ACADEMY OF MANAGEMENT
ODC NEWSLETTER
Organization Development and Change Division

WELCOME TO THE
ODC PROGRAM IN SAN ANTONIO

James D. Ludema
Program Chair
Benedictine University

The Organization Development and Change (ODC) Division has an outstanding line up of sessions this year, both for the Professional Development Workshops (PDWs) Friday and Saturday, August 12-13, and for the Scholarly Program Monday and Tuesday, August 15-16 (Sunday August 14 is reserved for "All Academy" sessions). This year's theme is "West Meets East: Enlightening, Balancing, Transcending," and most of the ODC sessions will be at the Grand Hyatt San Antonio.

PDW Program

The PDW program includes traditional favorites and innovative newcomers. There are sessions on high-impact change exercises, positive organization change, publishing qualitative research in top-tier journals, action research, developing organizations based on academic knowledge, dialogical OD, leadership and leadership development, writing research implications for practice, and adapting organization development to social issues. It is an exceptionally practical and high-quality set of workshops.

Of particular interest is a PDW session Saturday afternoon sponsored by the ODC Division Executive Committee on Creating the Future of ODC. This is an opportunity to join your fellow ODC members and the Executive Committee to help shape the future and direction of the Division. This will occur Saturday, Aug 13, 4-6 p.m. in the Grand Hyatt, Travis C. It will be followed by an ODC Doctoral Student and New Member Reception from 6-8 pm. in the Grand Hyatt, Texas Ballroom C. Doctoral students, new members, and all ODC members are encouraged to attend.

Scholarly Program

The scholarly program includes paper sessions and symposia featuring a wide range of change-related

TEMPORAL EFFECT AND KNOWLEDGE DEVELOPMENT IN ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE RESEARCH

Gavin M. Schwarz
University of New South Wales
2011 ODC Best Paper Award

Traditionally, we have come to expect that the rate of knowledge growth in any area of research slowly

topics and perspectives. 113 papers were submitted, and 57 were accepted for a 50% acceptance rate. This compares with 157 submitted and 69 accepted for a 44% acceptance rate in 2010. Similarly, this year, 28 symposia were submitted, and 17 were accepted for a 61% acceptance rate. This compares with 37 submitted and 23 accepted for a 62% acceptance rate in 2010. It is suspected that the decline in the number of submissions is due primarily to the conference location since all divisions experienced similar declines and attendance in San Antonio is expected to be significantly lower than most recent years.

ODC Theme Session and Distinguished Speaker

Don't miss our kick-off session on Monday morning, 8-9:30 a.m. in the Grand Hyatt, Texas Ballroom. The session features a distinguished panel of leading change scholars who have lived a life of bridging West and East. Mary Yoko Brannen (Japan, U.S., France), Quy Huy (Vietnam, France, Singapore), Kowk Leung (China and the U.S.), and Ram Tenkasi (India and the U.S.) will share their experiences and address the topic of Bridging East and West in ODC Research, Teaching, and Practice.

Another exciting highlight you will want to make sure to attend is the ODC Distinguished Speaker, Kim Cameron, William Russell Kelly Professor of Management and Organizations at the University of Michigan and co-founder of the Positive Organizational Scholarship movement. Kim will draw on his extensive research base and board collaboration with scholars and practitioners around the world as he addresses the topic of "Positive Organizational Change." The session will be held Monday, 3-4:30 p.m., in the Grand Hyatt, Lone Star A.

Symposia

Most symposia are co-sponsored and will provide a good opportunity for meeting and engaging in dialogue with members of other divisions within the Academy. This year's ODC Showcase Symposia are:

- Transcending Divides: Case Examples of Doing Research that Advances Theory and Practice, Monday, Aug 15, 9:45-11:15 a.m., Grand Hyatt, Lone Star A

- The Psychology of Organizational Change: Focusing on the Recipients' Perspective, Monday, Aug 15, 1:15-2:45 p.m., Grand Hyatt, Lone Star A

Best Paper Awards

Among the many excellent papers that were submitted, the following were selected as this year's award winning papers:

Best Division Paper: Gavin M. Schwarz (University of New South Wales), "Temporal effects and life cycle of organizational change research"

Rupert F. Chisholm Best Theory-to-Practice Paper: Quy N. Huy (INSEAD) and Taco H. Reus (Erasmus University), "An emotion-based view of acquisition integration capability"

Best Action Research Paper: Bianca Groen (University of Twente) and Marc Wouters (University of Twente), "Why do employees take more initiative if they develop their own performance measures?"

Best Student Paper: Kate W. Parrot (MIT), "Empathy in action: Insights from the public conversations project abortion dialogues"

Susan G. Cohen Doctoral Research Award: Melissa Valentine (Harvard University), "High-velocity teaming: How meta-team affiliation promotes coordination effectiveness"

Best Paper Based on a Dissertation: Gisa Moenkemeyer, "Innovator resilience: An exploratory case study on the human side of project failure"

Best Paper Based on a Dissertation: Helene L. Colman (FAFO), "The interaction of contributive and absorptive capacities in post-acquisition integration"

Best Paper Based on a Dissertation: Eleni Lamprou (London School of Economics), "Enacting Technological Change in Organizations: Devising Accommodations of Disconcerting Events"

Dexter Award Finalist: We are proud to announce that the ODC nominee, "The Influence of Eastern and Western Societal Cultures in Managing Strategic Change," written by William Maddux (INSEAD), Quy Huy (INSEAD), and Jeffery

Sanchez-Burks (University of Michigan), has been selected from a very competitive field of 20 papers across the Academy as one of five Dexter Award Finalists.

Every year, the Academy of Management grants the highly-prestigious Carolyn Dexter Award to the paper that best meets the objective of internationalizing the Academy.

The Dexter Award Winner will be selected from among the five finalists and announced at a "champagne and nibbles" reception Sunday, August 14, 2-3 p.m. in the San Antonio Convention Centre, room 214B.

Best Reviewer Awards

283 people completed 623 reviews. Thank you to all who served! Your reviews ensure the rigor and high quality of our divisional sessions and the input you provide through your reviews is immensely valuable in the process of selecting papers and providing feedback to authors. In recognition of this important work we each year award three of the most highly rated reviewers by paper submitters. Congratulations to the 2011 Best Reviewers: Rodrigo Canales, Yale School of Management; Reut Livne-Tarandach, Boston College; and Steven Page, Fielding Graduate University.

ODC Sessions & Socials

We particularly want to call your attention to six special events you won't want to miss:

- Creating the Future of ODC, Saturday, August 13, 4-6 p.m., Grand Hyatt, Travis C

- ODC Doctoral Student and New Member Reception, Saturday, August 13, 6-8 p.m., Grand Hyatt, Texas Ballroom C

- ODC Kick-off Session: Bridging East and West in ODC Research, Teaching, and Practice, Monday, August 15, 8-9:30 a.m., Grand Hyatt, Texas Ballroom A

- ODC Distinguished Speaker, Kim Cameron, Monday, August 15, 3-4:30 p.m., Grand Hyatt, Lone Star A

- ODC Business Meeting, Monday, August 15, 4-6:15 p.m., Grand Hyatt, Lone Star A

- ODC Social Reception, featuring the Frank Barrett and Colin Fisher Jazz Ensemble, Monday, August 15, 6:30-8:30 p.m., Grand Hyatt, Texas Ballroom C

Thank You!

This year's ODC program would not be possible without help from a lot of people. Special thanks go to Lachlan Whatley, who is a professor of finance at Trinity Western University in Vancouver, BC, and a candidate in the Ph.D. program in OD at Benedictine University. Lachlan provided invaluable assistance in putting together and coordinating the 2011 program. Thanks also to the AoM staff, and especially Jimmy Lee and Valerie Concepcion, for another year of outstanding service. Thanks to the members of the ODC board who were always virtually close and quick to provide valuable and thoughtful advice: Ronald Fry, Chair; Ann Feyerherm, Past Chair; Inger Stensaker, Chair Elect; Jeffery Ford, PDW Chair; Sonja Sackmann, Elections Chair; Hilary Bradbury-Huang, Member-at-Large; Danielle Zandee, Member-at-Large; Jeff Klem, Scholar-Practitioner Member; Philip Anderson, Scholar-Practitioner Member; Quy Huy, International Member; Robert O'Neal, Student Member; Gavin Schwartz, Treasurer; Andre Avramchuk, ODC Communications Coordinator; Wayne Boss, ODC Newsletter Editor.

Finally, I want to thank all of you who volunteered as reviewers and session chairs. The division depends on your willingness to dedicate your time and effort to work with us to create this excellent academic program. The reviewers' names and affiliations include the following: Gregory A. Aarons, U. of California, San Diego; Ade Adeagbo, NHS Alliance; Clinton Ages, Argosy U.—Atlanta; Jeffrey Alstete, Iona College; Phyllis R. Anderson, Governors State; Ruth Archer, Michigan Technological U.; Andre Avramchuk, Fielding Graduate University; Richa Awasthy, International Management Institute of New Delhi; Susan Faye Baechler, US Army Program Executive Office for Aviation; Mila N Baker, New York U.; Heather Christine Banham, Okanagan College; Jean M. Bartunek, Boston College; Jon W Beard, George Mason U.; Karen Becker, Queensland U. of Technology; Nic Beech, U. of St Andrews; Robin Berenson, Everglades U.; Janet Marie Bieschke, Pepperdine U.; Shyla Biju; Marina Biniari, Strathclyde U.; Deborah A. Blackman, U. of

Canberra; Wendy Bodwell; Wayne Boss, University of Colorado at Boulder; Marcia M. Bouchard, U. of Maryland; Dave Bouckenooghe, Brock U.; Sheila M. Boysen, Benedictine U.; Hilary Bradbury-Huang, Oregon Health and Sciences U.; David S. Bright, Wright State U.; Garth Britton, Southern Cross U.; William Bart Brock, Benedictine U.; Wayne L Brock, U. of Phoenix; Beth A Brooks, The Brooks Group; Judy Bullock, Northcentral U.; Anthony F. Buono, Bentley U.; Stefano Calciolari, U. della Svizzera Italiana; Steven D. Caldwell, U. of South Carolina, Upstate; Rodrigo Canales, Yale U.; Vera L. Cançado, Fundação Pedro Leopoldo; Charles G. Capps, Lipscomb U.; Marilyn Jane Carter, Benedictine U.; Bill Castellano, Rutgers U.; Liza Castro Christiansen, U. of Reading; Maurice Cayer, U. of New Haven; Albert H. Chavez, Embry Riddle Aeronautical U.; I-Shuo Chen, National Chiao Tung U.; Ya-Jen Cheng, Dong Hwa U.,Taiwan; Holly H. Chiu, Rutgers U.; Gunae Choi, CEIBS; Chee-Leong Chong, SIM U.; Shih Yung Chou, U. of the Incarnate Word; Ana Luiza Filardi Cicconi, ESCEM; David Coghlan, Trinity College Dublin; Jonathan H. Coleman, U. of Michigan; Scott Comber, Dalhousie U.; Shannon Erin Connell, Benedictine U.; Bethany Davidson, Western Carolina U.; Malcolm R Davies, Learning At Work; Daniel K. Dayton, Capella U.; Leon De Caluwe, Vrije U., Twynstra; Anthony J DiBella, Thunderbird; Vanessa Urch Druskat; U. of New Hampshire; Ben Emans, U. of Groningen; Hakan Erkutlu, U. of Adiyaman; Kathleen Geraldine Farrell, Dublin Institute of Technology; Dr Mark Fenton, U. of Wisconsin, Stout; Ann E. Feyerherm, Pepperdine U.; Anna A. Filipova, U. of Wisconsin, Oshkosh; Ronald Earl Fisher, Argonne National Laboratory; Mitchell Fleischer, Jacobs Technology; Jeffrey Ford, Ohio State U.; Shannon Fox, Association of American Medical Colleges; Terrill Frantz, Carnegie Mellon U.; Susan Frear, U. of North Texas; Joann Fredrickson, Bemidji State U.; Ronald Fry, Case Western; Lilli Friedland, Management Consulting; Connie Fuller, Chicago School of Professional Psychology; Mary Ann Gaal, Franklin Pierce U.; Kem Gambrell, Viterbo U.; Christopher Bernard Gargoline, U. of Phoenix; Chris Garrabrant, Benedictine U.; Teresa Gehman, Medical U. of South Carolina; Daniel Geiger, U. of Kaiserslautern; Kathy Dee Geller, Drexel U.; Gemma George, Capella U.; Azka Ghafoor, U. of Central Punjab; Jonathan A. Glover, Colorado Technical U.; Martha Gonzalez Adame, U.

Autonoma de Aguascalientes; Eric Goodman, Performance Edge; Mara Gorli, Catholic U. of the Sacred Heart—Milan; George B Graen, U. of Illinois, C-U (retired); Adam Groothuis, CBSET; Kevin S. Groves, Pepperdine U.; Edeltraud Guenther, Technische U. Dresden; Linda Joyce Gunn, Western Governors U.; Washika Haak-Saheem, U. of Dubai; Julita A. Haber, Touro College; Edward Robert Haberek, International Academy of Management and Economics; Alberto Daniel Hanani, U. of Indonesia; Bruce Hanson, Concordia U. Irvine; Robert O. Harris, Benedictine U.; Stephanie L. Hartman, Catalyst; Corinne Ann Haviley, Benedictine U.; Jeffrey Joseph Haynie, Auburn U.; Thomas C. Head, Roosevelt U.; Joseph Heinzman, Colorado Technical U.; Katherine Heynoski, U. of Michigan; Malcolm Higgs, Southampton U.; Gina Hinrichs, Capella U.; Debra P. Hockenberry, U. of Mary Washington; Kristine F. Hoover, Gonzaga U.; Henry Allan Hornstein, Algoma U.; Gerald Hunt, Ryerson U.; Keith O Hunter, Carnegie Mellon U.; Hassan Imam, U. of Central Punjab; Quy Huy, INSEAD; David Jamieson, U. of St. Thomas; Karen Jansen, U. of Virginia; Michael Jarrett, INSEAD; Payyazhi Jayashree, U. of Wollongong in Dubai; Joan Marie Johns, DM—Student; Ronald C. Johnson, U. of Phoenix (Europe); Lisa Kangas, U. of Phoenix; Gitika Kapoor, U. of Rajasthan; Chirag Kasbekar, Emory U.; Hamid H Kazeroony, Walden U.; David Kern, Northeastern State U.; Scott Anthony Kerth, Benedictine U.; Brian H. Kim, Occidental College; Sewon Kim, State U. of New York, Empire State College; William A. Kleintop, Moravian College; Jeff Klem, Healthways; Linda Klonsky, Union Institute and U.; Paul P Kloosterboer, Management Consultant; Gene A. Knorr, DeVry U.; Lindsey M Kotrba, Denison Consulting; Rita Kowalski, Work Life Consulting LLC; Daniel R Kowalski, Kowalski Consulting and Management LLC; Enyonam Canice Kudonoo, Student Member; Miriam Y Lacey, Pepperdine U.; Eric Lamm, San Francisco State U.; Ann Langley, HEC Montreal; JeanAnn Larson, Pepperdine U.; Kristina Lauche, Radboud U. Nijmegen; Velma Lee, Le Moyne College; Stephen A Leybourne, Boston U.; Bernard Liebowitz, Argosy U.; Runhui Lin, Nankai U.; Reut Livne-Tarandach, Boston College; Hubert Lobnig, Lemon Consulting; Uni Klagenfurt; Nicole Lockett, Doctoral Student; George W. Love, U. of Phoenix; Jiafang Lu, Hong Kong Institute of Education; Yung-Pin Lu, Marian U.; Sherrie Lu, U. of Phoenix;

Denise Marie Lucy, Dominican U. of California; Allan Macpherson, De Montfort U.; Rosemary Maellaro, U. of Dallas; Beverly Magda, Georgetown U.; Patrick S. Malone, American U.; David C. Marker, Clermont Graduate School of Management; Carol Mase, Cairn Consulting; Katy Jane Mason, Aston Business School, UK; Charles McClintock, Fielding Graduate Institute; Patricia A. McLagan, McLagan International, Inc.; Lisa D. McRoberts, Eastern Connecticut State U.; Michael David Meeks, San Francisco State U.; Stewart Melanson, Ryerson U.; Bradley Mendelowitz, U. of the Witswatersrand; Colette Menzel, Capella U.; Mamie L. Mercier, Colorado Technical U.; Johannes Meuer, Erasmus U. Rotterdam; Klaus K. Meyer, MT Consulting; Alexandra Michel, U. of Heidelberg; Darnay L. Miller, Walden U.; Zeeva Millman, A & M Human Resources Consultants; Judith Lee Mitchell, Synthes; Swarup K Mohanty, New York Institute of Technology; Alireza Mokri, U. of Edinburgh; Tamara Montag, Saint Louis U.; John-Paul Morgante, Elbit Systems of America; Kurt Motamedi, Pepperdine U.; Mark Mullaly, Interthink Consulting Incorporated; Mendi Mullett, Analytics Informatics Institute; Michael Todd Murphy, Benedictine U.; Dominic M. Mwenja, California Miramar U.; Lena Neal, Benedictine U.; George Marvin Neely, Southern U.; Jean E. Neumann, Tavistock Institute; Michael Niederpruem, Fielding Graduate Institute; Janice Lynn Nilsen, Benedictine U.; Ken Nishikawa, Konan U.; John M. Nord, River Valley Holdings, Inc.; Conor O' Kane, U. of Otago; Christine O'Connor, U. of Ballarat; Michael O'Driscoll, U. of Waikato; Robert O'Neal, Benedictine U.; Frank Ohemeng, U. of Ottawa; Phyllis R. Okrepkie, National American U.; Trude Hogvold Olsen, Harstad U. College; Joyce Ore, ACM; Margaret T. Orr, Bank Street College of Education; Steven Page, Fielding Graduate Institute; Jill Waymire Paine, Instituto de Empresa Business School; Neelima Paranjpey, Benedictine U.; Gregory Robert Park, Dublin City U.; Maury Peiperl, IMD; Evan Peterson, U. of Detroit Mercy; Joana Pimentel, U. of Canterbury; Michael Andreas Pirson, Fordham U.; Susie W. Pontiff-Stringer, George Washington U.; Latha Poonamallee, Michigan Technological U.; Donald R. Price, Metropolitan State College of Denver; Mauricio Puerta Armenta, U. ESAN; Martha Reider; Cynthia Roberts, Purdue U., North Central; Gary D. Robinson, Capella U.; Margaret m Rudolf, MRudolfAssociates; Piety Runhaar, U. of

