due to vacations, traveling, or illness. Initially, 69 of 70 the eligible organizational members volunteered to participate. The person declining to participate simply returned the blank forms. Due to attrition, fifty-six individuals (approximately 56% response rate) completed the research requirements. Participants were from all departments in the organization (i.e., accounting, human resources, information technology, inventory operations, sales, solutions and services, and warehouse). Due to the reallocation of roles in alignment with the organization's strategic plan, participants needed to alter the way they conducted their work. Details of the strategic plan linked each employee's new roles to specific organizational objectives.

The research took place within a couple of weeks that employees received detailed communication of the changes. Participants' inclusion in either the experimental group (i.e., motivational interviewing) or the control group (i.e., non-motivational interviewing) adhered to a random assignment process. Participants received assurances that all information was confidential and anonymous. Their participation was voluntary and there was no payment or gift in exchange for their participation. There is no evidence of harmful or adverse effects related to the utilization of MI.

Studies on the effectiveness of MI showed a preponderance of moderate and large effects across a wide range of behaviors (Lundahl et al., 2013; Rubak et al., 2005). Output from the statistical software G*Power indicated total sample sizes of 54 individuals for ANOVA calculations based on effect size of $d = 0.5$ at a 0.05 alpha level for the two groups design. In this respect, the 56 participating individuals exceeded by two the minimum amount of participants statistically necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of MI.

Measures

Informed by the stages of change construct, I measured differences in readiness to change between the group exposed to MI and the control group. The effect of MI was measured by the dependent variable readiness to change job-related tasks linked to the planned organizational change. Researchers established the validity and reliability of the stages of change (Norcross et al., 2011) in which movements along the stages of change reflected variations on the person's intentions underlying readiness to change (Nigg et al., 2011). I assessed participants before and after the MI sessions by asking them where on a ten-step decision/contemplation ladder labeled Job Change Ladder (JCL) they would place themselves.

Biener and Abrams (1991) developed the Contemplation Ladder as a continuous measure of readiness to change.

Ladders are single choice, single-item measures with rungs numbered from 0 to 10 following a vertical graphical display where the higher rungs represent greater readiness to change. Researchers provided evidence for the convergent, concurrent, and predictive validity of contemplation ladders with established measures of stages of change (Amodei & Lamb, 2004; Hogue, Dauber, & Morgenstern, 2010). The contemplation ladder has strong construct, predictive, and concurrent validity with behavioral indicators of intentions and reliability for measurements of stages of change (Biener & Abrams, 1991; Hogue et al., 2010). The ladder also exhibited predictive validity in relation to readiness to change and movements along the stages of change (Herzog, Abrams, Emmons, & Linnan, 2000).

Modified versions of the contemplation ladder had been validated for a variety of target behaviors (Caviness et al., 2013; Coolidge et al., 2011; Hogue et al., 2010; Magill et al., 2010) and used in randomized trials to assess the effectiveness of MI in maintaining behavioral changes as well as enhancing readiness to change behaviors (Carey, Henson, Carey, & Maisto, 2010; Hettema & Hendricks, 2010; Magill et al., 2010). Clair et al. (2011) found significant pre and posttest correlation that demonstrated the reliability of a modified version of the contemplation ladder. LaBrie, Quinlan, Schiffman, and Earleywine (2005) found that a modified ladder outperformed longer questionnaires in predicting behavioral intentions.

Because of its brevity, criterion and construct validity, strong psychometrics, as well as its ability to measure readiness to change as a continuum, I used a modified version of the contemplation ladder to evaluate the effect of MI in relation to an individual's readiness in the context of organizational change. The structure of the verbal anchors provides a concrete measurement that facilitates the use of the modified ladder by individuals having difficulties with abstract thought. Verbal anchors in the contemplation ladder assisted participants to self-report their intentions to change, and to assess their level of readiness to change (LaBrie et al., 2005). Using the statements as a guide, I asked subjects to select which rung (number) best represented their thinking, action, or both, about the potential behavior change at the moment of completing the scale (Amodei & Lamb, 2004).

As a continuous measure of readiness to change, the rungs in the change ladder depicted numerical values that measured the precontemplation, contemplation, and preparation stages. Participants selecting responses in the contemplation ladder ranging from 8 to 10 were identified as being in the preparation stage. Those selecting between 3 and 7 were considered contemplators while those selecting the lower rungs of the ladder with scores of 1 and 2 were classified as precontemplators (Herzog et al., 2000; Herzog & Komarla, 2011). Higher posttest scores on the ladder depict progression towards the enactment of the change-related behavior and reflect improvement in a person's readiness to change. Similarly, lower posttest scores denote a declined in readiness to change. I administered the tests to members of the experimental and control groups before and after I conducted the three MI sessions.

Research design

The research design of choice was a quantitative pre-post-control mixed factorial design, which featured random assignment of individuals through a lottery procedure to an experimental and a control group. The design is a combination of the between-subjects design and the within-subjects design consisting of readiness to change as the within subject variable with pre and post levels, and MI as the between subject variable with two levels (i.e., exposed to motivational and not exposed to motivational interviewing). A mixed ANOVA was the statistical method used to analyze within and between group differences.

Experimental manipulations or interventions

As a trained facilitator, I conducted MI sessions as collaborative relationships built on the principles of expressing empathy, rolling with resistance, developing discrepancy, and supporting self-efficacy (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). I engaged in active and reflective listening in a non-confrontational style that was not to raise defensiveness, denial, or resistance on the part of change recipients. In the context of MI, resistance or denial is an interpersonal variable signaling the change agent the need to change motivational strategies (Rubak et al., 2005).

I set the meeting agenda by asking participants about the types of jobs they performed and the description of

new task requirements associated with the organizational change. Applying the principles of MI, I directed the conversation so that this information became the topic of conversation for asking open-ended questions and reflecting back on their answers. Following the guidelines of the decisional balance, I elicited from employees the sources of ambivalence that provided the focus of the conversations about the employees' personal views of organizational change. Previous research on individuals' reactions to organizational change had revealed the preponderance of ambivalence and its overt and covert manifestations (Peachey & Bruning, 2012; Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Restubog, 2013) associated with the stages of change (Nigg et al., 2011).

My communication style was geared at evoking their own reasons for supporting change that could lead to the development of positive attitudes and intentions. The emphasis was on self-determination as opposed to compliance. I sought to elicit a person's intrinsic motivation through persuasion and support, rather than coercion and argumentation. The conversations were not about imposing perspectives on individuals; rather, the purpose was to increase the importance of change in a manner that was consistent with the person's values and beliefs.

I also focused on developing discrepancy and supporting self-efficacy to instill and help resolve ambivalence towards the target behaviors (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). Miller and Rollnick (2013) suggested instilling ambivalence when individuals seemed emphatic about not wanting to engage in change talk as in the case of precontemplators. As I dialogued with employees, I remained attentive to conversational cues indicative of likely stage of change progression (e.g. change talk) and partnered with interviewees to actively engage in the dialogical exploration of their ambivalent attitudes. Change talk are verbal expressions signaling that a change recipient recognizes the need for change, expresses concerns for his or her current situation, reveals an intention to change or believes on the possibility of change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). I sought to elicit change talk as the person explored pros and cons of his or her situation. The interactions were non-confrontational in nature during which I collaborated with the organizational member to help him or her become ready to change.

Data collection took place during a 30-day period at the organization's location. I conducted three sessions of MI with each one of the individuals randomly selected to be a part of the experimental group once a week for three consecutive weeks. These one-on-one meetings lasted approximately 25 minutes and took place in a private room specifically designated for this research to provide confidentiality. Rubak's et al. (2005) meta-analytic review of MI revealed that a statistically significant size effect could result with less than five brief meetings lasting 15 minutes each. The number and length of sessions were in line with the literature. There were no incentives of any kind offered to participants.

Results

After random assignment of participants, groups were equivalent based on employees' roles as managers or workers. Analysis of the frequency distribution of pre-test ladder scores revealed that two thirds of participants (66.1%) were in the contemplation stage of change, while the remaining one third were in the preparation stage. The pre-post-control mixed factorial design of the research justified the use of the mixed ANOVA statistical technique to analyze decision ladder results obtained from the experimental and control groups.

According to the results of the analysis, there was a statistically significant interaction between MI and time on readiness to change, $F(1,54) = 39.850$, $p < .0005$, partial $\eta^2 = .425$. Discriminatory analysis for simple main effect for group showed that there was a statistically significant difference in readiness to change between the experimental and the control groups at time 2, $F(1, 54) = 4.161$, $p = .046$, partial $\eta^2 = .072$. Testing for the simple main effects for group meant testing for differences in readiness to change between the experimental and control group at each level of the within-subjects factor, time (see Table 1). Results for simple main effect for time concluded that there was a statistically significant effect of time on readiness to change for the group exposed to MI, $F(1, 28) = 95.159$, $p < .0005$, partial $\eta^2 = .773$. Testing for the simple main effects for time meant testing for differences in readiness to change between time points for each level of the between-subjects factor, group. Further examination via pairwise comparisons indicated that for the experimental group, readiness to change was statistically significantly increased at post-MI compared to pre-MI ($M = 2.0$, $SE = 0.20$, $p < .0005$).

Discussion

MI was effective at increasing readiness to change and reducing ambivalence. There was a statistically significant difference in readiness to change between the group exposed to MI and the control group. Applying Cohen's f (1988) conceptualization of effect size, the analysis showed a large strength of effect of the interaction and a large size effect on the group differences between time points as expressed by the partial eta squared indexes (partial $\eta^2 = .425$; partial $\eta^2 = .773$).

Participants' scores in the decisional ladder reflected their level of ambivalence, intentions, motivation, as well as readiness to change. In the pre and posttest variability of scores on the decisional ladder (see Table 2), participants exposed to MI affirmed the notion that increased readiness to change signified transitions through personal stages of change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013; Prochaska & Norcross, 2010). The use of MI assisted in these transitions from a low to a high rung in the ladder by capturing the resolution of ambivalence, evoking a person's own reasons for supporting change, and helping individuals develop positive attitudes towards change (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Employees exposed to MI were more motivated to change than employees in the control group. As evidenced by the positive movement along the decisional ladder by participants in the MI group, I found that (a) intentions to change were mainly self-initiated and (b) individuals' determination to engage in change supporting activities increased as they resolved their ambivalence. The dialogical encounters about change pertained to the specific circumstances of each interviewee and resonated with the idiosyncratic, as well as pervasive characteristics of ambivalent responses (Plambeck & Weber, 2010; Smollan, 2011). Results of the study confirmed Peachey and Bruening's (2012) assertions that (a) ambivalence is a prevalent response from individuals facing organizational change, (b) ambivalence is dynamic, and (c) ambivalence evolves along a continuum.

Research results aligned with Piderit's (2000) multidimensional perspective on responses to change and the theoretical postulates of TPB (Ajzen, 2011) and TTM (Prochaska & Norcross, 2010). According to TPB, a person's intentions are indicative of attitudinal disposition (Ajzen, 2011) and the intentional path to the enactment of change-related behaviors is moderated by ambivalence (Cooke & Sheeran, 2004). According to TTM this process of behavioral change encapsulates progressions through stages of change epitomized by decreasing levels of ambivalence (Nigg et al., 2011).

Similarly to other studies, by combining the application of decisional balance and decisional ladder during the MI sessions, I uncovered a person's readiness to change as it related to their unique ambivalent attitudes and stage of change (Di Noia & Prochaska, 2010; Heather & McCambridge, 2013; Norcross et al., 2011). Within the context of the stages of change, resistance and readiness to change relates to the individual's relative weighing of pros and cons representing two ends of a dynamic spectrum characterized by ambivalence (Prochaska & Norcross, 2010). In line with TTM, as participants in the MI sessions talked about and elaborated on issues elicited by the decisional ladder they were assessing the pros and cons of enacting change-related behaviors (Di Noia & Prochaska, 2010).

Pretest scores in the decision ladder provided evidence of participants' stage distribution and revealed the presence of ambivalence as a ubiquitous attitudinal response. Stage distribution concentrated in the contemplation and preparation stages of change. These results somewhat differed from other researchers' estimates of population stage distribution of 40 % in precontemplation, another 40 % in contemplation, and 20% in preparation (Prochaska & Norcross, 2010). It is plausible to attribute discrepancy with the literature to organizational members' prolonged involvement in the development of change plans (Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Armenakis, 2013). In terms of this evaluation, however, the process of randomization counteracted this and other extrinsic factors that could lead to erroneous interpretations of causality through the formation of equivalent groups. The use of a nonprobability sampling strategy such as purposive sampling is a limitation to this research as it raises issues of external validity and the generalizability of the results of the evaluation of MI. Conducting the research in one organization within a specific industry presented risks to external validity originated from sample representativeness. There is also a potential threat to reliability because of the first time use of the Job Change Ladder to measure readiness to change in an organizational context. Further studies could address this issue.

Conclusion

According to the results of this study, the use of MI has positive implications for the effective practice of change management as it highlights the inter-relational nature of implementing change at the individual level and the importance of the change agent's role. During most organizational change efforts, the responsibilities for the adoption, implementation, and sustainability of change plans reside on the skills and abilities of middle and lower level organizational leadership. Extrapolating from the results of the evaluation, managers and supervisors can benefit from pro-actively learning the principles of MI to enhance their change management skill sets.

MI constitutes a viable alternative to change leaders' interactions demanding compliance with organizational directives. The interpersonal nature of MI together with its directive characteristics constitute the type of goal-oriented skill set suitable to change leaders in the workplace environment. Leaders could encourage each organizational member to explore their uncertainties and to evoke change-related behaviors.

The principles of MI also relate to the macro level of change management. In system-wide organizational change, the process of diagnosis, planning, developing readiness, and adoption of change require that organizational members exert considerable dedication of organizational time, efforts, and other resources towards these activities. Based on the notion of having the whole system in the room, large group methods rapidly gather information from different sectors of the organization while fomenting collaboration among participants. Similarly to MI, change agents applying whole system approaches to change emphasize collaboration and seek to evoke strengths and possibilities. Such conceptual commonalities facilitate organizational members' transition to the adoption and institutionalization of change. Extrapolating from this research, change facilitators could apply MI during the implementation phase that follows the diagnosis and action planning phases of the change effort. Organizational change practitioners, informal leaders, managers, and supervisors could apply the principles of MI and facilitate the adoption of organizational change and the realization of organizational objectives. The incorporation of MI to the practice of change management could help produce a point of inflection in the high rate of failure of organizational change by increasing employees' level of readiness to change.

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Abstract

This paper provides an alternative view to leadership that is becoming a necessary part of the executive or senior leader's skill-set and tool kit. Complexity leadership and collaboration are the answers to effectively managing fierce competition and the dynamic non-stop change that is our global world today. Effective executive or senior leadership is critical for greater employee engagement, higher organizational performance, and minimization of the chaos inherent in organizations. In this article, the author conducts an analytical study of the literature on complexity leadership, collaboration, governance, and decision making in organizations. It is particularly important for leaders in senior or executive management positions to understand that the principles of collaboration, governance, and effective decision making are key links in creating sound partnerships. Understanding these principles will be critical for executive or senior leaders in the 21st century and beyond.

Key words: *Complexity Leadership, Collaboration, Governance, Decision Making*

Methodology: Literature Review and Analytical Analysis

Introduction

There are many definitions as to what constitutes leadership and management. In fact, there are several differences between the two functions (Marion & Uhl-Bien, 2001, Mintzberg, 1973, Rost, 1991). Since the early 1900s, leadership researchers have examined such things as a leader's trait, power, influence, behavior; roles, path-goals, situations, and relationships. Researchers have also examined management from multiple perspectives such as situations, behaviors, and leadership styles (Bass 1985, Burns 1978, Bryman, 1996, Mintzberg 1973, Uhl-Bien, & Marion 2001, 2008, 2009, Uhl-Bien et al. 2008, Yukul 2001). Bass (1990) defined leadership as "an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members" (p. 19-21).

Similarly, Yukl (2001) argued that leaders make decisions along the lines of specifying and completing certain tasks, building relationships, and directing organizations. Likewise, Bennis (1985) and Bennis and Nanus (1989) posit that leaders create organizational vision, pathways for action, and allocate resources for organizational sustainability. Kouzes and Posner (2006), Uhl-Bien (2001, 2008, 2009), Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, and Fleishman, (2000), and Plowman and Duchon, (2008) have suggested that leadership and management is much more complex, complicated, and essential to the well-being of the organization than most people realize or give credit to. Today, many organizations have limited resources, are globally connected, and constantly deal with changing technologies and environments.

Add to that complexity, uncertainty, and unprecedented governmental involvement, and you have executives, senior leaders, or high-level decision makers that have to think "outside of the box" before making any decisions. The social, political, and economic challenges of today creates a need for senior executives and decision makers in federal, state, local government, non-profit, for-profit, and private industry to understand the value of leadership, collaboration, and effective decision making. Understanding the intricacies of leadership, collaboration, and decision making will go a long way in effectively managing organization. Efficient and effective management will help leaders and managers to better be able to attack and maybe even solve some of today's complex and complicated challenges. The 21st century is advancing very quickly, which means that leaders and managers need new ideas right now on how to lead and manage the complexities of today's organizations (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe 2005, Day et al., 2013, Lichtenstein et al. 2006, 2009, Plowman & Duchon 2008, Uhl-Bien 2001, Uhl-Bien & Marion 2008, Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey 2008, Rost, 1991). This is especially critical for executive or senior leaders. It is time for a new direction in leadership thought that more aligns with the current leadership and management challenges of today.

Literature Review

1. Leadership Theories

Leadership is one of the most researched social science areas studied in the last 50 or 60 years. However, in spite of the large amount of research into what leadership is there is no set standard that describes effective leaders. In fact, there are several definitions of what makes up a leader (Bass & Stogdill 1990, Bennis 1989, Bennis & Nanus 1985, Burns 1978, Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig 2008, Rost, 1991). In many people's minds, leadership means telling someone what to say or do!

However, research has shown that what constitutes good or effective leadership is far more complex and complicated than that. For example, there has been research in areas as diverse as behavioral, situational, ethical, transformational, transactional, servant, complexity, and public leadership. All give very different ideas of what leadership is or should entail (Bass 1985, 1991, Brown & Trevino 2006, Burns 1978, Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2013, Plowman & Duchon 2008, Uhl-Bien, 2001 & 2008). In this section, this author briefly discusses several leadership theories that highlight various aspects of leadership and their effect on management decision making.

