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FACTORS, NORMS, AND ORGANIZATIONAL USE OF SOCIAL NETWORKING SITES IN HIRING PRACTICES

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KEYWORDS

Social Networking, Privacy, Applicant Screening, Socio-Cultural Factors

INTRODUCTION

Social media has rapidly become part of the selection process. However, the practice of screening SNS data has the potential to invade applicants' privacy. Although many organizations have incorporated SNS data collection in the selection process, to date little theory or research has examined applicants' reactions to these practices. As a result of past inequalities and discriminatory practices, we contend that individuals in protected classes may be more protective of their privacy as it pertains to organizational use of their SNS information. This study seeks to focus on differences in the perception of individuals associated with negative stereotypes by applying the privacy model of Black, Stone, and Johnson (2015) and testing the socio-cultural factors related to the model.

METHODOLOGY

Data was collected from a convenient sample of students enrolled in the business college of four universities within the U.S., and 378 respondents completed the survey administered through an online survey website, SurveyMonkey. A 40-item measure adapted from Stone et al. (1983) was validated and used to assess invasion of privacy perceptions, defined as the extent to which subject's perceived that they had control over their information. Subjects responded on 7-point Likert-type scales with response 1=strongly agree to 7= strongly disagree. A brief demographic section was also used. This section included age, gender, annual household income, ethnicity, and race. The demographic questionnaire also inquired about the number and which social networking sites participants utilized. A one-way between -subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to test the hypotheses in this study based on the met assumptions. The analysis included the assumption of approximation due to our sample size. However, nonparametric tests were also calculated and supported the results of the ANOVA.

FINDINGS

The results of our study indicate that while some individuals are more concerned about their privacy than others, the norms of utilizing SNS in the recruiting process is becoming less of a concern among minorities. In particular, results indicated that minorities are currently similar to their non-minority counterparts in their perceptions about organizations using SNS in the recruiting process, consent and notification in advance of collecting this data, and their inability

to prevent organizations from collecting personal information from SNS. Furthermore, our research shows that minorities are more likely to seek legal redress than in the past.

CONCLUSION

Screening of SNS is expected to continue affecting job recruitment, hiring, promotion, termination and performance and therefore it is important that we have a better understanding of these issues (Nguyen, 2014). Presently, there are few laws restricting employers from considering information on an individual's SNS when making hiring decisions. Therefore, it is imperative that organizations implement better protocols for appropriate use of SNS and consistently update and evaluate the effectiveness of their social media screening processes over time and the potential of adverse impact (Jeske & Shultz, 2016). It is also important that applicants become more aware of the potential risks of not being considered or losing a job due to one's online presence. Similarly, we believe, as do others (Kluemper et al., 2012; Roth et al., 2012) that additional research should determine if valid inferences about job applicants' performance can be made from SNS and assess the extent to which applicants' negative reactions to the use of SNS data results in the loss of highly qualified job applicants.

Our research sheds new light on the issues of SNS usage and the applicant's perception of privacy, particularly among minorities or individuals from protected classes. We contend that this study has important implications for research, organizations, as well as society as a whole. In summary, our paper makes both theoretical and practical contributions to the research on privacy and applicants' reactions to new selection practices, particularly as it applies to underrepresented populations. Therefore, we hope that this discussion fosters additional research and will lead organizations to develop policies that address applicants' perceptions of privacy.

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UTILIZING A SRS IN THE CLASSROOM – TEACHING MANAGEMENT THROUGH TECHNOLOGY

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KEYWORDS

student response systems; engagement; active learning

INTRODUCTION

Technological advancements have significantly affected how teaching and learning take place in the classroom, particularly influenced by generational changes and subsequent societal expectations. Increasing student engagement is an important aspiration for many management instructors and various student response systems have emerged to promote active learning both inside and outside the classroom. Although many types of technology often require a significant learning curve, classroom technology does not generally suffer from this issue (Keough, 2012). Technological developments have enabled instructors to select from many different options to incorporate technology directly into the classroom. These tools have improved efficiencies while promoting active learning and student engagement.

While definitions of classroom responses systems are varied, the typical description consists of transmitters used by students to send responses through computer software that interprets and aggregates the results in real time (Fies & Marshall, 2006). These technologies appear in the literature under different names, often under the category of student response systems (Anthis, 2011). Student response systems (SRS) are increasingly used by educators seeking to increase engagement in the classroom (Hunsu, Adesope, & Bayly, 2016).

DISCUSSION

The SRS technology utilized for this demonstration is Top Hat. Top Hat is a subscription-based software technology that students can access through their smartphone, computer, or other hand-held devices with Internet access. The instructor is provided a main account that is used to upload lecture slides, create assignments, administer tests, and other class-related activities. Having a SRS offers several novel ways to increase student engagement and transform teaching methods both inside and outside the classroom.

During the class lecture period, instructors often cover a significant amount of material. Information overload can become a factor and students become disengaged in the absence of dynamic teaching methods. Retention of information is critical to learning and is more difficult to accomplish when student engagement is low. A SRS provides the capabilities for instructors to insert questions throughout the class lecture to test retention. During the class lecture, periodic learning checks can be conducted to assess if learning and retention are taking place. Specifically, a section of course material can be covered and the instructor is able to project timed questions onto the screen to check if students are engaged. In addition, these questions

provide instant aggregated results to determine if the majority of the students have adequately learned the concepts in question or if additional time should be devoted to the course material. While the instructor may be quite familiar with the concepts being presented, it is easy to assume that students are also adequately learning the material. Furthermore, knowledge checks encourage student engagement by reviewing key concepts that may be important during future testing.

The presence of a SRS also allows the instructor to create and assign a variety of homework activities. For example, multiple choice questions can be created for the student to complete outside of the classroom between class sessions. Points can be assigned for both correctness and participation. In addition, discussion boards can be created to expand student engagement both inside and outside of the classroom. These types of activities encourage students to form social bonds and collaborate on team projects. Some SRS allow instructors to administer exams through the platform, resulting in automatic grading and accurate record keeping. The platform also allows students to take tests on their own personal devices, including their smart phones.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this presentation will be for the author to share information and personal experiences with using a SRS in the classroom. Reflections on both positive and negative outcomes will be provided. Particular attention will be paid to the integration of technology and best practices for effectively implementing a SRS related to active learning and student engagement. The presentation will include the sharing of these experiences and ample opportunity for audience members to ask questions. The use of instructor observations and anecdotal feedback will also be included for additional context. This presentation will provide insights that may be useful for other management instructors considering the incorporation of SRS in their classroom.

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STAYING OR WORKING TOGETHER: HOW KNOWLEDGE WORKERS SHAPE THE CONFIGURATION AND TRAJECTORY OF COWORKING-SPACES?