Twente; Nancy Kymn Rutigliano, State U. of New York, Empire State College; Bernadette Anne Rutyna, Systems in Action; Sonja Sackman, U. BW Munich, Gallen, Switzerland; Claudia Alejandra Santizo-Rodall, U. Autonoma Metropolitana Unidad Cuajimalpa; Jyotsna Sanzgiri, Alliant International U.; Richa Saxena, Reliance Energy Management Institute; Nicholas John Scalzo, George Washington U.; Andrea Sabine Schaefer, Hawaii Pacific U.; Gerhard Schewe, Westfälische Wilhelms—U. Münster; Achim Schmitt, Audencia Nantes School of Management; Svante Schriber, Stockholm School of Economics; Natalie Senf, European U. Viadrina; Radha R. Sharma, Management Development Institute; Charles D. Shaw, Spectra Energy; Zachary Sheaffer, Ariel U. Centre; Lin Shi, City U. of Hong Kong; Bruno S Silvestre, Simon Fraser U.; Marina Antoinette Skinner, U. of Phoenix; Michael Scott Smith, U. of Phoenix Online—SAS; Peter Sorensen, Benedictine U.; David Philip Spicer, U. of Bradford; Sushmita Srivastava, XLRI (Xavier Labour Relations Institute), India; Richard W. Stackman, U. of San Francisco; Leslie Stager, Massey U. Auckland; Anne Starks-Acosta, Fielding Graduate Institute; Larry M. Starr, U. of Pennsylvania; Jacqueline M. Stavros, Lawrence Technological U.; Inger G. Stensaker, Norwegian School of Economics and Business Administration; Bruno J Steurer, Swiss Life; Christoph Stöckmann, U. of Duisburg—Essen; Anne Marie Stoughton, Benedictine U.; Daniel J. Svyantek, Auburn U.; Joerg Sydow, Freie U. Berlin; Leslie Thomas Szamosi, U. of Sheffield; Celia Szelwach, Atlas Research; Mark S. Teachout, U. of the Incarnate Word; Christopher Tennis, Sanchez Tennis & Associates, LLC; Dr. Dereje Tessema, Virginia International U.; Diane Thomas, Colorado Technical U.; Janice Lynn Thomas, Athabasca U.; Karen Toole, WH Professional Services, LLC; Shiv K Tripathi, Mzumbe U.; Joan Ernst Van Aken, Eindhoven U. of Technology; Antonie Van Nistelrooij, VU U. Amsterdam; Glenn Varney, Bowling Green State U.; Helen G. Vassallo, WPI; Ana Maria Viader, Sistema Ana G. Mendez; Mary Jean Vignone, Fielding Graduate Institute; Doroteya Kamenova Vladimirova, Cranfield U.; Gary Wagenheim, Simon Fraser U.; Jon R Wallace, Siena Heights U.; Nancy C. Wallis, Fielding Graduate Institute; Isabelle Walsh, Strasbourg U.; Donald D Warrick, U. of Colorado, Colorado Springs; Christina Louisa Wassenaar, Claremont Graduate U.; Ilene Carol Wasserman, ICW Consulting Group; J Reeves Wesley, Vellore Institute of Technology; Jennifer Kori Whitener Fellows, Texas A&M U.; Betty Whitesell, Westwood College; Michaela Wieandt, TU Chemnitz; Elden Wiebe, King's U. College; Ralf Wilden, U. of Technology, Sydney; Sue Williams, U. of Gloucestershire; Henry Eric Williams, Benedictine U.; Tim Williams, Westpac Banking Corporation; Evan D. Wood, Taylor U.; George Wynn, Loyola U.' Chen-Yen Yao. Shih Hsin U.; Danielle Zandee, Nyenrode Business U.; Chenjian Zhang, Bremen Graduate School of Social Sciences; ShouLiang Zhou, Dongbei U. of Finance and Economics.

(From Schwarz, page 1)

declines unless and until new or disruptive ideas are introduced. By empirically exploring what progress in a field looks like, this paper steps back and evaluates this cycle of knowledge development in organizational change research, asking, is there an empirical basis for knowing where organizational change research is in its life cycle?

Background

Typically, dialogue on organizational knowledge deals with how knowledge is created and organized by the flow of information. The focus is on how an individual's knowledge is mobilized and converted into organizational knowledge. Interest usually is on themes to do with the way that tacit knowledge becomes created as explicit knowledge and how this knowledge is managed, dealing with its acquisition, conversion, distribution, interpretation, and representation. Knowledge creation is seen as a mechanism for dealing with information and decisions in an uncertain environment. This focus on knowledge creation and transfer is emphasized as a primary objective of organizational research (Starbuck, 2006).

At first glance, and contextualizing this study, while organizational researchers regularly make claims about knowledge creation or extension, research on citation cycles and the nature of research—typically used as markers to measure knowledge conversion patterns—suggests that the reality is far different. More basic knowledge corroboration and incremental variation take place (Cano & Lind, 1991), leading to a variety of pleas for knowledge development

(Gray & Cooper, 2010; Pfeffer, 1993). After all, given questions to do with why knowledge is distinctively valuable, individuals draw and act upon a corpus of schemata and generalizations that reinforce established knowledge or act as a constant frame of reference. In this context, Schwarz and Huber (2008: 4) query whether "the research community believes that change research does not need to move beyond its current, dominant perspectives and theories?" Although there is a preference in social science research to promote the creation of reliable, transferable knowledge, because researchers disagree about the nature of organizational knowledge, there is never closure about, and always ambiguity associated with contributions to knowledge (Starbuck, 2006).

At best, researchers are limited to a narrow subfield. Yet the knowledge represented by research is typically interrelated so that a researcher is forced to accept and transfer ideas and theories because others have done so. Criticism of this limited outlook taps into discussions on what constitutes a theoretical contribution (Whetten, 1989), and the life cycles of theories and paradigms (Nonaka, 1994), prompting interest in how knowledge about change is created and distributed over time. Faced with an infinite number of "facts" that have shaped what we currently know, one must wonder which ones are pertinent when trying to explain something new, and more specifically, how individuals convert the ideas, rules, procedures, and information of the past into tangible action.

The life cycle metaphor, widely used across the social sciences, offers a simple and predictable device for modeling the way that organizational knowledge is developed. A cycle tends to assume the occurrence of sequential changes, referring to a pattern of developmental processes and that organizations encounter generic problems as they age (O'Rand & Krecker, 1990). Consequently, certain specific changes are adopted that are inherent in all organizations. In this cycle, change is developmental and mimics a linear trajectory toward sustaining growth. The irreducible properties of this transformation are successive forms or stages, followed by irreversible maturation, and trailed by the adoption of standard organizational responses related to strategy or structure. Despite extensive work on organizational life cycles and metamorphosis, the tendency in organizational theory is to focus on decon-

structing the phases of growth and development, thereby promoting the sustained growth characterization of the cycle, rather than the allied decline and breakdown. While acknowledging the value of this focus, the current research takes a different stance with a mind to knowledge development in change research.

Knowledge development is a popular means of representing how organizations capture and manage information. In this cycle, participants manipulate knowledge by first identifying and transforming it, then selecting knowledge from the organization's resources, followed by an internalizing of knowledge which involves incorporating or making knowledge a part of the organization, and completed by an evaluation of the usefulness of the knowledge. In other words, knowledge develops built on this codification of collective understandings and shared experience.

Method

The data for this study were taken from six decades of articles (1947-2008) on organizational change published in eight journals (n = 473): Academy of Management Journal (n = 62), Academy of Management Review (n = 36), Administrative Science Quarterly (n = 69), Human Relations (n = 79), Journal of Applied Behavioral Science (n = 105), Organization Science (n = 34), and Strategic Management Journal (n = 27).

The decision to focus on published articles as an indicator of life cycles and temporal frames in change research was made on two common assumptions. First, organizational change research results in intellectual products in the form of journal articles (Schwarz & Huber, 2008). The principal consumers of the content of these products are the members of the research community, primarily the members of the organizational studies research community. One intermediate market, and gatekeeper, in the flow of change ideas to the research community, is composed of journals. Counts of articles is an accepted method for plotting the relative popularity and life cycle of themes (Spell, 2001). Second, the volume of research output and publishing trends are indicators of life cycle (Abrahamson & Fairchild, 1999) and the relative popularity of theories (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007). Researchers typically make sense of knowledge by integrating it into what we already know about a

subject, measured by recording the ratio of publications appearing on specific topics in different journals. Impact is usually measured through citation counts. This paper combines these approaches, moving beyond a reliance on journal ranking and citation counts to identifying publishing patterns.

The intent of the content analysis approach, therefore, was to offer representative coverage of organizational change in these representative journals, with articles being the unit of analysis. The 62 year date range reflects the extensive history of contemporary organization change debate and its long-standing theoretical foundation in the applied behavioral sciences, traced to the early stages of organizational development, beginning with Lewin. Interestingly, no data was sourced for the 1950s (in keeping with Sashkin & Burke's 1987 findings). Data were reviewed in terms of three items: Publication ratios, made up of publication, citation, and publication distribution numbers. Temporal trends, made up of features of time and its variants, including spread, sequence, and stages. Research orientation, made up of researcher recognition and intent.

This coding generated five overarching change themes: (a) theoretical foundations, made up of articles encompassing change evaluations—focused on categorizing change, (b) diagnosing organizational change, made up of articles related to the nature of change—focused on process, (c) understanding systems of change, made up of articles on change systems—focused on content, (d) models of change, made up of articles theorizing or conceptualizing change—focused on models for understanding, and (e) organizational change interventions, made up of articles using OD intervention type implementations—focusing on change application. For details of the methodology, and for the themes coding, contact the author.

Results

Results confirm publication ratio trends on organizational change. These data show an expected gradual, incremental, and noticeable growth in the number of articles published over time. Since 1993 more articles on change are being published than at any time over the past six decades, revealing a positively skewed, rapidly accelerating slope in the number of articles, with no indication of a pending or dramatic decline up until 2008. At first glance, given

previous annual review reports, there are few surprises in these ratio trends. As a field, change is as broad as it is popular. As a community, researchers follow each other so that popular issues continue to receive interest, reflected in citation growth over time. At a basic count level, since Lewin's seminal article, change research has continued to develop over time as a significant research interest in organization studies. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) supported this patterning indicating a significant effect of year of publication on broad theme ($F[4,803] = 6.60$, $p < .001$) and specific themes ($F[29,293] = 2.52$, $p < .001$), suggesting that, as expected, the ratio of change research is grounded in a temporal effect. Consequently, using the typical measures of knowledge growth (i.e., citation and cumulative counts), a basic representation of data focused on these ratios confirms that there is a life cycle in the way that organizational change is published, within each theme.

At the surface level, given that more is being published on change, clear progress has been made in the delineated broadness of themes published. But at the deeper level, with focus on temporal trends and research orientation, more of the same is being published, in confined, time-specific chunks rather than in frame-breaking evolutionary blocks—at least in such a visible trajectory. A refinement research plot dominates, using the same primary methods, and yet doing so in no more page space in the journals. These data indicate that at the basic level, while a life cycle in change knowledge exists, it is not a consistent or a predictably plottable one Despite multiple calls to arms for thematic consolidation—and the expectation of this development—as a community, change researchers have not made any noticeable, focused inroads in developing a cycle of one theme that sequentially materializes into another and so on

In terms of time, this cycle illustrates that early change research (up until 1970s) was focused primarily on foundations themes, despite its low range (3.6%). The next 40 years is statistically dominated by understanding themes, and in particular, behavior responses to change. Along with citation cycle trends, these results show a large concentration of researcher interest in an increasingly small sub-set of themes published in the latter years of data collected. There are no specific anchoring themes creating a core common perspective necessary to the

continual accumulation of "new" knowledge that delineates new propositions and predictions. Debate is mainly focused on explaining and linking issues, rather than discovering and uncovering.

These orientation items suggest that based on researcher intent there is no clear empirical basis for plotting an organizational change research life cycle. While small thematic groupings take shape, they have rarely resulted in the prolonged periods of development that typify the process of knowledge conversion. Instead, research is scattered, and heavily influenced by or dependent on time of publication (i.e., decade of interest). As interest in a particular change theme has grown (reflected in publication ratios), such groupings have become more obvious, and the budding cycle has then fragmented further again, preventing a theme from maturing to the point of decline. As a result, a mixture of themes occupies journal space.

Data illustrates a consistent story in this regard: In the 1940s and 1960s researchers developed the field with a concentrated period of research focused on categorizing change and content type research, and the intention of refining subject matter. In the 1970s this trend shifted as publishing ratios increased, so that while a refining plot still dominated research content, the focus of this research became sensemaking type themes, and more attention paid to empirical data collection. The 1980s continued this pattern, as life cycle trends would expect, building the organizational change community beyond its initial psychology, sociology, and OD roots. Yet researcher intention then shifted slightly, so that by the 1990s this trend changed once more, limiting the maturity stage of the cycle. In the 1990s approaches to change research were typified by more of an interest in extending existent knowledge, with far more of a spread over time and across the full set of journals in the study. Researchers overturned this approach in the 2000s, reverting once again to refining ideas and rationalizing change type themes, and resetting the cycle. There is rich diversity to these trends with its focus on attempting to understand and explain individual, group, and organizational change. Yet plotting these data indicates that far from presenting a uniform cycle of knowledge development, with its pattern of collective understandings based on shared information anchors, this patterning is inconsistent and disjointed.

These data challenge the assertion that citation counts are focal, measurable indicators of knowledge development or that citations reflect the extent of impact of an article on the (life cycle) advancement of the field. With a mind to the research question, they also show that based solely on citation data, a change research life cycle is inconsistent and not in keeping with life cycle theory, with multiple breaks in thematic trends, rather than continually and cumulatively refining or promoting a specific theme at a particular juncture. Instead, as a set, change research offers a focused account, with research progressively becoming more interested in rationalizing change and its outcomes than it is in the evaluating change.

Conclusion

Whereas the growth curve in a life cycle follows a predictable path—either continuing to rise and eventually leveling off or eventually declining—change research appears to be far more scattered and schizophrenic. Having moved beyond an initial stage of identifying, selecting and legitimizing new ideas, it now oscillates primarily between idea mobilization and idea diffusion, espousing what Lehrer and Paxson (1969) refer to as basic knowledge. This representation of knowledge is made up of continuously reconstructing and refining ideas. The irony of this outcome is that it facilitates no urgency and a degree of comfort, evident in the distribution of change themes. Findings show the field in a neutral holding pattern, with an interest in sensemaking over foundation strengthening, given the scattered nature of trends, while the bulk of the research community still supports and believes in unmitigated progress (or in the need for progress).

Previously, Ajzen (1991) asserts that individuals respond to a stimulus that is conditioned or mediated by belief, and that these salient beliefs are the prevailing determinants of a person's intention and actions. Without the challenge of differing beliefs, it is unlikely an individual will change their perspective. Unlike Pfeffer's (1993) or Miller's (2007) predictions about organization studies researchers ignoring inconvenient or divergent findings, this restriction has not discouraged or degraded change research. But it has narrowed its scope. There is no hegemonic theme that ties the field together or which acts as an anchor tenant. There is no theme which the field compellingly builds itself around in the same way that chemistry research does with the

structure of the atom, or physics with matter. Perhaps, to paraphrase van Maanen (1995), there are too many change researchers doing too many different things for this to occur anyway—and therefore will never be a real possibility. In other words, the field is now personified by researchers who typically are more comfortable with a refining or sensemaking orientation as they strive to consolidate belief, which allows minor developments to be recycled and repackaged as "new" knowledge.

References

Abrahamson, E, & Fairchild, G. 1999. Management fashion: Lifecycles, triggers, and collective learning processes, *Administrative Science Quarterly, 44*, 708-740.

Ajzen, I. 1991. The theory of planned behavior, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 179-211.

Cano, V. & Lind, N.C. 1991. Citation life cycles of ten citation classics, *Scientometrics, 22*, 297-312.

Colquitt, J.A. & Zapata-Phelan, C.P. 2007. Trends in theory building and theory testing: A five decade study of the Academy of Management Journal, *Academy of Management Journal, 50*, 1281-1303.

Gray, P.H. and Cooper, W.H. 2010. Pursuing failure, *Organizational Research Methods, 13*, 620-643.

Lakatos, I. 1970. History of science and its rational reconstructions, *Proceedings of the Biennial Meeting of the Philosophy of Science Association*, pp.91-136. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lehrer, K. & Paxson, T. 1969. Knowledge: Undefeated justified true belief, *Journal of Philosophy, 66*, 225-237.

Miller, D. 2007. Paradigm prison, or in praise of atheoretic research, *Strategic Organization, 5*, 177-184.

Nonaka, I. 1994. A dynamic theory of organizational knowledge creation, *Organization Science. 5*, 14-37.

O'Rand, A.M. & Krecker, M.L. 1990. Concepts of the life cycle: Their history, meanings, and uses in the social sciences, *Annual Review of Sociology, 16*, 241-262.

Pfeffer, J. 1993. Barriers to the advance of organizational science: paradigm development as a dependent variable, *Academy of Management Review, 18*, 599-620.

Sashkin, M. & Burke, W.W. 1987. Organization development in the nineteen-eighties. *Journal of Management, 13*: 393-417.

Schwarz, G.M. & Huber, G.P. 2008. Challenging organizational change research, *British Journal of Management, 19*, s1-s6.

Spell, C.S. 2001. Management fashions: Where do they come from, and are they old wine in new bottles? *Journal of Management Inquiry, 10*, 358-373.

Starbuck, W.H. 2006. The production of knowledge: *The challenge of social science research.* Oxford: Oxford University Press

van Maanen, J. 1995. Fear and loathing in organization studies, *Organization Science, 6*, 687-692.

Whetten, D.A. 1989. What constitutes a theoretical contribution, *Academy of Management Review, 14*, 490-495.

WHY DO EMPLOYEES TAKE MORE INITIATIVE IF THEY DEVELOP THEIR OWN PERFORMANCE MEASURES? A FIELD STUDY

Bianca A.C. Groen
Marc J.F. Wouters
University of Twente
The Netherlands
2011 ODC Best Action Research Paper Award

The relation between the use of performance measures and organizational performance has been studied frequently, mostly finding a positive relation. Recent studies started to look into the effects of employees' participation in developing their own performance measures. Although the number of studies with this focus is still limited, they all found positive effects (i.e. Abernethy & Bouwens, 2005; Hunton & Gibson, 1999; Kleingeld, Van Tuijl, & Algera, 2004; Wouters & Wilderom, 2008). These effects are consistent with meta-analyses for participation in general (Combs, Liu, Hall, & Ketchen, 2006; Wagner, Leana, Locke, & Schweiger, 1997), and also for budgetary participation, which is most similar to what we study here (e.g. Derfuss, 2009; Luft & Shields, 2007). Less is known, however, about the mediating mechanisms-why would PM participation have positive effects (Hall, 2008; Luckett & Eggleton, 1991; Webb, 2004)? This is the focus of the present study.