1.1. Transformational Leadership

It is not surprising that transformational leadership is one of the most talked about leadership principals in the last 30 years. In fact, research has shown that a transformational leader affects the outcome of several aspects of the organization. According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders affect individuals and groups of an organization which creates an increase in job satisfaction, enhanced employee performance, and greater organizational commitment. To attain these outcomes, Burns argued that the transformational leader usually displays, key abilities such as (a) idealized influence-creating trust and confidence among followers, (b) inspirational motivation- giving followers a vision for the future, (c) intellectual stimulation-encouraging others to think on a higher level, and (d) individualized consideration- recognizing individual needs and aspirations. The executive or senior organizational leader of today must have a little bit of each of these characteristics to be an effective leader.

Bass (1985, 1991) also conducted seminal work on transformational leadership. Bass (1991) argued that "transformational leaders inspire, energize, and intellectually stimulate their employees" (p. 19).

Bass also suggested that the transformational leader impacts the entire organization when he or she creates an air of openness, honesty, mentorship, and direct involvement with subordinates. This is especially true when senior or executive leaders are involved in the activities of the organization. Executive or senior leaders need to have skill-sets that allow them to be flexible, creative, and approachable. In fact, Mumford et al. (2000) and Warrick (2011) have suggested that there is an urgent need for more skilled leaders. That is why researchers Riaz and Haider (2010) examined the role of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction and career enhancement. Likewise, Ekaterini (2010) investigated the impact of executive leadership styles from a manager's personal and professional perspective. Similarly, Anderson (2015) examined the relationship between leadership, organizational commitment, and the intent to stay among junior executives. The key here is that there are many positive aspects of leadership that have been explored. However, there is another side of leadership that is rarely discussed.

Many researchers focus on the "positive side" of leadership. However, transformational leadership is not an end-all to be-all as it relates to organizations operating in an efficient and effective manner. In fact, Kaiser, Hogan, and Craig, (2008), Hogan and Hogan, (2001), Khoo et al. (2008), Harms et al. (2011) Harms and Spain (2015), and Slattery (2009), all have argued that there is a "dark side" of leadership that is hardly ever mentioned in leadership research. The authors have suggested that often leaders (especially those with influence) forget where their responsibilities lie. Leaders often need to be reminded that their priority and allegiance should first and foremost be to the organization. This is especially true for those senior or executive leaders who have a lot of influence (some call it the "it" factor or "charisma").

In fact, Bass (1991) argued that even transformational leaders can forget their organizational purpose, which leads them to abuse their positions because of the focus on their own interest (p. 30). Leadership researchers

have suggested that the destructive type of leader is only focused on what he or she can get out of the organization. According to Sheard, Kakabdasde, and Kakabdasde (2013), a destructive leader pays more attention to his or her wants as opposed to the organization's need. The authors also suggested that paranoid, sociopathic, deluded, and narcissistic behaviors are the four types of destructive behaviors that destructive leader's exhibit. When a leader is destructive their attitude, beliefs, or feelings about a particular subject or issue creates an anti-social perspective that drives their decision making and leadership capacity (Sheard, Kakabdasde, & Kakabdasde, 2013).

As an executive or senior manager, it is very important to understand how one's morals and values play a significant role in a leader's decision making. It is even more important that public service officials (civil servants) understand the affects their values play in their decision making and organizational direction. All leaders including those that are public officials need to understand the critical effect that a dark side to their personality could have on the whole organization. In fact, Harms, Spain, and Hannah (2011), Vogel (2013), Harms and Spain (2015) have suggested that there is much more that can be said about the destructive side of leadership. Unfortunately this manuscript will not allow me the time or place to do that. Although transformational leadership has been the main focus of leadership research recently, let us not forget that transformational leadership is not the only type of leadership style that leaders can use to move the organization forward 1.2. Transactional Leadership

When leadership is mentioned, one often hears about transformational leadership and not its distant cousin transactional leadership. Transactional leaders bring a slightly different leadership perspective that is just as important to an organization as transformational leadership (Bass 1985, Bennis, 1989 & 2001, Burns 1978, Ekaterini 2010, Riaz & Haider, 2010). It is important to understand what transactional leadership is and how it works to fully implement its characteristics in an organization. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985, 1991) argued that transactional leadership is when one entity influences another by way of compensation or some other type of reward for achieving a goal or milestone. The authors suggested that the important thing to realize and recognize is that in a transactional situation there is an exchange (positive or negative) between parties. A not often talked about area of transactional leadership is punishment.

Punishment is usually handed out for not achieving a certain goal or objective. Because of the reward and punishment aspect of the transactional leader he or she affects organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intent, and career satisfaction (Conger 1990, Ekaterini 2010, Kaiser et al. 2008). No matter how the situation is viewed it is still an exchange between leader and follower. There has been a good amount of research on transactional leadership. However, this author believes that more empirical studies on the effects of the exchanges on individuals and organizations would enhance our knowledge of the effects (outcomes) of the transactions that take place in an organization. Another aspect of transactional leadership that is not mentioned as much in the literature is active and passive management-by-exception.

Active management-by-exception means that the leader formally checks a follower's actions to ensure they complete the goal or objective and passive management-by-exception means that leaders' step in when expectations are not met and follower performance is not what it should be (Burns 1978, Bass 1985, & Uhl-Bien 2001, 2007). For instance, if there is an organizational project that has a specific timeframe for completion and the people responsible for its completion have allowed the timeline to get away from them, the leader or manager may step-in to suggest a particular course of action to get the project completed. If the lapse is particularly egregious then the leader or manager may issue some type of punishment or other corrective action to move toward the stated goal or goals.

Thus far in this section the discussion has centered on what a transactional leader is, and how he or she leads. However, what are we asking our leaders to do to meet today's complex and complicated leadership and decision making challenges? Kaiser et al. (2008) argued that "the fate of organizations revolves around our understanding the effectiveness of leaders, performance of the group or team, and organizational outcomes" (p. 107). Could it be that there is a need to be both transformational and transactional as leaders when looking at the overall dynamics of an organization? In today's change oriented, technological, and global world, leaders or managers need a new way to think about how to lead and manage. This "new" way of thinking is a way to help leaders (especially executive or senior management) tackle the complex and complicated challenges of

the decisions they have to make.

It is time for a new idea of how leaders should lead in the 21st century and beyond. In fact, Lord, (2008) suggested that there is leadership beyond the transformational and transactional perspective. The author suggested that a leader's decision making is affected by the biases they bring to the position because they influence the structure of the organization. Lord (2008) asks "can leaders still lead when they don't know what to do"? It is in this context that complexity leadership may provide the answer.

1.3. Complexity Leadership

Complexity has been with us for a long time. In fact, Weaver (1948) argued that complexity would have a significant impact on our world. The author also suggested that the use of technology (computers) and collaboration ("mixed teams") would be the means that allowed complex problems to be solved. Weaver also suggested that because of multiple variables in a given situation, we can no longer solve problems using a simplistic approach the decision making process. As we hurriedly move through the twenty-first century, organizations must develop senior or executive leaders who are creative thinkers, innovative, and is able to apply leadership principles in a practical and effective way. Today, senior leaders or executives must combat rapid change, an increased reliance on the interconnectedness that technology creates, and a global world to even make day-to-day decisions that affect the entire organization. No longer can leaders use the same leadership or management style of Frederick Taylor's and others time frame (Hazy 2010, Lichtenstein et al. 2008, Marion & Uhl-Bien 2001, Olmedo 2012, Uhl-Bien & Marion 2008, Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey 2008).

It is in the context of new leadership ideas that complexity leadership theory (CLT) is a leading contender to be a welcomed fresh of breath air for organizational leaders and decision makers. This is especially true for executive or senior leaders and managers. The complexity leadership approach comes from complexity science. This is a somewhat new concept that many social scientist are starting to see more frequently in the leadership literature. In fact, complexity science is a new way of examining the complex and dynamical behavior of individuals, organizations, and the systems connected to them (Marion & Uhl-Bien 2001, Olmedo 2012, Uhl-Bien & Marion, 2008). Complexity science's foundation emerges from the idea that organizations are complex adaptive systems (CAS). According to researchers such as Weaver (1948), Hazy (2006), Hazy (2010), Schnider and Somers (2006), Snowden and Boone (2007), Snowden (2008), Sarguth and McGrath (2009), and Uhl-Bien (2008), have suggested that complex adaptive systems (CAS) have characteristics that are adaptive, innovative, and emergent.

Great examples of CASs are ant colonies, schools of fish, and flocks of birds.

All operate as complex adaptive systems (CASs) when they go about doing what they do. Many researchers believe that because of the characteristics mentioned earlier CASs operate much like human organisms do. Human organisms are complex entities that are unpredictable, interconnected, and have structure. In many cases organizations act the same way. For instance, organizations can be nonlinear (all over the place), emergent, adaptive, and be efficient and effective (Hazy 2006, Uhl-Bien 2001, 2006, 2008, Uhl-Bien & Marion 2009). Nonlinear simply means the organization is adaptable, innovative, and creative and that the status quo of a straight-line function is not the direction the organization is operating in at all times. This means a complex perspective as a leader is really important today. Specifically, leaders should operate with the perspective that their organization is complex and that the old thought of organizations being linear (one way all the time) is no longer true.

When most people hear the term complex or complicated the first thought is to automatically think the terms are used interchangeably. However, that is not the case at all. The difference between the two terms comes down to understanding that something that is complicated can be separated into its component parts and something that is complex cannot be separated because the parts are interconnected in multiple ways that is not easily separated (Hazy 2006, Uhl-Bien et al. 2006, 2007, 2008, & 2009).

For example, a 747 airplane is complicated because one could separate all of the component parts into their individual functions. On the other hand, mayonnaise is complex because the make-up (eggs, oil, vinegar, and lemon juice) of mayonnaise cannot be separated once they are put together (Lichtenstein et al. 2008, Uhl-Bien 2001,

2008).). In fact, Uhl-Bien and Marion, (2008) suggested that the definition of complexity leadership is "a framework for leadership that enables the learning, creative, and adaptive capacity of CASs in knowledge producing organizations or organizational units" (p. ix). Complexity leadership enables the development of organizational structures that are not solely based on control or order, but on enablement instead. This allows organizations to produce outcomes appropriate to the vision and mission of the system (s) around it.

An important aspect of complexity leadership that leaders must understand is that no one person or single group of individuals can manage all of the interconnected parts of an organization effectively. This is especially true for senior or executive leaders no matter if they are in federal, state, local, for-profit, or not-for-profit organizations. It literally takes everyone in the organization giving input for it to be successful, innovative, and forward moving. The literature on complexity leadership is rapidly becoming more and more at the forefront of leadership research because of the dynamical nature of today's organizations. There is not enough space in the pages of this article to expound on the importance of complexity leadership, however, it must be studied from as many perspectives as possible to develop the leadership tools needed for managing the national, international, and global challenges of today. In fact, collaboration is another leadership spectrum that is promising as leadership research expands to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

2. Collaboration

There is a "new" movement in the leadership arena that is not really new at all. In many organizations there is a notion that the decisions by the senior executive will be the best decision that keeps the organization focused and moving forward. The reality is that today no one decision maker will be able to effectively make the necessary decisions that solves organizational problems, creates innovation, and the flexibility that allows for progress, stability, and financial well-being (Chenok et al. 2013, Gray 1989, Gray & Wood 1991, McGuire 2006, Moynihan et al. 2011, Thomson et al. 2007). In her seminal work on collaboration, Gray (1989), argued that collaboration or some semblance of it has been around for quite some time. The author also argued that one may not recognize collaboration because of how it is implemented in an organization.

Understanding what collaboration is and is not is paramount for the leader of today. In fact, there is no definitive description of what collaboration is. However, Wood and Gray (1991) suggested that collaboration is a perspective that consists of five key dimensions (governance, administration, organizational autonomy, mutuality, and norms) of which if applied properly will open up new ways for decision makers to efficiently and effectively manage organizations. Thomson and Perry (2007) suggested that the definition of collaboration is "a process in which autonomous or semi-autonomous actors interact through formal and informal negotiation, jointly creating rules and structures governing their relationships and ways to act or decide on the issues that brought them together; it is a process involving shared norms and mutually beneficial interactions" (p. 3).

Similarly, Ansel and Gash (2007) purported that collaborative governance is a "governing arrangement where one or more public agencies directly engage non-state stakeholders in a collective decision making process that is formal, consensus-oriented, and deliberative and that aims to make or implement public policy or manage public program assets" (p. 44). Similarly, Guo (2013) suggested that customers (the public) want their agencies to run efficiently and effectively even though they are getting various services from them. The global environment of today is no exception. In fact, the sudden rise in collaboration's popularity may stem from today's challenging social, economic, and political problems. Senior or executive managers are turning to more formalized collaboration configurations to solve complex and challenging issues (Gray & Wood 1991, Graddy & Chen 2006). For example, the current terrorism situation many countries find themselves dealing with is being examined through the lens of collaboration. The United States and 64 other countries are coming to together to end or at least slow down the threat of radical Muslims such as Al-Qaida and ISIS. Whether it is the United Nations, (UN), local government, federal government, private industry, or a non-governmental organization (NGO) there is a need for organizations to collaborate on challenging issues that cannot be solved with a single decision maker at the top (McGuire 2006, Thomson et al.

2006, 2007). Another example of the importance of collaboration comes from the office of the president of the United States. Without major collaboration on the parts of lawmakers from all sides of the aisles (Democrats,

Republicans, or Independents), efforts like Health Care, Minimum Wage increases, and etc. would not get done.

In fact, President Obama has struggled to get the congress and senate to agree on his proposals and nominees to various political offices. Collaboration is much more than getting a group of people to agree with you. Collaboration is also understanding that the lone-wolf mentality of management is no longer an effective way to manage. This is especially important if an individual is serving in a public service position as a senior or executive manager (McGuire 2006 Thomson & Perry 2006, O'Leary 2012). Gray and Wood (1991) argued that managing collaborations is tough because collaborations are complex entities that require the management of joint decision making, administration, agreement, and trust that flows from all of the constituents involved in the collaboration. Thinking that collaboration is an end-all to be-all would be a big mistake. According to Thomson and Perry (2006), over the course of time there is a "black box" mentality that develops in collaborations.

To minimize this "black box" mentality, senior or executive leaders must be aware of the formal and informal activities that transpire within an organization. This awareness is critical if senior or executive managers are to be efficient and effective as managers. The authors also suggested that an important take-away from the collaboration process is that senior executives or decision makers need to understand they should not enter into any collaboration unless the entirety of process has been considered (Donahue 2004, Duit & Galaz 2008). For example, what many managers don't consider is the time and effort that collaborations require to manage them effectively (Thomson & Perry, 2006). In spite of the attention that collaborations have been given recently, there is a lot of work that goes into the creation of a successful collaboration. With collaborations, one never knows what the outcome (s) will be until they are developed and implemented (McGuire 2006, Thomson & Perry 2006, Newman et al. 2004). An important part of any collaboration is the governance of the organizations that are a part of it.

3. Governance

Typically, governance is one of those buzz words that we hear when organizations get themselves into trouble. However, governance has always been a part of organizations. A recent example of bad governance is when Volkswagen CEOs lied about the emissions performance of their vehicles for more than 10 years. Another example is that of General Motors (GM) failure to recall millions of cars because of defective steering. A final example is the crash of the United States housing market, where financial organizations were accused of packaging bad mortgages and flooding the financial markets with them. All of these cases can be attributed to a lack of "good governance."

Senior and executive leaders need to understand what governance is and why it is important to organizations? According to Fukuyama (2013), the definition of governance is "a government's ability to make and enforce rules, and to deliver services, regardless of whether that government is democratic or not" (p. 3). Likewise, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), (2002) and Sarbanes-Oxley (2002), suggested that governance is when an organization follows specific rules and does what it is supposed to do as it relates to the community or program under its support or sponsorship. Now that we know what governance is, the question becomes what distinguishes "good governance" from every day governance? Quite frankly that entirely depends on one's perspective of what is good and not good as it relates to governance.

Newman et al., posit that "good governance" involves the interaction of local government, private entities, and community involvement. On the other hand, Fukuyama (2013) sought to better understand exactly how quality or "good governance" can be recognized in an organization. Fukuyama posited that there are four approaches management must consistently follow and measure for consistency, which will lead to good governance. The approaches cover areas such as (1) organizational procedures, (2) organizational capacity, which includes professional development and various organizational resources, (3) output measures (outcomes), and (4) organizational autonomy. Similarly, Looibach (2010) argued that because of the complex nature of organizations today, "good governance" needs to have a more transitional management approach. Newman et al., (2004) purported that there has been a shift in how citizens see their government. In fact, the authors suggested that good governance is derived from the interaction of the people who require the government to be by the people. As we can

see from the various definitions, what good governance is primarily flows from the perspective of those instituting it. For instance, in the United Kingdom (UK), governance is examined in terms of the Cadbury Committee Report on financial responsibility (Aguilera & Cuervo-Cazurra, 2004).

The Cadbury Committee suggested that there were six core principles that make up good governance. Here in the United States, governance is viewed from a corporate perspective based on the five golden rules of business. The foundation for those rules primarily comes out of the Sarbanes-Oxley (SOX) Act of 2002 and the Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) in 1998. All of the rules flow out of attempts to minimize "bad behavior" by the business community. For example, banks, real estate, insurance, and other service entities were targeted for "clean-up." Whether in a public or private organization executives or senior leaders must consider all parties involved and how they act on their behalf. Executives or senior leaders must also consider the role that organizational transparency plays in their decision making. In fact, Aguilera and Cuervo-Cazurra (2004) argued that "the codes of good governance are assets of best practice recommendations regarding the behavior and structure of the board of directors of a firm" (p. 419). In the end, good governance leads to good decision making.

4. Decision Making

As an executive or senior leader many times folks look to you as the "shell answer man." That reference is from a gasoline commercial from the 70s. The shell answer man was looked upon as the guy having all of the answers to any questions related to shell gasoline. As have been stated earlier in this article, there is no one person who has all of the answers for today's organizational challenges whether in the public or private arena. Senior executives or leaders have to have at their disposal multiple resources to help them make informed and effective decisions. That is critically true when managing an organization, collaborative, or any like entity. The question today is what types of tools are there for executive or senior leaders to use to help them manage the "wicked" (what some researchers call complex problems) problems of the global world we live, work, and play in? The answer to the previous question is there are many decision tools. It just depends on what outcome the individual or organization is hoping to achieve (Mumford et al. 2000, Koerner 2009, Courtney et al. 2013). There is not enough space in this article to expound on the different types of decision making tools. Kurtz and Snowden (2003) argued that there has to be a new strategy to organizational decision making. In fact, the authors suggested that because of the complexity in our decision making, decision makers can no longer make decisions based on "the assumptions of order, rational choice, and good intentions" (p. 462).