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KEYWORDS

Coworking-spaces, business model, value creation, value capture, business model trajectory

INTRODUCTION

Open-planed and shared workplaces proliferate and form hubs for creativity and innovation worldwide—a dominant branch is known as coworking-spaces. Initially, independent workers and teams look for a flexible and collaborative workplace solution and assemble in open-planned workspaces along with peers (Bouncken and Aslam, 2019). This more open and contemporary workplace design further facilitates social interaction and information exchange (Bouncken and Barwinski, 2020), provides opportunities for collaboration and serendipity, and constructs a sense of community (Bouncken *et al.*, 2018; Garrett *et al.*, 2017).

However, the extant literature on coworking-spaces is still emerging and revolves around its concepts and social attributes, so the design and configurations of coworking-spaces are still unexplored (Vidaillet and Bousalham, 2018). When coworking-spaces thrive as the hive of entrepreneurs and creative workers (Bouncken *et al.*, 2018), it is of significance to crystallize various types of coworking-spaces since they shape the context of their users' work routine, information exchange, and idea generation. Furthermore, providers of coworking-spaces would benefit from an examination of the configuration of business models.

Thus, our study aims to fill the gap and examine various business models of coworking-spaces. We conducted a case study of ten Chinese coworking-spaces with a flexible pattern matching design (Sinkovics, 2018). Based on a review of existing theories, ethnographic observations, interviews with coworking-spaces managers and users, and secondary data, we identified four components of value creation, various value capture strategies, and four types of business models configured from particular gestalts of the value components. Furthermore, our data revealed the stability of coworking-spaces business models regardless of distinct interaction intensity with users, which then directs to an introduction of business model trajectory concept.

METHODOLOGY

We address our research question by adopting an exploratory, flexible-pattern-matching design with case studies (Sinkovics, 2018). Flexible pattern matching enables researchers to identify and make use of existing constructs and enables the exploration of new logics through social reality. Drawing on an initial template deduced from extant literature, we conducted 46 semi-structured interviews with 33 informants, including 16 providers and 17 users in 10 Chinese coworking-spaces. China provides an interesting context for the study with its institutional context (e.g., mega-cities), cultural features (e.g., collectivism) and development of coworking-spaces. We triangulated the data with fields note and data from secondary sources.

We analyzed data with constant comparison approach, combining within-case analysis and cross-case comparison (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007). We first assembled all 791-page data in MAXQDA by case and engaged in reading data, creating write-ups on possible patterns for each case. In the next step, guided by our research interest and the initial template, we continuously

iterated between codes and literature, which yields us more general second-order themes grouped from codes with shared features. Finally, when further group themes into aggregated dimensions, we also compare themes from the same case by two time periods. This longitudinal comparison generated an emerging dimension of business model stability.

FINDINGS

We examined business models of coworking-spaces. Four aggregated dimensions emerged from our study: four value creation dimensions, value capture strategies and business models attached to the four dimensions, business model trajectory of coworking-spaces.

Our data shows four components that enable coworking spaces to provide specific values and configure their business models: basic offerings, extended offering portfolio, service provision, platform business. Basic offerings refer to the primary value creation component of coworking-spaces, including the integration of multi-functional spaces and interaction with peers. Extended offering portfolio involves additional facilities that shape a daily life circle of users and creates a flexible and communal lifestyle. Service provision access users development-supporting service, including training, workshops, coaching and mentoring, and administrative assistance. Platform business indicates to a platform that benefits users from linking with external actors and connecting with the local entrepreneurial ecosystem.

While a coworking-space centring on one dimension of basic offerings, extended offering portfolio, service provision, platform business, it also leads to a dominant value capture strategy from subscription, catering, service fee and commission. Our findings show these value creation dimensions with value capture strategies together shape four types of business models: Efficiency-centred business model, user-centred business model, development-centred business model, platform business model. The four types of coworking-spaces also differ in design elements of their activity system in terms of content, structure and governance. More specifically, focusing on a more interactive component requires more diversity in products and service, more multilateral revenue and stronger collaborative capabilities.

Drawing on our data from the one-year study, instead of business model change, we observe business model stability in coworking-spaces with each type of business model. Overall, our data reveals two essential logics explaining the changelessness: the same group of users with similar needs and the legitimated image and routinized activities of coworking-spaces. The empirical analysis leads to a framework of business model trajectory in coworking-spaces where the business logic is reinforced from the interaction with diverse users.

CONCLUSION

By investigating the configuration of Chinese coworking-spaces through a business model perspective, this paper adds to the emerging literature stream of coworking-spaces by providing a clearly defined construct of coworking-spaces. The emerged framework of business model trajectory contributes to business model research, challenging that openness leads to business model changes. Besides, our study also adds to regional innovation literature by responding to the call for scrutinizing regional innovation process through space perspective.

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CELEBRITY STATUS AND NEW VENTURE PERFORMANCE: EXPLORING THE ANTECEDENTS OF CELEBRITY STATUS

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KEYWORDS

Celebrity status, new venture performance, internet celebrity, social media content, duration, frequency, times.

INTRODUCTION

In general, new firms, start-ups, and small businesses have become a critical part of the economy (Birch, 1987). Entrepreneurs and founders must have a better understating of the determinants or factors which would influence the firms' growth and survival. Most of the researches have been developed a focus on major factors, such as financial (Roberts et al, 2005; Jackson, 1994;) and entrepreneurs' characteristics (Zhao et al, 2011; Baum et al, 2001).

However, with technology development, the Internet has been helping new firms and start-ups grow and achieve goals with its convenience and ubiquitous existence. New phenomena emerging on the Internet by using different types of social media. Ordinary people have been becoming famous and gaining fans or followers with their posts, pictures, comments, and videos. These groups of people are defined as "Internet Celebrity". After they become a connected group or build a relatively stable relationship. When internet celebrities own a certain fan or follower size, they naturally start to market or promote their products. The products could be their music, new microfilms, personal brands, or online stores with different kinds of products, such as makeups, clothes, snacks, pet food, etc. The purpose of this paper is to add celebrity status to the determinants of new venture performance.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT

Based on the literature, we propose that social media content has an effect on new venture performance through celebrity status; social media content is measured by three aspects: duration, frequency, and times. (See Appendix)