We define PM participation as substantial impact of one or more employees on the content of the performance measures they or their team are measured by. This may include any aspect of performance measures that Neely et al. (2002) distinguish: the name, the purpose, the target, the formula, the frequency of measuring, the source of data, and responsibility. PM participation uses employees' experience to quantitatively report key aspects of their individual or team performance. This is supposed to lead to more reliable, valid, and understandable performance measures in their specific work setting (Wouters and Wilderom, 2008).

Performance measurement is usually assumed to affect employee behavior that, in turn, facilitates achieving organizational goals (Burney, Henle & Widener, 2009; Covaleski, Evans, Luft & Shields, 2003; Hall, 2008). It asks employees to take more responsibility for linking their own work to the goals of the organization (Bond, 1999). This requires Employee initiative, which is an increasingly important part of contemporary job performance (Campbell, 2000; Crant, 2000; Frese & Fay, 2001b) aimed at achieving continuous improvements in operational processes. Employee initiative is defined as self-starting, proactive, persistent and pro-company behavior of individual employees (Frese & Fay, 2001a).

The central question of our study is: why is PM participation related to Employee initiative? Knowing the behavioral consequences of PM participation is important for developing performance measures that provide useful, relevant, and timely information to organizational participants (Luckett & Eggleton, 1991). We used systemic combining-going continually back and forth between theory and data (Dubois & Gadde, 2002) to eventually develop the model that is introduced in the next section. This model is rooted both in accounting and psychology, and therefore it gives more complete and valid explanations of performance measurement effects (Covaleski, Evans, Luft, & Shields, 2003; Kleingeld et al., 2004).

Theoretical Model

The basis of our model is the widely used theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010). TPB addresses how people can be motivated to behave in certain ways. According to the TPB, it is possible to change people's behavior when an intervention is directed at one or more of its antecedents (Ajzen, 2006a). It distinguishes the following three antecedents of any particular kind of behavior: Attitude—the person's evaluation regarding the behavior, Norm—the extent to which one thinks significant others want him/her to behave that way, and Control—the extent to which one feels capable of performing the behavior. Because the terms "Norm" and "Control" have a different connotation in a performance measurement setting, we will use terms that are more intuitive in the remainder of the paper: Social pressure and Capability to take initiative, respectively. In this study we examine if all TPB relations hold with Employee initiative as the dependent variable, and we examine if PM participation influences Attitude, Social pressure, and Capability to take initiative (see Figure 1). The hypotheses that are shown in Figure 1 are all based on ample theory, that the authors will provide upon request.

Method

FIGURE 1 Proposed model of the study
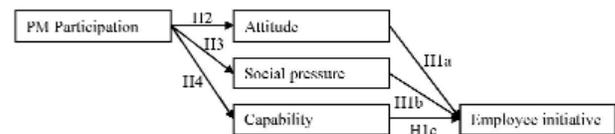
Research Context

We conducted a field study in a medium-sized Dutch beverage manufacturing company. We focused on its maintenance department for the bottling lines. Performance measures were jointly developed by the maintenance technicians and one of the researchers who worked three days a week on the research site. The actual process of developing the performance measures took four months. The rest of the sixteen months of our study was used for preparation, for embedding the performance measures in the departmental routines, and to collect data. A detailed description of the process is available upon request.

The bottling department employed 34 maintenance technicians: 16 electro-technical and 18 mechanical technicians. It has eight bottling lines. The maintenance technicians worked in shifts and each had an individual area of responsibility: 8 were responsible for one of the bottling lines, 24 for one kind of machine, and 2 helped wherever they could. Each of two maintenance managers was responsible for four

lines; one for lines that bottled returnable materials, and the other for non-returnable materials.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected through meetings, observations, interviews and questionnaires, and we extracted quantitative performance data from the company's database.

Most of the qualitative data came from 190 meetings with 96 different employees of the company, for a total of approximately 200 hours. The action researcher's notes were systematically coded with "performance measurement," "attitude," "social pressure," "capability," "employee initiative," and "performance."

Among the 190 meetings were 34 semi-structured individual interviews with the maintenance technicians about their attitude, felt social pressure, and capability to take initiative. These interviews were used as preparation before the actual development of the performance measures began. Based on Ajzen (2006b) and Francis et al. (2004), Attitude, Social pressure and Capability to take initiative were measured directly by the following interview questions: "What is your opinion about taking more initiative?" "What would colleagues think of you when you would always be the one that comes up with improvement ideas?" and "Do you think you are able to take initiative?" The working definition of "initiative" was explained. Furthermore, we asked questions about the behavioral, normative, and control beliefs of the maintenance technicians. We asked for (1) advantages and disadvantages of taking initiative; (2) groups or persons that are explicitly positive or negative when originating and implementing improvement ideas; and (3) factors or conditions that hinder or facilitate finding and implementing improvement ideas (see Ajzen, 2006b; Francis et al., 2004). The answers gave more information about the conceptual meaning and examples of Attitude, Social pressure and Capability and helped us to detect concrete differences between before and after the intervention.

In June 2009, 25 maintenance technicians completed a questionnaire measuring Attitude, Social pressure, and Capacity to take initiative, and Employee initiative itself. For measuring Employee initiative, we used Frese and Fay's (2003: 14) items. Cronbach's alpha was .79. Attitude, Social pressure

and Capacity to take initiative were each measured by four items that were constructed following Francis et al. (2004). Cronbach's alphas were .91 for Attitude and .66 for Social pressure, but only .20 for Capability to take initiative. In hindsight, we thought two Capability items did not really measure what we meant. Deleting them increased Cronbach's alphas to .36, which is still unacceptably low probably because there were only two items left. Since there was no better alternative, we still used this scale and as a robustness check we also performed all analyses with the item that best represents the Capability construct (I am confident that I could think up and carry out improvement ideas by my self). This gave similar results.

The maintenance technicians developed and implemented five performance measures: (a) rejection due to under-filling, (b) rejection of empty bottles, (c) use of water, (d) use of electricity, and (e) use of compressed air. The performance measures all measure departmental performance, rather than the performance of individual maintenance technicians. The performance measures are directly related to the company goals that apply to the bottling department: "cost reduction," "sustainability," and "efficiency improvement." We use the results on the developed performance measures to assess the change in performance of the department. Because the measures are based on information already present within the IT systems of the company, it was possible to reconstruct the measures for periods before, during, and after the performance measures were developed (from June 2008 until May 2009).

Results

The survey data provided a first basis for examining Hypotheses 1a-c. Significant correlations are found between all TPB variables and Employee initiative (Attitude: $r=.58$, $p<.01$; Social pressure: $r=.43$, $p<.05$; Capability: $r=.38$, $p<.10$) which supports Hypotheses 1a-c. Moreover, we find a significant correlation between Attitude and Social pressure to take initiative ($r=.68$, $p<.01$). In a regression analysis, only the link between Capability and Employee initiative remains significant, so that may be the most important predictor of Employee initiative. We see a similar effect in our qualitative data.

Qualitative and archival data are used to examine Hypotheses 3-5, proposing that PM participation affects Attitude, Social pressure, and Capability to

show initiative. We investigated whether the maintenance technicians improved on these variables and on the performance measures since the measures were developed. Most performance measures showed improvements in performance that could be directly explained by increases in Attitude, Social pressure, and Control to take initiative. This supports the hypotheses. In the original paper, we give several examples of these improvements. These examples are available upon request.

The maintenance technicians' attitude towards taking initiative was already quite positive before the intervention. Nevertheless, it increased during the development of the performance measures. In the evaluation sessions, the maintenance technicians praised the fact that the newly developed performance measures allowed them to see how well they were doing their job. This gave them a feeling of appreciation, which was further reinforced when their managers also used the performance measures' information to compliment the maintenance technicians for their work.

Before the performance measures were in use, such positive feedback was not received.

Before the intervention, maintenance technicians' opinions were very diverse about whether or not they were stimulated by others to take initiative. Our qualitative data suggest that the developed performance measures made it explicit that improvement was expected. The performance measures provided the maintenance technicians with a target that was developed together with significant others and that consequently was a manifestation of Social pressure.

Most maintenance technicians said in the interviews that they generally felt capable to show initiative in their work. They discussed several aspects of their work regarding their Capability to take initiative, which we summarized as: "knowledge, skills and ability," "facilitation of manager," "time," "money," and "communication and cooperation." All of these aspects improved since the performance measures were developed. According to one of the maintenance technicians, the most important contribution of the performance measures was that the technicians could finally demonstrate to the management the importance of improving certain machines. Therefore, they got more support of the manager, and they were allowed to spend more "time" and

"money" on it which helped them to improve. Moreover, since the performance measures were in use, they began discussing improvement opportunities more routinely and in a structured manner. This improved the communication and cooperation. And also the development process itself led to more knowledge transfer between maintenance technicians.

Our data suggest that the participatory nature of the intervention process was important for the increases in Attitude, Social pressure and Capability to take initiative. For example, only the maintenance technicians that participated in the process really believed the performance indicators and used them to improve. Moreover, there was an inspiring change from "this won't work in our situation" before the intervention to "now we know what performance measures can do for us" afterwards. All in all, the process of developing performance measures gave the maintenance technicians more insight into their own improvement opportunities. Before the maintenance technicians were involved in developing their own performance measures, they were not aware that improvement was possible in the prescribed areas. Although they knew that a lot was going wrong in the maintenance department, they did neither precisely understand what the problems were, nor how to improve them. The development process and the performance measures helped them with that.

Conclusion

After developing and implementing performance measures with maintenance technicians of a beverage manufacturing company, we saw an increase in departmental performance. We proposed that PM participation can result in better departmental performance via Employee initiative and developed a model of the mediating mechanism based on the theory of planned behavior. We found empirical support for all of the hypothesized relations. In short, our main findings showed that the performance measures developed in a participatory fashion can improve: (1) Attitude—due to the feedback on the outcomes of improvement initiatives; (2) Social pressure—because it provided the maintenance technicians with shared priorities and targets; and (3) Capability—because the performance measures uncovered various improvement opportunities. These variables, in turn, positively influenced Employee initiative, which led to better results on

the measures. We found no support for alternative explanations.

The effects of developing performance measures together with the maintenance technicians were observed directly after the intervention. To affect behavior on a continuing basis, Attitude, Social pressure, and Capability should be kept at the same level as after the intervention, until the new behavior becomes a habit (Ajzen, 1991). Our model does not extend to that longer-term intervention. We only explain and observe behavior in direct relationship to the intervention aimed at changing the behavior; sustaining the behavior is another matter.

Other limitations of our research design are that results are built on only one case, and that we do not know if all relations hold if they are analyzed together in one model. We also only developed the performance measures in a participative way, so it was not possible to compare it to a situation in which performance measures were made without participation of employees. It would be desirable to conduct a large-scale, cross-sectional quantitative study in the future, testing the whole model with varying degrees of participation.

Furthermore, action research is an iterative and selective process of theory development and data gathering, and researcher bias may play a role (Maxwell, 2005). Yet the strength of this research method is that it allowed gathering triangulated data, including observing the processes first-hand. From the start, we were challenged to demonstrate that long-term research cooperation could lead to innovative results that could have practical relevance for the company. We found that people in the company were engaged and expected that spending time with the researchers would be worthwhile for them. It was a journey of collaborative discovery (Van de Ven & Johnson, 2006) to better understand how employees can develop their own performance measures and why this may lead them to take greater initiatives for performance improvement.

References

References are available from Bianca A.C. Groen, *b.a.c.groen@utwente.nl*.

AN EMOTION-BASED VIEW OF ACQUISITION INTEGRATION CAPABILITY

Quy N. Huy
INSEAD, Singapore Campus
Taco H. Reus
Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University
2011 ODC Rupert F. Chisholm
Best Theory-to-Practice Paper Award

Over the last decades, research on post-merger and acquisition (M&A) integration has proliferated and includes processes such as forming ties across former firm boundaries, meshing cultures or organizational identities, and fostering trust and commitment among integrating firms (e.g., Larsson & Lubatkin, 2001). These research efforts have given us an insightful body of knowledge about the structural and cognitive aspects of post M&A integration processes. However, the emotional dimension—that is, the ways in which firms' decision-makers deal constructively with acquired employees' emotions that arise as a result of the integration process—has remained largely under-investigated in research on integration capability. This under-examination seems intriguing because many scholars have noted that M&As can evoke strong emotions and the latter could influence integration outcomes (Kusstatscher & Cooper, 2005).

We start our emotion-based theorizing by drawing on an emerging stream of research that explores emotion in strategic change (Huy, 1999; Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009). Scholars construe "emotion" as a multifaceted process in which people cognitively appraise a stimulus, interpret the meaning of the stimulus, and experience a feeling state and physiological changes as a reaction (e.g., Elfenbein, 2007). Because of these causes and effects, emotions can play a central role in influencing employees' support or opposition of strategic change (Dutton, Worline, Frost, & Lilius, 2006; Huy, 1999). In particular, in Huy's theorizing on emotional capability as an organizational competence, emotional dynamics refer to organizational behavior, routines, or practices that perceive or manage employee emotions to facilitate their receptivity, mobilization and learning during radical change (Huy, 1999).

However, how emotional dynamics influence acquisition integration capability has remained largely

under-examined. Dealing constructively with employees' emotions can be a challenging task for managers of many firms because it might require perceiving and managing employees' diverse and evolving emotions across dissolving organizational boundaries. Theorizing about emotional dynamics in integration capability, therefore, can help address an important gap in the acquisition integration literature.

Emotions and Organizational Identification Processes

The social identity view on M&As has tended to focus on cognitive dynamics involved in acquisition integration. This cognitive view posits that employees prefer to perceive a continuation of their pre-acquisition organizational identity in post-acquisition phases (e.g., Rousseau, 1998; Ullrich, Wieseke, & van Dick, 2005). This research stream links the dynamics of acquisition integration to various identification processes including maintaining separate organizational identities, de-identifying with pre-M&A organizations, re-identifying with the acquirer, or defining a new organizational identity (Clark et al., 2010; Terry, Carey, & Callan, 2001; Vaara, 2000).

We argue that these cognition-based identification processes can also generate important emotional consequences. Empirical studies that draw on cognitive appraisal theory of emotions have shown that emotions are elicited when people appraise events, real or imagined, as having potential consequences that are important to self or to entities they strongly identify with (e.g., Lerner & Keltner, 2001). Because identification processes shape our sense of being and belonging—what is most valuable to us (Dutton et al., 1994)—they can trigger strong emotions that influence subsequent thinking and behavior (Elfenbein, 2007). Moreover, the emotions that are elicited during M&A integration tend to be of an enduring nature (e.g., acquired employees feeling anger toward acquirer executives who display dismissive behaviors toward their company's products), as opposed to less consequential, episodic emotions that could be forgotten quickly (e.g., being upset by a computer malfunction that was fixed shortly later).

The fact that identification processes elicit strong emotions during M&A integration processes has long been observed by researchers. However, much research that mentions the emotional effects of M&As has tended to remain largely descriptive, focus on their harmful effects, and offer insufficient theorizing on how organizations can deal constructively with employee emotions to enhance integration success. Losing a sense of identity elicits repressed feelings of attachment or belongingness and can evoke feelings of apathy, anxiety, frustration, and insecurity among employees from both the acquirer and acquired firm. We also focus our theorizing on the acquired firm's identity outcomes.

We develop an emotion-based view of acquisition integration capability by describing an inter-organizational model that focuses on dealing with acquired employees' emotions—arising from various identification processes—that relate to two distinct approaches: maintain considerable autonomy for the acquired firm or integrate the latter in the acquirer.

Emotional Dynamics of Autonomy Provision

Autonomy provision is typically used when the key acquisition motive is to capture an acquired firm's valuable capabilities, which the acquirer does not have. Acquirers may take this approach when they want to enter a new product or geographic market (Bower, 2001). To achieve this strategic goal, acquirers strive to maintain acquired employees' commitment to exploiting or further developing acquired capabilities so that the acquirer can gradually learn about opportunities in the new product-market (Haspeslagh & Jemison, 1991). Acquirers thus use autonomy provision to limit harmful interference in the use of acquired capabilities. Inter-organizational interactions occur mainly at the top management level, while interactions between middle management of both firms are less actively promoted (Haspeslagh & Jemison, 1991). This approach favors firm boundary protection and stresses that employees of both firms tolerate continuing differences within the new "combined" organization.

Paradoxically, although allowing for autonomy may give acquired top managers a perception of retained status (Hambrick & Cannella, 1993), prolonged autonomy could eventually arouse harmful emotions when acquired top managers interpret non-interference as neglect, abandonment, or exclusion. They may come to fear that their autonomy is transient, perhaps just an acquirer's ploy to buy time

and take advantage of the acquired firm's capabilities in some manipulative way (Empson, 2001) or divest their unit to an unknown buyer (Bergh, 1997). When autonomy provision is perceived as taken to its extreme, and acquired top managers are left without regular meaningful interactions with their acquirer's top managers, they more likely feel threatened due to limited knowledge about the acquirer's plans. Furthermore, they may even come to feel resentful about the acquirer ignoring them (cf. Meyer & Altenborg, 2007).

We thus argue that providing autonomy will only ensure stabilization of the acquired firm's organizational identity if it is complemented with the emotional dynamic of reassurance, which elicits emotional states of pride and comfort. This dynamic involves organizational actions showing acquirer's decision makers valuing their acquired counterparts for their distinctive capabilities, thus eliciting their pride. Pride is pleasure aroused when people believe that a positive outcome can be attributed to one's own specific actions (Lewis, 2000). Pride serves a social communicative function inasmuch as this emotion helps acquired top management express the worth of their past achievement and their expectation for the acquirer's top managers to adjust their opinions upwards in accordance with these achievements. As Albert (1984) noted, a proposed change can be resisted not only because the future is unknown and feared, but because the past is under-appreciated. When acquired top managers feel appreciated and proud, the positive emotions facilitate exploration of new ideas and cooperation with the acquirer top team, reducing their initial mistrust of the acquirer's motives.

In addition, to enhance the effectiveness of the emotional dynamic of reassurance directed at the acquired top managers, the acquirer can increase the credibility of such actions by displaying hubris-containment. Hubris refers to extreme display of pride about one's own attributes (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997). To the extent that top managers of the acquired firm perceive the acquirer's top team to display "victorious" behaviors that reflect arrogance and excessive pride (i.e. hubris) about the acquirer's superior power, resources, or capabilities, acquired top managers are likely to conclude that acts of emotional dynamic of reassurance directed at them are not genuine and are designed to make them less vigilant so that the acquirer can take advantage of the acquired firm's capabilities.