Snowden and Boone (2007) and Snowden (2008) suggested that the Cynefin ("pronounced (ku-nev-in) framework, ("a Welsh word that signifies the multiple factors in our environment and our experience that influence us in ways we can never understand.") is a tool that can be used to help decision makers make good decisions as to the proper direction for their organization. The authors are not suggesting that Cynefin is an end-all-to-be-all solution to an organization's problems because there are other decision making tools out there. However, the authors are saying that "cynefin is one tool that gives decision makers a powerful new construct that they can use to make sense of a wide range of unspecified problems" (p. 468). The most interesting thing in the cynefin framework is how it allows the user (s) to examine a problem from a nonlinear perspective unlike older decision support tools. Most decision support tools come from the perspective of order, choice, and intent because that is how it has been for a very long time (Courtney, Lovallo, & Clarke 2013).

Yukl (2001), Hazy (2006), Lichtenstein et al., (2006), Kaiser et al., (2008), Uhl-Bien, Marion, and McKelvey (2008), Prewitt et al. (2011), and Olmedo (2012) all have argued that today's leaders need to shift their leadership and decision making perspective from the traditional outlook (a linear approach) to one more inclusive of complexity, nonlinearity, adaptability, and emergence. This new direction for leaders allows more creative and flexible thinking and management which in turn allows more effective decision making (Beshears & Gino 2015). This is important for executive and senior managers in an organization because the outcomes of their decisions affect individuals up and down the entirety of the organization. Whether one is making decisions as a part of a collaboration, multi-party organization, or public entity consideration must be given to how decisions are made and the organizational impact that will be felt as a result of them (Rogers & Blenko 2006).

Therefore, developing good decision makers requires being intentional when considering how senior or executive leader's careers are developed in the coming years. Day et al. (2014) argued that in the past 25 years of leadership development, we still do not know the best road to take to become an effective leader. Not having a standard practice allows for all kinds of interpretations which affects the quality of training rendered. For those senior or executives working in local, federal, and state government it is a similar story when it comes to executive development. The authors also argued that early development in a leader's development is crucial for them to become the efficient and effective decision maker organizations need and want today.

Brook and Hartney (2015) did a study on the management of the United States government's senior executive talent. The authors' findings suggested that federal senior or executive managers need to be a part of the executive development process in the early stages of their government careers. That means coaches, trainers, mentors, etc., need to help potential executive leaders develop the necessary skill-set as early as possible as they advance in their careers. It is important because they might have to deal with not-for-profit providers, for-profit contractors, and private industry as a part of representing their agency. An important consideration is that all of this is done within an environment consisting of less or no resources, constant change, and rapidly advancing technologies.

Conclusion

Today, in leadership and management there must be a new way to think about how to solve problems. Many of today's challenges are not just of the local or national variety, but are global in nature and therefore much more challenging. According to Weaver (1948), Uhl-Bien (2001), Alimo-Metcalfe (2005), Hazy (2006, 2010), Lichtenstein (2006), Olmedo (2012), Loorbach (2010), Day et al. (2013), Tummers and Knies (forthcoming) leaders must develop new ways to deal with the complexities of today's organizations. Senior or executive leader development is an important component to the success of future leaders who make the critical decisions that affect an organization. This is especially important for the leader of a complex adaptive system (CAS) such as an organization. It is even more important now because there are four generations of workers in the workforce. They all bring a different set of social, political, and moral values to the job every day. According to Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, and Lance (2010), today's workforce consist of "the Silent Generation: (born 1925-1945), Baby Boomers (born 1946-1964), Generation X (born 1965-1981), and Generation Me (born 1982-1999)" (p. 1118).

There are several things that senior or executive managers must realize. First, they must understand that the workforce has changed from when they entered into it (Ekaterini 2010, Perry & Wise 1990, Perry et al. 2010). Second, senior or executive leaders must be flexible enough to embrace the generational differences in work values presently in the workplace (Ekaterini 2010, Twenge et al. 2010). Collaborative thinking, effective leadership, effective governance, and efficient decision making from executive or senior leaders will be critical in managing global challenges such as terrorism, hunger, poverty, and a host of other challenges in the coming years.

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Mentoring, Ability, Passion, and Pay, (MAPP), A strategy of a reduction of unemployment among inner-city youths

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Abstract

This article examines a new strategy of redefining mentoring with a purpose. The author of this article introduces MAPP (Mentoring, Ability, Passion, and Pay). The author wishes to examine the significance of older mentors in career planning and selection of inner-city youths who ordinarily do not have career mentors to look up to. The author introduces MAPP as a strategy to assist mentors in guiding the inner-city youths by utilizing Mentoring in identifying the mentee's Ability and Passion to create a Well-Paying career. The author posits that when a mentor identifies the ability and the passion of the mentee, this provides a path to career planning which leads to career selection of a better career for the inner-city youth.

Problem Statement

The problem is unemployment rates among inner-city youths of Washington, DC especially blacks remains disproportionately higher in comparison to other populations. "Today's ghetto neighborhoods are populated almost exclusively by the most disadvantaged segments of the urban black community, that heterogeneous grouping of families and individuals who are outside the mainstream of the American occupational system." (Wilson, 2012, p.7-8). The higher unemployment rates of inner-city youths continue to be a major challenge in the Human Resources Management field. "African-Americans continue to suffer from lower rates of employment relative to Whites, but there is tremendous disagreement over the source of these disparities." (Pager, 2003, p. 987). Many policies have been put in place by the different administrations at both the local level and federal level, but the problem continues to be persistent. "Among men, employment and labor force participation among blacks consistently lag behind those of whites and even Hispanics." (Holzer, & Offner, 2006, p.13). The underlying problem is bigger than the inability to finding jobs. Most inner city youths find it difficult to find well-paying jobs that support their families due to poor career planning and selection, as a result of lack of role models. "The tight labor market appears to have put the 18-19 years old, disadvantaged black males in the sample up to even footing with the national average for black males of the similar age. In contrast, the 20-24 years old black males are much more likely to be unemployed and idle than the national sample." (Case & Katz, 1991, p.11). This study will investigate the gap in the research on the role of formalized mentoring in career planning and selection beginning as early as in elementary schools. In their study, Case & Katz (1991) recommended mentoring as one of the solutions; "Affluent adult neighbors may act as positive role models indicating that success follows from hard work and may help maintain neighborhood order. Second, neighborhoods provide youths with close proximity to others in their age group. Interaction with peers who exhibit certain behaviors may influence youths directly." (p.13). There is a plenty of evidence in the literature that shows that mentoring plays a significant role in the outcomes of the inner-city youths. Social Learning Theory is one of the common theories that can be used to address the application of the mentoring as a solution to improve the employability of the inner-city youths.

The significance of the study

A common theme in Human Resources Management field is employment rate being an indicator of the state of the economy. The lower unemployment rate below 5% indicates the healthy state of the economy and the higher unemployment rates over 10% indicate the state of the poor economy. The economy of United States has enjoyed many periods of the strong economy for many generations except for few recessions here and there. However, the economy of United States represents a tale of two economies. The inner-city youths remain behind in enjoying the benefits of the good economy even in the times of the economics' boom.

The significance of this study is the opportunity for mentoring in reducing unemployment rates among inner-city youths by offering guidance on career planning and career selection for inner-city youths. Reducing unemployment rates among inner-city youths of Washington, DC will result in the reduction of ailments that are associated with unemployment such as crime and drugs activity. There is an abundance of literature on higher unemploy-

ment rates, higher school dropouts, higher teen pregnancy, higher rates of incarcerations and crime rates among inner-city youths. Several federal policies such as affirmative action are intended to address higher unemployment rates among inner-city youths. Nevertheless, there is a gap in research that address the role of mentoring on career planning and selection for inner-city youths to secure better-paying jobs that may contribute to lowering unemployment among inner-city youths.

This study is significant to positive change because it investigates the solutions to reducing unemployment rates for inner-city youths. Many prior studies have shown that lowering unemployment rates among inner-city youths have a positive correlation with a reduction in poverty and crime. Therefore, this study surrounds itself entirely in positive change. A real positive change in Human Resources Management field will only happen if all the citizens have equal employment opportunities despite the color of their skins or which neighborhood they live.

Background information

The past 40 years has seen a major decline in the employment for inner-city youths. Many factors have been attributed to this decline, such as decrease in the factory jobs and increase in technological skills required to perform even simple tasks. For the sake of this study, I will define inner-city youths as youths between the ages of 16-24 who live in the concentrated areas of higher poverty and sometimes higher crimes rates of the large metropolitan cities of United States such as Washington, DC. The majority of these residents are blacks, although a smaller percentage of Whites and Hispanics may populate these neighborhoods. This study will refer inner-city youths as Black Americans living in the ghettos of Washington, DC. The other term that is coined around the inner-city youths is “disconnected youths” as youths who are not enrolled in school or employed anywhere.

The following table displays the disparity of unemployment rates between Whites, Blacks, Latinos, Asians and others. Despite the fact that the economy has shown a great improvement in the past four years, the unemployment rates among blacks remains disproportionally very high in comparison to Whites and Asians. The Blacks’ unemployment rate has improved since the economic recession of 2008. The table shows the employment status of the civilian non-institutional population of the ages 16 to 24 years from 2012 to 2015. The tables show the unemployment rates from year 2012, 2013, 2014, and 2015 respectively as follows; Blacks: 28.6, 28.6, 24.8 and 20.7; Asians: 14.4, 15.0, 10.9, and 10.7; Whites: 14.9; 13.9, 12.2 and 10.3. Although the table represents the unemployment rates of the United States, it is a true representative of unemployment rates of Blacks in Washington, DC. The unemployment rates of Blacks are twice as much that of Whites and Asians.

Table 1. Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population 16 to 24 years of age by sex, race, and Hispanic or Latino ethnicity, July 2012-2015

Employment status, sex, race, and Hispanic or Latino ethnicity	July 2012	July 2013	July 2014	July 2015
TOTAL				
Civilian noninstitutional population	38,799	38,861	38,735	38,589
Civilian labor force	23,472	23,506	23,437	23,162
Participation rate	60.5	60.5	60.5	60.0
Employed	19,461	19,684	20,085	20,333
Employment-population ratio	50.2	50.7	51.9	52.7
Unemployed	4,011	3,821	3,353	2,829
Looking for full-time work	3,074	2,819	2,460	2,134

Looking for part-time work	937	1,002	893	695
Unemployment rate	17.1	16.3	14.3	12.2
Not in labor force	15,327	15,355	15,298	15,426
Men				
Civilian noninstitutional population	19,554	19,587	19,527	19,442
Civilian labor force	12,355	12,283	12,335	12,011
Participation rate	63.2	62.7	63.2	61.8
Employed	10,140	10,127	10,470	10,488
Employment-population ratio	51.9	51.7	53.6	53.9
Unemployed	2,215	2,156	1,865	1,523
Looking for full-time work	1,785	1,665	1,437	1,195
Looking for part-time work	430	491	428	328
Unemployment rate	17.9	17.6	15.1	12.7
Not in labor force	7,199	7,303	7,191	7,431
Women				
Civilian noninstitutional population	19,245	19,274	19,208	19,147
Civilian labor force	11,117	11,223	11,102	11,151
Participation rate	57.8	58.2	57.8	58.2
Employed	9,321	9,557	9,614	9,846
Employment-population ratio	48.4	49.6	50.1	51.4
Unemployed	1,796	1,665	1,488	1,306
Looking for full-time work	1,289	1,154	1,023	939
Looking for part-time work	507	511	465	367
Unemployment rate	16.2	14.8	13.4	11.7
Not in labor force	8,128	8,052	8,106	7,996
White				
Civilian noninstitutional population	28,956	28,866	28,718	28,488
Civilian labor force	18,213	18,205	18,137	17,735
Participation rate	62.9	63.1	63.2	62.3
Employed	15,498	15,679	15,917	15,903
Employment-population ratio	53.5	54.3	55.4	55.8
Unemployed	2,715	2,525	2,220	1,832
Looking for full-time work	2,019	1,814	1,612	1,308
Looking for part-time work	696	711	607	524
Unemployment rate	14.9	13.9	12.2	10.3
Not in labor force	10,743	10,661	10,581	10,754
Black or African American				

Civilian noninstitutional population	5,971	5,997	5,973	5,916
Civilian labor force	3,256	3,225	3,160	3,337
Participation rate	54.5	53.8	52.9	56.4
Employed	2,323	2,315	2,376	2,645
Employment-population ratio	38.9	38.6	39.8	44.7
Unemployed	933	910	784	691
Looking for full-time work	783	771	591	604
Looking for part-time work	150	139	192	87
Unemployment rate	28.6	28.2	24.8	20.7
Not in labor force	2,715	2,772	2,813	2,580

Asian				
Civilian noninstitutional population	1,922	2,028	2,044	2,148
Civilian labor force	839	934	936	957
Participation rate	43.7	46.1	45.8	44.6
Employed	718	794	834	855
Employment-population ratio	37.4	39.2	40.8	39.8
Unemployed	121	140	102	102
Looking for full-time work	83	81	70	68
Looking for part-time work	38	59	32	34
Unemployment rate	14.4	15.0	10.9	10.7
Not in labor force	1,083	1,094	1,109	1,191

Hispanic or Latino ethnicity				
Civilian noninstitutional population	8,164	8,229	8,313	8,406
Civilian labor force	4,658	4,756	4,675	4,728
Participation rate	57.1	57.8	56.2	56.2
Employed	3,799	3,897	3,903	4,127
Employment-population ratio	46.5	47.4	47.0	49.1
Unemployed	860	859	772	601
Looking for full-time work	698	622	560	458
Looking for part-time work	162	238	212	143
Unemployment rate	18.5	18.1	16.5	12.7
Not in labor force	3,506	3,473	3,637	3,679

NOTE: Estimates for the above race groups (white, black or African American, and Asian) do not sum to totals because data are not presented for all races. Persons whose ethnicity is identified as Hispanic or Latino may be of any race. Updated population controls are introduced annually with the release of January data.

Source: www.bls.gov.

This study examines a solution that can address the issue of higher unemployment rates among the inner-city youths. The research introduces MAPP as a strategy that can address the unemployment and underemployment rates of inner-city youths at an individual level.

There are several studies that have shown that mentoring has been proven to improve the outcomes of inner-city youths. For example, increase high school graduation rates, the decrease in teen pregnancy, decrease in gang participation, and increase in college enrollment. There is no question that mentoring works. Rhodes (1994) suggested, "Given their apparent benefits, efforts have been made to replicate these natural helping relationships through volunteer mentoring programs for at-risk youth. Hundreds of mentoring programs essentially modeled after Big Brothers Big Sisters prototype, have emerged in the past few years." (p.188). However, there is a very limited research on utilizing mentoring for career planning and selection for inner-city youths. This study introduces MAPP as a strategy to address higher unemployment rates among inner-city youths by utilizing mentoring to prepare for career planning and selection. MAPP is defined as Mentoring, Ability, Pay, and Passion.

As a Program Coordinator of a mentoring organization in Washington, DC, I work directly with the inner-city youths. Part of my job is to identify, recruit, and match the compatible mentees and mentors. The mentors do an outstanding job in guiding the mentees in their lives. I have seen the lives of the children change from getting all F's to becoming an honor roll student within a year or a couple of months. My favorite story is John (not real name) at the age of 13; he had joined the gang, and using drugs, and was carrying a gun. John is the oldest child of five from a different relationship. Mom lives in a tiny two-bedroom apartment with a boyfriend and five younger kids. John felt out of place; John did not feel the love from mom. Mom did not have a one to one attention with him. He felt mom's boyfriend did not like him. So he found attention somewhere else in a gang. To make the matters worse John is very introverted, he is unable to express his frustrations. John's mother is not a type to win a mother of the year award. For the most of the day, she does not know where John is. Nevertheless, she realized John needs additional support from the mentoring organization. Along came Mr. Jones (not real name), a retired 73 years old affluent White man from the wealthy suburb of Chevy Chase in Washington, DC. In the beginning, John did not want to go out with Mr. Jones. A year later little John shared with Mr. Jones that the reason he did not want to go out with him at the beginning of the mentoring relationship because he was in a gang, and he had a gun. Mr. Jones is very faithful, he spends every Saturday morning with him, and sometimes he goes to John's school to work with his teachers about his studies. A year later John is an honor roll student; he does not use drugs, not in the gang. He recently asked Mr. Jones; would you drive me to college? When I turn 18 will you still be my big brother? In answering the two questions yes, if Mr. Jones is still able he can drive John to college, and he will still be his big unofficial big brother. Here is the problem MAPP is trying to address, according to the organization's policies. The mentoring relationship must come to an end when the child graduates from high school or when they reach the age of 18, whichever comes first. A lot of time the mentees have not fully transitioned to the work place or college and, therefore, are left in a limbo. Some mentors continue the relationship without the agency's supervision, but most mentors continue to do other things, and some mentors will take on new children. MAPP strategy can be used to fill the gap by providing the smooth transitioning to adulthood. In traditional mentoring, mentors guide younger people. According to Rhodes (1994), "The term mentoring has generally been used to describe a relationship between an older, more experienced mentor and an unrelated, younger protégée. The mentor typically provides ongoing guidance, instruction, and encouragement." (P.188). There is no argument that mentoring has many benefits with positive outcomes on the mentees. MAPP will go one step further by providing a focused mentoring that is focused on preparing the young mentees in entering the workforce.

MAPP is the process of mentoring with a focus in career development and selection by utilizing Mentoring to identify the Ability and the Passion of the Mentee to plan for a Paying career. This is how MAPP process will work. In addition to their roles as traditional mentors in guiding the mentee in a right path, the mentors will be trained to work with the mentees at a very early age in identifying their abilities and passions in life. After identifying the abilities and passion, the mentors explore different careers that will fit in the abilities and the passion of the mentees. Then, together the mentor and mentee select at least three possible career paths that will result into a career. After identifying these careers the mentor's responsibility is to participate in weekly activities that will culminate to the chosen career paths at the end of the match. MAPP will be an essential link for inner-city youths because there are not enough resources in the inner-city neighborhoods that can facilitate the youth's

transition to the workforce.