CONCLUSION

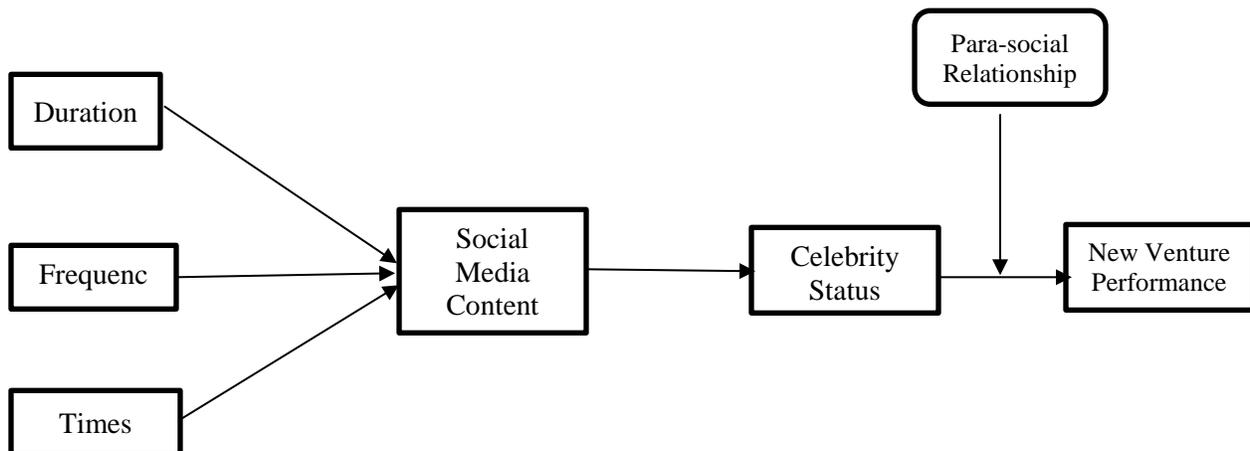
Entrepreneurs play an important role in new firms. Their education level, background, previous experience, intention, personality, etc., all are critical for new firms' growth and survival. Besides, what resources you have regarding human capital, financial capital, social capital would also make a difference in your competition with other new ventures. Web-based new firms are

emerging rapidly. Social media with internet tools help people gain a lot of followers. The process of how and why they become famous and their being famous status or celebrity status is a key determinant for their new ventures' performance. Social media content would influence Internet celebrities' status and further influence their new ventures' performance.

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APPENDIX



WHY DO INDIVIDUALS VOLUNTEER? AN EMPIRICAL TEST OF SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY (SIT) AND VOLUNTEERISM

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KEYWORDS

Social Identity Theory, volunteerism, recruitment

INTRODUCTION

This research tested Social Identity Theory and identified if a relationship exists between the six most important reasons for which individuals volunteer (i.e., values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective), the three types of social identification (i.e., organizational identification, prosocial identification, and moral identification), and an individual's propensity to volunteer. A survey was sent to court appointed special advocate (CASA) volunteers and Spearman's correlation was conducted to test the research hypotheses.

Past research on Social Identity theory posits individuals may define themselves based upon their membership in different social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1985), including volunteer organizations. Recent research on social identity theory has suggested three types of social identification that help explain why individuals choose to belong to certain groups, which include organizational identification, prosocial identification, and moral identification. Additionally, six common reasons why individuals volunteer have been identified in the literature and are congruent with social identity theory including values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective (Clary & Snyder, 1999). The research hypotheses are: H1: Individuals who volunteer with organizations in which they share values will be more positively correlated with moral identification than organizational identification and prosocial identification. H2: Individuals who volunteer with organizations to increase knowledge, skills, and abilities will be more positively correlated with organizational identification than moral identification and prosocial identification. H3: Individuals who volunteer with organizations to increase self-worth will be more positively correlated with prosocial identification than organizational identification and moral identification. H4: Individuals who volunteer with organizations to increase career prospects will be more positively correlated with organizational identification than moral identification and prosocial identification. H5: Individuals who volunteer with organizations to increase social relationships will be more positively correlated with prosocial identification than organizational identification and moral identification. H6: Individuals who volunteer with organizations to escape negative personal issues will be more positively correlated with moral identification than organizational identification and prosocial identification.

METHODOLOGY

The research instrument used in this study is comprised of three parts. The first part of the survey operationalizes the primary reasons individuals volunteer with the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) (Clary et al., 1998). The second section of the survey measures identity orientations using the Aspects of Identity Questionnaire (AIQ-IV) (Cheeks & Briggs, 2013). The third section includes biographical.

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists between the six most important reasons for which individuals volunteer (i.e., values, understanding, enhancement, career, social, and protective), the three types of social identification (i.e., organizational identification, prosocial identification, and moral identification), and an individual's propensity to volunteer. Spearman's correlation was run and all assumptions were met. The results of this study did not support any of the six hypotheses.

CONCLUSION

This study hypothesized several correlations between the six most important reasons for which individuals volunteer and the three types of social identification. Although none of these hypotheses were supported through this research, this does not negate the ability of these surveys to predict propensity to volunteer in long-term opportunities. An unexpected finding of a positive, moderate, significant correlation between the reason for volunteering of enhancement and organizational identification occurred, suggesting individuals who wish to increase their self-worth would be more attracted to organizations that fulfill a sense of organizational identification. This finding is an indication that further testing is needed to determine whether the six most important reasons for which individuals volunteer can be used to predict what type of social identification would be most important to an individual hoping to volunteer, perhaps using a more diverse sample that includes individuals who do not yet volunteer.

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ETHICS AND THE PHILOSOPHICAL RELATIONSHIP TO LEADERSHIP THEORIES

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KEYWORDS

Ethics, Leadership Ethics, R. M. Veatch, Ethical Frameworks

INTRODUCTION

This paper considers the history of research regarding leadership ethics. Specifically, how classical philosophical ethical theories articulate with established leadership theories, explains how ethical leadership theories predominantly use normative ethical action theory and then resolves by suggesting how prosocial behavioral theory offers a new paradigm when considering ethical or others-directed leadership. Prosocial behavioral theory would be better suited in the identification of authentic others-directed behavior as opposed to ethical theories, and ultimately better suited for understanding of how prosocial leaders are developed.

LEADERSHIP AND ETHICS

History provides examples of leaders who fulfill the definition of leadership, but struggled with their personal moral life. For example, Martin Luther King Jr. was reported by reputable sources to be involved in extra marital affairs (Fairclough, 1995) and Woodrow Wilson held to racist beliefs while president of the United States (Yellin, 2013). Ciulla (1995) calls this “the Hitler problem”, unethical leaders are still considered to be leaders, and regrettably a few individuals have even considered their actions as leaders to be justifiable.

Stackhouse (1995), building off the work of Richard Niebuhr (1960/1999) provides a rubric in attempt to codify classical normative ethical theories by placing them within the context of everyday questions individuals would ask regarding obligations or ought’s that each classical ethical theory require. Stackhouse suggests three concepts for classification, “the right”, “the good” and “the fitting”.

Veatch (2015) provides a clear description of the levels of moral discourse which act as a holistic depiction of the levels of classical moral reasoning found within classical ethical philosophy. The four levels presented by Veatch include: cases, rules and rights, normative ethics and metaethics. Cases, Veatch (2015) argues, cases is frequently the starting place for moral discourse. Cases typically act in an advisory role by providing examples for comparing a present ethical dilemma with similar ethical situations, where the dilemma was resolved within acceptable ethical parameters. The second level of moral discourse or reasoning is rules and rights. Rules and rights are grounded in a moral system which outline behavioral norms and beliefs about right and wrong, where the authority of the chosen norms are endorsed or supported by a specific authority of a group or community who created the code. The next level of moral discourse, referred to as normative ethics, has three discrete categories: action, value and virtue. The last and highest level of moral discourse, metaethics, occurs when individuals are not able to

find agreement within or between existing moral rules and rights and normative ethical categories. Veatch (2015) argues that a full theory of ethics would need to include all aspects of moral discourse with consistency, to bring all four levels of the moral discourse into equilibrium providing a holistic understanding of ethical implications.