Enacting the emotional dynamics of reassurance together with hubris-containment to convey the authenticity of the dynamic of reassurance constitute what we call emotional pairing. More formally, emotional pairing refers to a set of associated emotional dynamics that seek to regulate emotions (i.e. elicit new emotions, alter existing emotions, or avoid expressing certain emotions) in the receiver as well as in the sender. In this case, the acquirer top team (sender) seeks to elicit new emotions (pride and comfort) in the acquired top team (receiver) by enacting the emotional dynamic of reassurance. The latter is associated with the emotional dynamic of hubris-containment, in which the sender (acquirer top team) regulate its own emotions (avoid expressing excessive pride or hubris) in order to convey the authenticity of the dynamic of reassurance and enhances organization identity stabilization among the acquired top team.

Emotional Dynamics of Acquisition Integration

In contrast to autonomy provision, acquisition integration requires acquirers to exert high control over the acquired firm's operations. Some acquired top managers might be receptive to converting the emotional attachment toward their old firm to the newly combined company. However, others may find this conversion emotionally difficult because they have psychologically invested in their former company for a long time. Thus, it is common that acquired top managers are replaced or subordinated to the power of the acquirer to achieve efficiency and exploit the acquirer's own capabilities (Haspeslagh & Jemison, 1991). As acquired top managers lose power, it becomes critical for the acquirer's top managers to build good relationships with influential middle managers of the acquired firm and co-opt them to realize important M&A objectives (e.g., Huy, 2002). Acquired middle managers who stay with their firm, moreover, could experience emotions of guilt and even depression, which have been associated with so-called survival sickness that paralyzes any form of identification with an acquirer. To deal with these harmful effects, we suggest the emotional dynamic of empathy to be expressed by acquirer managers toward acquired employees.

Following Batson (1990), we construe empathy in a broad sense to include feelings of sympathy and concern for the other. The acquirer can demonstrate empathy by requiring and training its top and middle managers who act on its behalf, when dealing

with acquired employees, to convey that acquirer's managers: (a) can feel what other acquired employees feel if they were put in the same situation of organizational identity destabilization, (b) put themselves in the place of acquired employees when making important decisions that affect acquired employees, and (c) are motivated to take actions that show they pay attention to acquired employees' sufferings and are motivated to reduce their pain (e.g., Dutton et al., 2006).

Furthermore, when acquired middle managers observe that their former top managers are treated in an empathetic way, they likely develop an enhanced appreciation of the acquirer's organizational identity. These middle managers likely infer that they would be treated in a similar way in the new organization and become more accepting of the acquirer as their new employer. In other words, the emotional dynamic of empathy not only helps reduce destructive responses by acquired top managers and their subordinates but also can signal to "surviving" middle managers how they will be treated, thus reducing the harmful effects of their survivor sickness.

In sum, if the emotional dynamic of dissatisfaction elicited among acquired employees is supported by the dynamic of empathy that is expressed by acquirer's managers, acquired employees likely perceive that the acquirer firm, via its representative leaders, understand their opinions and feelings and care about their well-being. They likely respond with non-defensive, constructive responses. In other words, the effectiveness of dissatisfaction with acquired employees on integration outcomes is supported by empathy expressed by managers of the acquirer. Together, the emotional dynamic of dissatisfaction elicited among acquired employees and the emotional dynamic of empathy to be expressed by acquirer's management constitute another manifestation of emotional pairing at the inter-firm level.

Whereas the emotional dynamics of dissatisfaction and empathy help acquired employees deal constructively with the past, other emotional dynamics may help them create a new future. Hope is an emotional state that is elicited by appraisal of future positive prospects for self (Ortony et al., 1988). Hope could also be elicited by perceived relational quality, that is, when employees service one another and bind themselves as members of a community. Hope is elicited when acquired employees perceive a

future that is open-ended and becoming, in which they can toy with generative possibilities, improvise, and co-create a coherent image of the future. Hope arises when people, faced with an uncertain post-merger integration, perceive agency in improving their situation ("We can do this") and goal-directed pathways ("We can find alternative paths if our current way to achieve our goals is blocked") (Snyder, Rand, & Sigmon, 2002). Action tendencies include intentionality to act ("We will do this"), not merely the perceived ability to act ("can") involved in self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). A lack of hope can lead to passive avoidance and disengaged coping behavior (Snyder et al., 2002) that harm the re-identification process.

In addition, members in a collectivity stay together because there are mutual benefits; and among the most important of these are the emotional bonds that develop over time in relation to self-identified and shared organizational characteristics. Individuals will be motivated to identify more strongly when their organization identities evoke positive affect, and to disengage if they produce negative affect (Harquail, 1998). Emotional bonds also undergird organization identity by providing stable psychological structures to contain anxiety, a commonly shared emotion that serves as a signal for the avoidance of a dangerous situation. Acquired employees only can bond to an organizational identity that affirms their sense of identity and belonging (Bartunek, 1984). In sum, if the emotional dynamic of hope is elicited among acquired employees is supported by feelings of bonding expressed by acquirer managers, acquired employees likely perceive that the acquirer firm (and its representative leaders) are genuinely motivated to improve their well-being inside the new firm and to integrate them as full members of their community. The beneficial effects of hope that is elicited among acquired employees in regard to re-identification and integration outcomes are further supported by creating emotional bonds between acquirer and acquired employees that solidify newly formed task-based relationships. Together, the emotional dynamic of hope elicited among acquired employees and emotional bonding constitute another manifestation of emotional pairing at the inter-firm level.

The capabilities-view of M&As (e.g., Haspeslagh & Jemison, 1991; Ranft & Lord, 2002; Zollo & Singh, 2004) has focused mainly on structural and social

processes of integration. Although it is widely acknowledged that M&As can elicit harmful emotions stemming from cultural issues, there has been insufficient theorizing about how acquirers can deal constructively with these emotions in post-acquisition integration. In response, we have developed an inter-organizational, emotion-based model of post-acquisition integration that focuses on the emotional dynamics of integration capability.

The concept of emotional pairing extends the emotional capability literature that has focused on intra-organizational strategic change (e.g., Huy, 1999, 2002) with an inter-organizational perspective (involving both an acquirer and acquired firm) and by showing how specific emotional dynamics together influence important identification processes during post-acquisition integration. In addition, enactment of different sets of organizational actions that deal constructively with emotions can be termed an acquirer's emotional acquisition integration capability (Huy, 1999), which complements other organizational capabilities that have been stressed in previous M&A research.

References

References are available from Quy N. Huy, *quy.huy@insead.edu.*

EMPATHY IN ACTION: INSIGHTS FROM THE PUBLIC CONVERSATIONS PROJECT ABORTION DIALOGUES

Kate W. Parrot,
MIT Sloan School of Management
2011 ODC Best Student Paper Award

The seeds of the Public Conversations Project's (PCP) Pro-choice and Pro-life Leaders Dialogue were sown in a horrifying act committed on December 30, 1994. On that morning, John Salvi, a pro-life advocate, opened fire at two abortion clinics in the Boston area, killing two people and injuring five others. Following the shootings, Massachusetts Governor William Weld and Cardinal Bernard Law called for talks between leaders on both sides of the abortion debate. A local non-profit organization, the Public Conversations Project (PCP), offered to organize and facilitate a dialogue between people on both sides of the issue. After interviewing a number of potential partici-

pants, the PCP invited six people to meet for four facilitated dialogue sessions. The participants were all women, though this was not an intentional part of the design.

The initial four dialogue sessions opened the door for a series of engagements that continued for five-and-a-half years in almost total secrecy until January 2001. By the time the participants went public with their process with an article they co-authored in the *Boston Globe,* they and their two facilitators had spent over 150 hours in dialogue in a windowless basement room of the Public Conversations Project offices in Watertown, Massachusetts.

One of the explicit goals of the dialogues was to explore differences and commonalities, and develop relationships based on mutual respect and understanding. In this paper I use empirical evidence from the abortion dialogues case to interpret what occurred between the participants, and to generate new organizationally relevant theory on empathy. The questions that guide the analysis of the case are: Using empathy as a marker for change, to what extent did the participants' relationships transform? More generally, what can be learned about how the mechanisms of how cognitive empathy, or perspective taking, operates, and of the interplay between cognitive and affective dimensions of empathy in a field setting?

Literature Review

Empathy in organization science. Organization science has committed relatively little attention to the study of empathy (Parker and Axtell 2001) both in terms of testing hypotheses derived from existing theory and generating new theory. This is remarkable given the accumulated evidence around empathy's positive potential. Empathy has been shown to generate helping behaviors ((Batson, Duncan et al. 1981)), generate greater tolerance for outgroups (Underwood and Briggs 1980; Sheehan, Lennon et al. 1989), inhibit aggressiveness (Polk 1976), correspond with good communication (Feffer and Gourevitch 1966), and produce attributions about another person's behavior that are more like one's own, in that they are focused on situational factors (e.g., she was under stress at work) rather than the other person's disposition (e.g., she is an angry person) (Regan and Totten 1975).

The lack of research on empathy is also surprising given the increasingly diverse, multi-cultural, global, complex, and vicarious nature of organizational life, in which opportunities for miscommunication, misunderstanding, and conflict abound. In these circumstances, an increased emphasis on how empathy operates, under what circumstances it is expressed or suppressed, and how to encourage it if desired could be of benefit.

Empathy in the social sciences. In contemporary research, the construct of *empathy* refers to the multiple, complex processes involved in relating to others, including the cognitive processes of perspective taking and the affective dimensions of social relationship (Davis 1996), as well as a more recent body of work on empathy's neurocognitive underpinnings. (Gallese 2001; Decety and Meyer 2008). Research on empathy can be found in a diversity of fields, primarily in counseling psychology, psychotherapy, developmental psychology, and social psychology (Gladstein 1983; Ickes 1993; Duan and Hill 1996), and also in communications, negotiations, and cognitive neuroscience (Boland and Tenkasi 1995; Decety and Jackson 2004; Galinsky, Maddux et al. 2008).

Empathic accuracy. A focus of considerable attention in the empathy literature is research on empathic accuracy—the degree to which observers can correctly discern the traits, thoughts, and feelings of other people. Aside from the complex Truax & Carkhuff coding scheme (1961), existing measures of empathy—whether self or other reports, observer ratings, or videotape interactions—do not make clear distinctions about empathic depth, in the sense of how fully someone enters "the private perceptual world" (Rogers 1975, p.4) of another. The data from the abortion dialogues support a new model of empathic depth, which assumes that deep, often unconscious patterns of meaning-making and sense-making inform consciously held assumptions, perspectives, and values (Kegan 1982).

Cognitive and affective empathy. In their review of the state of empathy research, Duan and Hill (1996) recommended that a greater effort is needed to understand the differences between affective and cognitive empathy, and how they may exist separately, coexist, or influence each other. The abortion dialogues case contributes here in two ways. First, the case data supports the hypothesis that affective and cognitive aspects of empathy are separate, but related phenomena, and they influence one another. Second, by drawing on research on women's development this case expands research on affective empathy, and highlights the positive rather than the negative pole of empathy (Davis 1996).

Methods

During the time that the abortion dialogues were occurring from 1995-2001, they were entirely confidential, and no access was granted to outsiders. I therefore relied on four sources of data for this research: 1) in-depth interviews of 70 to 90 minutes with all six of the participants conducted in early 2008, 2) news articles and television and radio interviews with the participants after they went public with their dialogue, 3) an article in the *Boston Globe* coauthored by all six of the participants shortly after they went public with their process in 2001, and 4) archival information from the Public Conversations Project about the dialogue process.

I used a grounded theory approach to data collection and analysis, which does not start with testable hypotheses, which the researcher sets out to prove or disprove. Rather, the grounded theory method begins atheoretically in order to allow conceptual categories and original theory to emerge from the data. The strength of the grounded theory approach is that its methods enable researchers to take a fresh look at social processes, and to create novel categories and concepts without (necessarily) having to rely on stock disciplinary concepts and theories (Charmaz 2006).

Results

The data from the dialogues indicate that participants distinguished between how they felt and thought about the *people* on the other side of the debate and how they felt and thought about the other side's *positions* on abortion and the underlying *worldviews* that drove those positions. In an iterative cycle between coding case data and consulting theory on empathy, I generated two theoretical concepts to characterize these phenomena, which are, respectively, *"relational empathy"* and levels of *"cognitive empathy."*

Relational empathy. The concept of relational empathy comprises three factors. One, relational empathy is built on a foundation of respect for an individual person as a fellow human being (Maturana and Varela 1980), rather than relating to

that person as the representation of a stereotype (Amodio & Devine (2006). This is a *process*, or a mechanism by which an empathic outcome is produced (Davis 1996).

Second, relational empathy is marked by positive affect towards the other person, and caring for and interest in their well-being. This is an intrapersonal (within an individual) outcome of an empathy "episode" (*Ibid*.).

Third, relational empathy involves the experience of relational connectedness: the experience of "weness and transcendence of the separate, disconnected self" (Jordan 1991). It involves intense contact between people, a deep connectedness, and an interpenetration of feeling (Kaplan 1991); and is the expression of being in relationship (O'Hara 1997). This is both an intrapersonal outcome and an interpersonal one (Davis 1996), in that it describes both a non-observable *experience* of connectedness as well as observable helping and prosocial *behaviors*.

At the outset of the dialogues, the participants knew very little about the people on the other side of the issue. They also held negative stereotypes of the others on the opposite side of the debate (Amodio and Devine 2006). The participants also exhibited negative affect (prejudice) towards members of the other side, which is defined as dislike, contempt, disapproval (*Ibid*.).

Over time, the participants on the two sides came to not only respect each other as human beings, they also developed a relationship that they called a friendship, which was marked by respect, positive affect, and an experience of relational connectedness. Several participants expressed this relational empathy in terms of how they grew to love one another.

Levels of cognitive empathy. The data from the case inform a theoretical conceptualization empathy that distinguishes levels, or degrees of what is conscious/visible, and what is unconscious/invisible in individuals' mental models, and consequently levels of empathic depth that can be extended in response to perceiving those different levels.

- *Level 1 cognitive empathy:* when one individual understands the beliefs and values that another individual expresses on that person's terms, and how those beliefs and values drive actions, decisions, and behaviors.

- *Level 2 cognitive empathy:* when one individual is able to understand another individual's worldview on that person's terms, and how that worldview informs expressed beliefs and values.

Level 1 Cognitive Empathy for Others' Beliefs & Values. Through a process of listening and inquiry, the abortion dialogue participants sought to generate an understanding of the beliefs and values that each side held on the topic of abortion. The participants did achieve a measure of understanding of each other's beliefs. However, there were no examples from the interviews of the pro-life participants expressing cognitive empathy towards the pro-choice side's beliefs *on its own terms*. Instead, there was always a measure of moral judgment attached to the cognitive expression of empathy. The pro-choice participants, on the other hand, did appear to achieve a greater cognitive understanding of the pro-life position on abortion on that side's own terms, although this evidence is mixed. Like the pro-life side, the cognitive empathy from the pro-choice participants was entangled with judgments, for instance, how the pro-life participants sought to "impose" their belief on other people.

Level 2 Cognitive Empathy for Others' Worldviews. As the participants delved deeper over the years into the topic of abortion and other issues like the death penalty and suicide, they began to realize that their own and the other side's position were informed by a much deeper set of beliefs and values, which the group came to call their "worldviews." The pro-life worldview holds that there are absolute moral truths that should guide one's life. "There are some things that are right and some that are wrong, and that's it," as one pro-life participant put it. The pro-choice worldview, in contrast, is a more morally relativistic outlook, in that there is no universally accepted set of "absolute truths." The pro-choice participants instead took many factors into consideration when making choices in their lives.

It was not until about four years into the dialogues that the participants began to see the underlying worldviews that were informing the other side's position, and that their worldviews were deeply divided—an "unbridgeable chasm," several members of the group said.

Relationship Between Cognitive and Relational Empathy. The participants described explicitly how the care and friendship they developed for one another kept them together through the challenging conversations that they were having. For instance, one pro-life participant said: "I wanted to go because I looked forward to being with this group of people. We'd have meals together. There was joking. There is what people are like when they're with other people is to enjoy another one's company."

Although the participants developed relational empathy and also a measure of cognitive empathy, they all experienced the emotional impacts of engaging deeply with people with whom they disagreed vehemently on the abortion issue. The pro-life participants felt the costs of this in terms of sadness at the worldview chasm between them, while the pro-choice participants described being judged or misunderstood by the pro-life participants, and feeling anger about this experience

Discussion

In existing research on empathy, there is no clear distinction between cognitive empathy for a person's espoused or expressed values and beliefs, and empathy for a deeper organizing worldview—what Schein (2010) would call the deeper assumptions that inform a person's values and beliefs. The participants in the abortion dialogues were operating for a period of time in the domain of Level 1 empathy before beginning to edge into Level 2 empathy. This case demonstrates that the cognitive meanings made by individuals (or groups of individuals) exist at different levels of depth, which are more or less accessible to outsiders through cognitive empathic processes.

Relational empathy as an expansion of affective empathy. This paper highlights the positive affective dimensions empathy, in contrast to the historical focus on emotions such as empathic concern, anger, or disgust in response to others (Davis 1996). The construct of relational empathy is a departure from traditional theories of psychology, which emphasize individualistic aspects of the self—those that are distinct, autonomous, self-reliant, and independent (Freud 1933; Erikson 1963; Kohlberg 1966).

An alternative perspective developed by scholars of women's psychology holds that the process of "sep-aration-individuation" that defines male development ignores and even de-legitimizes women's developmental process, which occurs not in separation and autonomy, but within the context of human bonds and attachments (Surrey 1991). In this perspective, selves are organized and developed around being able to make and maintain relationships and serve the larger groups to which they belong (Miller 1976; Surrey 1991). In this view, empathy is considered an essential feature of human relationship, to wit: "The experience of being known and accepted deeply by another, being aware of another being aware of you…is among the most psychologically important human experiences" (O'Hara 1997, p. 28). Perhaps in the vein of the positive organizational scholarship paradigm there are opportunities to understand how expressions of respect, positive affect, and relational connectedness can benefit organizations, in place of stereotyping, negative affect, and foreign or fundamentally separate.

Relationship between cognitive and relational empathy. Previous research on empathy has not clearly distinguished the difference between cognitive and affective forms of empathy (Duan and Hill 1996). This case provides evidence for the hypothesis that affective and cognitive aspects of empathy are separate, but related phenomena, and that they can influence one another in a dynamic relationship.

I characterize this dynamic as follows: The presence of relational empathy helped hold the participants together through the rare experience of a prolonged inquiry with people on the opposite side of a polarized conflict. But the participants failed to fully cognitively empathize with each other's beliefs and values on those others' terms (Level 1 empathy). The participants also exhibited limits in cognitive empathy for the worldview driving each other's positions on the abortion issue (Level 2 empathy).