Rankin & Quane (2000) suggested,

Several forms of social capital defined as social network resources that support individuals in their efforts to realize their goals, are thought to be lacking in high poverty socially disorganized neighborhoods. First, weakly organized neighborhoods often suffer from a defeat of effective community norms. Such that residents are exposed to cultural socialization and role modelling that reinforces non-normative attitudes and behavior. In this climate, not only are youth and adults alike less likely to internalize conventional attitudes towards education, steady employment, and family stability. (p.142).

In conclusion, this study finds that the issues of unemployment and underemployment of inner-city youths cannot easily be solved by federal or local policies. The changes must be started at an individual level. It is difficult to remove the inner-city youths from the neighborhoods they grew up. Unfortunately, most of these neighborhoods do not provide the environment that facilitates better career planning and selection for the inner-city youths. Therefore, MAPP strategy can be one of the long-term solutions as the career planning and selections start at a very young age before the effects of neighborhood are fully embedded in inner-city youths.

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Abstract

Project managers should have both technical skills as well as interpersonal and nontechnical soft skills, referred to as emotional intelligence, to work effectively with their team and be transformational leaders. This research investigated emotional intelligence skills, leadership behaviors, and their relationship using 578 certified project management professionals from three Project Management Institute (PMI) chapters in the Washington, DC area and the global PMI Information Systems Specific Interest Group (PMI-ISSIG) to answer three research questions. A general questionnaire, the Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory, and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire were used to collect data. Statistic analysis (cluster, discriminate, and regression) demonstrated a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and emotional intelligence. Linear regression analysis revealed that nearly half of the variation in leadership behaviors is accounted for by variation in emotional intelligence data. More especially, a step-wise multiple regression analysis showed that 34% of the relationship was contributed directly by eight of the 15 EQ components: interpersonal, optimism, self actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing, adaptability, and impulsive control. The study findings suggest that developing these eight emotional intelligence components in project managers provides a basis for cumulative, long-term benefits to organizations in managing complex and dynamic projects. The study contributes toward positive social change in the project management community by introducing a new paradigm highlighting how soft interpersonal skills of project managers play key roles in project success besides the traditional PMI triple constraints of cost, schedule, and quality.

Introduction

The close of the 20th century witnessed a paradigm shift in organizational settings from hierarchically structured entities to networked organizations. This transition forced organizational leaders to venture into an exploration of a broader range of leadership styles suited for the challenges of the 21st century. With the globalization of markets, the increasing diversity of workforces, and the emphasis on time as a critical element in an organization's ability to compete, the need to develop emotionally intelligent leadership skills and competencies has never been greater. Networked, interdependent, and culturally diverse organizations require transformational leadership more often than other organizations do (Cascio, 1995). The dynamic and complex nature of projects and their interdependence within the overall organizational setting indicates a need for project managers to be more effective.

Bass and Avolio (1995) showed interest in testing a new paradigm of transformational and transactional leadership and studied the connection between project management and leadership, including the behaviors that inspire and motivate followers. Project management, often described in the context of leadership, was ubiquitous in the past as the medium by which changes in societies occurred (Cleland & Gareis, 2006). The real leaders of history were the people who managed political organizations, countries, explorations, war technologies, social change, and so forth. The principal challenge to managers is the need to create change for the better or to manage the change that affected their societies. The thinking process that project managers use must include managing intangible as well as tangible factors of projects. Project managers must be intuitive in making judgments and decisions, including having the capability for both conceptual analysis and integration. In addition to having skills and experience with project tools and techniques, project managers' effectiveness also depends on personal characteristics and the leadership qualities necessary to achieve the integration. Leadership is intrinsically an emotional process whereby leaders recognize followers' emotional states, attempt to evoke emotions in

followers, and then seek to manage followers' emotional states accordingly (Humphrey, 2002). As it plays a key factor in an individual's ability to be socially effective, leadership literature also indicates that emotional intelligence is a key determinant of effectiveness in communicating with team members, key stakeholders, and external management.

Burns (1978) paved the way for the new leadership theory that changes focus from studying the traits of great men and transactional management to the interaction of leaders and how they lead as collaborators working toward mutual benefits. Burns contended that transformational leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Transformational leadership works toward a common goal with followers, puts followers in front and develops them, takes followers to the next level, and inspires followers to transcend their own self-interest in achieving superior results. According to Bass and Riggio (2006) a transformational leader recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of potential followers and looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the followers.

Lugo (2007) and Meredith (2007) revealed the effect of emotional intelligence on leadership transformation in various sectors of the economy. Project management as one of the modern management branches requires people involved in managing large and complex projects to combine their emotional intelligence skills to develop transformational leadership skills. Recognition of the strategic importance of project management in the corporate world is rapidly accelerating. One of the reasons for the acceleration is a strong belief by business leaders and executive managers that aligning project management principles with organizational business strategies will significantly enhance the achievement of organizational goals, strategies, and performance. A comprehensive understanding of what it takes to deliver complex projects is a challenge to organizational leaders and project managers across all sectors of the economy (Tessema, 2008). Emotional intelligence skills are a foundation for taking a project and its management to the next level.

Background

As a widely discussed topic in social sciences, emotional intelligence has become one of the cornerstones for identifying leadership and management styles in modern organizations. Emotional intelligence focuses on both head and heart and brings together the field of emotions and intelligence by viewing emotions as useful sources of information that help one make sense of and navigate the social environment (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, p. 339). In human history, the relationships between heart and head, thinking and emotion, and reason and passion have been a subject of debate (Meredith, 2007, p. 15). The theoretical foundation of emotional intelligence dates back to the early 1920s when E. L. Thorndike and his team first identified emotional intelligence as social intelligence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Thorndike defined social intelligence as the ability to understand and manage men, women, boys, and girls to act wisely in human relations. The ability is prevalent in the nursery, on the playground, and in the barracks. In 1937, Thorndike and Stern established a scale to measure social intelligence in three areas: (a) individuals' attitudes toward society and its various components, including politics, economics, and values; (b) individuals' social knowledge, such as being well-versed in sports, contemporary issues, and general information about society; and (c) individuals' degrees of social adjustment, categorized as introversion and extraversion. The George Washington Social Intelligence Test, developed by Thorndike's team, was the first test to measure an individual's judgment in social situations and in relationship problems (Goleman, 2001).

Over half a century passed without significant movement in the field of emotional intelligence until Gardner developed his groundbreaking theory of multiple intelligences (personal, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligence). In his research, Gardner (1993) questioned the idea that intelligence is a single entity, that it results from a single factor, and that an IQ test can easily measure intelligence. Various emotional intelligence models have been developed based on the foundational works of Thorndike and Gardner. As shown in Exhibit 1, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) categorized the new emotional intelligence models into two major groups: the ability model and the mixed model.

The focus of the ability model is one's capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them. Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model of emotional intelligence is related to the ability model. The mixed model combines noncognitive and competency factors. Both the Bar-On (2004) and Goleman (1995) models fall into the mixed-model category. Building upon his doctoral research in 1988, Bar-On developed a model to measure emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2004), defining emotional intelligence as "an array of emotional and social knowledge and abilities that influence our overall ability to effectively cope with environmental demands" (p. 14).

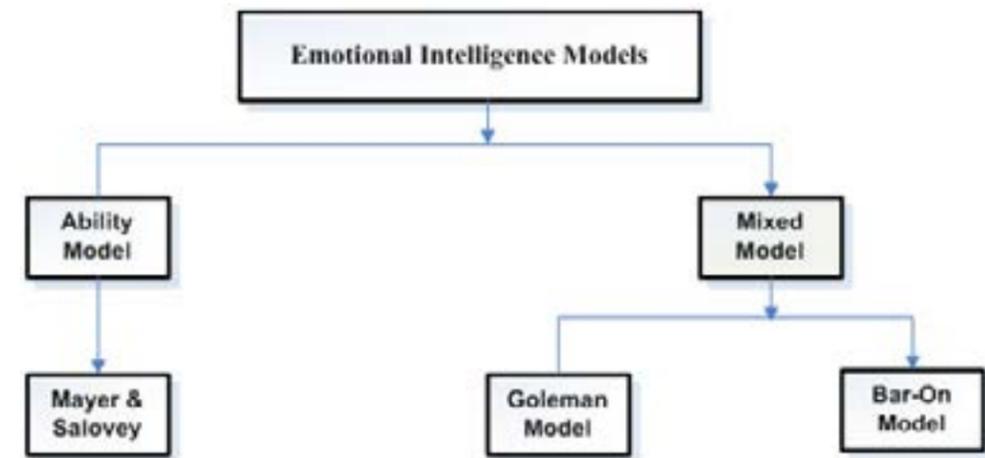


Exhibit1. Emotional intelligence models categorized by their function.

ties that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition (Goleman et al., 2002). The four tiers were (a) a mental ability model that allows an individual to perceive, appraise, and express emotions; (b) using emotion to facilitate and prioritize thinking; (c) labeling and distinguishing between emotions by differentiating between liking and loving and by understanding a complex mixture of feelings; and (d) the general ability to marshal emotions in support of a social goal.

Within the same timeframe with Bar-On, Dulewicz and Higgs (2000a) have produced EiQ model derived from empirical research into personal factors related to EI, and particularly into "emotionally and socially competent behavior (Dulewicz, Higgs, and Slaski, 2003). In a seven-year longitudinal exploratory study Dulewicz and Higgs used 16 competencies on a sample of general managers resulted promising reliability and predictive validity. The outcome of this study and additional extensive literature review on the field helped the researchers to develop a tailored questionnaire (EiQ) to assess seven elements of an individual's emotional intelligence (Dulewicz and Higgs, 1999; 2000a).

Daniel Goleman used Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence model to build his five emotional and social dimensions model. Goleman (1995) contended that noncognitive skills play as much of a role as IQ in understanding how emotional intelligence matters in work life. Goleman (1995) also explored the relationship between emotional or social intelligence and people's value in the workplace. Goleman (1998) demonstrated a model of emotional intelligence based on the competencies that enable people to demonstrate an intelligent use of their emotions in managing themselves and working with others to be effective at work. A combination of the mind and heart (cognition and emotion) is the center point for Goleman's (1995) book and research. Goleman (1995) contended that some abilities are purely cognitive, like IQ or technical expertise, whereas other abilities integrate thought and feeling and fall within the domain of emotional intelligence.

Burns (1978) introduced his model of transactional and transformational leadership in 1978 and several researchers (Bass, 1990; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003) attempted to apply the theory to organizational leadership and project management. Transformational leadership occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interest of employees; while generating awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group, transformational leaders stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interests for the good of the group

(Bass, 1990). Bass et al. (2003, p. 208) identified four components of transformational leadership, referred to as a higher order construct: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration.

The Challenge

Despite the influx of emotional intelligence models and leadership theories and their definitions, researchers and theorists continue to seek to understand the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership better as it applies to organizational development in general and project management in particular. Emotional intelligence as an emerging concept for developing leadership quality in project management is a topic of interest for modern organizational leaders. Effective project managers must have both hard technical skills to control the triple constraints (cost, time, and scope) and interpersonal and nontechnical soft skills (emotional intelligence) to work effectively with their team and stakeholders. Considering the temporary nature of project organizations, establishing a quick leadership structure that is based on trust between leaders and team members would play a pivotal role for the success of the project. Successful project leaders are becoming aware of associated links between project life-cycle stage completions and the necessary group virtues that facilitate each project stage (Kloppenborg and Petrick, 1999). Lee, Sweeney, and Shaughnessy (1999) argued that the success of project is based on visionary project leaders that foster project team participation, sharing decision making, and promotion of a cooperative atmosphere within the team.

Leban and Zulauf (2004) conducted a study using 24 project managers and their associated projects in six organizations, and the result showed that project managers' transformational leadership style had a positive impact on actual project performance. Furthermore, emotional intelligence ability contributed to project managers' transformational leadership style and subsequent project performance. The study also showed a link between emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership style (p. 560). The researchers have also found that overall emotional intelligence and the ability to understand emotions were found to relate significantly with the inspirational motivations component of transformational leadership. Butler and Chinowsky (2006) conducted a study of 130 construction executives for their emotional intelligence as measured by their emotional quotient in relation to developing transformational leadership behaviors. The researchers identified five specific components of EQ that are related to transformational leadership.

Although the technique of improving emotional intelligence is well documented, a gap exists in the literature regarding the link between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership skills. Little empirical research has examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in project management. A large number of Information Technology projects fail and are never brought to completion (Chulkov & Desai, 2005). Czurchy and Yasin (2003) and Gottshalk and Karlsen (2005) contended that ineffective leadership is one reason for project failure. The Project Management Institute (PMI) has identified this challenge as one of the potential research areas that might help to resolve issues related to project failure and improve project success. The PMI also encourages its members and affiliated research communities from various universities and research institutes to conduct research related to improving project managers' interpersonal and intrapersonal skills to better manage dynamic and complex projects (PMI, 2004). Roland Gareis (2004) argued that there are emotions in projects. He mapped out the various levels of emotions with the five phases of project life cycle – initiation, planning, execution, controlling, and closing

Bryson (2005), Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2005), Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2004), Meredith (2007), and Vitello-Cicciu (2001) attempted to connect emotional intelligence and leadership style, performance improvement, job satisfaction, and leadership effectiveness using empirical evidence. However, Bryson; Kerr et al.; Matthews et al.; Meredith, and Vitello-Cicciu mainly focused on high-level organizational settings in the public sector, in the military, or in academic institutions and conducted very little research on project management.

Transformational leaders elevate the desire of followers for achievement and self-development, while also promoting the development of groups and organizations. Instead of responding to the immediate self-interest of followers with either a carrot or a stick, transformational leaders arouse in the individual a heightened awareness of key issues for the group and organization, while increasing the confidence of followers and gradually

moving them from concerns for existence to concerns for achievement, growth, and development (Bass, 1985). In the study transformational leadership was measured by the MLQ 5X developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). The subscales for the instrument were idealized influence, idealized attributes, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Three research questions were used in the study to investigate the relationship between the variables identifying the emotional intelligence profile, common leadership practices, and leadership preferences of project managers. The dependent variables for the study were the perceived level transformational leadership behaviors. Because a survey captures information at a single point in time, it is not possible to manipulate the independent variables; thus, the nonmanipulated independent variables are components of emotional intelligence.

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) were used to gather data on the emotional intelligence and leadership skill profiles of PMPs from local PMI chapters in the Washington, DC area and a few specific interest groups around the world. The Bar-On EQ-i is a self-report instrument that measures the model's five composite scales (intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability, and general mood). The MLQ 5X is a comprehensive survey of 45 items measuring a broad range of leadership types including transformational, transactional, and nontransactional (passive, avoidant). The MLQ 5X is used to collect information from passive leaders, from leaders who give contingent rewards to followers, and from leaders who transform their followers into becoming leaders themselves.

Literature about emotional intelligence and leadership listed in the previous section provided the basis for the hypotheses of the study. The hypothesis used for the study was that project managers with a high degree of emotional intelligence are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership styles than are project managers with a low degree of emotional intelligence. The null hypotheses for the study were as follows:

H01: There is no difference in leadership behaviors between project managers with high emotional intelligence scores with those having low scores.

H02: Project managers with higher emotional intelligence scores do not demonstrate more transformational leadership behaviors than those with low scores.

H03: Project managers with lower emotional intelligence scores do not demonstrate a greater tendency to use transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviors.

To support the hypotheses, the study addressed the following three research questions:

1. What are the emotional intelligence profiles of project managers?
2. What are the most common leadership styles reported by project managers?
3. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and the leadership styles of project managers?

Research Design

PMI-certified professionals (project management professionals or PMPs) from three PMI local chapters (Washington, DC; Silver Spring, MD; and Montgomery County, MD) and the global PMI Information Systems Specific Interest Group (PMI-ISSIG) with over 15,000 members around the world were invited to participate in the study through an e-mail distribution to complete a general questionnaire, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X, and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) survey on the study's website at <http://www.emotionsandleadership.com>. The participants completed a consent form and were provided instruction on how to complete the survey. Eight hundred forty-two project managers visited the survey site, 264 completed some portion of the study, and 578 participants completed all three sections of the study. Of the total respondents, 53% were male and 47% were female. The study participants' experience was categorized by years of service: junior project managers had 1-5 years of experience, mid-level project managers had 6-10 years, and senior project managers had 11 years and above. The distribution of positions according to the level of experience as junior, mid-level, and senior project manager was also outlined. Exhibit 2 shows the respondents' breakdown

by experience and gender.

Position description	Males	Females	Total
Junior project manager (1-5 years of experience)	42	43	85
Mid-level project manager (6-10 years of experience)	73	101	174
Senior project manager (11 years and above)	188	130	318

Exhibit2. Experience by Gender (N = 578)

The study was planned to cover a wide range of sectors of the economy by selecting the three Washington DC PMI chapters that have over 10,000 members collectively and the global PMI ISSIG, which has over 15,000 members. Exhibit 3 shows the distribution of the survey participants over 17 sectors.

Industry type	Males	Females	Total
Business services consultant	42	27	69
Communication carrier	4	6	10
Construction/architecture/engineering	10	6	16
Data processing services	24	10	34
Education	2	4	6
Federal government	39	40	79
Finance/banking/accounting	22	19	41
Health sector	9	19	28
Insurance/real estate	12	16	28
Legal services	0	2	2
Manufacturing	17	12	29
Other	30	42	72
No response	69	48	116
Publishing/broadcast/advertising/public relations/marketing	4	4	8
Research/development lab	5	6	11
Retailer/wholesaler/distributor	7	2	9
State or local government	6	7	13
Transportation	1	1	2
Utilities	2	3	5

Exhibit3. Survey Participants by Industry (N = 578)

The data were analyzed using a number of different methods to answer the three research questions. Each step of the analysis provided different pieces of information about the data.

In the descriptive statistics section, basic demographic data collected from the general questionnaire allowed the participants to be grouped by experience, gender, organizational type, education, age, and PMI certification level. This step also gave an overview and general patterns of the data. In the second step, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was completed to determine the statistical significance among differences in grouped variables. For the third and last step, multivariate data analysis techniques including cluster, discriminant, regression, and correlation analysis were applied to the data.