This paper suggests that the values category of normative ethical theory is largely unexplored and thus inhibits the development of a robust moral discourse concerning ethical leadership. And, while beyond the scope of this book's research and content, the awareness of the omission of the values category of normative ethics discussed in this paper does tacitly encourage ethical leadership scholars to develop ethical leadership theories which are holistic in addressing all aspects of moral discourse.

CONCLUSION

This paper considered the history of research regarding leadership ethics, how classical philosophical ethical theories are related to established leadership theories and how ethical leadership theories predominantly use normative ethical action theory. The intent of the paper was to broaden the use of normative ethical categories within leadership theory, and also provide a perspective on the nature of the existing conversation regarding normative ethical theory and encourage its expansion.

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THE EFFECT OF THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY TRAITS ON CEO REASON FOR TURNOVER

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KEYWORDS

Big 5, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness, neuroticism, turnover, CEOs, voluntary turnover, involuntary turnover, CEO dismissal, CEO succession

INTRODUCTION

Despite extensive research on the Big Five personality types, there has been surprisingly little exploration into the outcomes of these individual differences at the executive level. Utilizing text analysis of conference call transcripts to capture the unique personalities of 182 CEOs, our study explores how the Big Five personality traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience, and agreeableness predict whether a CEO will turnover from a company voluntarily or involuntarily. We hypothesize through the lens of implicit leadership theory that CEOs with higher levels of conscientiousness will be more likely to turnover by choice, while CEOs with higher levels of neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness will be more likely to be dismissed. We find that the traits of neuroticism and openness to experience signal the eventual, involuntary dismissal of a CEO.

Research in the field of turnover outcomes is expansive, however, the antecedents of executive turnover are much less commonly studied due to the difficulty of obtaining personal information from such high level employees. Voluntary versus involuntary turnover of executives have different consequences for the organization (Parrino, Sias, & Starks, 2003), so it is surprising that research hasn't delved deeper into the predictors of each type of outcome and the CEO hiring practices that could assist in avoiding the more costly types of executive turnover. Utilizing the Big Five personality traits, arguably the most popular typology of personality indicators in the fields of psychology and management, this study aims to examine how the five major individual traits of extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, agreeableness, and openness to experience in chief executive officers may contribute to the type of turnover of the CEO - voluntary versus involuntary.

METHODOLOGY

The sample includes all of the CEOs of the S&P 500 publicly traded companies during the years 2008 to 2016 that turned over during this time span. The original data set collected included all of the CEOs during this time span, but to fit the nature of our research questions, we dropped all CEOs from the sample that did not turnover either voluntarily or involuntarily during the time span of our study. Our sample of CEOs that turned over between 2008 and 2016 totals 182 unique CEOs after dropping any executives that were missing data points. We obtained the data from our sample from CompuStat, ExecuComp, I/B/E/S, Nexis, and *SeekingAlpha*. To test

our hypotheses, we utilized a probit regression model utilizing Stata MP software. Probit regression models are designed to handle dependent variables with two possible outcomes; our dependent variable of turnover had the two outcomes: voluntary (0) and involuntary (1).

FINDINGS

We find that the traits of neuroticism and openness to experience signal the eventual, involuntary dismissal of a CEO.

CONCLUSION

The results here indicate that the individual personality traits of a CEO can be predictive of their eventual reason for their turnover at an organization, specifically the traits of neuroticism and openness to experience.

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“IT’S NOT YOU, IT’S ME”

**CAVE WALLS TO BOARDROOMS: THE ROLE OF OCCUPATION GROUPS
IN TATTOO REGRET**

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KEYWORDS

Tattoos, regret, social isolation, occupational groups.

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates the likelihood of having tattoos in the workplace, individuals’ regret about getting tattoos, and the effect of social isolation on the level of regret for getting a tattoo, all with regard to worker occupation grouping (white, blue, pink, or grey collar). Results showed all models to be significant, with grey collar workers differing from workers in other occupational categories, being significantly more likely to have a tattoo and to regret having a tattoo, regardless of the level of social isolation.

A part of human existence since Neolithic times (Deter-Wolf, 2013), tattoos are still a popular, commonplace form of self-expression (DeMello, 2000). The impact of tattoos on employees, though, shows the workplace’s acceptance of visible tattoos might not meet the same levels as everyday society. Because some organizations see their image as being shaped by its employees, in addition to fluctuating customer expectations and attitudes towards an employee’s self-expression through body modifications, tattooed individuals often feel they must conceal their body art in order to not stand out or to avoid being deemed unacceptable for any particular workplace environment or even gain employment at all (Nath, 2011). The need for organizations to recognize this aspect of employee expression and develop an overall atmosphere of acceptance has grown along with the population of today’s tattooed employees. This study also looks at regret and social isolation in relation to occupational group. Three research questions were posed: RQ1, does one’s occupational group (blue, white, pink, and grey collar groups) affect the likelihood of having a tattoo; RQ2, does occupational group increase the likelihood of regretting a tattoo; and, RQ3, what is the effect of social isolation on occupational group-regret relationship?

METHODOLOGY

Data for this study was collected utilizing a survey in Qualtrics, with recruitment parameters being 18 years old and working at least 20 hours per week. Data collected included information on the number and nature of tattoos, regret over being tattooed, the level of social isolation felt, and demographic data. Occupational groups were based on collar color designations: blue collar (e.g. manufacturing, construction, manual labor positions), white collar (e.g. accounting, medical, public relations, upper management positions), pink collar (e.g. service industry, retail), and grey collar (e.g. teachers, first responders, clergy, sales).

FINDINGS

Our final sample included usable data from 854 respondents. Sixty-four percent reported having at least one tattoo, and the typical respondent had 5 tattoos (s.d. = 11.7). Seventy percent of the participants in the study were female. The majority reported being between 25 and 34 years old (37%), and most self-reported as being white (64%). Respondents comprised of white collar (35%), blue collar (29%), pink collar (25%), and grey collar (10%) workers. Data was analyzed with logistic regressions for RQ1, as the dependent variable was binary (has a tattoo; does not have a tattoo), and with OLS regressions for RQ2 and RQ3. All models were significant, and in all analyses, controls (demographics and regret tendency) was entered in the first step, followed by occupational group in the second step. Blue collar was the comparator group.

CONCLUSIONS

In all cases, grey collar workers differed from other occupational groups and were significantly more likely to have a tattoo and more likely to regret having a tattoo, regardless of their level of social isolation. This is surprising since much of the research showed these workers have more restrictions on visible body art (Allred, 2016; Jones, 2014). Future research might yield the answer to why certain occupational groups had higher regret, and if there were difference within the occupational groups.