The existence of relational empathy combined with limits to cognitive empathy created a dynamic tension for the participants in the abortion dialogues. As one participant said, "At the beginning we were in pain at the separation, but they were the other and we were angry at them. But now they were not, because now there was this intimacy and this friendship. And to be separated on an issue that we felt such passion about and was so important was even more painful." In the final analysis, however, the participants did find a way to hold these disagree-

ments "in love" as one put it. In the final analysis, the skill of holding the tension of being in conversation and in relationship with people with whom one fundamentally, cognitively disagrees, is the central message of the PCP abortion dialogues.

Implications

The present study contributes in three ways to existing theory on empathy: 1) developing a theoretical conceptualization of levels of empathic depth, 2) expanding theory on affective forms of empathy with a new construct called "relational empathy," and 3) demonstrating that, at least in this one example, affective and cognitive dimensions of empathy are separate phenomena that interacted to generate tension among the dialogue participants.

Because of the qualitative, single-case design of this study, these contributions should be considered tentative, and subject to testing in future research. However tentative the conclusions are, I hope to impress upon the reader the salient role that empathy can play in social relationships, and to stimulate more exploration of empathy's role in organizational life. A variety of organizational research domains could be enriched by a better understanding of how to conceptualize and measure empathic expression, for instance trust, communication, conflict, organizational and group learning, and diversity and deviance. In any of these domains, the potential for bridging across divides-—whatever the nature of those divides may be—can be better understood through the lenses of cognitive empathy, relational empathy, and the interaction between the two.

References

Amodio, D. and P. Devine (2006). "Stereotyping and Evaluation in Implicit Race Bias: Evidence for Independent Constructs and Unique Effects on Behavior." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 91*(4).

Batson, C. D., B. D. Duncan, et al. (1981). "Is empathic emotion a source of altruistic motivation?" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 40*.

Boland, R. and R. Tenkasi (1995). "Perspective Making and Perspective Taking in Communities of Knowing." *Organization Science 6*(4).

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing Grounded Theory.* Thousand Oaks, CA, Sage.

Davis, M. (1996). Empathy: *A Social Psychological Approach.* Boulder, CO, Westview press.

Decety, J. and P. Jackson (2004). "The Functional Architecture of Human Empathy." *Behavioral Cognitive Neuroscience Review 3*(71).

Decety, J. and M. Meyer (2008). "From emotion resonance to empathic understanding: A social developmental neuroscience account." *Development and Psychopathology 20*.

Duan, C. and C. E. Hill (1996). "The Current State of Empathy Research." *Journal of Counseling Psychology 43*(3).

Erikson, E. (1963). *Childhood and society.* New York, W.W. Norton.

Feffer, M. H. and V. Gourevitch (1966). "Decentering implications of social interactions." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 4*.

Freud, S. (1933). *Collected Papers.* New York, Basic Books.

Galinsky, A., W. Maddux, et al. (2008). "Why It Pays to Get Inside the Head of Your Opponent: The Differential Effects of Perspective Taking and Empathy in Negotiations." *Psychological Science 19*(4).

Gallese, V. (2001). "The 'shared manifold' hypothesis. From mirror neurons to empathy." *Journal of Consciousness Studies 8*.

Gladstein, G. (1983). "Understanding Empathy: Integrating Counseling, Developmental, and Social Psychology Perspectives." *Journal of Counseling Psychology 30*(4).

Ickes, W. (1993). "Empathic Accuracy." *Journal of Personality 61*(4).

Jordan, J. (1991). Empathy and Self Boundaries. *Women's Growth in Connection.* J. Jordan, A. Kaplan, J. B. Miller, I. Stiver and J. Surrey. New York, Guilford Press.

Kaplan, A. (1991). Empathic Communication in the Psychotherapy Relationship. *Women's Growth in Connection.* J. Jordan, A. Kaplan, J. B. Miller, I. Stiver and J. Surrey. New York, Guilford Press.

Katz, R. (1963). *Empathy, its nature and uses.* London, The Free Press of Glencoe.

Kegan, R. (1982). *The Evolving Self.* Cambridge, MA, Harvard University Press.

Kohlberg, L. (1966). A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex-role concepts and attitudes. The development of sex-differences. Stanford, Stanford University Press.

Miller, J. B. (1976). *Toward a new psychology of women.* Boston, Beacon Press.

O'Hara, M. (1997). *Relational Empathy: From Egocentrism to Postmodern Contextualism. Empathy and psychotherapy: New directions in theory, research and practice.* A. Bohardt and L. Greenberg. Washington, D.C., American Psychological Association.

Parker, S. and C. Axtell (2001). "Seeing Another Viewpoint: Antecedents and Outcomes of Employee Perspective Taking." *Academy of Management Journal 44*(6).

Polk, W. M. (1976). *Perceptual orientation, empathy, and the inhibition of aggression.* Raleigh, North Carolina State University.

Regan, D. and J. Totten (1975). "Empathy and attribution: Turning observers into actors." *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 32*.

Rogers, C. (1975). "Empathic: An Unappreciated Way of Being." *Counseling Psychologist 5*(2).

Sheehan, E. P., R. Lennon, et al. (1989). "Reactions to AIDS and other illnesses: Reported interactions in the workplace." *Journal of Psychology 123*.

Surrey, J. (1991). *The Relational Self in Women: Clinical Implications*. Guilford Press. J. Jordan, A. Kaplan, J. B. Miller, I. Stiver and J. Surrey. New York.

Surrey, J. (1991). *The Self-in-Relation: A Theory of Women's Development*. New York, Guilford Press.

Truax, C. B. and R. Carkhuff (1961). "A scale for the measurement of accurate empathy." *Psychiatric Institute Bulletin.*

Truax, C. B. and R. Carkhuff (1967). *Toward effective counseling and psychotherapy: Training and practice*. Chicago, Aldine.

Underwood, B. and S. R. Briggs (1980). *The influence of perspective-taking and aggressiveness on attitudes toward Iran.*

HIGH-VELOCITY TEAMING: HOW TEAM SCAFFOLDS PROMOTE EFFECTIVE COORDINATION

Melissa Valentine
Harvard University
2011 Susan Cohen Award

This research investigates high-velocity teaming—coordination of complex knowledge-intensive work in high-stakes, high-paced settings—in a longitudinal, multi-method study of a hospital emergency department. Teams have long been considered a useful structure for enabling real-time coordination rather than relying on predetermined task subdivisions to accomplish interdependent work, and much is known about team effectiveness (Bettenhausen, 1991; Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Guzzo & Dickson, 1996). Team boundedness—clarity about who is and is not on the team—and at least a moderate degree of membership stability have been identified as enabling conditions (J. R. Hackman, 1990; J. Richard Hackman, 2002; Wageman, Hackman, & Lehman, 2005). Increasingly, many teams in today's workplace confront shifting (rather than stable) tasks and members. Some teams are initially designed with well-bounded membership, but encounter frequent changes in response to changing projects, tasks, and strategic priorities. For example, new product development or consulting teams display this pattern. In other cases, individuals work closely together for brief episodes and then disband to work with others; for example, groups of clinicians in a hospital often gather to diagnose or treat a single patient, and then move on to work on other cases with other individuals. Growing attention to these more ephemeral team forms is reflected in recent research on fluid work teams (J. R. Hackman & Katz, 2010; Huckman, Staats, & Upton, 2009), multiple-team membership (O'Leary, Mortensen, & Woolley, 2011), and team learning (Edmondson & Nembhard, 2009). The changing nature of team-based work in organizations means that it is increasingly important to understand effective teaming—real-time coordination to carry out interdependent work—not just the conditions for effective teams.

In this dissertation, I study how organizations can support effective teaming. I look specifically at an organizational redesign intended to improve teaming effectiveness in a high-volume urban emergency department. I employ a hybrid study design drawing on quantitative network methods and qualitative

interviews and observation to study teaming both before and after the redesign. Prior to the redesign, teaming was based on unbounded "first available" partnering, whereas after teaming took place in a new structure that I refer to as a team scaffold. A team scaffold is a virtual structure that designates teaming partners and clarifies norms of interactions so as to facilitate interactions among interdependent workers. I explore the design and effects of team scaffolds in the ED.

The key findings of the research are several. First, quantitative network analyses reveal significant changes in the teaming network—in particular, as expected, people worked with fewer teaming partners following the implementation of team scaffolds. Team scaffolds were also associated with significantly improved efficiency in the ED; this relationship is partially mediated by the reduction in teaming partners, suggesting that teaming with fewer partners simplified coordination and streamlined decision making. Qualitative data and analysis provide rich insight into the mechanisms contributing to the teaming network changes and to the efficiency gains brought about by the changes in teaming. These analyses suggest that the introduction of team scaffolds gave rise to more intense teaming within each scaffold as well as competition among them.

Research Setting

Prior to the redesign, each patient case was staffed according to which nurse, then which resident (physician in training), and which attending (supervising physician) first became available. Note that, in a purely logical sense, staffing each patient using a "first available" model could optimize operational efficiency because less time would be spent waiting for specific individuals from a smaller set who could be engaged with other patients. However, the "first available" staffing design also means that each physician is working with a large number of different nurses (caring for different patients), while at the same time each nurse is similarly working with a large number of different physicians, making availability of caregivers potentially confusing. In other words, operational efficiency might be seemingly served by a "first available" model, but the interdependent nature of the work means that this model may also result in a complicated pattern of personnel engaged in coordination. Little is known about the consequences of this on effective teaming.

The organizational redesign introduced a new team structure into the ED. The creation of stable, bounded teams was infeasible for several over-determined reasons having to do with the 24-hour clock of the ED, the medical training model of many academic hospitals, and medical culture which relies more on role-based coordination than team-based coordination. Instead, the ED was divided into smaller sections called "pods." Each pod is staffed with a small group of nurses and physicians but with little stability in terms of who is working in which pod during any given shift. Because of the various and staggered times that shifts begin or end, new people are frequently coming online in a pod or signing off to a replacement, while the coordination of interdependent work between the new and remaining members of the pod must continue on uninterrupted.

Reflecting on the change implemented at the research site with my research advisor, Amy Edmondson, we realized that the pods created virtual structures that helped support teaming within the structures. The term "scaffold" seemed to capture the idea of a structural support that is not itself the building, but that helps the building come about. The scaffold supports the continual construction of ephemeral "teams"—or in other words, it supports the construction of a teaming process between various and changing groups of people. The team scaffolds (i.e. pods) imposed a degree of boundedness on the teaming in the ED. It was not the full stability and boundedness of "real" teams as typically defined (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; J. Richard Hackman, 2002); instead the scaffolds created designated containers within which teaming between constantly shifting sets of people occurred. Team scaffolds are explored as a solution for situations when teams are desirable because of the interdependent nature of the work, but impractical because of rapidly changing personnel; in this particular setting, team scaffolds are an alternative to large groups engaged in unbounded teaming where collaborators are chosen based on availability.

Methods

I employ a hybrid research design that blends quantitative network methods and qualitative methods, both to test effects of the team scaffolds and to develop understanding of mechanisms that contribute to these effects.

Quantitative Analysis

Studying teaming requires new concepts and methods to build on those used in classic research on teams. When studying formal, bounded teams, team membership is (by definition) clear, and measuring a group-level construct is typically straightforward, such as by aggregating individual responses to a team-level value. When a group engaged in interdependent work is unbounded, of fleeting duration, or has constantly changing membership, it is challenging to determine who should be included in the set of interest. In such cases, I propose that the set of interest can be conceptualized as part of a multilevel system consisting of (1) the meso-team level (the full pool (e.g., a unit, department or organization) from which all of the interdependent workers is drawn) (2) the task level (the various combinations of individuals within the meso-team who are engaged in teaming on a shared task) and (3) the individual level (the individuals in the department). There may be variation in effective teaming at the meso-team level (i.e. comparing teamwork across departments in an organization), at the teaming level (i.e. comparing teaming outcomes across dyads, trios, quartets, etc), or at the individual level (i.e. comparing teaming skills across individuals). In addition to providing a valuable model for determining persons of interest, this conceptualization also allows for the use of two-mode network data and methods. Two-mode networks are made up generically of actors and events; the network is created according to which actors are co-affiliated with events. For this study, I constructed a two-mode network by mapping all of the individuals (actors) onto their tasks (events). The network that results is the enacted coordination pattern of who worked together on each task, and the task outcome captures how well each combination of people worked together. From this model I assess the teaming effectiveness of individuals (actors), combinations of people (the dyads, trios, etc. coordinating on a task) and of the meso-team network (the department). I use this method to explore teaming effectiveness of the department before and after the redesign.

Qualitative Analysis

To better understand the nature of the work and the role of teaming in this setting, I conducted initial exploratory interviews with members of the ED leadership as well as two physicians and two nurses. During this exploratory visit, time was also spent observing two different team scaffolds. After the iterative process of analyzing early interviews and reviewing relevant literature, I conducted systematic formal semi-structured interviews with 20 ED personnel. I endeavored to ensure theoretical sampling for the interviews and included people of varying experience and background, with particular focus on balancing representation among the three major groups: attendings, residents, and nurses. These interviews were structured to elicit descriptions and examples of effective and ineffective teaming before and after the redesign and to reveal the design and effects of the team scaffolds. I also conducted additional observation in the ED.

Preliminary Results

Quantitative analyses showed significant changes to the teaming network following the implementation of the team scaffolds. The average number of people that a focal person coordinates with during a shift decreased, which represents fewer working relationships that an individual has to manage throughout a shift. The implementation of the team scaffolds was significantly associated with improved operational efficiency in the ED.

Qualitative data revealed important design features of team scaffolds, as well as shedding light on how these new virtual structures affected teaming behavior. For example, the team scaffolds were implemented not only with team-level interdependence and responsibility, but also included visible team level performance outcomes that lead to competition between scaffolds. Early results suggest that one of the most important effects of the team scaffolds was that they gave rise to intense coordinating interactions, which I refer to as high-velocity teaming.

Implications

Many leaders manage situations wherein stable, bounded teams are not feasible: demonstrating factors that support effective teaming in such situations can help promote organizational effectiveness. The health care system is in crisis: poor quality and rising costs force us to look carefully at the way we organize and deliver health care (IOM, 2001). Team-based care has been proposed as one piece of the solution to the puzzle (IOM, 1999; JCHAO, 1998; Lemieux-Charles & McGuire, 2006), however, for a variety of reasons, stable bounded teams are often not feasible. Understanding structures that can

support effective teamwork in this high-impact setting, while allowing for constantly changing personnel due to shift changes or the medical training model, is essential. This work can also generalize to other industries that have dynamic staffing and complicated teaming patterns.

References

Bettenhausen, K. L. (1991). Five Years of Groups Research: What We Have Learned and What Needs to Be Addressed. *Journal of Management, 17*(2), 345.

Cohen, S. G., & Bailey, D. E. (1997). What makes teams work: Group effectiveness research from the shop floor to the executive suite. *Journal of Management, 23*(3), 239-290.

Edmondson, A. C., & Nembhard, I. A. (2009). Product development and learning in project teams: The challenges are the benefits. *Journal of Product Innovation Management, 26*(2), 123-138.

Guzzo, R. A., & Dickson, M. W. (1996). Teams in Organizations: Recent Research on Performance and Effectiveness. *Annual Review of Psychology, 47.*

Hackman, J. R. (1990). *Groups that work (and those that don't).* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hackman, J. R. (2002). *Leading Teams: Setting the Stage for Great Performances.* Boston: HBS Press.

Hackman, J. R., & Katz, N. (Eds.). (2010). *Group Behavior and Performance.* New York: Wiley.

Huckman, R. S., Staats, B. R., & Upton, D. M. (2009). Team Familiarity, Role Experience, and Performance: Evidence from Indian Software Services. *Management Science, 55*(1), 85-100. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.1080.0921

IOM. (1999). To err is human: building a safer health system. Washington DC: National Academy Press.

IOM. (2001). *Crossing the Quality Chasm: A New Health System for the 21st Century.* Washington, DC.

JCHAO. (1998). Sentinel events: evaluating cause and planning improvement. Oakbrook Terrace, IL: Joint Commission on Accreditation of Healthcare Organizations.

Lemieux-Charles, L., & McGuire, W. L. (2006). What do we know about health care team effectiveness? A review of the literature. [Review]. *Medical Care Research and Review, 63*(3), 263-300. doi: 10.1177/1077558706287003

O'Leary, M. B., Mortensen, M., & Woolley, A. W. (2011). Multiple Team Membership: A Theoretical Model of its Effects on Productivity and Learning for Individuals and Teams. *Academy of Management Review, Forthcoming.*

Wageman, R., Hackman, J. R., & Lehman, E. (2005). Team Diagnostic Survey: Development of an Instrument. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 41*(4), 373-398.

INNOVATOR RESILIENCE: AN EXPLORATORY CASE STUDY ON THE HUMAN SIDE OF INNOVATION PROJECT FAILURE

Gisa Moenkemeyer
Otto Beisheim School of Management
Vallendar, Germany
2011 Best Paper Based on a Dissertation Award

Innovation projects, i.e. projects targeting the adaptation or the development of new products, services, or processes (Woodman, Sawyer, & Griffin, 1993), are often terminated before completion (Shepherd & Cardon, 2009), especially when aiming at radical or discontinuous innovations (Bessant, 2008). Such project terminations are natural and often necessary as a high degree of uncertainty and complexity inheres in the innovation process (Van de Ven & Polley, 1992). Prior research has looked at the reasons for terminations (e.g., Balachandra & Brockhoff, 1995), at success and failure factors (e.g., Shenkar & Yan, 2002), the decision making process (e.g., Balachandra, Brockhoff, & Pearson, 1996), delayed terminations and escalating commitment to underperforming innovation projects (e.g., Sivanathan, Molden, Galinsky, & Ku, 2008).

What has been largely neglected so far in the research streams dealing with innovation project terminations is that they have the potential to sustainably affect the employees associated with the projects in a detrimental way (Välikangas, Hoegl, & Gibbert, 2009). This is particularly noteworthy since exactly these project members and all their motivation and capabilities are among the most valuable resources a company possesses (Verona, 1999). Especially when regarding future innovative activities which have to be executed by the very individuals who have experienced the termination of an innovation project to which they may have

26

dedicated a lot of time, effort, and passion. Therefore, it is important to keep or even strengthen their innovative capacity, as well as their passion and commitment for subsequent innovation projects after such a failure (Corbett, Neck, & DeTienne, 2007). Hence, the ability of project members to bounce back (or even grow) after the setback of a termination, i.e., the individual resilience of project members (Coutu, 2002; Ollier-Malaterre, 2010), is essential in order to prepare the ground for innovative endeavors in the future.