Cluster analysis of 21 components and subcomponents of emotional intelligence and 12 components of leadership behaviors created 11 clusters, which allowed the researchers to see if natural groupings existed within the data. After the cluster groups were identified, multiple discriminant and stepwise analyses were run to deter-

mine how the groups differed due to different independent variables. Bivariate and multiple regression analyses were also run to identify the components that most influenced the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership behaviors. As the last step, correlation coefficient analysis was run to assess the relationship of emotional intelligence with each of the leadership behaviors further.

Data Analysis

In this section, the result of the quantitative study is reported

Emotional Intelligence

The Bar-On EQ-i was used to test emotional intelligence. The test has been set to the general population where each area's average score is 100. Scores falling above or below the general average of 100 are either better or worse than the overall population. The average emotional intelligence of the project managers who participated in the study was 101.07, with a range from 45 to 135 out of a total possible score of 140. The overall standard deviation was 13.02 compared with the general population score of 100 with standard deviation of 15. Out of the five major components, stress management and adaptability had the highest score with 103.15 and 102.53, respectively, while intrapersonal was above the average with 101.7 but much closer to the mean of 100. Interpersonal and general mood had lower scores with 98.41 and 99.55, which is slightly lower than the average population. In the subcomponents analysis, a greater range of scores was seen, with interpersonal relationship scoring the lowest of the 15 with 97.02 and assertiveness, independence, stress tolerance, and problem solving all above 103. Five of the 15 subcomponents (self-regard, self-actualization, empathy, interpersonal relationship, and happiness) scored below the average. Self-regard scored only 0.01 below the average. The range of standard deviation for the various elements was tighter than in the general population and ranged from 10.78 to 15.67. Exhibit 4 outlines the descriptive statistics on the various emotional intelligence scales.

	Min.	Max.	M	SD
Total emotional intelligence	45	135	101.07	13.205
Intrapersonal	53	130	101.71	13.693
Self-regard	47	125	99.99	13.595
Emotional self-awareness	43	130	101.59	15.670
Assertiveness	46	131	103.35	13.504
Independence	55	126	104.29	12.381
Self-actualization	45	124	99.30	13.896
Interpersonal	27	130	98.41	14.471
Empathy	30	123	98.90	15.210
Social responsibility	41	122	100.23	13.076
Interpersonal relationship	38	128	97.02	15.533
Stress management	45	132	103.15	13.459
Stress tolerance	47	133	103.64	13.199
Impulse control	39	129	101.71	13.993
Adaptability	62	137	102.53	12.070
Reality testing	40	130	100.66	13.238
Flexibility	61	135	102.90	13.792
Problem solving	74	128	103.05	10.775
General mood	38	128	99.55	13.084
Optimism	50	127	101.27	12.093
Happiness	38	124	98.83	14.387

Exhibit4. Descriptive Statistics: Emotional Intelligence Components (N = 578)

Leadership Behaviors

The MLQ was used to report participants’ responses on a 5-point scale. The MLQ is a self-report test where respondents choose descriptive statements characteristic of their leadership style. The 45 items on the test “identify and measure key leadership and effectiveness behaviors shown in prior research to be strongly linked with both individual and organizational success” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 12). The test plotted responses according to leadership styles, including transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Each of the five possible responses for the questions was given a numerical value of 1 through 5, where 1 = not at all and 5 = frequently, if not always.

Exhibit 5 outlines the descriptive statistics on the MLQ. The group averaged 4.23 for transformational leadership behavior. On this scale, the use of transformational leadership 100% of the time would score 5.0. Looking at the transformational leadership behaviors, on the average the group felt they engaged in those behaviors regularly.

	Min.	Max.	M	SD
Transformational leadership	4.06	4.35	4.23	0.1503
Idealized influence attribute	4.13	4.35	4.22	0.0925
Idealized influence behavior	4.13	4.13	4.22	0.0925
Inspirational motivation	3.86	4.38	4.19	0.2299
Intellectual stimulation	4.13	4.35	4.22	0.0925
Individual consideration	4.13	4.51	4.31	0.1862
Transactional leadership	2.63	4.15	3.16	0.6980
Contingent reward	3.61	4.60	4.05	0.4112
Management by exception (active)	2.66	3.58	2.92	0.4458
Management by exception (passive)	1.61	4.27	2.51	1.2371
Laissez-faire leadership	1.47	1.62	1.54	0.0621

Exhibit5. Descriptive Statistics: Multifactor Leadership Components (N = 578)

From the transformational leadership behaviors, individual consideration is the most highly scored behavior followed by idealized influences (both attribute and behaviors). Within the transactional leadership category, contingent reward scored higher followed by management by exception (active). The group had an average of 3.16, indicating a level just above the response of sometimes, where the contingent reward behavior average 4.05 represented fairly often and management by exception (active and passive) scored 2.92 and 2.51, respectively. Laissez-faire leadership behaviors scored 1.54, which represented somewhere between not at all and once in a while on the scale, indicating that the survey respondents did not report this leadership behavior frequently.

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA was run by using gender, position, and position and gender as the factors or categorical independent variables. The dependent variables included scales of emotional intelligence and leadership behaviors. For the gender ANOVA, there was one degree of freedom because there were two groups: 1 = male, 2 = female. Exhibit 6 shows the F statistics and p values from the ANOVA.

Emotional intelligence variable	F statistics	p values
Emotional self-awareness	13.808	.000
Independence	5.942	.015
Interpersonal relationship	21.995	.000
Empathy	22.974	.000

Social responsibility	10.680	.001
Interpersonal relationships	19.606	.000
Happiness	6.010	.015

Exhibit6. ANOVA Result for Gender

Out of the 21 emotional intelligence scales and three leadership behaviors, eight emotional intelligence areas were considered significant and none of the leadership behaviors were found to be significant at the $p < .05$ level. For the ANOVA applied to experience levels, three groups (1 = senior project manager, 2 = mid-level project manager, and 3 = junior project manager) were used and the result are listed in Exhibit 7.

Variables	F statistics	p value
Total emotional intelligence	4.254	.015
Intrapersonal relationship	3.538	.030
Self-regard	3.324	.040
Independence	5.142	.040
Stress management	6.164	.002
Stress tolerance	10.867	.000
Adaptability	4.700	.009
Reality testing	6.115	.002
Problem solving	3.206	.041
General mood	4.078	.017
Optimism	5.199	.006

Exhibit7. ANOVA Results for Experience

The experience ANOVA showed a significant difference in 11 of the 21 emotional intelligence components. The remaining variables for experience were not significant at the $p < .05$ level. The final ANOVA was applied to the combination of gender and experience. Exhibit 8 summarizes the results and shows the areas found to be significant on the three different ANOVAs.

Variables	F statistics	p value
Interpersonal	6.08	.000
Empathy	6.284	.000
Stress tolerance	4.821	.001
Social responsibility	3.686	.006
Emotional self-awareness	3.140	.014
Optimism	2.944	.020
Assertiveness	2.91	.021
Intrapersonal	2.409	.048

Exhibit8. ANOVA Results for Gender and Experience

The categories generated by the interaction of position and gender are male, female + senior project manager, male + mid-level project manager, and male + senior project manager. Exhibit 9 summarizes the post hoc test results.

AS	PV	ESA	PV	E	PV	IPS	PV	IPR	PV	O	PV	ST	PV	SR	PV
M(1)															
2	.062	2	.120	2	.016	2	.201	2	.008	2	.517	2	.107	2	.105
3	.732	3	.881	3	.507	3	.458	3	.621	3	.542	3	.006	3	.818
4	.963	4	.091	4	.003	4	.402	4	.002	4	.881	4	.047	4	.022
6	.533	6	.067	6	.001	6	.883	6	.003	6	.131	6	.000	6	.152
F(2)															
1	.062	1	.120	1	.016	1	.201	1	.008	1	.517	1	.107	1	.105
3	.002	3	.015	3	.012	3	.004	3	.002	3	.070	3	.089	3	.008
4	.028	4	.701	4	.302	4	.668	4	.382	4	.325	4	.476	4	.275
6	.046	6	.724	6	.176	6	.073	6	.724	6	.001	6	.002	6	.711
FSM(3)															
1	.732	1	.881	1	.507	1	.458	1	.621	1	.542	1	.006	1	.818
2	.002	2	.015	2	.012	2	.004	2	.002	2	.070	2	.089	2	.008
4	.636	4	.016	4	.002	4	.046	4	.001	4	.591	4	.479	4	.001
6	.145	6	.003	6	.000	6	.170	6	.000	6	.195	6	.215	6	.013
FSM(4)															
1	.963	1	.091	1	.003	1	.402	1	.002	1	.881	1	.047	1	.022
2	.028	2	.701	2	.302	2	.668	2	.382	2	.325	2	.476	2	.275
3	.636	3	.016	3	.002	3	.046	3	.001	3	.591	3	.479	3	.001
6	.483	6	.905	6	.997	6	.322	6	.527	6	.101	6	.076	6	.150
MSP(5)															
1	.533	1	.067	1	.001	1	.883	1	.003	1	.131	1	.000	1	.152
2	.046	2	.724	2	.176	2	.073	2	.724	2	.001	2	.002	2	.711
3	.145	3	.003	3	.000	3	.170	3	.000	3	.195	3	.215	3	.013
4	.483	4	.905	4	.997	4	.322	4	.527	4	.101	4	.076	4	.150

Note. AS = assertiveness, PV = p value, ESA = emotional self-awareness, E = empathy, IPS = intrapersonal skills, IPR = interpersonal relationship, O = optimism, ST = stress tolerance, SR = social responsibility, M(1) = male, F(2) = female, FSM(3) = female + senior project manager, MMP(4) = male + mid-level project manager, MSP(4) = male + senior project manager.

Exhibit 9. Post hoc Test for ANOVA for the Combination of Gender and Experience

Each category (male = 1, female = 2, female and senior project manager = 3; male + mid-level project manager = 4; and male + senior project manager = 5) was compared to each of the other categories to determine if there were any differences in the means for each category of emotional intelligence. Differences in the means are denoted in bold because these means have p values of <.05, indicating that there is a difference between the means of each category identified in the table. Under assertiveness, there is a difference between the females and the categories female + senior project manager, male + mid-level project manager, and male + senior project manager. Most interesting is that the category female + senior project manager has differences with males, male + mid-level project manager, and male + senior project manager for the emotional intelligence variables emotional self-awareness, empathy, interpersonal relationships, and social responsibility. This result indicates that females with experience will have more self-awareness, higher interpersonal relationships, and higher social responsibility to manage projects than men will have. For the category male + senior project manager for the emotional intelligence of stress tolerance, differences exist between the categories male and female. These

differences could be attributed to the way stress is handled differently between the genders. For the category of males versus the emotional intelligence variables empathy and interpersonal relationships, it shows differences between the categories of males, female + senior project manager, male + mid-level project manager, and male + senior project manager. There were no differences with females.

Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis was performed on the two sets of variables, emotional intelligence components and leadership behaviors, to identify groups of respondents who share similarities. On the cluster analysis of the transformational leadership variable, convergence was achieved after nine iterations due to no or a small change in the cluster center creating three distinct groups, high, low, and middle, with 228, 124, and 225 cases, respectively. The cluster centers were 4.65 for the high group, 3.64 for the low group, and 4.14 for the middle group. The distance between high and medium cluster centers was 0.509, between medium and low was 0.499, and between high and low was 1.008. Exhibit 10 shows the cluster diagram with the three identified clusters.



Exhibit 10. Cluster membership by transformational leadership.

The analysis showed that the cluster with the highest transformational score had a higher average age, longer experience, and high emotional intelligence components. In contrast, the lowest cluster group had the lowest average of age, education, and emotional intelligence scores. Because the hypothesis of the research focused on the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviors,

to further examine these two variables, average emotional intelligence components and subcomponent scores were grouped under the three transformational leadership clusters.

Exhibit 11 shows the average emotional intelligence scores of the high, middle, and low transformational leadership behaviors. Cluster 1 scored high in average emotional intelligence with 107.27 and in every component and subcomponent of emotional intelligence followed by Cluster 2 with an average emotional intelligence score of 98.89 and Cluster 3 with a score of 93.46. The cluster analysis indicated a strong relationship existed between the two variables. The analysis also showed that in every emotional intelligence component and subcomponent, the high transformational leadership group's average emotional intelligence scores were higher than the middle group's scores, which in turn were higher than the average scores for the low group.

	High-level leadership (Cluster 1)	Middle-level leadership (Cluster 2)	Low-level leadership (Clusters 3)
Total emotional intelligence	107.27	98.89	93.46
Intrapersonal	107.62	99.76	94.13
Self-regard	104.11	99.06	93.97
Emotional self awareness	107.23	99.29	94.98
Assertiveness	108.31	100.85	102.59
Independence	107.63	102.59	101.40
Self actualization	104.87	98.80	89.71

Interpersonal	105.47	95.97	89.71
Empathy	105.79	96.57	90.50
Social responsibility	105.64	98.57	93.30
Interpersonal relationship	103.63	94.60	89.02
Stress management	107.06	101.03	99.76
Stress tolerance	107.92	101.66	99.27
Impulse control	104.12	100.02	100.31
Adaptability	106.89	100.86	97.48
Reality testing	104.12	99.05	96.98
Flexibility	107.21	101.47	97.41
Problem solving	106.17	101.94	99.66
General mood	103.57	97.83	91.83
Optimism	101.35	101.77	100.06
Happiness	100.03	98.72	96.77

Exhibit11. Average EQ-i Score by Transformational Leadership Cluster (N = 578)

Multivariate Statistical Methods

Both discriminant analysis and multiple discriminant analysis were used for the scope of the study. Discriminant analysis is used when the dependent variable has two groups, and multiple discriminant analysis is used when the dependent variable has more than two groups. In some statistical books, multiple discriminant analysis is also called discriminant factor analysis or canonical discriminant analysis.

Because both dependent and independent variables have more than two groups, a phased analysis was performed. In the first phase, stepwise multiple discriminant analysis was performed on both transformational and total leadership clusters to identify important variables in explaining the difference in the clusters. Phase 2 of the analysis used variables identified in the first phase to run multiple discriminant analyses simultaneously to determine the function coefficients explaining the differences among clusters. A summary of each analysis is listed below. Various statistical techniques help discriminant analysis to recognize an accurate model. Among these techniques, Wilks's lambda and the F test allow researchers to see significance. If the F test shows significance, then the accuracy of classifying cases into correct groups is investigated (Butler, 2005, p. 109). The discriminant model makes the following assumptions: (a) the predictors are not highly correlated with each other, (b) the mean and variance of a given predictor are not correlated, (c) the correlation between two predictors is constant across groups, and (d) the values of each predictor have a normal distribution.

Discriminant Analysis for Transformational Leadership Clusters

In Phase 1, stepwise multiple discriminant analysis was run on the three transformational leadership clusters with all of the emotional intelligence components and subcomponents to determine variables important in explaining the difference among the clusters. After 42 iterations, four of the 21 emotional intelligence components and subcomponents (self-actualization, optimism, empathy, and total emotional intelligence) were selected. In Phase 2, regular discriminant analysis was run simultaneously using these four subcomponents to identify the degree of relationship on the dependent variables.

The eigenvalues table (Exhibit 12), provides information about the relative efficacy of each discriminant function. When there are two groups, the canonical correlation is the most useful measure in the table, and it is equivalent to Pearson's correlation between the discriminant scores and the groups.

Function	Eigenvalue	% of variance	Cumulative %	Canonical correlation
1	.338a	92.0	92.0	.502
2	.029a	8.0	100.0	.169

Note. The first two canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Exhibit12. Eigenvalues

The standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients (Exhibit 13) allow a comparison between variables measured on different scales. According to the interpretation of Exhibit 13, coefficients with large absolute values correspond to variables with greater discriminating ability.

	Function	
	1a	2
Empathy	.602	-.028
Optimism	.463	.068
Self-actualization	.519	1.462
Total emotional intelligence	-.228	-1.487

a Significant function.

Exhibit13. Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

Exhibit 13 shows that in Function 1, the combination of a respondent's empathy, optimism, self-actualization, and total emotional intelligence is the most important in describing variance in transformational leadership behaviors. Exhibit 14 depicts the cluster center with respect to Function 1 versus Function 2.

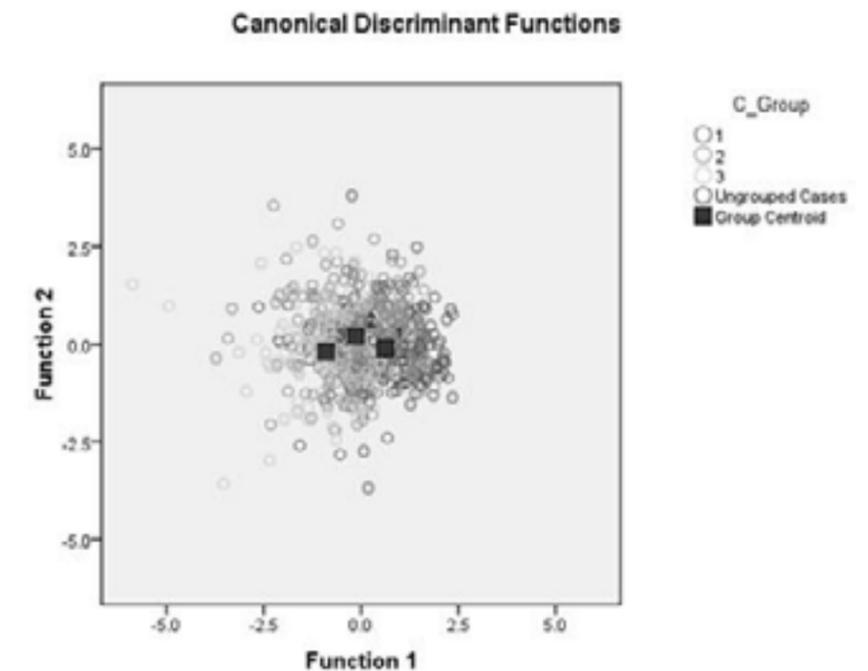


Exhibit14. Canonical discriminant functions.

Regression Analysis

Regression analysis was run to identify which components most influence the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership behaviors. The basic bivariate regression in Exhibit 15 shows that there is a relationship between total emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behavior. The regression also shows that total emotional intelligence explains 16% of the variance of transformational leadership behavior. The unstandardized regression coefficient for total emotional intelligence was 0.014, meaning that for a one-point increase in total emotional intelligence, transformational leadership increased by 0.014 on the 5-point scale.