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UB-OPTIMAL PERFORMANCE OF A MULTI-DIMENSIONAL CONSTRUCT IN LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

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KEYWORDS

extraversion, leadership, multi-dimensional construct, personality

INTRODUCTION

Organizational Behavior scholars have long lamented sub-optimal results with regard to expected construct influences on a variety of outcomes. These inconsistencies create challenges for scholars in understanding the true nature and relationship between predictors and outcomes. One such incongruence is the influence of extraversion on leadership. Prior research presumes that the extraversion construct should positively relate to leadership. However, some studies find less than optimal results (Judge, Ilies, Bono & Gerhardt, 2002). This empirical paper explores this phenomena and helps gain some clarity with regard to multidimensional constructs and their sub-dimensions. Counter to previous research, the findings indicate that extraversion's sub-dimensions—sociability and dominance—sometimes actually work against each other and in opposite directions, therefore confusing the constructs true influence.

While the correlations between personality variables and outcomes are sometimes adequate (Harris, Harris, & Eplion, 2007), there has been much frustration in literature that personality has limited predictive validity since correlations and predicted variance are not strong (Mischel, 1968; Morgeson, Campion, Dipboye, Hollenbeck, Murphy, Schmitt, 2007). One explanation for the sub-optimal performance of constructs that warrants greater consideration is the fact that multi-dimensional constructs, like extraversion, may have sub-dimensions that work against each other when attempting to predict organizational outcomes.

METHODOLOGY

Simple regression was used to analyze the effects of sociability and dominance on outcomes.

FINDINGS

The sub-dimensions of sociability and dominance can work against each other to the detriment of the higher level construct, extraversion and its' utility in trying to predict leadership outcomes.

CONCLUSION

Researchers should be aware that the sub-dimensions of multi-dimensional constructs can complicate the relationship between predictors and outcomes in statistical analysis.

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DEVELOPING AN INTEGRATED, CONCEPTUAL TEACHING FRAMEWORK FOR EFFECTIVE ONLINE EDUCATION

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KEYWORDS

Online education, learner-centric, teacher-centric, social learning

INTRODUCTION

The changing education landscape has necessitated that new models of instruction be developed. As more and more institutions incorporate or transition to online education programs, instructors must devise new teaching strategies to ensure effective learning. Kind & Evans (2015) and Dron & Anderson (2014) stated that online education demands new models of teaching that foster engagement, active and continuous learning. As more studies emphasize the benefits of incorporating social learning strategies within the teaching curriculum, more and more instructors are going in the direction of a learner-centric approach.

Although a learner-centric style might be advantageous to the learners, the instructor-centric approach should not be dismissed. O'Neill, Moore, & McMullin (2005) described student-centered learning and teacher-centered learning as a continuous spectrum. Both systems are needed and should be employed in the development of the course in order for students to adopt learning. Bruner (1964) wrote that cognitive growth is both from the outside in as well from the inside out.

METHODOLOGY

Content analysis method was utilized to review peer-reviewed journal articles. The purpose of this study is to formulate an integrated framework consisting of instructor-centric and learner-centric principles that instructors can use as a guide to develop online courses that will enhance students learning. The proposition is that if instructors are knowledgeable about the skills and competencies that learners must possess to improve and enhance their learning experience, the instructors can incorporate educational tools into the courses to meet this requirement.

FINDINGS

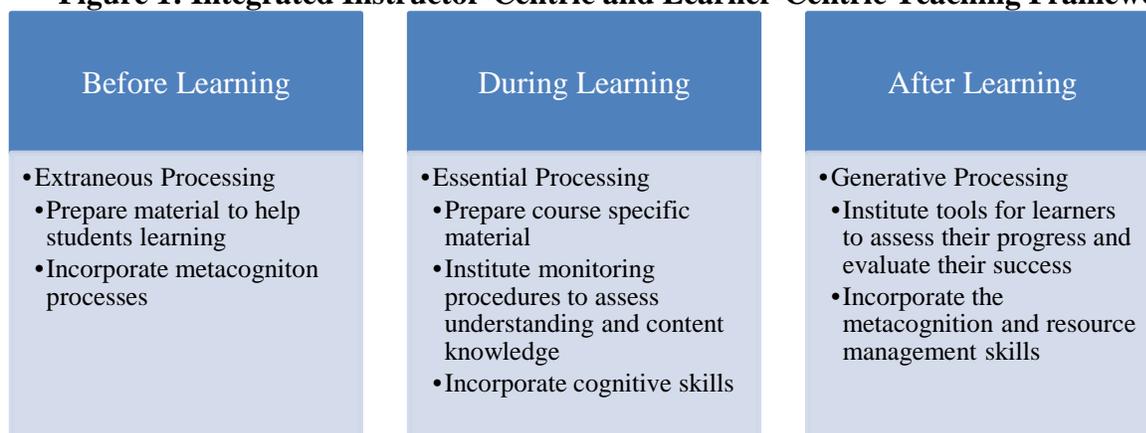
The review of literature indicates that an effective online teaching strategy must consist of both learner-centric and instructor-centric approaches. Learner-centric approach dictates that learner has power and control of the learning process, and the learner must possess self-regulated skills, autonomy, motivation and self-efficacy to be able to manage the process. In the instructor-centric approach the instructor must not only be proficient in teaching the subject matter but must be able to also teach skills that will help the students to become successful in the learning process. The strategy must integrate social and collaborative elements that will allow for open dialogue, engagement and equality in a supportive environment. The strategy should be a multi-phase progressive encounter that includes tools for assessment, monitoring, reflection and evaluation.

Adapting the frameworks of Majeski, Stover & Ronch (2016); Barak, Hussein-Farraj & Dori (2016) and Greene et al (2015) an integrated conceptual teaching framework was devised (Figure 1). The integrated framework consists of three stages. The first stage is the **Before Learning**, which entails **Extraneous processing** and is instructor controlled. The second stage is the **During Learning** and entails **Essential Processing** where both the instructor and the learner share control. The final stage is the **After Learning** and entails **Generative Processing**. In this stage meta-cognition and resource management should be utilized. This is a learner-controlled stage where the learner is fully in charge of the process. The instructors should avail themselves to give support and assurance in this stage.

INTEGRATED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND CONCLUSION

The integrated conceptual model implied that instructors are critical to learning process and their major role should be to facilitate and guide development of self-regulated skills. It is important that the learners have control over their learning and given autonomy to make decisions and choices. Social interactions both of the instructors and peers are helpful for learners' self-efficacy and successful learning outcomes.

Figure 1: Integrated Instructor-Centric and Learner-Centric Teaching Framework



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BEEN THERE, DONE THAT: HOW FACULTY WORK EXPERIENCE IMPACTS STUDENT EVALUATIONS OF TEACHING

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KEYWORDS

management education and careers, classroom management, academic career development, student evaluations of teaching.