Resilience research so far largely investigated individual resilience in general, mostly in a clinical context (Richardson, 2002). Research on individual resilience in the organizational context, in particular regarding innovation, still is in the fledgling stages (Stajkovic, 2006). A few exceptions investigated the influence of resilience on organizational change and layoffs (Grzeda & Prince, 1997; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). However, due to the peculiarities inherent in innovative tasks (Drucker, 1985), we believe that in the context of innovation, it is not possible to grasp resilience in an adequate way by applying (existing) general resilience concepts and measures (e.g., Grzeda & Prince, 1997; Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Rather, a resilience construct appears appropriate which not only incorporates the recovery from an adverse event, but also the maintenance of personal innovativeness after a setback like an innovation project termination. This underlines the need for developing a resilience construct specifically aligned to the unique setting of innovation.

We therefore identify a set of six components that constitute the second-order construct of innovator resilience (IR), which facilitates positive future functioning after a termination. We conceptualize resilience in the organizational context as an outcome variable, which will allow us to investigate factors influencing IR. In previous studies, resilience is mainly seen as a stable personality trait influencing outcomes of adverse events. Yet, we expect that not only personal resilience influences the outcomes of a challenging situation—in our case the termination of an innovation project—but also that characteristics of the setback situation, in turn, influence the personal qualities that are important for future functioning in subsequent innovation projects. We conduct an in-depth exploratory case study of an innovation project termination to take an initial move toward understanding how characteristics of the termination of an innovation project (i.e.,

the setback situation) influence individuals' IR. We identify three influencing factors on IR.

Innovator Resilience (IR)

Throughout this study we define our focal construct IR by adapting the definition of resilience by Sutcliffe & Vogus (2003) to the innovation context: IR is the potential for positive functioning for the accomplishment of innovative tasks after a professional setback and for better coping with future setbacks. Such a setback in the innovation context commonly refers to an innovation project failure, i.e., the deliberate decision to terminate or substantially change an innovation project before it is completed (Balachandra & Friar, 1997; Kumar, Persaud, & Kumar, 1996). In this context, we define an innovator as a person that professionally works on or incites innovative tasks. The IR construct comprises of six components. The premise for identifying the constituting components was that they relate to resilience as well as to innovation and that they are malleable in nature. As such, IR incorporates state-like qualities that are essential for innovative functioning after a professional setback like an innovation project failure, thus representing fundamental pre-requisites for accomplishing subsequent innovative tasks (Amabile, 1988).

Outcome expectancy and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is concerned with self-judgments of how successfully one can perform one's job (Riggs & Knight, 1994). Outcome expectancy refers to "a judgment of the likely consequence such performances will produce"(Bandura, 1977: 21).

Optimism. Optimism depends on the attributions which an individual uses "to explain why certain events occur, […] past, present or future" (Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007: 87).

Hope. Hope is defined as a "cognitive set that is based on a reciprocally derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed determination) and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder et al., 1991: 570).

Self-esteem. Self-esteem is defined as a person's perception of his or her self-worth (Stajkovic, 2006).

Risk propensity. "Involves calculated actions to make effective decisions that promote goal attainment with the clear recognition of the potential of damage, setbacks, and other losses" (Tjosvold & Yu, 2007: 655).

Case Study

We conducted a case study to explore potential influences of innovation project terminations' characteristics on IR during and after the termination of a large scale real-life innovation project. The unit of analysis was a terminated company-wide innovation project with several subprojects in a global hospitality company.

The country director of our focal country initiated a nation-wide innovation project "Foster Innovation" (FI) (name changed) which should involve every employee. Everyone was asked to submit ideas with the purpose to foster innovation and to maintain a leading position in the market. In the End, the board members decided on six core topics that were supposed to be implemented. Hereafter, the teams for the six subprojects were put together and started their work. Due to changes in the world-wide headquarter and decreasing business results the project had to be parked with the intention to relaunch it in the future. This eventually never happened as the country director left the company and several other changes evolved. In the end, two of the six subprojects were finished successfully, since they had been nearly completed when the decision to park the overall project was taken. The only communication of the termination was a letter of the country director and a last meeting of the overall project leader with some project members. In some subprojects a debriefing took place, in others a board member talked with some of the members. In most subprojects, however, the communication was merely informal and most project work phased out before the official termination.

Interviews were conducted with the seven key persons of the innovation project. In order to maximize reliability of results, multiple sources of evidence were used and a case study database was created (Yin, 2003). The collected responses were content analyzed (Neundorf, 2002). We grouped statements that represented similar meanings in initial categories. After the coding, the three most important categories of antecedents were detected and the most representative and illustrative quotes were selected.

Results—Antecedents of IR

In the present case IR was affected by three characteristics of the project FI's termination.

Task-related feedback. Task-related feedback (Facteau & Craig, 2001) appeared to be an important way of directing attention to innovation project members' achievement and development during the terminated innovation project. Five interviewees experienced a lack of task-related feedback, both formal and informal. This led some project members to question their contributions to the project and consequently their competence, assuming that if their performance had been of value they surely would have received some kind of acknowledgement by the firm. This problem is nicely illustrated by the thoughts of one interviewee: "It is difficult to distinguish which reasons I am responsible for and for which ones not." This interviewee was not sure if his (lacking) abilities were partly the reason for the termination.

Proposition 1: Task-related feedback regarding team members' achievements during and after an innovation project termination positively influences IR.

Timely and consistent information about the termination. The interviews have also shown that adequately communicating relevant information may strongly influence employees' IR. The communication of FI's termination lacked timely and consistent information about the status of the innovation project. The official communication of the termination was too late as most project members already heard it through the grapevine and the information the project members received was neither consistent nor accurate: "I got to know about it unofficially ... it was a colleague, she communicated it via e-mail, because she was in the headquarters and thus got to know about it earlier." "Officially we didn't get to know about it until … after a few weeks." An official statement from the CEO was provided several weeks after the first rumors started. The rumors, however, impaired trustworthiness of management: "It would have been better to communicate earlier. It would have been more honest." Hence, there was no coherent corporate communication strategy and hardly any possibility for the project members to take an active part in the termination process.

Proposition 2: Providing timely and consistent information about the termination during and after an innovation project termination positively influences IR.

Social support. Resilience research has identified social support as a main protective factor (Masten,

2001), which was supported in this study. Every interviewee mentioned at least one person that helped him during the termination phase, for example: "It was decisive to have someone next to me; I had three people that were there for me." The answers regarding which persons did help ranged from family and friends to coaches, colleagues, and leaders. In the present case, some interviewees just needed someone to talk or to receive emotional support. Frequently, family, friends and sometimes colleagues could help in this regard. "Thank god I had my family, which gave me the necessary distance." But also my boss and coaches did help." Sometimes more than one "supporter" is needed. The person to turn to mostly depends on the context, the accessibility, as well as the kind of support that is needed (House, 1980).

Many interviewees needed to recall the project and come to terms with it. "On the emotional level only family, friends, and colleagues could help, on the other levels my superiors." Hence, when it came to professional issues like planning, organizing, and problem solving, i.e., the need for informational support, receiving help from supervisors appeared to be particularly important. The interviews revealed that most project members were missing support from supervisors and leaders and would have appreciated more leader support. Hence, both informational and emotional social support from leaders and supervisors, as well as from family, colleagues, and friends appeared in this case to be a decisive factor for maintaining IR after an innovation project termination.

Proposition 3: Social support during and after an innovation project termination positively influences IR.

Discussion

Theoretical implications. By specifying the IR construct, this study contributes to the literature on project terminations and innovation management and provides a first milestone in this line of research. As it became clear from the case study, IR may well be affected by a termination and showed to bear importance for the innovative capacity in future innovation projects, which addresses the identified research gap, i.e., which consequences an innovation project termination entails for the project members and their subsequent innovative work. As such, termination characteristics are decisive when regarding the impact of a termination on the project

members and they may cause a kind of innovation trauma (Välikangas et al., 2009), which usually entails high "human costs". Hence, we postulate that specific characteristics of the project termination influence IR. In the present case, a lack of (positive) task-related feedback, and the absence of timely and adequate communication of information about the termination appeared detrimental to IR. On the other hand, social support facilitated recovery from the setback.

Not only the project termination and innovation literature is broadened by this investigation, resilience research is also expanded by introducing the concept of IR. Hardly any former study in the organizational context investigated resilience as being affected by adverse situations (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). In the given context, it is reasonable to expect that the IR construct is affected as all its components are malleable to a certain degree. This assumption is supported by the results of this study, in which the constructs constituting IR were mentioned by the interviewees as being affected. Finally, this is the first study examining the resilience construct in an innovation setting, which allowed identifying aspects specific to this setting, like the importance of risk propensity.

Managerial implications. In order to avoid the negative consequences of innovation project terminations on IR, managers may plan and coordinate innovation project terminations in a way that minimizes the human cost of termination. That might even allow project members to benefit from a supposedly negative influence like an innovation project termination by learning from failure. Regarding support from colleagues and leaders, a post termination debriefing can be helpful. Another valuable instrument promises to be a stringent communication strategy throughout the whole termination process in order to timely and adequately provide consistent information about the termination and the consequences (Llewellyn & Harrison, 2006). Although it is needless to say that timely communicating each relevant information is not always possible, yet it is essential to explain why some questions cannot be answered (DiFonzo & Bordia, 1998).

To sum up, individual consideration, taking time for and caring about subordinates is essential during and after an innovation project termination. However, this might sometimes be difficult for leaders,

because they have a high work load or may struggle with recovering from the termination themselves.

Conclusion

This study uncovers several very valuable insights in the handling of innovation project terminations. The study has revealed that an innovation project termination can be very troublesome for project members as well as for companies when it comes to subsequent innovation projects. Yet, the case also shows that management has many possibilities to effectively support project members and foster their innovative functioning in future innovation projects subsequent to a termination. Knowing these opportunities, initiatives can be developed that protect and strengthen IR after a termination. Following the research on thriving and posttraumatic growth (Carver, 1998; Westphal & Bonanno, 2007), individuals may even grow or thrive following such a setback. An innovation project termination can then provide an opportunity by turning 'project failures' into 'successful failures'. In sum, having outlined the construct of IR, we are able to point to the aspects that need to be kept in mind when faced with an innovation project termination.

References

References are available from the author.

BRINGING THE HONEY OUT OF PEOPLE: HOW MANAGING ENVY HELPS THE ORGANIZATIONAL INNOVATION PROCESS

Marina G. Biniari
Hunter Centre for Entrepreneurship, Strathclyde Business School, Glasgow, UK
Quy Nguyen Huy
INSEAD, France
Finalist for 2011 ODC Best Paper Award

Organizational innovation (OI) is a social interactional process that can arouse different emotions. The role of emotions in the OI process is in itself not new in organization studies. Scholars have suggested that positive mood states can enhance specific subprocesses of the OI such as decision making and problem solving (Isen, 1993; 1999) and creativity (e.g. Amabile, et al., 2005; George & Zhou, 2007). However, this stream of literature has under-investi-

gated how emotions emerging from the social interactions of the OI process influence it. Although it may be intuitive that negative emotional experiences can harm the quality of the social interactions, we know much less about how specific negative emotions could benefit the OI process.

We focus on envy as a potent but under-investigated emotion in the OI literature. Envy refers to a negative valenced affective experience resulting from a social comparison the comparer carries out in a domain of self-relevance to him/her and when the comparison target appears superior and owning attributes or possessions which are close to the comparer's needs and goals (Smith & Kim, 2007). We chose envy for two reasons. First, by studying a specific emotion, we give analytical depth to the emotional nature of the social interactions composing the OI process. Second, envy represents a prevalent emotion, which primarily has been associated with its harmful tendencies thereby neglecting its potential functional utility (Parrott, 2002) and motivational role (Kets De Vries, 1992) in the workplace.

Our inquiry is grounded on a social interactionist perspective (Hochschild, 1983; Côté, 2005), where we posit that the management of negative emotions in fostering an organizational process leverages the social function of negative emotions between their sender, their receiver (Frijda & Mesquita, 1994), and their observers (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). From this perspective, social factors can contribute strongly in the codification, expression, and management of negative emotions in fostering organizational outcomes. Our proposed model draws from the literatures on emotional capability (e.g., Huy, 1999, 2002), regulatory focus theory (e.g., Higgins, 2002) and mindfulness (Fiol & O'Connor, 2003) to suggest the links among the management of envy and various personal capabilities including mindfulness, holistic perception, emotional aperture and integrated emotion management actions such as "architecturing" and "balancing."

For the purpose of theorizing we draw from three affective events triggering envy and sets of social interaction: (a) when the non-innovators (enviers) perceive the move of the new innovators (envied) as a promotion and perceive absence of gain for themselves, (b) when the existing innovators (enviers) perceive the entry of the new innovators (envied) as a threat to their goals and needs, and (c) when some

innovators (envied) earn more than other innovators (enviers).

Managing Envy in the OI Process

We propose a model of envy management which goes beyond idiosyncratic interpersonal strategies that stem from individual emotional intelligence and relies on overlaying processes embedded in the strategic and structural contexts (Bandelj, 2009) that are shaped by top managers. More specifically, by adopting an activity practice view (e.g Jabazarowski, 2008) we propose a process model, which includes organizational actions that recognize the emergence of envy, assist understanding its potential benefits and harmful effects, and helps manage these effects in an organizational context, by encouraging enviers towards self-actualization and emulation.

The model depicts the simultaneous and sequential actions performed by four different groups of actors (enviers, envied employees, middle managers, and top management) to regulate envy in a way that is productive for innovation goals. There are two directions of interaction among the groups: 1) envied employees provide information to organizational leaders (top and middle managers) about episodes of envy influencing the OI process, and 2) top management mobilizes middle managers through a strategy of balancing the emotional interactions among enviers and envied employees. Influenced by Burgelman's (1983) work, we construe top managers as playing the role of shapers of the strategic and structural contexts of managing envy and middle managers as championing and enacting on innovative practices relevant to the expression and management of envy at work in a way that produces constructive social interactions among employees involved in the OI process.

The model involves the core and overlaying processes comprising the management of envy occurring in the OI process. Based on basic constructs of emotional intelligence at the individual level (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and emotional capability at the organizational level (Huy, 1999, 2002), adaptive management of emotion involves core processes of perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions (Joseph & Newman, 2010). Translated in a work context, the core processes of managing envy involve various actors perceiving the manifestation of envy as naturally occurring emotion-laden

events at work and understanding its potential positive role in the OI process. The overlaying process involve the strategic and structural context which the top managers architecture by extending the corporate strategy to accommodate the management of envy and by creating emotion management action routines that help the OI process and which are implemented by the middle managers.

Core processes: Recognizing and interpreting envy in the OI process

Organizational structures and norms. To the extent that the organization fosters norms of emotional display freedom that encourage the authentic display of emotions at work while respecting others' sensitivity (Huy, 1999; 2002), envy is expressed relatively openly. As a consequence, envied employees are more able to decode accurately expressions of envy directed at them and can report it rapidly to supervising middle managers. Envied employees' motivation to deal with others' envy likely increases, as top managers put in place supporting rewards and compensation systems (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002) or by recruiting individuals based on their constructive reconciliatory dispositions,

Individual characteristics of managers. Middle management have better access than top management to their employees' emotional cues at work (Huy, 2002) and can mediate the accuracy and the type of information that top management receives with regard to the emergence of envy within the organization. This process depends though on the middle managers' individual regulatory foci. The enviers' emotions can serve as early information about the likely outcomes of OI before actual enviers' harming actions produce their ultimate effects on OI. Middle managers' prevention regulatory focus likely motivates them to convey their concerns over the occurrence of envy promptly to top managers (Higgins et al., 1997). Top management needs to weigh the degree of accuracy about the assessment of harm caused by envy to the OI process as conveyed by middle managers. Top managers who are driven by a promotion regulatory focus likely see that envy can produce beneficial effects and construe the occurrence of envy more as an opportunity for urgent organizational improvement rather than as a threat to OI that is difficult to address (Dutton & Duncan, 1987).

Shared mental model about perceiving and managing emotions at work. Top management plays a critical role in shaping a regulative emotional climate at work (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002), assuming that they are able to recognize emotions accurately, understand their potential effects on work behavior and outcomes, and possess a wide repertoire of emotion management actions that can be used selectively in diverse organizational situations (Huy, 1999, 2002). The ability to recognize emotions accurately is important because employees are unlikely to admit openly that they experience envy (Sabini & Silver, 1986). The quest for organizational consensus (Morrison & Milliken, 2000) and the presence of a shared mental model (Hodgkinson, & Johnson 1994) or belief structure (Walsh, Henderson, & Deighton, 1988) among top managers could make them less able to recognize the occurrence of envy as its existence is unconsciously denied. To overcome the limitation of their shared mental model, thoughtful top managers are those who make special effort to gather various informational cues from diverse sources to validate the presence of envy and subsequently, allocate sufficient attention and organizational resources to deal with the potential effects of this emotion (Hansen & Haas, 2001).

Mindfulness (Fiol & O'Connor, 2003) over employees' emotional cues might increase top managers' ability to search actively for such cues, to recognize a wide range of positive and negative emotions, and to deal with envy as an inevitable social fact. Mindfulness can enable top management to employ their emotional intelligence to assess the emotional impact of work tasks and develop a rich knowledge of envy at work by utilizing organizational gossip, for example. In addition, mindfulness over emotions in the organization context can foster the use of emotional aperture (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009). Emotional aperture enables the broadening of leaders' attention to a variety of specific emotions in a collective and increases their ability to identify hitherto taboo emotions such as envy at work.

Under the assumption of high levels of group membership and identification, envy is also experienced at the intergroup level as "events that harm or favor an in-group, by definition harm or favor the self, and the self might thus experience affect and emotion on behalf of the in-group" (Mackie et al., 2000: 603). Such occurrence of group-focus envy (Huy,

2011) in the OI process is dependent on the social identity of enviers as "non-innovators," "veterans" and "underpaid" innovators and the social identity of the envied employees as "innovators", "newcomers" and "overpaid" innovators.

Holistic cognition can also be important for top management to perceive emotional cues at the collective level as opposed to the individual level (Sanchez-Burks & Huy, 2009). The higher the holistic (as opposed to analytic) cognition of top managers toward envy, the higher their ability to notice a wide variety of emotions at work including envy and treat it as an important issue impacting not only some individuals but the whole organization. The ability to distinguish between isolated individual cases of envy and collective envy and its associated frequency allows top management to diagnose the intensity and scope of envy in the organizational context and adjust the extent of actions required to manage it.

The level of attention that top managers pay to envy is consistent with the cognitive effort (McMullen et al., 2009) that they allocate to continued consideration of envy alongside other positive and negative emotions and reflects the level of priority that they accord to the management of envy at work during a given period of time. This episodic attention to envy maintains this emotion under organizational scrutiny and informs managerial action (Fiol & Huff, 1992). The more top management focuses on envy, the more cognitive effort they devote to make sense—backward and forward—of the enviers' emotional process, to collect and validate information about the causes of envy and to identify various factors that might have produced negative social comparison.