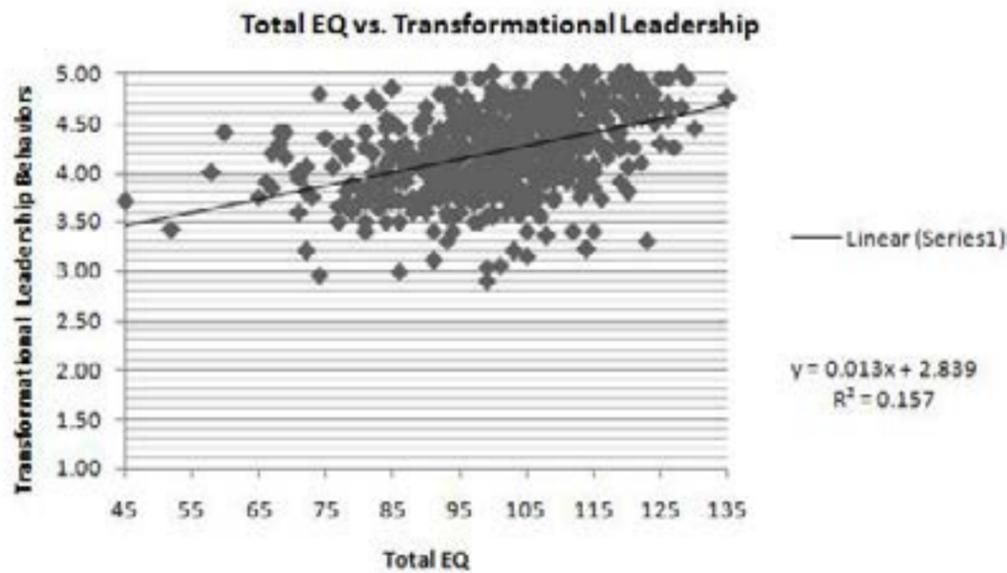


Exhibit 15. Total emotional intelligence versus transformational behaviors with regression equations and variance.

Multiple Regression

To specifically identify the components of emotional intelligence that have a direct effect on transformational leadership behaviors, a stepwise multiple regression was performed using the five major components of emotional intelligence and its 15 subcomponents. Exhibit 16 shows the summary of this analysis.

Emotional intelligence variables	R	R2
Total emotional intelligence	0.438	.0192
Five emotional intelligence components		
Interpersonal	0.447	.0200
Interpersonal, intrapersonal	0.480	.0230
Fifteen emotional intelligence subcomponents		
Interpersonal	0.447	0.200
Interpersonal, optimism	0.504	0.254
Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization	0.515	0.265
Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood	0.532	0.282
Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness	0.559	0.313
Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing	0.573	0.328
Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing, adaptability	0.577	.0333
Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing, adaptability, impulse control	0.582	0.338

Exhibit16. Regression Analysis Results for Emotional Intelligence Versus Transformational Leadership

As shown in Exhibit 16, the total emotional intelligence composite score has an R-square of nearly 0.19, which indicates that variation in the total emotional intelligence data accounts for 19% of the variation in the leadership behavior data. Among the five major components of emotional intelligence, only two (interpersonal and intrapersonal) contribute to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Eight of the 15 subcomponents of emotional intelligence (interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing, adaptability, and impulse control) showed 34% contribution to the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. This analysis is represented in the equation

(R2 = .34, F(8, 568) = 36.28, p<.05).

The highest single contributor to the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behavior was interpersonal with 20%, which was slightly higher than the average emotional intelligence score.

Findings

The research focused on determining if a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among PMI certified PMPs. The data analysis performed in the study confirmed the existence of the relationship. The hypothesis of the study was project managers scoring high in emotional intelligence would differentiate themselves in their leadership behaviors from the behaviors of leaders scoring lower in emotional intelligence. More specifically, the data showed that project managers with a high degree of emotional intelligence are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership styles than are project managers with a low degree of emotional intelligence.

The findings were categorized based on the research questions identified at the beginning of the study.

Emotional intelligence strengths: The first question asked was as follows: what are the emotional intelligence profiles of project managers? Project managers in the study had an overall average emotional intelligence score of 101.07 which is higher than the general population score of 100. Furthermore they scored above the average on 14 out of 21 emotional intelligence components and subcomponents.

Leadership Behaviors: The second research question was as follows: what are the most common leadership styles reported by project managers? Based on the data collected, project managers who participated in the survey see themselves as transformational leaders with occasional transactional leadership and fewer laissez-faire behaviors. From the transformational leadership group, individual consideration is the most highly scored behavior followed by idealized influences (both attribute and behaviors).

Relationship between EQ and Leadership Behavior: The third and final question was the center of the research, as from the beginning of the study it was thought that the most important part was determining if a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and leadership behaviors. The research question was as follows: What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and the leadership styles of project managers? As shown in Exhibit 16, the total emotional intelligence composite score has an R-square of nearly 0.19, which indicates that variation in the total emotional intelligence data accounts for 19% of the variation in the leadership behavior data.

Implications of the Study

The research findings identified key emotional intelligence components that have a direct influence on the development of transformational leadership behaviors that project and program managers require for building effective teams, planning and deciding effectively, motivating their team members, communicating a vision, promoting change, and creating effective interpersonal relationships in managing complex and dynamic projects. Caruso and Salovey (2004) and Mersino (2007) agreed that emotional intelligence can help project managers develop stakeholder relationships that support a project’s success; manage large scale and complex projects;

anticipate and avoid emotional breakdown; deal with difficult team members and manage conflict; leverage emotional information to make better decisions; communicate more effectively; create a positive work environment and high team morale; and cast a vision for shared project objectives that will attract, inspire, and motivate the project team. Sunindijo, Hadikusumo, and Ogunlana (2007) argue that project managers with high emotional intelligence demonstrated delegating, open communication, and proactive behavior within the team they are leading. Turner, Huemann, and Keegan (2008) touched the importance of human resource management (interpersonal skills) in the project oriented organization. The finding of this research confirmed the finding by others that developing people skills helps organizations to manage projects, programs, and portfolios effectively. Exhibit 17 outlines the high-level description of how this study contributes to the body of knowledge in management in general and project management in particular.



Exhibit 17. High-level description of the study contribution:

Exhibit 17 illustrated the application of the results of this research in improving organizational learning and development, especially to help companies better train their managers to initiate, plan, execute, monitor, and control their projects and programs to make them competitive in the global dynamic and complex market. In his book *The Fifth Discipline*,

Senge (1994) urged organizational leaders to invest in employees and in themselves to learn faster than the competition. Building on Bertalanffy's concept of treating every organization as a subset of a system, Senge et al. (1994) outlined five kinds of systems thinking: (a) open systems for seeing the world through flows and constraints, (b) social systems for seeing the world through human interaction, (c) process systems for seeing the world through information flow, (d) systems dynamics, and (e) living systems for seeing the world through the interaction of its self-creating entities. The current research adds information by underlining the importance of human interaction on increasing productivity and improving management practice. All five disciplines described in the theory of organizational learning (systems thinking, personal mastery, shared vision, mental model, and team learning) are cornerstones for creating an efficient and competitive organization. The findings of this research add substance to the effort of companies to become better learning organizations.

In a dynamic and complex environment, organizational leaders are struggling to find project managers who are emotionally intelligent and who use transformational leadership skills to solve critical problems to bring their organization to the next level. The center of the illustration in Exhibit 18 shows the intersection of the three components. Most project managers are comfortable when they understand the importance of emotional intelligence, have knowledge of transformational leadership styles, and have the tools and techniques to manage the daily routines of a project. To reinforce the concept of using emotionally intelligent managers with transformational leadership skills to make organizations more competitive, the researcher reviewed several studies

whose authors identified the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in the construction industry and a not-for-profit organization. The results of the studies showed that leaders with high emotional intelligence demonstrated a transformational leadership style, thus empowering their team members (Butler, 2005; Meredith, 2007). The findings of this research will be used as a basis for further study on how emotional intelligence affects project managers' behaviors in the role they play as a leader, manager, mentor, and facilitator. Furthermore, several research themes in project management such as emotional intelligence and project success; emotional intelligence and group behavior; and emotional intelligence and project manager competency would be worth considering for future research opportunities.

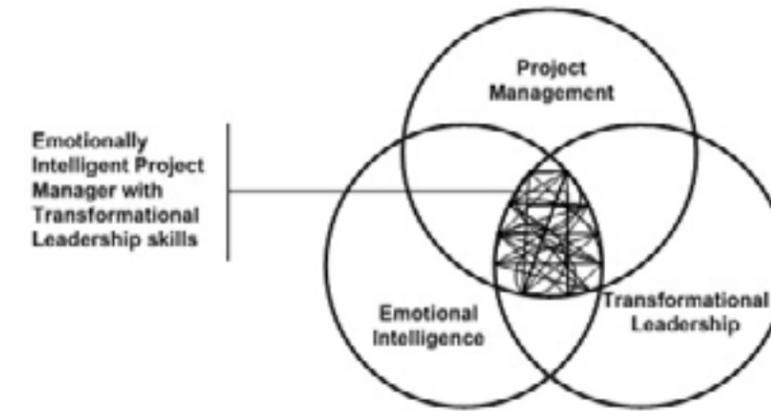


Exhibit 18. Intersection of emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and project management.

Conclusion

The study conducted was successful in attaining the goal of the research and providing practical information for PMPs around the globe. Furthermore, the research provides a foundation for future research in the area of emotional intelligence and leadership behaviors of project managers in over 17 sectors. The study also demonstrates a relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in that project managers with higher emotional intelligence were more likely to use transformational leadership than those with lower emotional intelligence. Lower emotional intelligence is also linked with the tendency to use transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. Eight of the 15 subcomponents of emotional intelligence accounted for 34% of the difference in scores in the use of transformational leadership behaviors. These subcomponents are interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing, adaptability, and impulse control. Of the major components of emotional intelligence, intrapersonal skills and stress management have the greatest relationship with the use of transformational leadership behaviors. This research finding also supports Crawford's work on stress or satisfaction in a world of projects (2000) where she underlined the increasing pressure and stress level on project managers as a large number of organizations move from process and operations to projects and the need to develop stress management techniques to cope with it. The study also shows that emotional intelligence can be improved through training; thus, if project managers develop their emotional intelligence in the eight subscales noted, they will be more likely to use transformational leadership behaviors to empower their team members and stakeholders to successfully complete their projects on time, with quality, under cost, and with customer satisfaction.

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to examine fifteen academic research works which principally focus on peer reviewed papers for the purpose of contributing to a discussion on the topic of ideas related to a PhD research project. The researcher commits to sharing the findings of research problems, thematic concepts and specific theories to support the topics of multicultural settings, languages, curriculum and overseas study experience as well as providing the potential suitable methodologies in terms of analysis of these fifteen academic research works. This paper consists of two parts: 1. Introducing and presenting an overview of the meticulous selective fifteen academic research works. 2. Scrutinizing each research work and summarizing adequate evidence that could identify this PhD research project. Precisely, indicating the evident attributes of each research work and investigating the calculation of each research work as it relates to the PhD research project.

Keywords: *academic research, peer reviewed paper, PhD research project*

Introduction and Overview

This paper selects fifteen academic research works from different levels of journals and examines the publications that are oriented toward comparative education, contemporary education, international education, and higher education. These academic and professional journals, specifically tailored for PhD students, enable them to recognize and build on the topics of multicultural settings, languages, curriculum and overseas study experience and to learn to demonstrate potential suitable methodologies. The analysis of these academic research works also support PhD research projects in the successful and timely completion of PhD dissertation. To acquire these fifteen academic research works the following two stances should be considered to provide some further discussion regarding the prospective principles and practices of the PhD research project.

Technological Advances

Rapid changes ensure that researchers, scholars and educators must vigorously join in research progress in order to remain competent and current in their chosen field of practice. Pursuing new information depends on where and how the scholars search for material, and once found, how the information is organized. Richardson (2006) declaims: Today's students, of almost any age, are far ahead of their teachers in computer literacy... [They are] 'Digital Natives' who are well versed in the uses and etiquette of computers, digital cameras, cell phones, text messaging, weblogs, and the like. (p.6)

Using CALL which stands for Computer-assisted Language Learning to enhance research is highly recommended in this paper. Being academic requires employing skills in research and presentation, encompassing advanced search techniques. To find accurate and reliable sources of information, government and university sites often provide intelligence and information databases such as ERIC, JSTOR, Academic Search Complete, EBSCOhost, IEEE Xplore and WorldCat. In this case, truncation -“*” is used at the end of key words; for example, in this research, it puts “multiculturalism*, language*, overseas study experience*” then finds a number of related topics. It may refer this information to an E-mail or save in the computer as a smart tip. Citation of source information is very important when it looks for information from the database. Choosing an online citation management tool such as RefWorks, EndNote and Procite and Reference Manager to organize the references is also a crucial step. This study chose RefWorks because one can use Write-N-Cite to insert references into the Microsoft Word document whether it is a foot-note or an in-text citation. Also, it should avoid the risk of losing all information by having a multiple backup plan to save them. It could use internet tools but save in different places, for instance E-mail and blog, use hard devices such as computer and USB flash drive. This case used recycle paper, for example, some paper only used one side, and used the other side to print the all information but it chose a smaller font to save the resource.

Be Academic

Using the metaphor of “learning as knowing” Resnick (1989) aptly states that “learning occurs not by recording information but by interpreting it” (p. 1). The relationship between “to know” and “to understand” Biggs (1987) argues that these are fairly different definitions of the concept. This concept arises from research that studies how researchers, scholars, educators understand the knowledge after the case study; the “To know” and “to understand” interplay between the receiving of new information and existing concepts in the learning process. This paper argues the learning process should involve sophisticated levels of thinking and gain the meaning of knowledge. Sumara (2002) emphasizes that “information alone does not guarantee understanding” and “information needs interpretation and the latter needs a learned method” (p. 36). He also feels that this interpretation skill must be taught. Learning process is achieved information that relates to the research topic, through analysis of process, then structures and interprets it, as original and innovative knowledge. This is an important learning outcome from this experience.

Be Explicit

The purpose of this particular topic of research is to achieve a comprehensive knowledge regarding the adaptation experiences of participants during an overseas study in a Canadian setting. This paper examined research literature on multicultural languages, and overseas learning experiences which are relevant to the present study. In this part, the concept of existentialism and multiculturalism will be researched among in these fifteen academic works. Maxine Greene's concept and perspectives of theory of human nature, theory of learning, and theory of society will be define in these works. Overseas study experience and program will be addressed based on academic works. The selected academic research works reflect the on-going deliberation between quantitative and qualitative approach in social science methodology. Nevertheless, this PhD research project embraces the naturalist qualitative research paradigm which focuses on the approach of cultural adoption and the positivist quantitative research paradigm with particular attention on ethnographic inquiry.

Examining Fifteen Academic Research Works

This part of the paper scrutinizes fifteen research works and summarizes adequate evidence to identify the theme of the PhD research project and build literature review while clearly indicating the evident attributes of each research work and investigating the calculation of each research work and its influence on the PhD research project.

Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and theory framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(1), 113-136.

The purpose of this article is to challenge the perception of cross-cultural adaptation as a dynamic cycle of stress according to intensification of internationalization in the economic, political, and social situation. This peer reviewed paper concentrates on the internationalization needs to have efficacious cross-cultural training. Therefore, the authors embark on the analysis of literature in regards to the certain research of cross-cultural training and conclude cross-cultural training in general is effective. Correspondingly, this research proposes a theoretical framework based on social learning theory. Thus, adaptation and growth is a process of on-going training between oneself and his or her surroundings, to discover an effective cross-cultural training. As a controversial issue, this work facilitates a context of international and domestic phases in the PhD research project.

Crystal, D. S., Kato, K., & Olson, S. (1995). Attitudes towards self-change: A comparison of Japanese and American university students. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, 18(4), 577-593. doi: 10.1177/016502549501800401

The authors conducted a thorough investigation of experimentation of American and Japanese students and whether they change cognitions and behaviours in this peer reviewed paper. This work explores the possibilities of three aspects if they willing to change from those sample students of the two counties including: (1) the approaches one would adopt to effect the changes, (2) what are the barriers one would conquer, (3) and what

are the possibilities one would desire to make the changes. This research exams two different cultural responses regarding the specific approach to identify the rate of change of cognitions and behaviours; the data of this work provides the perspective of different culture with collectivistic and individualistic views. However, with the three aspects that the authors address in the questionnaire, to some extent, it is hard to defy the social situation as in the instance of the interdependent self. Although, the content of this paper focuses on Japanese and American students, this empirical research influence in the method of behaviour-oriented strategies offers a broad view for the PhD research project.

Dewing, M. (2013). Canadian multiculturalism. Legal and Social Affairs Division Parliamentary Information and Research Service, Library of Parliament, 20. Retrieved from <http://www.parl.gc.ca/Content/LOP/ResearchPublications/2009-20-e.pdf>

This is a research paper that examines the meaning of the word multiculturalism within a Canadian context. In particular, this paper features historical background, current information and references, and many anticipate the emergence of the issues. This study focuses on the concept of Canadian multiculturalism as a sociological fact and as ideology which infers in these two different definitions. Moreover, this research significantly contributes, the part of a sociological fact, multiculturalism depicts to the manifestation of racial and ethnic groups with cultural diversity. Another part of multiculturalism delivers management of diversity with official policies. Therefore, this work not only aims to provide clarity to the term multiculturalism, one of keys for the PhD research project, but also evaluates what are the barriers between social adaption in linguistic and cultural terms according to the particular research environment in Canada.

Freed, B. F. (1998). An overview of issues and research in language learning in a study abroad setting. *The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 4(2), 31-60.

This is a peer reviewed paper and the purpose of this study aims to provide a reference overview of contemporary research issues on literature exploring students learning a second language (L2) in a study abroad context. Also, this paper ascertains certain matters for scholars who challenge this topic in greater depth. The author predominantly explores the relationships between language learning and study abroad experience focusing on two general areas. The first area relates to a continuum of language abilities and the second area indicates the perceptions of those students who study abroad acquire a learning experience and how the perceptions impact the students' learning journey. According to these two specific research areas, these papers conduct two research general categories which is summarized research of test-based studies of a sojourn abroad and provide a larger vision of classification. This work draws a large landscape for the PhD research project and the authentic research data offers accurate analysis of literature in the field of language learning and study abroad experience. It arouses certain new discussions through the detailed comparison of investigations of this work. Especially, the author points out that to design the amalgamation of quantitative and qualitative research to conduct a result with descriptive interpretation in a study abroad context will be considerable to the PhD research project as a stratagem.