INTRODUCTION

Within an ever-changing marketplace, along with the continued evolution of accreditation standards, those chosen to lead the college business classrooms are being expected to be a combination of industry experts and teachers...all in an effort to yield the best educational outcomes possible. While traditional qualifications such as research and teaching accomplishments are still being sought, this increase in industry qualifications raises the question of whether those hired based on industry experience are as effective in the classroom as their more traditionally trained counterparts. Using 355 sets of students' evaluations of business classes from three public southwestern universities with AACSB accreditation, matched with career information about the respective instructors, this study sought to verify if having industry experience positively impacts classroom effectiveness as well as if years of teaching experience, level of one's degree, and whether one is currently in an administrative role with their university impacts the student ratings of the instructor. Results supported some hypotheses and previous research while not supporting others. As industry experience was predominately found to not improve one's effectiveness, the results raise questions for hiring officials and university leadership.

The field of business education has long been a complex and ever evolving area of the college campus: for what is it precisely that we are preparing our students? An even bigger mystery has been who is exactly the best qualified to be teaching business students in the classroom. Through the analysis of student evaluations of teaching, the current study works to confirm if having industry experience positively impacts one's ability to successfully teach in the business college classroom. This study also looks to confirm the impact of teaching in regards to years of teaching, level of degree, and having an administrative role on the campus.

METHODOLOGY

The data within this study consisted of publicly available student course evaluations from three universities within the southwest United States. Though all are part of the same public university system, these institutions operate independently and as classified represent each of the research tiers: R1, R2, and R3. As each institution utilized slightly varied evaluations, only the five questions which were common to all three institutions were utilized.

We considered the use of hierarchical level modeling (HLM) in this research as the level of degree could be viewed in levels (pre-graduate, masters, and doctoral). We did find significance for the variance of intercepts at level 1, but not at level 2 for any of our SET questions. We also found that our intra class correlations (ICC) were smaller than 10% indicating that such grouping was not working. Thus most of our results are shown with regression modeling.

FINDINGS

Overall we found support for a few of our hypotheses and significantly more non-support for our hypotheses. In general, the more industry experience one has the more the students feel the instructor is available for them. However, we also proved more of the hypotheses opposite from our hypotheses which might be a concern for administration. We found that the longer one teaches, the less the students thought the instructor clearly defined course objectives, communicated effectively or was available to students. We also found that the higher the level of degree, the worse the students thought the professor communicated effectively. Lastly we thought being in an administrative role would have a negative relationship to student evaluations, yet it had the opposite impact in all five of the SET questions asked.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of having industry experience, teaching experience, higher level of degrees, and not being in an administrative role on one's teaching success in the business college classroom, as measured by the SET. In only one area does our work confirm previous studies (and thus our hypotheses): length of industry experience. Past this, not only is it the first known study to investigate these specific variables in question but also to address the presumptive solution for placing a stronger emphasis on skill building and solving real world problems by hiring faculty with significant industry experience within the business school. Per the results of this study, academic leaders might want to reconsider their hiring practices.

When the results were significant, it showed that faculty with: longer industry experience, a Master's degree, and serving in an administrative role had a positive impact on the SET (11 hypotheses). It also showed that faculty with: longer teaching experience, those with Doctoral degrees, and those not serving in an administrative role had a negative impact on the SET (10 hypotheses). The others were not statistically significant in support or denial of the hypotheses. Our results also indicate that when controlling for the level of degree (in HLM) there was no impact on the directionality or significance of our results neither adding or eliminating conclusions nor changing the directionality of the regression equations.

Finally, while the results of this study only minimally support the criteria of industry experience in the hiring of professors, it does lend itself to the continued role of Executives in Residence. These instructors generally have longer time in industry, shorter teaching tenures (five years or less), and tend not to hold Doctoral degrees. If they were to also hold an administrative position, they would have all the positive attributes covered.

TRANSFORMING EMPLOYEE RESISTANCE INTO ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING

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KEYWORDS

employee resistance, organizational learning, change agents, auto-ethnography

INTRODUCTION

This paper reconceptualizes resistance as a stimulant of organizational learning. It argues that employee resistance instead of hindering organizational learning, possesses the capacity to trigger individual, group and organizational learning (Jost & Bauer, 2003; Lawrence, 1954). An attempt is made to answer the “how” question—how can employee resistance be transformed into organizational learning? How can change agents use resistance to help employees learn new values and behaviors? What interventions can be adopted to convert resistance into a positive learning experience? are some of the issues which are investigated in this paper.

METHODOLOGY

This paper incorporates auto-ethnographic narrative accounts of two change agents, internal and external change agents who worked together on a change project, to explore how employee resistance to initiate international business accreditation process within an academic setting can be transformed into employee learning. Autoethnography enables the change agents a chance to self-observe and record the change process events, make sense of the events, reflect on them using their past experiences, knowledge and intuitions (Boyle & Parry, 2007). This allows generation of an accurate depiction of the change process from the empirical site.

FINDINGS

The two autoethnographic narratives of internal and external change illustrate how employee resistance can be deconstructed to transform resistance to a change initiative into a learning experience. The change initiative involved introducing a self- assessment process to determine the readiness of a business school within a Palestinian university for international accreditation of its academic programs. The change agents, especially the dean, who was the internal change agent decides against fighting employee resistance instead prefers to utilize collaboration, communication, participation and awareness creation as effective mechanisms to develop a supportive culture and a learning environment. She is sympathetic to the fears of change recipients and works closely with the external change agent to turn their fears and anxiety into a

learning opportunity so that they gradually embrace the new direction the business school is moving towards.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this paper emphasizes the role of change agents; external and internal in the change process and how their understanding of the culture, change recipients, organizational climate and work environment could increase the success of transforming resistance into learning. And how rather than, suppressing resistance as a dysfunctional aspect of the change process, becoming aware and making sense of this “*misconstrued barrier*” to learning and change can transform it into an appropriate feedback mechanism to initiate organizational learning.

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PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT: USING PERSONALITY ASSESSMENTS AS A TOOL TO SELECT AND HIRE SUCCESSFUL SPECIAL AGENTS

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KEYWORDS

Personality, 5 Factor Model, Person-Organization Fit, Hiring

INTRODUCTION

Studies indicate that stronger levels of person-organization fit are likely to lead to increased performance, motivation, satisfaction, and retention. Research indicates that personality (i.e., five-factor model of personality, including the personality dimensions' agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism) may be a predictor of work performance. A quantitative study surveying 103 special agents resulted in minor support for the research hypotheses. The results were mixed.

Recruiting the talented employees is crucial for organizational success and (Breugh, 2013). One of the more important determinants of organizational attraction is perceived fit on behalf of the applicants who are more likely to gravitate towards environments that are compatible with their own characteristics. Having a knowledge of the applicant-fit and the person-organization fit constructs may help predict employee performance (Breugh, 2013; Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996). Personality is one variable that could help predict fit in both occupations and organizations. Costa and McCrae (2010) suggest that the Big Five/FFM of personality is a good predictor of performance. The five factors of personality include agreeableness, openness to experience, extraversion, neuroticism/emotional stability, and conscientiousness.