Overlaying processes: Utilizing envy in the OI process

Top management's architecturing: Having acknowledged envy as a natural organizational occurrence, top managers can shape the structural context to manage the enviers and the envied employees through a set of activities that we call "architecturing." Top managers can architecture the restoration of the disrupted social interactions in the OI process and the adoption of a high performance orientation that gives meaning to work interactions while reducing perceptions of inequalities and unfairness. At the functional level, they focus their

attention on matters such as: improving the emotional climate by ensuring effective enactment of emotion management routines that help employees overcome the stress of disruptive organizational change (e.g., Huy, 1999; 2002); selecting middle manages able and willing to implement their vision; redesigning work structures and attenuating organizational performance pressures to decrease enviers' uncertainty and discomfort; increasing work discretion for enviers to identify new areas to excel at; encouraging the personal development of enviers through training; rewarding enviers for identifying new business ideas; giving equal opportunities to a large number of employees to innovate.

Middle management's balancing: Motivated by the importance that top managers accord to the identification and management of envy as well as their own desire to create a healthy work place, middle managers can play an important role in moderating the quality of the emotional exchanges among various groups of employees under their direct supervision, including the enviers and the envied—a role which we call "balancing" (Huy, 2002): reducing the (negative) emotions and other effects generated by envy that harm the OI process in a way that balances the interests and aspirations of both groups, the enviers and the envied. They focus on empathizing with the enviers, calming and helping them to visualize a different perspective; rewarding the sharing behavior of the envied employees; coaching the efforts of the enviers to emulate the success of new and outperforming innovators; or restoring perceived injustice.

Envied employees' reconciling behaviors: When the experience of "feeling envied" is not followed by an elitist behavior, the envied employees engage in a process of reevaluating their relationships and interactions with the enviers, as they see the causal links between their innovative activities and the enviers' natural responses. Further, by noting that top and middle managers take an active role in managing envy, the envied employees likely feel more secure, proud, and enthusiastic about their innovative activities and achievements, perceiving their behavior as highly appreciated within the organization. The envied employees thus feel more committed to the OI process, and secure that envy can be managed constructively with the help of middle and top managers. This realization may motivate them to perform a number of actions that we call "reconciling behaviors" to improve the quality of their social interactions with the existing and non-innovators. They can focus on refraining from performing actions that might unnecessarily exacerbate envy such as extreme public displays of pride and gloating in front of the enviers; sharing their knowledge and innovation capabilities with their enviers; and attributing part of their performance to enviers' contributions.

Enviers' self-actualizing and emulating of envied employees: By observing that top and middle managers efforts to manage envy actively at work, while noting the envied employees' reconciling behaviors, enviers likely feel more motivated to pursue the path of self-actualization (Bandura & Jourden, 1991) by developing and excelling at new capabilities so as to display comparable performance with that of their envied colleagues. They see promising alternatives to create positive emotions and working relationships through means of developing new capabilities or emulating the capabilities of the envied others. Enviers cooperate with the disruptive internal change caused by OI to the extent that they experience hope that such cooperation would restore or even improve their well-being (Huy, 1999). Experiencing hope increases their energy in participating in the OI process themselves and developing new innovation processes and skills, improving their performance, coordination with other innovators, and contributing more proactively in the OI process (Snyder et al., 2002).

Discussion

Our research contributes to the intersection of the literatures on the management of emotion in organizations and organizational innovation by elaborating 1) the functional roles of specific negative emotions such as envy for organizational processes (Barsade & Gibson, 2007); 2) the social interactions comprising the OI processes which arouse envy that have been under-examined in the extant literature; 3) extending our knowledge on the recognition and management of the emotion at work; and 4) specifying the role that organizational leaders can play in translating the potentially harmful effects of negative emotions into beneficial outcomes.

References

References are available from Quy N. Huy, *quy.huy@insead.edu.*

TOWARDS A NETWORK PERSPECTIVE ON CHANGE READINESS

Troy A. Voelker
Kevin C. Wooten
Clifton O. Mayfield
University Of Houston—Clear Lake
Finalist for 2011 ODC Best Paper Award

Recently, theory development, scale development, and cross cultural validation efforts have been directed toward the readiness to change construct (Armenakis & Harris, 2009; Cunningham et al., 2002; Desplaces, 2005; Eby, Adams, Russel, & Gaby, 2000; Holt, et al., 2007; Jones, Jimmieson, & Griffiths, 2005). In majority, these approaches have studied change readiness at the individual level. Holt et al. (2007) states that as a result of this approach, "readiness can be defined as a comprehensive attitude that is influenced simultaneously by the content (i.e., what is being changed), the process (i.e., how the change is being implemented), the context (i.e., the circumstances under which change is occurring), and the individual (i.e., characteristics of those being asked to change/be involved)" (p.326). As such, readiness, refers to the extent to which individuals and groups are cognitively and emotionally ready to address the change request and process (Holt et al., 2007). We propose that the construct of readiness also applies to individuals in networks, processes between them, and the networks themselves. We further propose that use of change readiness, as opposed to resistance, commitment, or openness, more closely aligns with an important trend in positive psychology and organizational behavior (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Luthans, 2002; Seligman & Csikszenthmihalyi, 2000), and more specifically, in positive organizational change (Cameron, 2008).

While there is an implicit acceptance of relational and structural network elements in existing change theory, there is, as yet, little scholarly inquiry examining organizational change from a social network perspective. Where such inquiry exists, it uses network modeling as an explanation for diffusion (Suarez, 2005) or it uses organizational change as an explanation for alterations of the social structure of an organization (Burkhardt & Brass, 1990). In other cases, the perception of social support—rather than the structural or relational manifestations of social networks—is used to explain aspects of organizational change (Cinite, Duxbury, & Higgins, 2009).

The purpose of our paper is to introduce and develop a social network paradigm in organizational change research. It is our belief that such a perspective complements and informs change research, just as those two streams complement and inform each other. We ground our approach in the change readiness research perspective, although we identify points of intersection with change programme research. Our approach uses social network theories of structural and relational embeddedness as mechanisms explaining the social origins and content of individual change readiness elements. Our paper explores the relationship between social networks and change readiness in three stages. First, we discuss change readiness and identify elements of existing change readiness research which have an implicit social process element. Second, we identify social network constructs of structural and relational embededdness and propose linkages between manifestations of social capital and change readiness. Finally, we suggest implications and applications of our propositions affecting managers, practitioners and researchers of organizational change.

Change Readiness

The construct of change readiness has been developed over many years of research, most prominently coming from the work of Armenakis and Harris (for a recent review of the change readiness theory, see Armenakis and Harris, 2009). In their research, Armenakis and Harris (2009) define change readiness as "the cognitive precursor of the behaviors of resistance to or in support of organizational change" (p. 132). They posit five dimensions (or decision conditions) that an individual addresses when deciding whether to resist or support change. These five dimensions include: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, principal support and valence. As previously noted, numerous studies have examined change readiness. However, this model proposed by Armenakis and Harris (2009) provides both theoretical and practical relevance.

While the change readiness decision matrix proposed by Armenakis and Harris represents an individual's evaluation of change, there are a number of reasons to conclude that social forces shape, influence and determine aspects of the individual's change readiness conclusion. Indeed, change theorists themselves acknowledge the social forces present in change readiness. Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009) observe that "resistance to change is a social-

ly constructed phenomenon that is generated and defined through interaction" (p. 142). They further note that change initiatives involve change agents acting on change recipients, clearly indicating a social exchange process in the change programme. A social exchange framework is further illustrated by Armenakis' and Harris' (2009) inclusion of opinion leaders and Kotter's (2007) observation that influential others must be converted into the dominant coalition. Finally, emerging research in this area suggests that perceived organizational support affects the individual's evaluation of the valence aspect (Cinite, et al., 2009; Singh, Garg, & Deshmukh, 2008). Collectively, these imply that the individual's conclusion to support or resist change is molded by their interactions with others and not exclusive to the change agent-change recipient dyad.

A second reason to suspect a linkage to social network theories and organizational change theories lies in the nature of learning implicit to the change readiness decision. Individual consideration of the change readiness decisions proposed by Armenakis and Harris' (2009) necessitates information acquisition. While their research explicitly recognizes that each individual has a starting disposition serving as a basis for his or her change readiness decisions, their research implies that these decisions can be shaped through information exchange.

This is why Armenakis and Harris suggest direct involvement of individuals in the change process, the experiential aspect augments their ability to decide in favor of change readiness. Similarly, information (or lack thereof) underlies Kotter's (2007) caution to exclude those individuals who lack crucial information from the change initiative planning stage. Their lack of context may prevent them from properly identifying either the discrepancy or appropriate responses (using Armenakis and Harris's framework). Finally, within the various change theories, the importance of communication networks predominates. Kotter (2007) observes that change leaders in their attempts to positively bring about change should "use every possible channel, especially those that are wasted on nonessential information" (p. 100). Armenakis and Harris (2009) similarly observe the importance of information management and diffusion practices as methods to influence positive change outcomes. In these cases, although the ultimate readiness decision lies in the

individual, the inputs shaping that decision are influenced through social exchange within the organization.

A third reason to suspect a linkage between social network theories and organizational change theories involves the multi-level context which underlies change readiness research. Beyond personal identification, Armenakis and Harris (2009) observe that a social differentiation, or group identification, context plays a role in change readiness. The individual's membership in groups within the organization shapes his or her workplace identity. Therefore, when change initiatives threaten social order, the individual's change readiness response will incorporate these group identity crises. Van Dijk and Van Dick (2009) concur, observing that "change has the potential to negatively impact the social component of an employee's work-based identity" (p. 146). To the extent that two or more individuals perceive themselves as members of a group collective and similarly interpret change initiative consequences to that group identity, it follows then that the change readiness within such collectives might lie at similar levels. This group level component of change readiness is expressed, but not explored in Holt and colleagues (2007), who suggest the existence of individual, group and organizational dimensions of change readiness.

Finally, recent research on change readiness explores the dyadic exchange between leaders and followers (Mehta, 2009; Self, Armenakis, & Schraeder, 2007). While these LMX directions have not yet found support in testing, these researchers argue that other multi-level manifestations (such as core versus periphery concerns that we address later) likely overwhelm the local leader-member dyads (Self, et al., 2007). It seems apparent that the individual change readiness decision is affected by, or positioned within, a higher level relationship, be that dyadic, group or organizational.

The reviewed research suggests that a relationship exists between social exchange and organizational change. Specifically, social exchange influences the information that is readily available, which affects the individual's awareness and evaluation of discrepancies and appropriateness. Vertical influence from managers and horizontal influence from opinion leaders affects perceptions of efficacy and principal support. Finally, recent research suggests that even the most personal of the change readiness deci-

sions, valence, is itself shaped by perceived organizational support and impact on social identity in the workplace.

Taken together, the current state of organizational change research seems naturally disposed towards social network analysis and its theories. In the present study, we review social network analysis and its underlying methodologies and theories demonstrating where extant social network research informs organizational change research. From these linkages, we advance the following testable propositions linking social network and organizational change theories:

- Proposition 1: Highly central others in both the advice and friendship networks will have greater change readiness than their less central colleag

- Proposition 1a: When highly central others in both the advice and friendship networks have extremely high or low change readiness, there will be spillover change resistance effects amongst the others in their ego network.

- Proposition 2: Individuals close, or near, to highly close others will have change readiness levels similar to that of the highly close other.

- Proposition 3: Members of closed clusters will have less variance in their aggregate change readiness levels than will members of less closed (or open) clusters.

- Proposition 4: Individuals occupying structural hole positions will have higher levels of change readiness than those in more closed networks.

- Proposition 4a: Change resistance from structural hole brokers presents greater problems with the change initiative than does resistance from individuals in redundant ego networks.

- Proposition 5: An individual's change readiness is likely to be more similar to that of their strong friendship ties than that of others in the organization.

- Proposition 6: Individuals are likely to have similar change readiness levels as those they seek advice from, particularly when the advice seeking relationship is highly asymmetric in a protégé-mentor context.

Discussion

Our paper presents a series of arguments linking a SNA perspective to change readiness theory. We suggest that change readiness (or reluctance) diffuses through an organization in a contagious fashion. Certain individuals are more likely to be carriers of readiness (or reluctance) and certain individuals when infected are more likely to accelerate the transmission of readiness (or reluctance). This contagion metaphor is not uncommon in SNA research where attitudes, perceptions and practices travel through a network in a predictable and logical (from a network theoretical context) fashion (Meyer, 1994; Scherer & Cho, 2003).

Our SNA propositions are not stand-alone assumptions meant to replace current change readiness research. While we believe that a highly central individual will be more change ready than a non-central one, we see no reason to believe that an individual with an excessive change resistance disposition (Oreg, et al., 2008) would become giddy for change simply because they were central in a network. Similarly, while an individual brokering a structural hole is better positioned to view discrepancies and evaluate the appropriateness of initiatives, such a strategically advantageous position matters little if the human capabilities to conduct such an evaluation are not present in the broker. We place our propositions in context, such that the structural and relational capital influences on change readiness accrue after controlling for substantive individual differences. We seek to supplement, not replace.

Should our propositions hold true, there are five crucial implications for practitioners of change. First, convert and co-opt highly central actors. These individuals should be predisposed to support change initiatives. Consistent with Armenakis and Harris (2009), the involvement of these opinion leaders should positively affect their endorsement of the change initiative. Further, once on board, their ability to reach out to many others improves the efficiency of every action in the change initiative.

Second, if the core isn't ready, proceed with caution. While those in the core may not be the ideal people to diagnose change, nor to suggest and implement initiatives, failing to garner their support leaves substantive obstacles to change on the table. As with central actors, the perceptions of these individuals

affect others—however, unlike central individuals the core produce broader spillover.

Third, heed your brokers. These individuals are positioned optimally to synthesize and extend organizational knowledge. While their perspective may not change the views of others, these are the people most likely to see what will (or will not) work. Ideally, involve them early to avoid planning out the wrong intervention.

Fourth, when necessary, penetrate closed clusters. Recognize that closed clusters are difficult to transform and that they have minimal influence on the perceptions of those outside their cluster. If a closed cluster is already predisposed to support a change, leave it be. However, if a closed cluster is resistant to change—and its conversion is deemed crucial—realize that significant resources may be required to win the cluster over.

Finally, recognize that strong relations are more likely to cause contagion than weak ones. When faced with uncertainty, people turn to those they trust most—close friends and trusted advisors. A change agent may find that involvement and communication alone are not enough to shift an individual's readiness when the change message is obstructed by a close relation. Change agents should develop strategies to win support from mentors and consider ways to convert friendship dyads when confronted with resistance.

We argue that SNA should precede a change initiative. The change agent who lacks an understanding of the social context of the organization is ill-equipped to enact change. While those in hierarchical positions of power may be easy to identify, horizontally-powerful opinion leaders don't appear on organization charts. While an examination of experiences might suggest which people have the human capital to benefit change diagnosis and implementation, a social context offers the ability to optimize project membership improving the change management process.

References

References are available from Troy A. Voelker, *voelker@uhcl.edu*/

TEAM LEVEL ANTECEDENTS OF TEAM MEMBERS' NETWORK BUILDING IN INNOVATION PROJECTS
Martin Hoegl
Bocconi University, Milano
K. Praveen Parboteeah
University of Wisconsin, Whitewater
Finalist for 2011 ODC Best Paper Award

Social networks as a primary source of social capital, i.e., the productive potential that is derived from the structure of relations between individual actors (Coleman, 1988), play a particularly important role in innovation and entrepreneurship (Ibarra, 1993; Yli-Renko et al., 2001; Young et al., 2001). Problem-solving in complex and uncertain innovation projects regularly involves project team members' seeking and relying on team-external expertise often located in other parts of the organization or in other organizational entities such as suppliers or customers. Team members' individual social networks provide transparency as to the location of useful resources, which they utilize through established personal contacts. Such boundary spanning (Ancona & Caldwell, 1990, 1992) into knowledge networks is critical as small project teams often cannot include all the expertise needed for a particular project.

While a considerable amount of research addresses the effects of social networks on individual, group, and organizational outcomes, Mehra et al. (2001) correctly point out that antecedents of individuals' social networks in organizations have not received much attention in the literature. In this study, we contribute to the literature by investigating how individuals build their social networks through their participation in innovative team projects. Participation in such projects provides the opportunity for team members to establish new relationships with other team members (often from other disciplines or organizational units) or team-external contacts. We argue that certain team level characteristics facilitate the individual's acquisition of new and resourceful relationships. Specifically, we regard team properties such as networking climate, networking resources, networking preference, and awareness of networking importance as positively associated with individuals' network building, while a team's technical competency and material resources are expected to be negatively related to individuals' network building.

These proposed cross-level relationships draw on the basic premise of system theory, recognizing the individual as an element within the context of his or her team. The team thereby represents a social system (McGrath, 1986) embodying certain networking-related norms and resources affecting the individual's networking behaviors (Levine & Moreland, 1990). In testing our hypotheses, we are using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) on data from 430 team leaders and members of 145 software development project teams from four different organizations.

Measures

Individual's network building was measured using four items assessing the individual respondents perception of the extent to which the project enabled him or her to gain new useful personal contacts through the course of this project. The items refer to contacts within and outside the respondent's immediate organizational unit, including contacts outside the company. All items were formulated on the individual level, asking the respondents to relate to their own situation, rather then the teams' overall situation.

The team level independent variables were gathered through the assessment of multiple team members responding to items formulated explicitly on the team level. The team's perception of the organizational networking climate was measured using three items referring to the accessibility of important contacts within the organization as well as the willingness of team-external colleagues to share knowledge and experiences. The team's networking preference was measured using two items referring to team members' general motivation to collaborate with people from other disciplines, functional areas, or organizations. The team's awareness of networking importance was assessed with four items pertaining to the team's perception of the necessity to interact with team-external contacts to acquire knowledge, resources, work contributions, or feedback. A three-item scale was used to measure the team's networking resources, including items that assessed the degree to which the team members had useful team-external contacts going into the project. Four items relating to programming skills, software skills, hardware skills, as well as expertise regarding the application field of the software were used to assess the team's technical competency. The perceived adequacy of the team's material and financial resources were measured using two items.

Analysis & Results

The hypotheses of the present study require testing the cross-level effects of team level properties (e.g., team network awareness, team network resources) on individual level outcomes (i.e., individual's network building). As such, we used hierarchical linear modeling (HLM), a statistical technique that is gaining increased acceptance in the management literature (Hoffman, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000).