Greene, M. (1971). Curriculum and consciousness. *Teachers College Record*, 73(2), 253-269.

The author, an American distinguished educator, philosopher, social activist and teacher, Dr. Maxine Green, proposes from a standpoint of learners a psychological and historical configuration in this philosophical research paper. Dr. Greene establishes that the integration of curriculum and consciousness in education, one can significantly involve continuous growth and rediscovery as personal experiences with individual perspectives conducting cognitive action in his or her life-world. This notion interconnects with a number of other philosophers and educators such as Madeleine Grumet, Paulo Freire, and Fritjof Capra. Dr. Greene starts with the argumentation of John Dewey's work and explores certain theories relating to the theory of learning, theory of human-nature, and theory of society from the viewpoint of existentialism. The connection between the PhD research project and this paper is both works try to persuade a structure of socially prescribed knowledge which means exploring the learning experience with the uncertain and the possibilities for life world. Definitely, Dr. Greene not only

inspires the concepts and ideas for the future research, but also helps the research project to discover a proper learning mode.

Greene, M. (1993). The passions of pluralism multiculturalism and the expanding community. *Educational Researcher*, 22(1), 13-18. doi: 10.3102/0013189X022001013

The author is not only a writer but also a philosopher, inquirer and artist. Dr. Greene advocates that each individual is unique and one has a right to be heard and recognized in a diverse society. This concept is fully depicted in this research paper for contemporary issues. Precisely, continuing to grow and expand in society, Dr. Greene offers a grip of multiculturalism creating the phenomenon of pluralism as inevitable in the cultural diverse communities. Similarly, another educator and philosopher, John Dewey, claims an idea of a Great Community influenced this article in certain facets. On the one hand, this research exhibits a sense of plurality as this article adopts the imaginative works and philosophic and ethnographic books as texts to portraying the unheard thoughts, feelings and silenced opinions of a minority. On the another hand, the author tries to discover approaches to repair silence and invisibility which means she pursues a connectedness for concreting multiple voices and difference cultural groups with diverse backgrounds. Consequently, this research supports the theme for the PhD research project reshaping the concept of multiculturalism and incarnates to a case study such as to substantiate the Global Community Program. Also, ethnographic studies, as this article mentions, might apply to the PhD research project.

Masemann, V. L. (1982). Critical ethnography in the study of comparative education. *Comparative Education Review*, 26(1), 1-15.

Reviewing the contemporary perspectives in educational research, this journal paper adopts critical ethnography while infusing the study of comparative education. The author not only identifies the term critical ethnography, but also critically clarifies certain other theories of connection to this approach. Specifically, this polemic essay narrates critical ethnography of sociological, anthropological, interpretive, and critical approaches in comparative education. Also, the author justifies the parameters with these approaches and analyzes the implication of these studies in the field of comparative education. Hence, this intimate research offers inside views accommodating the PhD research project to an inquiry of suitable methodology, especially categorizing ethnography into different versions depending on one's theoretical orientation. This work delivers an understanding of complex human realities from particular research.

Miller, J. P., & Sellar, W. (1990). *Curriculum: Perspectives and practice*. Toronto: Copp Clark Pitman.

The theme of this research book contains three major orientations to curriculum: the Transmission Perspective, the Transaction Perspective, and the Transformation Perspective. These two sophisticated authors compare the three curriculum perspectives and provide insights for the development of curriculum concepts in present study in terms of philosophical, psychological, and social foundations. This work is relevant to the PhD research project embracing the following elements. First, the authors outline practical issue dilemmas for which educators, curriculum developers, and school administrators need to pay attention. This aspect instigates the research gap between understanding the theories and the implementation of the theories. Second, in this work of spectrum to curricular perspectives which is the field of curriculum from various lenses, it assists one in exploring the analytic world view from an integrated perspective.

Minister of Public Works and Government Services Canada. (2010). The current state of multiculturalism in Canada and research themes on Canadian multiculturalism 2008– 2010 (Catalogue No. Ci96). Retrieved from <http://www.cic.gc.ca/english/pdf/pub/multi-state.pdf>

This is a report and it conducted both literature reviews and interviews to assist the Department of Citizenship and Immigration to define which matter of multiculturalism are imperative to a countrywide issue. Moreover, six academics involved in this project are assigned by the Multiculturalism and Human Rights Branch of the the Department of Canadian Heritage to develop further research themes on Canadian multiculturalism for next two

years. This report summarizes the years from 2006 to 2008, and articulates the research proposal for the research themes for the years 2008 to 2010. This report catalogues 48 themes from different regional reports and six to eight potential themes into an adaptable set. As a result, this report provides a broader landscape and indeed an international outline for viewing the term multiculturalism, arouses the research question, affords the indispensable research background and connects context between research and circumstance for the PhD research project. Furthermore, this report will be used as an example for developing the PhD research project providing conducted further step.

Pinar, W. (Ed.). (1998). *The passionate mind of Maxine Greene: "I am –not yet"*. Bristol, PA: Falmer Press. Dr. Pinar elaborately edited this book as the fruit of the most profound philosopher of education –Dr. Maxine Greene. Significantly, the book begins and concludes with a notable autobiographical statement from Dr. Greene's own speech. Moreover, in a scholarly manner, Dr. Pinar methodically analyzes and examines the following aspects: (1) investigating Dr. Greene's four books such as *Teacher as Stranger* (1973), *Landscapes of Learning* (1978), *Dialectic of Freedom* (1988), and *Releasing the Imagination* (1995); (2) examining the notion of intellectual and aesthetic influences in terms of Dr. Greene's theory; (3) and studying the various specializations of Dr. Greene's wide-ranging field in education; the teaching of English, arts education, philosophy of education, curriculum studies, religious education, cognitive theory, and theory of teaching. This book influences the PhD research project in the general ideas of research concept as the author represents exhaustive studying of Dr. Greene's ideas and theories in systematic way. Indeed, Dr. Greene's works arguably impacts a number of teachers in North America. She is recognized as a leader for educational PhD research projects. The authors of each chapter provide a presupposition for the possibilities of the PhD research project and the potential value of philosophy in education, teacher education, and curriculum studies.

Sleeter, C.E., & Grant, C. A. (2009). *Making choices for multicultural education: Five approaches to race, class and gender*. New York: Wiley.

This research book launches the notion of multicultural education to investigate how to exert this concept into the authentic classroom and propositions five dissimilar approaches to deal with the issues in the classroom. The writing style of this paper considers a range of audiences such as students, teacher, school boards, scholars, researchers, and politicians. The two authors show how schools reflect broad patterns of institutional discrimination. Furthermore, the authors recommend that scholars explore the informed theoretical perspective on multicultural education which is a warning to further studies in this field. Definitely, the five approaches are applicable to the PhD research project by instituting practice into intervention systems in a case study.

Taylor, E.W. (1994a). A learning model for becoming intercultural competent. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 18(3), 389-408.

As a peer reviewed research paper, this article questions the view that the intercultural competent can gradually work and live successfully in interdependent societies with inadequate resources. This is a contemporary crisis of topic; however, only few researchers focus on the learning perspective which this article defines as a tangible education program that helps students through the learning process. Moreover, the author emphasizes that the program needs to be refined and the factors investigated during the students' intercultural experience. This study assists the PhD research project in how to assess the factors that affect a case study in a specific learning environment.

Taylor, E.W. (1994b). Intercultural competency: A transformative learning process. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 44(3), 154-174.

This is another substantial work. The author develops the previous notion of intercultural competency is an adaptive capacity in this peer reviewed research paper. The author addresses an attitude to view an inclusive and integrative stand that one could adopt the living circumstance in intercultural experiences. From the view of a learning perspective, this research explores a model which applies a transformative learning theory in adult

education and it leads this learning process towards intercultural competency. This paper accurately identified two stages: (1) explaining the learning process of intercultural competency; (2) studying the theory of perspective transformation to critically reflect one's learning and changes in this model. This qualitative research dramatically provides an example for the PhD research project and from this learning model sketches a new impending learning model. Likewise, this research involves twelve participants who are at least twenty-five years of age in a series of detailed interviews. Although one could challenge the age of the group's program participants, this article will be a noteworthy reference for the PhD research project.

Winter, E., & Madulea, A. (2014). *Multiculturalism research synthesis 2009 -2013*. Retrieved from <http://ceris.ca/wp-content/uploads/2015/01/CERIS-Research-Synthesis-on-Multiculturalism.pdf>

This is a report piloted by the Centre of Excellence for Research on Immigration and Settlement (CERIS) which is a research synthesis project under the department of Citizenship and Immigration Canada, Ottawa. The key analysis of this research synthesis embraces the five central aspects of Canadian immigration on the domestic front including multiculturalism. This report particularly addresses and investigates the recent research related to this theme for the years 2009 to 2013. Each research work sorts and arranges 180 researches works, and then ascertains four comprehensive themes: (1) debating multiculturalism, (2) social differentiation, (3) multiculturalism and public institutions, and (4) international perspectives. First, the argumentation of the term multiculturalism is the sparkling point according to the theme reported in this article and expounds on what this theme in a Canadian context implies which provoke scholars, researchers, and politicians to have a number of approaches when dealing with cultural diversity. Second, the theme of social differentiation and international perspectives will influence the PhD research project in terms of this report by pointing out the large volume of literature focusing on the different social categories and the perspective of international newcomers to Canada. Finally, the information from this report is up-to-date and from a reliable source; thus, the PhD research project would adopt this document as one of references.

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(1), 54–66. doi: 10.1111/1540-4781.00136

The study of willingness to communicate (WTC) commences with awareness of language education. However, the author produces this article not only as a peer reviewed research paper but also proposes a notion of how to exam the variables in communication between one's first language (L1) and second language (L2) individually within a Japanese context. Using the model of the WTC and another socio-educational model as a theoretical guiding framework, the author probed 297 Japanese students at the university level and learning English as a foreign language. It mentioned that this research adopts a newfangled technology -AMOS (version 4.0) -testing a latent variable which is international posture. The hypothesis of this research investigates whether international posture captures the general attitude; in other words, affect motivation of the international community and foreign language learning in Japan. Motivation is one of the significant factors for self-confidence in learning L2 and also this factor influences proficiency that one learns English as L2. The data from the model of structural equation shows that international posture positively influences motivation and it monitors willingness to communicate in a setting of L2 communication. This article is an adequate example for further PhD research because the research objective is to help Japanese students by researching elements involved in languages, culture and personal learning experience This research demonstrates a number of aspects reflected in the PhD research project in the following statement. First, the key part of this research will be advantageous to the PhD research project by using the model of WTC as a one of the potential approaches to a socio-cultural perspective for Japanese students relocating to a Canadian learning environment. The PhD research theme is attempting to explore the actual learning process embedded in the cultural complementarity process. Second, the author has conducted a thorough investigation of the students who elected to participate in this research to determine if they have the abilities to perform in the L2 learning setting. The learners lack of confidence during the conversation, points the PhD research project to design a method in order to progress beyond the past learning experience and integrate current learning processes with the education programs designed to help the particular international students

obtain fruitful intercultural experiences. Last but not least, the new technological tool, AMOS used for inspecting a program, will assist the PhD research project to design and develop instructional languages in a learning context, will be invaluable.

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Abstract

Design and Art schools today are facing challenges they have never faced before to educate graduates who are relevant in the 21st century. Today's Designers are entering into a world marked by rapid and global change, exponential advancement in information and computer technologies, complex ethical issues, borderless global competition, changing demographics, sustainability, and a multitude of problems that only emerged in the new millennium. Just as business as usual will not survive in the 21st century, education as usual will also not get us there. This paper briefly explores challenges in global Interior Design practice in the 21st century, before laying down the status quo in Design education. From here, based on numerous Design education reports that have emerged from various parts of the world, the requirements as well as issues to overcome in educating Designers of the future will be developed. This paper calls all design educators to reflect on what have we done in the past, address the current issues and challenges as well as generally make recommendations that requires proper planning and action plans. It must be realized that, business as usual will not be beneficial if we wish to see our next generation of designers can effectively play an important role in the society at large.

Keywords: *Educational Transformation, Professional standards, Grand challenges, Interior design Education*

Introduction

Interior design has changed significantly over the past 20 to 30 years and has established itself as a recognized profession (Martin, 1998). This profession has evolved from one predominantly concerned with surface ornamentation to one based on designing for human behavior. As a profession, interior design exhibits common professional characteristics. These characteristics include jurisdictional boundaries of knowledge and skills, an educational pathway, a code of ethics, professional organizations, name change, and legal recognition (Abbott, 1988).

The education of the professional interior designer aims for the highest levels of creativity and skill in designing for our increasingly complex and technological society. Interior designers are actively responsive to issues that concern our societies, and this planet. These professionals have a commitment to conveying energy, ending pollution, preventing global warming, and recycling our recourse (Kilmer, 1992). The author believes that the key to solving these issues lies in educational transformation. This means that, above and beyond the currently recognized curriculum requirements for the first professional degree, we must prepare future designers to practice with the depth of knowledge required to solve complex interdisciplinary problems of human behavior and design (Guerin & Thompson, 2004). Educators must be prepared to teach future practitioners the value of research that adds to the body of knowledge. Thus, the bridge between practice and education can be strengthened, in turn sustaining the profession and providing the foundation for an academic discipline. A roadmap for educational transformation has been precipitated by an assessment of architecture practice and education. Ernest Boyer and Lee Mitgan conducted this assessment and reported their results and recommendations in *Building community: a new future for Architecture and practice* (1996).

The two authors are renowned scholars on teaching excellence, scholarship in higher education, educational reform, and the connections among teaching, scholarship, and engagement. Their commendations in the report provide us a measuring stick against which to examine interior design education (Guerin & Thompson, 2004).

Boyer and Mitgan's recommendations can be summarized in the following way:

1. An enriched mission that connects schools and the profession more effectively to the changing social context.
2. Diversity with dignity to celebrate the varied strengths of programs originating in different administrative units, and strengths of faculty scholarship that reflects creativity and practice as well as research.
3. Standards without standardization that support the discovery integration, application, and sharing of

knowledge.

4. A connected curriculum that encourages the integration, application, and discovery of knowledge inside and outside the profession, and that reflects the changing needs of the profession.
5. A climate of learning for faculty and students to share common learning goals in an environment that is open, just, communicative, and caring.
6. A more unified profession to encourage partnership between schools and profession that enriches schools, supports experience, and sustains learning.
7. Service to the nation to establish a climate of engagement, clarify the public benefits of design, promote the creation of new knowledge, and stress the importance of ethical, professional behavior (Boyer & Mitgang, 1996).

I suggest that these recommendations are also appropriate considerations for interior design educators dedicated to meeting the challenge of producing quality graduates prepared to enter the interior design profession of the 21st century.

21st century Challenges in Engineering Practice

The 21st century brings (about) major changes in the global environment. Marked by rapid development in technology, explosion in information generation, borderless economic and business operations, issues in sustainability and security, and many other complex, novel problems that have never been seen before, the way businesses, governments, and various entities have to change their modus operandi (NAE, 2005; Duderstadt, 2008). To remain competitive, industries produce over thousands of new products a year that caused the existing products to be obsolete within a short period of time. This gradually put the product development time down, causing pressure on Designers to deliver novel solutions quickly. Increasing prices of resources, such as raw material and energy, place urgency upon the need for efficient and optimized processes, leaving little room for error. Global competitiveness and the quest for low production cost also result in outsourcing of design services to places that can provide the best value for money, turning it to a global commodity (National Science Board, 2007). At the other end of the spectrum, intensive knowledge and high technology research and development activities, a trademark of knowledge economy, are clustered around nations that can provide highly capable, “renaissance” engineers who are innovators with professional skills, as well as in touch with business and community needs. A study commissioned by the UK Royal Academy of Engineering described in the 2006 report, *Educating Engineers for the 21st century : The Industry View*, in the first two years, engineering graduates are involved in all phases of product lifecycle, from research and development (R&D), to design, manufacturing, project management, and even sales. While R&D and design dominate the jobs companies assign to engineering graduates, 15% of the companies surveyed in the study reported assigning graduate engineers roles in sales because they need people who can understand and recommend the correct solution to customers in selling high tech products (Spinks, Silburn and Birchall, 2006).

The need to remain competitive in these demanding times cause many developed nations to invest heavily in efforts to transform engineering education. Engineers, as problem solvers and innovators, are seen as assets to a nation’s economy. As stated in the next UK Royal Academy of Engineering report in 2007, *Educating Engineers for the 21st century*:

“No factor is more critical in underpinning the continuing health and vitality of any national economy than a strong supply of graduate engineers equipped with the understanding, attitudes and abilities necessary to apply their skills in business and other environments.”

To be competitive and taking role of leadership today and in the future, interior design graduates must have world class design education that equip them with the latest technical knowledge and tools, and have adequate understanding of the social, economic and political issues that affect their work. More than ever, design decisions affect local communities, be it in construction, manufacture of products (which may be hazardous), automation (cutting down labor), energy source and generation (impact on energy demand versus the environment)

waste treatment and many more. Many recent design mistakes that results in catastrophic disasters, showed how costly these mistakes can be to millions of people. Clearly, design graduates of today and the future need to understand their ethical and professional responsibilities, not just towards industries, but also towards the well-being of the communities, nation, and the whole world, in general. The extent of challenges faced by future designers are aptly summarized by Duderstadt (2008), in his report on *Engineering for a Changing World*, in the list of Grand Challenges as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The Grand Challenges The Grand Challenges

The Grand Challenges		
1	Global Sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Destruction of forests, wetlands, and other natural habitats • Global warming • Ballooning global population
2	Energy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unsustainable fossil fuel • Sustainable energy technologies • Alternative energy technologies • Energy infrastructure
3	Global Poverty and Health	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Green revolution • 1/6 population - extreme poverty • Globalization
4	Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aging infrastructure • Urbanization • Manufacturing to knowledgeservices • Systems integration

21st century Requirements of Design and Engineering Graduates

The rapid changes 21st century requires that graduate engineers be equipped with the necessary skills, such as information mining, knowledge integration, ideas creation, and especially problem solving. In an increasing global workplace, engineering graduates are expected to function on multinational and multidisciplinary teams, have global perspective, and to be culturally and linguistically literate (Spinks, Silburn, and Birchall, 2006; Duderstadt, 2008). Industries, such as IBM and Siemens, define the need for T-shaped” engineers - those with deep knowledge and expertise in their discipline, with a broad breadth of cross-disciplinary knowledge and boundary crossing capabilities, such as an understanding of business context and human as well as social aspects of engineering, communication, systems perspective, lifelong learning skills, ability to innovate, able to adapt to changing environment and requirements and many more. The South Korean government also echoes this, which stress that designers who create new technology and knowledge at the local and international level, are the key to a nation’s competitiveness (Song, 2012). In order to achieve this, they need design graduates who (Song 2012):

- o Can adapt to open innovation
- o Are equipped with knowledge and information in their own field, humanities, social science, art, etc.
- o Proactively respond to changing environment
- o Are able to interact with the global level.