However, the appropriate personality for organization fit should be job specific (Hogan et al., 1996). The selection of individuals for the Special Agent position must consider specific competencies and personality for more successful applicant selection (Hogan et al, 1996; Dunn et al., 1995). Therefore, it is important to identify the personality characteristics that would best predict successful Special agents in the Department of Defense. The hypotheses are: H1: Successful Special agents exhibit a moderate degree of agreeableness. H2: Successful Agents exhibit a high degree of openness to experience. H3: Successful special agents exhibit a high degree of extraversion. H4: Successful special agents exhibit a low degree of neuroticism. H5: Successful special agents exhibit a high degree of conscientiousness.

METHODOLOGY

The population is special agents in the Department of Defense and the sample size is 239. The survey for this study is composed of 120 personality-related questions (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) on the NEO-PI-3 and 15 questions on special agent performance. The survey questions are based on a 5-point Likert scale with answers ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). There were 103 respondents with a response rate of 43%.

FINDINGS

A regression analysis was performed to determine if a relationship exists between performance (the dependent variable) and the five personality dimensions (i.e., neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and agreeableness (the independent variables). The results of the regression analysis for each personality dimension and performance did not yield significant results except for the relationship between agreeableness and performance.

CONCLUSION

The person-organization literature suggests that organizations tend to hire individuals who fit the organization. Many organizations have taken an additional step to ensure a candidate's personality is suitable for a particular position by administering personality tests. Empirical research indicates that personality (i.e., Big Five /FFM) testing is useful in predicting the performance of individuals in certain occupations. The results of this study only showed moderate support for the personality trait agreeableness.

One possible reason for the lack of empirical support could be that the data showed little variability in respondents' personalities, performance, and demographic data. Although only one of the five hypotheses received empirical support, this does not negate the plausibility of all the hypotheses. This may merely be an indication that this organization tends to hire individuals with certain personality characteristics and those personality characteristics have a positive relationship to successful performance or perhaps the sample population includes a pool of high performing special agents.

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AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON CAREER READINESS

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KEYWORDS

Career Readiness, College-to-Work Transition, Work Volition

INTRODUCTION

This paper explores the concept of career readiness and the importance of career readiness programming and resources in the college or university setting. The goal for this paper is to outline methods that better prepare students for their careers and equip them to become the quality employees that organizations seek in recent graduates. Specifically, we examined the role of work volition in a student's ability to make career-based choices.

College students often face challenges as they transition into professional workplace settings (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). As a result, administrators from colleges and universities have an influential responsibility in providing resources and opportunities for students entering the workforce (Wendlandt & Rochlen, 2008). Further, it is important that faculty and staff work diligently to implement methods and offer experiences that can ease the process of organizational socialization.

The term career readiness is the combination of the term career, "a sequence of experiences in the world of work with objectives and consequences" (Sears, 1982, p. 137) and readiness, a synonym of preparedness (Camara, 2013). This paper also recognizes the construct career maturity, "a student's readiness for making occupational choices" (Savickas & Porfeli, 2011, p. 355), when describing the term career readiness. For the purposes of this paper, career readiness will be defined as a student's preparedness to successfully make choices for their career.

METHODOLOGY

We studied how specific dimensions of career readiness are related to work volition. To examine these relations, we sampled 126 freshman students from a southern state in the United States. We examined their responses to the Work Volition Scale ($\alpha = .84$, Duffy, Diemer, and Jadidian, 2012) and to the subscales of Career Maturity Inventory (Savickas and Porfeli (2011). These subscales are: Concern ($\alpha = .72$), Curiosity ($\alpha = .74$), Confidence ($\alpha = .80$), and Consultation ($\alpha = .52$).

FINDINGS

A multiple regression analysis was conducted using work volition scores as the dependent variable. With the main effects of the standardized scores for Career Maturity-Concern, Career

Maturity-Curiosity, Career Maturity-Confidence, Career Maturity-Consultation in the multiple regression equation, $R^2 = .20$, $F(4, 122) = 7.62$, $p < .01$. Inspection of the regression coefficients indicated there is a main effect for Career Maturity-Curiosity, and $\beta = .34$, $p < .01$. Individuals who scored high on curiosity reported higher levels of work volition. We also found a main effect for Career Maturity-Consultation, $\beta = -.28$, $p < .05$. Students who scored high on the consultation subscale reported lower levels of work volition. No significant main effects were found for the Career Maturity-Confidence or Career Maturity Concern.

CONCLUSION

In our presentation, we discuss the implications of our findings and our plans to expand our research efforts on career readiness. Our goal is to develop a model that identifies internal and external influences that facilitate or hinder career readiness in college students. This model will guide an applied research program to help students transition into professionals and understand the importance of being engaged in their career of choice.

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FINDING STRENGTH IN DIFFERENCES: AN INVESTIGATION OF REGIONAL VARIATIONS IN RESPONSIBLE INVESTING PRACTICES

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KEYWORDS

Responsible investing, institutional theory, governance and accountability

INTRODUCTION

This study investigates cross-country variation in responsible investing practices using a mixed methods approach. The study finds partial support for the claim that pension funds and mutual funds operating in countries where people have more freedom of expression and greater control of corruption will perform better on environmental, social and governance dimensions compared to countries where people have relatively less freedom of expression and less institutional control of corruption. Surprisingly, this article does not find support for the hypothesis that when asset owners and investment managers perceive high regulatory quality and government effectiveness in their country, they will pay greater attention to responsible investment, as measured by the number of organizational employees dedicated specifically to responsible investment. Through a qualitative analysis of the responses explaining employment decisions, the study uncovered that organizations could undertake either an integrative or specialized or hybrid approach to employment, which affects the number of reported staff dedicated to responsible investment.

Socially responsible investing (SRI) is broadly defined as a set of investment practices that account for extra-financial criteria “in decisions over whether to acquire, hold or dispose of a particular investment” (Cowton, 1999, p. 60). This study empirically tests the impact of national differences in governance on variations in attention to responsible investment and performance on social, environmental and governance (ESG) dimensions. As asset owners and investment managers operate in widely different but often inter-dependent geographies, it is important to understand how they attend to ESG considerations.

METHODOLOGY

This paper adopts a multilevel framework by investigating how governance factors operating at the institutional level impact organizational attention to SRI and SRI-related outcomes at the meso level. Governance factors are important because they determine how ethical contracts like UN Principles for Responsible Investment (UNPRI) or Morgan Stanley Capital International (MSCI) guidelines that operate at a global level get transplanted at the organizational level when these organizations are embedded in a specific institutional environment. Differences in national governance can affect both attention to SRI despite commitment to uphold global principles, as well as final ESG outcomes of fund portfolios.