We proposed that the team's perception of network climate be positively related to team members' network building. This hypothesis was supported as evidenced by the significant positive coefficient ($p = .05$). We further posited that the team's preference for networking and team's awareness of the importance of networks are both positively related to individual network building. Both hypotheses were also supported ($p = .00$ and $p = .00$ respectively). We hypothesized that the team's perception of the adequacy of their technical competency is negatively related to individual's network building and that the team's perception of the adequacy of their material resources is also negatively related to individual network building. The significant negative coefficients endorse both hypotheses ($p = .00$ and $p = .09$ respectively). Finally, while showing a strong bivariate correlation ($r = .52$) with the team level aggregate of individuals' network building, a team's networking resources did not show a significant influence on individual team members' ability to build their social networks.

Discussion

As previous research has focused exclusively on the effects of social networks in organizations (Ibarra, 1993; Yli-Renko et al., 2001; Young et al., 2001), our study contributes to the literature by addressing critical team level antecedents of individuals' network building. We found that 37% of the variance in individuals' network building lies between teams, making the focus on team level determinants a quite powerful one.

The results of this empirical investigation offer lessons to innovating organizations on how to foster the development of individual social networks through team projects. First, team-based innovative organizations need to stress to their members the importance of social networks to the sustainable effectiveness and efficiency of the organization. Team leaders and team members must be made

aware that boundary spanning is important to both the current project as well as its network-building element as an enabling condition for future innovation projects. Second, companies should foster a networking climate on the organizational level. The findings from this research indicate the importance of norms and standards pertaining to the willingness to share knowledge and expertise within the organization. While systems and processes must be in place to guide individuals looking for contacts with a certain expertise or skill, people providing their knowledge to other colleagues should be recognized for these efforts.

This research has provided encouraging results as to the effect of team level properties on the development of individuals' social networks in organizations. We hope that this study sparks increased research attention pertaining to the determinants of social networks, moving this field of research "backward" on the causal chain.

References

Ancona, D.G.; Caldwell, D.F. (1990). Beyond boundary spanning: Managing external dependence in product development teams. *The Journal of High Technology Management Research, 1*, 119-135.

Ancona, D.G.; Caldwell, D.F. (1992). Bridging the boundary: External activity and performance in organizational teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 37*, 634-665.

Coleman, J.S. 1988. Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology, 94*: S95-S120.

Hofmann, D.A., Griffin, M.A. & Gavin, M.B. 2000. The application of hierarchical linear modeling to organizational research. In K.J Klein & S.W.J. Kozlowski (Eds), *Multilevel theory, research, methods in organizations: Foundations, extensions, and new directions*: 465-211. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ibarra, H. 1993. Network centrality, power, and innovation involvement: Determinants of technical and administrative roles. *Academy of Management Journal, 36*: 471-501.

Levine, J.M.; Moreland, R.L. 1990. Progress in small group research. *Annual Review of Psychology, 41*: 585-634.

McGrath, J.E. 1986. Studying groups at work: Ten critical needs for theory and practice. In: Goodman, Paul S.; and Associates (Eds.), *Designing effective work groups*, (pp. 362-391). San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass.

Mehra, A., Kilduff, M., & Brass, D.J. 2001. The social network of high and low self-monitors: Implications for workplace performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 46*: 121-146.

Yli-Renko, H.; Autio, E.; Sapienza, H.J. 2001. Social capital, knowledge acquisition, and knowledge exploitation in young technology-based firms. *Strategic Management Journal, 22*: 587-613.

Young, G.J.; Charns, M.P.; Shortell, S.M. 2001. Top manager and network effects on the adoption of innovative management practices: A study of TQM in a public hospital system. *Strategic Management Journal, 22*: 935-951.

THE EFFECTS OF INCIVILITY IN THE WORKPLACE AND WAYS TO REDUCE IT: THE EXPERIENCE OF NURSES IN A PUBLIC HOSPITAL

Francesco Sguera
Richard P. Bagozzi
University of Michigan
Quy Nguyen Huy
Insead
R. Wayne Boss
University of Colorado at Boulder
Finalist for 2011 ODC Best Paper Award

Mistreatment in the workplace is a widespread phenomenon that harms employees and organizational effectiveness. To date, the majority of empirical research has focused on strong forms of mistreatment, such as physical violence and psychological aggression (LeBlanc & Kelloway, 2002; Hershcovis et al., 2007). However, researchers have under-investigated more subtle forms of interpersonal mistreatment that happen in the workplace that are likely more frequent and more widespread than strong forms of antisocial behaviors but could nevertheless harm work effectiveness considerably. Anderson and Pearson (1999) have called these low-intensity deviant behaviors *workplace incivility*, distinguishing them from explicit acts of aggression that convey unambiguous aggressive intents.

Researchers have found recently that incivility is pervasive in many organizational settings, such as engineering companies (Einarsen & Raknes, 1997),

federal courts (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Langhout, 2001), universities (Cortina & Magley, 2007), law enforcement organizations (Cortina, Lonsway, & Magley, 2004), and hospitals (Graydon, Kasta, & Khan, 1994). Furthermore, studies have shown that although workplace incivility is subtler than physical violence or psychological aggression, its consequences are not. Perhaps, more importantly, the most damaging consequence of incivility for organizations is employee exit (Donovan, Drasgow, & Munson, 1998; Pearson, Anderson, & Porath, 2000; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008).

To better understand the mechanisms through which experienced incivility elicits turnover intentions, we focus on two issues that have not been adequately addressed in previous research. The first issue concerns the cross-sectional nature of the data used by previous studies. Although incivility was often assumed to produce turnover intentions, these two constructs have generally been measured simultaneously, leaving uncertain the direction of causality among them. The second issue we address refers to the kinds of managerial interventions that might help curtail workplace incivility. Whereas previous research has focused on preventing and curtailing uncivil behaviors (Anderson & Pearson, 1999: 467; Cortina et al., 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Cortina, 2008), our study focuses on concrete interventions that help victims cope with incivility on a daily basis.

In brief, the present study seeks to extend the workplace incivility literature in two important ways. First, using a cross-lagged panel design, we demonstrate that employees' experienced incivility influences turnover intentions, and not the opposite. Second, we examine empirically concrete interventions (i.e., team building, personal management interview, and work-shift) that reduce the effects of incivility on turnover intentions.

Temporal Relationships Between Workplace Incivility and Turnover Intentions

Acts such as gossiping, snide remarks, curt responses, or making negative faces are common in all organizations. Andersson and Pearson (1999) highlighted three characteristics that distinguish these uncivil behaviors from acts of aggression. First, uncivil behaviors involve less perceived intensity than more aggressive acts do. In fact, incivility refers not only to verbal abuse but can include sub-

tler behaviors such as ignoring a colleague. Andersson and Pearson (1999) further argued that uncivil behaviors are deviant from the moral standards of organizations. These behaviors display disregard for others in violation of the norms of mutual respect. In contrast to psychological aggression, intentions behind uncivil acts are usually not explicit to the victim, perpetrator, or potential observers (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). In facing such ambiguous behaviors, victims of incivility could experience significant distress and decide to leave the organization (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). For example, in Pearson, Anderson, and Porath's (2000) study, nearly half of the employees who experienced uncivil behaviors contemplated leaving their jobs.

Although the influence of workplace incivility on turnover intentions seems intuitive, causality might also occur in the reverse direction, such that turnover intentions produce increased perceptions of incivility. Much of previous empirical studies on incivility, however, have not investigated the direction of causality. Specifically, previous research relied on cross-sectional data to test the effects of incivility on turnover intentions (Cortina et al., 2001; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). Hence, we use a panel design to examine whether workplace incivility causes change in turnover intentions over time, or vice-versa. This type of design provides stronger evidence for the causal relationships between workplace incivility and turnover intentions than cross sectional studies where those variables are measured simultaneously (Finkel, 1995).

Hypothesis 1: Workplace incivility causes change in turnover intentions over time.

Investigating the Efficacy of Managerial Interventions

Our research investigates the efficacy of various intervention approaches that can be used by organizations to curtail incivility (Anderson & Pearson, 1999: 467). In particular, we examine three specific intervention techniques: team-building, supervisor-employee regular private meetings, and work-shift assignments.

Team-Building

Uncivil acts more likely damage workplace relationships when they are not followed by clarifica-

tions or apologies. This is due to victims' difficulty in making sense of perpetrator's intentions, indecisiveness about how to react, and uncertainty about what could happen next (Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008). This ambiguity leads victims of incivility to experience psychological strain, which could lead to increased turnover. Team-building sessions can thus provide employees with an opportunity to confront perpetrators of incivility, explain their perceived subtle antisocial behaviors, and thus, cope more constructively with the incivility that they experience.

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between experienced incivility and turnover intentions will be moderated by team-building intervention, such that the higher the participation in team-building sessions, the weaker the association between experienced incivility and turnover intentions.

Supervisor-Employee Regular Private Meetings

Regular private meetings between the supervisor and employee to review the task and quality of interpersonal relationships and to explore causes and solutions can also help reduce workplace incivility. One of these concrete intervention techniques has been called the Personal Management Interview (PMI), which refers to a private meeting that occurs between a supervisor and each of her or his immediate subordinates (Boss, 1983). PMIs focus on specific goals, such as leadership issues, interpersonal issues, individual needs, feedback on job performance, and personal concerns or problems (Cameron, 2008). In a broader sense, PMIs provide subordinates with an opportunity to communicate openly about unresolved issues that they experience at work. Therefore, we predict that the effect of perceived incivility on turnover intentions will be less likely to occur for employees who hold PMIs frequently.

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between experienced incivility and turnover intentions will be moderated by PMI interventions, such that the higher the participation in PMIs, the weaker the association between experienced incivility and turnover intentions.

Work-Shift

Working on a night shift is more likely to induce a negative predisposition among employees than on a day shift, and this could exacerbate the harmful con-

sequences of experiencing incivility. In addition, the characteristics of the work environment during the night shift may foster the rise of incivility. Even if the night shift is associated with calmer working conditions than the day shift (e.g., fewer social interactions and less work), other factors such as lower social control (e.g., because fewer colleagues are around) and less frequent managerial supervision could encourage some employees to act in less socially constrained ways that are disrespectful of their fellow coworkers. Therefore, we expect employees working in the night shift to experience more incivility than their counterparts in the day shift; this leads then to greater contemplation to leave the organization.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between experienced incivility and turnover intentions will be moderated by work-shift, such that for employees on the night shift, the association between experienced incivility and turnover intentions will be stronger than for those on the day shift.

Method

Participants and Procedure. We surveyed 979 nurses in nonmanagerial positions in a 550-bed teaching and research public hospital in the Southeastern United States with about 5000 employees. Workplace incivility, turnover intentions, team-building, personal management interviews, and work-shift were measured at Time 1, and workplace incivility and turnover intentions at Time 2. A 5-months interval occurred between the first and the second measurement waves. A total of 721 nurses completed all substantive questions on the survey for the two waves of data, for a response rate of 73 percent.

Measures

Workplace Incivility. We developed an eight-item measure of workplace incivility. Specifically, items were developed and chosen from existing measures based on how well they fitted the definition of workplace incivility offered by Andersson and Pearson (1999). The items were introduced by the following statement, "Please recall the last typical interactions that you have had over the last 3 months with those with whom you interact most frequently at work. For each of the behaviors listed below, please use the following 5-point scale to indicate how often each of these behaviors happen to you,

personally". Examples of items included "snide remarks, curt responses, lack of openness", "making negative faces or gestures (such as eyebrow rising)", "turning away, ignoring", and "generally rude behavior". Participants responded on a 5-point scale (1 = never to 5 = very often).

Turnover Intentions. Turnover intentions were assessed by two items adapted from Irving and Meyer (1994). The items read, "How likely is it that you will actively look for a new job in the next year?" (1 = not at all likely to 7 = extremely likely) and "I will probably look for a new job in the next year" (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Team-building. Respondents were asked about their participation in team-building meetings. The team-building variable was coded as 1 if the respondent was enrolled in team-building meetings; otherwise it was coded 0.

Personal Management Interviews. At the time of this study, the hospital had undergone a cultural change. Central to this cultural change was the implementation of PMIs. In particular, supervisors at all levels were trained to conduct PMIs. Respondents were asked about the frequency of their participation in PMI on a scale ranging from 1 = "We do not hold individual meetings" to 10 = "More than once each week".

Work-shift. Information about the work-shift was retrieved from the HR department and coded as 1 if the respondent was working on the night shift or 0 if the respondent worked during the day.

Results

Internal Consistency. We used confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to evaluate the internal consistency and discriminant validity of variables included in the cross-lagged model that tests Hypothesis 1 (LISREL 8.70; Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1999). Specifically, we used the composite reliability (??) to measure internal consistency of measures, which is analogous to coefficient ? (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Estimates of ?? above 0.60 are considered supportive of internal consistency (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The ?? values for all constructs were significantly higher than the stipulated criteria, and therefore indicative of good internal consistency (?? range = .92 - .95). Results showed that the CFA model fit the data well. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the model were as follows: the $x2(154) = 560.70$, p =

.00, RMSEA = .063, NNFI = .98, CFI = .99, and SRMR = .024.

Temporal Relationships Between Workplace Incivility and Turnover Intentions. To assess the temporal relationships between workplace incivility and turnover intentions, we estimated a two-wave cross-lagged structural equation model (SEM) with workplace incivility and turnover intentions measured at both Time 1 and Time 2. As predicted in Hypothesis 1, time 1 workplace incivility was positively related to the temporal change in time 2 turnover intentions (?14 =.18, p<.05). In contrast, time 1 turnover intentions was not associated with the temporal change in time 2 workplace incivility (?23 =.03, n.s.).

Moderating Effect of Team-Building, Personal Management Interviews, and Work-shift. We used standard hierarchical regression analyses to assess the moderating effects of team-building, personal management interviews, and work-shift on the relationship between workplace incivility and turnover intentions. Results indicated that the interaction between workplace incivility and team-building was a significant predictor of turnover intentions (b = -.68, p<.05, see Table 3). Similarly, the interaction between workplace incivility and PMI (b = -.12, p<.05, see Table 4) and the interaction between workplace incivility and work-shift (b =.63, p=.001, see Table 5) were both significant.

Simple slopes analysis was conducted to further analyze these interactions (Aiken & West, 1991). Consistent with Hypothesis 2, a simple slope test indicated that for nurses that participated in team-building sessions, workplace incivility was not related to turnover intentions (b = -.15, n.s.), whereas for those nurses that did not participate to team-building the effect of incivility on turnover intentions was statistically significant and positively related (b =.53, p<.001). Results for Hypothesis 3 similarly indicated that when the frequency of PMI was high (1 SD above the mean; 1.56), workplace incivility was not significantly related to turnover intentions (b =.18, n.s.). In contrast, when the frequency of PMI was low (1 SD below the mean; -1.56), workplace incivility was positively and significantly related to turnover intentions (b =.57, p<.001). Finally, confirming Hypothesis 4, simple slope analyses indicated that for employees in the night shift, the association between experienced incivility and turnover intentions was higher (b

=.93, p<.001) than those in the day shift (b =.30, p<.01). In conclusion, all our hypotheses were confirmed.

Conclusion

The aim of the current study was to (a) explore the long-term effects of incivility on turnover and (b) test managerial interventions that regulate the effects of workplace incivility.

The results of this study show that the effects of experienced incivility at work were sufficiently strong to influence employees' turnover intentions even after a period of 5 months. Overall, these findings provide longitudinal evidences of the negative consequences of incivility for turnover. In addition, this study contributes to the literature by overcoming the risk of reverse-causation occurring between incivility and turnover intentions (Cortina et al., 2001: 76; Lim & Cortina, 2005: 493; Lim, Cortina, & Magley, 2008: 105). In addition, whereas previous research has proposed remedies for workplace incivility, this study is one of the first to examine empirically concrete interventions (i.e., team building, personal management interviews, and work-shift assignments) that can help reduce the effects of incivility on turnover intentions.

There are two avenues for important follow-on research on workplace incivility. Following the distinction between major forms of aggression that have been described and investigated in research on workplace aggression (e.g., Baron, Neuman, & Geddes, 1999), future studies may want to consider different forms of incivility (e.g., verbal, physical) and their consequences for employees. Indeed, although our confirmatory factor analysis suggested a single factor, our scale was comprised of only 8 items, which may not have been enough to encompass all the relevant dimensions of incivility. Moreover, since experiencing rude behaviors from a peer may have different effects if compared to uncivil behaviors from one's own boss (e.g., Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), future studies should distinguish sources of incivility. Thus, including separate questions for uncivil behaviors from supervisors, coworkers, customers, or patients may provide interesting insights.

In conclusion, more research is needed to better understand the nature and consequences of workplace incivility. Workplace incivility is a widespread phenomenon that silently damages many organizations. Hence, rather than treating uncivil behavior as harmless, organizations should actively manage them by implementing practices (e.g., team-building meetings, PMIs) that improve the quality of work life of their members.

References

References are available from Rick Bagozzi, *bagozzi@umich.edu.*

THE EFFECT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EQ) AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Dereje B. Tessema
Bezakulu A. Alemu
United States Nuclear Regulatory Commission
Finalist for 2011 ODC Best Paper Award

The research article contains the results of a study on the relationship between emotional intelligence skills and leadership behaviors using input from 578 project management professionals worldwide and the implications of the study to organizational development. The study used an electronic survey consisting of a general questionnaire, the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory, and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Stepwise multiple regression analysis showed that eight of the 15 emotional intelligence skills (Interpersonal, optimism, self-actualization, general mood, happiness, reality testing, adaptability, impulse control) were found to explain a significant proportion of variance in transformational leadership behaviors. The findings indicate that developing these eight emotional intelligence components in project managers provides a basis for cumulative, long-term benefits to organizations in managing their projects.

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.

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).

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.

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.

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.

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 transforma-

tional 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.

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:

H1: There is no difference in leadership behaviors between project managers with high emotional intelligence scores with those having low scores.

H2: Project managers with higher emotional intelligence scores do not demonstrate more transformational leadership behaviors than those with low scores.

H3: 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?

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. 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 determine 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.

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.

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 break-down; 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

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. 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.

References

References are available from Dereje B. Tessema, *dereje.tessema@campus.viu.edu*.

FEEDBACK TO THE EDITOR

We welcome your feedback and would appreciate your comments below. Selected comments on articles in the *ODC Newsletter* may be published in the next issue, so please indicate if you prefer your comments to be withheld. Please address all correspondence to:

R. Wayne Boss
Academy of Management ODC Newsletter
Leeds School of Business
Campus Box 419
University of Colorado at Boulder
Boulder, Colorado 80309
(303)492-8488
Email: *wayne.boss@colorado.edu*

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

1. Do you have any comments that you would like to share with the editor (comments on articles from the last issue, comments on this issue, suggestions, etc.)?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

NEWS ABOUT MEMBERS

2. Is there any important information about you or a colleague that you would like to have appear in the next issue?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

PUBLICATIONS

3. Please list all recent or forthcoming publications by you or a colleague. (Indicate full citation.)

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____