Royal Academy of Engineering (RAE) report on *Educating Engineers for the 21st century* in 2007 stated that Industries requires graduates with deep understanding of technical knowledge that is underpinned on the fundamentals of the discipline and mathematics along with the necessary thinking (eg critical, analytical and creative thinking) skills and ability to apply the knowledge to real life, as well as professional skills that are essentially enabling skills that allow them to effectively function at the work place, such as communication skills, team team working skills, people management skills, etc. The 2006 RAE report defined the “Renaissance Engineer” of the new Millennium (Spinks, Silburn, and Birchall, 2006) as:

- Engineer as specialist - Engineer graduates as technical experts in their discipline

- Engineer as integrator - Engineer graduates who can work and manage across boundaries in both technical and organizational requirements of a complex business environment
- Engineer as change agent - Engineer graduates who can play a critical role as the impetus for innovation in steering the industry towards success and harmony in a sustainable future.

In the later report, the RAE (2007) put forth their finding that the top most quality desired by industries is the ability to apply Design knowledge to solve real industrial problems. They must be able to take a holistic approach to problems involving complex and ambiguous systems, and to employ creative problem solving skills (Katehi, 2005).

Council for Interior Design Accreditation (CIDA) requires Interior design programs with the following outcomes in the 2014 Interior design Program Accreditation Manual (Professional Standards):

- 1. Critical Thinking, Professional Values, and Processes:** Interior designers have a global view and weigh design decisions within the parameters of ecological, socio-economic, and cultural contexts.
- 2. Human-centered Design:** The work of interior designers is informed by knowledge of human factors and theories of human behavior related to the built environment.
- 3. Design Process:** Interior Designers need to apply all aspects of the design process to creative problem solving. Design process enables designers to identify and explore complex problems and generate creative solutions that optimize the human experience within the interior environment.
- 4. Collaboration:** Interior Designers engage in multi-disciplinary collaboration.
- 5. Communication:** Interior Designers are effective communicators.
- 6. Professionalism and Business Practice:** Interior Designers use ethical and accepted standards of practice, are committed to professional development and the industry, and understand the value of their contribution to the built environment through the following points:
 - The contributions of interior design to contemporary society.
 - Various types of design practices.
 - The elements of business practice (business development, financial management, strategic planning, and various forms of collaboration and integration of disciplines).
 - The elements of project management, project communication, and project delivery methods.
 - Professional ethics.
- 7. Core Design and Technical Knowledge:** Interior Designers apply knowledge of interiors, architecture, decorative arts, and art within a historical and cultural context.
- 8. Space and Form:** Students effectively apply the elements and principles of design to:
 - a) Two-dimensional design solutions.
 - b) Three-dimensional design solutions.
 - c) Students are able to analyze and communicate theories or concepts of spatial definition and organization.
- 9. Interior Designers apply color principles and theories.**
- 10. Environmental Systems:** Interior Designers use the principles of lighting, acoustics, thermal comfort, and indoor air quality to enhance the health, safety, welfare, and performance of building occupants.
- 11. Building Systems and Interior Construction.**
- 12. Regulations and Guidelines:** Interior Designers use laws, codes, standards, and guidelines that impact the design of interior spaces.

In contrast, Interior design accreditation standards are continually assessed and revised through a practice and education partnership handled by the Council for Interior Design Accreditation (CIDA). However, with each revision of CIDA standards the breadth and depth of required content increases substantially without a corrective decrease in extant content. For instance, in the mid-1990, CAD became a requisite skill with no concurrent decrease in standards of manual drafting competency. As the complexity of the profession grows, so grows the necessity of including content in areas such as sustainable design, codes, structures, and mechanical systems.

Without any comparable decrease in existing content requirements, Interior Design educational programs cannot cover all required areas in four years while simultaneously providing entry-level practitioners firm grounding in liberal education (Guerin & Thompson, 2004).

Educators utilize many strategies to meet the increased demand in curriculum within the limited span of four years. One common strategy to inject more (content) into studio courses is the creation of projects that address multiple issues: e.g., emphasizing sustainability in a design project; requiring both hand-drafted and CAD drawings at different phases of a project; or creating a project for construction in another country. The difficulty with this approach is that it lessens the emphasis that can be placed on problem-solving, critical thinking, and design communication—all of which are essential components of a bachelor's degree program. These components separate degree programs from others and, are the elements that practitioners value most in entry-level designers. A second strategy used by educators to address the demand for content is (double dipping) within liberal education requirements; e.g., using a composition course that focuses on writing about cultural diversity to meet both the writing and cultural diversity liberal education requirements. In addition, we must eliminate elective opportunities for students in order to address expanded content requirements. In other words, four-year bachelor's programs have used every strategy possible to reflect current practice by adding new content through coursework or studio integration. However, they have done so at the expense of a rich liberal arts foundation that emphasizes synthesis (Guerin & Thompson, 2004).

Current and Future Interior Design Education

Given the current and future challenges in Interior Design practice, as well as the requirements on Interior Design graduates, Interior Design education clearly needs to be transformed from the current practice. While technology and Design practice have clearly changed by leaps and bounds, the way Interior Design students are taught has hardly changed. Lectures and recipe-type laboratories are very much the predominant method of delivery in Design education. It is not surprising to hear the numerous complaints from industries and regarding the absence of critical skills among graduates. While it is always easy to complain about the quality of graduates, industries also have a major role to play in educating Interior Design students through participation in curricula as well as extra-curricula activities. Although transformation is clearly needed, it is not always obvious what Interior Design education needs to transform into, and how to do it.

Today, everybody tends to agree upon the necessity of including art, science, and technology in a design curriculum. But disagreement will soon arise, on the one hand, as to their relative importance, and, on the other hand, as to their respective function, i.e., the way they should be articulated (Findeli, 2001). A third and highly critical aspect inevitably will provoke even stronger disagreement, a factor without which no curriculum, be it as filled with theoretical courses, workshops, seminars, and studio work as possible, will ever find its coherence: the overall purpose of design education and practice. The questions to be asked are: To which meta-project (anthropological, social, cosmological, etc.) does a design project and a design curriculum contribute? For what end is design means? How autonomous can design be? All these questions are related to the ethical dimension of design, which will be discussed later.

Based on Interior Design education reports, a summary of the challenges and the attributes of effective graduates of the 21st century can be seen in Table 2. To get the required attributes, Interior Design education has to change towards the desired characteristics shown in the last column of Table 2 (SyedAhmad Helmi, 2011; Duderstadt, 2008; NAE, 2005). With the current state of Design education, which is rooted in the traditional approach of teacher-centered courses taught in silos with mostly written examinations as the only means to assess students, Interior Design educators will have to honestly examine the commitment to move Design curricula (which includes teaching and learning methods used, as well as proper assessment) towards the desired characteristics as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Design and Interior Design Education of the 21st century

Challenges of the 21st century	Attributes of Effective Interior Designers	Desired Characteristics of Interior Design Education
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge economy • Globalization • Breadth & depth of knowledge • Demographics • Technological change • Evidence –based design • Technological innovation • Global sustainability • Energy • Global poverty and health • Interior space infrastructure • Awareness of cultural differences 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analytical skills • Practical ingenuity • Creativity • Communication • Leadership • Team working • Professionalism • Dynamic, agility, resilience and flexible • Lifelong learners • Function in global economy • Principles of business and management • Ethics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learner-centered • Discovery-based or constructivist Learning • Systems perspective • Avoid content orientation • Learn how to learn • Inquiry-based scientific methods • Team-based problem solving • Prepare Designers into the sustainable design • Linkage to the real projects

Interior Design Education of the future requires innovative efforts to deliver the required characteristics as shown in Table 2. While program outcomes, in accordance with Outcomes-based Education (OBE) mostly matches the attributes of the future graduates given in the middle column of Table 2, the curricula of the majority of Interior Design programs, unfortunately, are not aligned to support the attainment of these outcomes. Most program owners choose to take the strategic approach of simply documenting the traditional curricula to suit OBE, rather than embrace the philosophy of OBE to transform the curricula. Assessment and evaluation are taken at a purely mechanistic level to somehow quantify measurements of all outcomes using numbers or percentages, without fully understanding what they mean, as well as their validity. These lofty 21st century outcomes, however, will just remain on-paper if the delivery and assessment remain as they were as in the 20th century.

In terms of delivery, for example, among the most desired characteristic of Interior Design education in the future is learner centeredness. Learner centered refers to framing the delivery of the knowledge in a learning environment that takes into account the background, preconceptions (which are often misconceptions), connections to prior learning or existing knowledge of students, as well as difficulties that they go through in learning the new knowledge, and how to help them understand and develop mastery (Bransford, 1997). What is of utmost importance is what students actually learn, rather than what is transmitted by the instructor. Students actually go through an aligned learning process to match the outcome, while instructors facilitate to support deep learning (Biggs, 1996; Biggs, 2010). There are a range of techniques in varying degrees of learner centeredness to support the attainment of different levels of outcomes. Higher level outcomes, such as the ability to solve complex problems, require methods that are more intricate to conduct so as to support students in developing the required outcomes. Nevertheless, the current willingness and ability to conduct learner centered methods among Interior Design academics are rather dismal. Learning does not occur in a vacuum - students cannot attain lofty outcomes on their own without being guided in a supportive environment. Transformation in delivery will also not take place without institutional commitment, support and will. Commitment at all levels is necessary if curricula transformation is to take place successfully.

Today Interior Design Programs must take into account that in the future, students will learn in a completely different way (NAE, 2005). Until today most Interior Design Programs have developed curricula by creating scenarios or predicting the problems we expect to face. In doing so, the focus is more on knowledge rather than skills. According to Bransford (2004), curricula based on specific knowledge are built from the bottom up. Interior Designers whose education is built from the bottom up cannot comprehend and address big problems (NAE, 2005). As mentioned by Katehi (2005), “the future engineering curriculum should be built around developing skills and not around teaching available knowledge. The focus must be on shaping analytic skills, problem-solving skills,

and design skills. Interior Design educators must teach methods and not solutions”. Jonassen (2006) directed his work “towards design theory of problem solving” to come up with how to prepare our future designers to solve work place problem. Stroble (2008) urged design education researchers to better understand the nature of work place problem solving especially for instructional and educational strategies that heavily utilize problems like PBL. Savery (2006) related constructivism (which is the philosophical view of how people come to understand), to the practice of instruction. He examined problem based learning, which he considered the best exemplars of constructivist learning environment.

The change toward innovative and meaningful curricula is even more important nowadays to attract the current Generation-Y into engineering. With very little exposure to the importance in the role of engineers, and the blame on engineers for major accidents, the Gen-Y do not see engineering as attractive. The high difficulty level of the content, tortuous learning environment with disjointed curricula that is estranged from the actual application in industries, coupled with relatively minimal reward and recognition compared to other fields are driving away the young generation from engineering. It is therefore not surprising to see efforts in developed countries from North America to Europe, parts of Asia (such as Japan, Korea and Singapore) and Australia, to promote engineering from the school level, even introducing engineering concepts and thinking at the primary school level, such as the Inspire Institute under the School of Engineering Education, Purdue University in the US. Realizing the challenges ahead, there have been concerted efforts among governments and engineering related NGOs as well as institutions to take the lead in providing leadership for innovations in design education. Initiatives to enhance the quality of graduates, such as service learning, cooperative programs, global student exchange and summer school programs, design centric curricula, entrepreneurship, professional ethics, problem or project based curricula, a variety of active learning methods, industrial involvement in various aspects of the curricula, etc are among innovations that are being implemented. Nevertheless, there are also calls for innovations to be properly thought out and studied for real, meaningful impact.

As stated by Jamieson and Lohman (2012) in the ASEE report, “Innovation with Impact”: If a “grand challenge” for Interior design education is “How will we teach and how our students will learn all that is needed to tackle the challenges of today and tomorrow?”, then the issue is NOT simply a need for more educational innovations. Indeed, implementing innovations without taking the scholarly, evidence-based approach can be costly and disruptive for students learning. Care must be taken because changes made in engineering in education will bring about impact on students, be it positive or negative. What is desired are innovations that are rooted on strong educational principles that are properly studied, and thus evaluated for effectiveness according to the desired outcomes. The study of innovative practices can lead to further improvements in implementation, which can in turn lead to a virtuous cycle of research. The move for conducting rigorous research in Interior design education gained momentum in the first decade of the 21st century. In the United States, the National Science foundation allotted millions to fund design education research, as well as initiatives to train Interior design academics to conduct rigorous educational research. The European Society for Engineering Education (SEFI) received similar funding for conducting and training rigorous educational research among design academics.

The Korean government currently funds sixty nine innovative centers for engineering education, with five hubs to gather and lead the centers under the hub, each with different innovation emphasis to properly implement and conduct research on the effectiveness of innovations made (Song, 2012). At the international level, the Research in Engineering Education Network (REEN) is a world-wide network which aims to promote and support rigorous research in design education. Clearly, attaining the desired quality of graduates depends heavily on academics that design the curricula, teach, and perhaps study innovations made at their own institution. Streveler, Borrego and Smith (2007) classified the levels of academics in design education as follows:

- Level 0 Teacher who teach as he/she was taught
- Level 1 Effective Teacher who applies accepted teaching theories and practices
- Level 2 Scholarly Teacher who evaluates performance of students and makes improvements
- Level 3 Scholar of Teaching and Learning who conducts educational experiments and documents the results in the form of presentations or papers
- Level 4 Design Education Researcher who conducts rigorous design education research and publish papers in

peer reviewed journals.

While not all Interior design educators are required to be at Level 4, the OBE approach requires that instructors can at least be classified to be in Level 2. Since those at levels 3 and 4 will obviously be beneficial to the design education community, it is imperative that institutions encourage and reward this type of work, especially in providing a promotion track for those heavily involved in design education. This is of utmost importance in enabling innovation with impact in Interior design education for developing designers that are suited for the 21st century. This paper calls all Interior design educators to reflect on what have we done in the past, address the current issues and challenges as well as generally make recommendations that requires proper planning and action plans. It must be realized that, business as usual will not be beneficial if we wish to see our next generation of Interior designers can effectively play an important role in the society at large. Change is inevitable, to stay competitive, there is the need to discover new knowledge and technology through rigorous research and innovation in Interior design education. We must be able to prepare graduates that will make new discoveries, bring new products and services, design, and deliver to serve the communities and innovate continually to support the industries. Hence, the fundamental sciences, engineering principles and analytical capabilities of the students should be enhanced through several active learning approaches and use of current tools and technology. Humanities, arts and social sciences are essential for graduates to be creative, explorative and be open-minded. We must also make Interior design education exciting, innovative, entrepreneurial, creative, adventurous, challenging, and demanding and empower situational environment more than just specifying curricular details. The key success factors to all this is we need to understand and engage ourselves in issues pertaining Interior design education, be committed, work in teams and enjoy all the challenges ahead. Although the purpose of this paper is to lay some foundations for a renewal of design education and research, but, the author indicates some directions for further research and constructive work. Let's sum up the principal stages of the above discussion.

An archetypical model of a curriculum for Interior design education has been described in the form of a three-part structure, art/science/ technology, enclosed within a general purpose for design. In order to figure out what the content of these three components would be and how they should be articulated, it is necessary to establish an epistemological/methodological model for the design process or project. If we further accept the fact that the linear, causal, and instrumental model is no longer adequate to describe the complexity of the Interior design process, we are invited to adopt a new model whose theoretical framework is inspired by systems science, complexity theory, and practical philosophy. In the new model, instead of science and technology, I would prefer perception and action, the first term referring to the concept of visual intelligence, and the second indicating that a technological act always is a moral act. As for the reflective relationship between perception and action, I consider it governed not by deductive logics, but by a logic based on aesthetics.

The second aspect at stake is the specific training necessary for perception, action, and their relationship to be carried out adequately and consistently by students. I believe that visual intelligence, ethical sensibility, and aesthetic intuition can be developed and strengthened through some kind of basic Interior design education. However, instead of having this basic design taught in the first year as a preliminary course, as in the Bauhaus tradition, it would be taught in parallel with studio work through the entire course of study, from the first to last year.

Conclusion

The explosion in technological development since the second half of the 20th century results in rapid changes and novel challenges throughout the world. To remain relevant in the 21st century, Interior design education has to rise up to the challenge and transform the curricula as well as the way Interior design students were taught. To attain the attributes of Interior design graduates of the 21st century, design education has to match the desired strategies that can produce the desired quality of graduates. While there are numerous innovations that are being implemented to enhance Interior design education, what is of utmost importance is to ensure that these are innovations with impact. This requires proper research into the significance of the innovations, through which others can also learn and follow suit. Just as Interior design innovations requires the path of a scholarly approach

, innovations for transforming design education also can be best determined through systematic scholarly and evidence based approach.

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Factors Motivating Employee Participation in Employer-Sponsored Health Awareness Programs

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Abstract

Employers adopt worksite health promotions to reduce the incidence of preventable diseases, reduce healthcare costs, reduce absenteeism and presenteeism, and improve productivity. The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore the motivational factors affecting employee participation in employer-sponsored health awareness programs. The theory of planned behavior grounded the study and formed the conceptual framework. Data collection occurred through semistructured interviews with 24 participants in the northeastern United States with lived experiences in worksite health promotion. Participants answered open-ended interview questions regarding their motivations for engaging in health promotions. Data were transcribed and coded for trends and themes. During data analyses, 4 themes emerged, which included program recruitment and notification, employer commitment, employee motivations, and incentives and rewards. The implications for positive social change include the potential for employers incorporating the results to instigate enhanced employee participation in employer-sponsored health awareness programs. Higher employee rates of participation may aid employers in achieving the established benefits of worksite health promotion and may contribute to improving the health of employees.

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