FINDINGS

Using quantitative regression analysis, we did not find support for our first hypothesis on whether government effectiveness and political stability affect attention to responsible investing. The results indicated partial support for the second and third hypotheses on whether pension funds and mutual funds operating in countries where people have more freedom of expression and where managers perceive higher corruption control by institutional mechanisms display greater engagement with ESG issues compared to countries where there is relative lack of freedom of expression and corruption control. Although institutional elements do not appear to dictate attention to SRI in terms of the number of employees recruited to oversee responsible investing activities, our qualitative analysis indicated that this may be attributed to the differences in integrative, specialized and hybrid approaches to recruitment pursued by the UN PRI signatories. Notwithstanding UN PRI's status as a standardized ethics initiative that specifies pre-defined norms for organizational behavior on ESG issues at a transnational level (see Rasche & Esser, 2006), investment managers and asset owners do not take the principles as one-size-fits-all and have to consider contextual requirements at the meso-level before employing more tailored strategies for responsible investment. From the organizational responses to UN PRI's question on the number of staff dedicated to responsible investment, we see the variation in discursive interpretation of macro-level contracts at the organizational level.

CONCLUSION

This study highlights the importance of unpacking cross-level interactions for understanding heterogeneity in responsible investing practices across countries despite the efforts of transnational actors like the United Nations at standardization. The recognition of such linkages allows for cross-level interventions to resolve complex problems like climate change or biodiversity loss where implementation of strategies at any one level may be insufficient. If fund managers fail to account for cross-level mechanisms, we may see a linkage failure due to absence of relevant knowledge transfer and feedback (see Klein & Kozlowski, 2000). From an institutional logics viewpoint, this study can help to build on Yan and Ferraro's (2019) work on competing logics. If we consider the "market logic" and the "social protection and environmental justice logic" as independent, then our results suggest that institutional constraints can govern the extent to which these logics intersect, giving rise to the new blended logic of responsible investing that varies in its prevalence and rate of adoption by the financial communities in different countries.

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**REFLECTING ON TEACHING BUSINESS ETHICS:
NORMATIVE INSTRUCTION SHOULD INCLUDE BEHAVIORAL INSTRUCTION**

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KEYWORDS

Ethics, Pedagogy, Model, Decision-making

INTRODUCTION

Professors who adopt a normative or hortatory approach to business ethics should give significant attention to behavioral ethics. We make that claim because ethical missteps tend to result not from an inability to discern right from wrong but, rather, from behavioral issues.

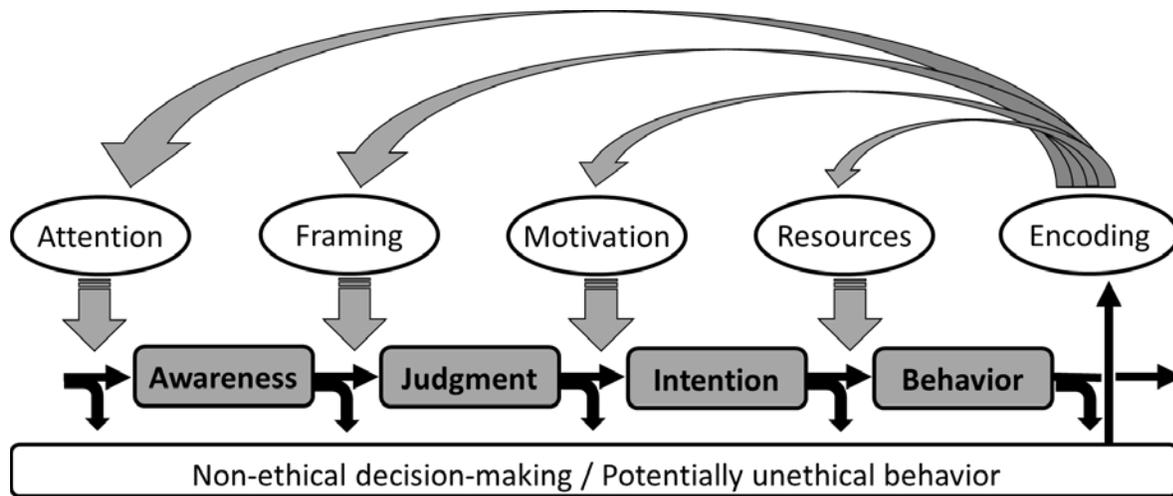
METHODOLOGY

Moore and Gino (2015) surveyed more than twenty-years of behavioral research. Using the Rest (1986) model (awareness, judgment, intention, behavior) of ethical action, Moore and Gino identified seven ways in which the process might be derailed (e.g., diffused attention can preclude awareness). We rely on the work of Moore and Gino and adopt an explicitly pedagogical focus. Our concern, therefore, is how to help students prepare to resist derailment.

FINDINGS

The results of our work include; (a) identification of seven specific challenges; (b) development of a model—the Revised Rest-Moore-Gino (RRMG) model (see Figure 1)—that can be used both in preparing and delivering course material; and (c) articulation of learning objectives (for a curriculum, not a single course) that can help students to meet the identified challenges.

FIGURE 1



With the RRMG model as a framework we then identify a series of learning objectives designed to prepare students to meet the identified challenges. Our learning objectives encompass the three learning domains of knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Anderson, Krathwohl, Airasian, Cruikshank, Mayer, Pintrich, Raths, & Wittrock, 2001).

CONCLUSION

Professors who adopt a hortatory approach to business ethics instruction, and choose to emphasize the judgment process will not, we think, have the impact they desire. Students who wish to conduct business in ways that are consistent with normative standards (whether learned from professors or other sources) are not likely to succeed unless they also develop a supporting set of behavioral disciplines, habits, or life-style choices. The RRMG model and the associated learning objectives can help professors and students to identify and to implement the needed behaviors.

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HURRICANE HARVEY AND SENSEMAKING: THE POWER OF THE NARRATIVE

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KEYWORDS

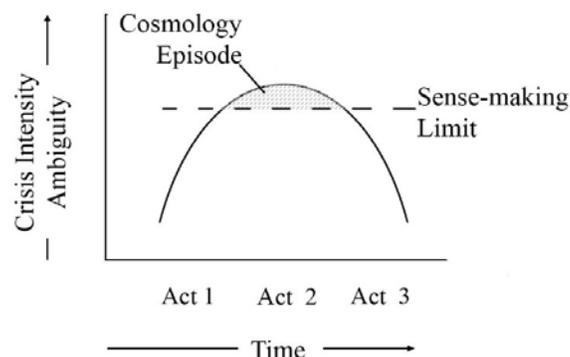
Sensemaking, Crisis Management, Hurricane Harvey

INTRODUCTION

This paper investigates sensemaking during crisis management and examines how crisis management and sense-making affected local responses to Hurricane Harvey striking the South Texas Gulf Coast in August 2017 and causing an estimated \$125 billion in damage (Rebuild Texas, 2018). Crises are fast-moving events where those involved do not know how to act because the crisis causes and effects are uncertain (Pearson and Mitroff, 1993). Proper organization crisis management are strategic because crises can endanger firm survival (Preble, 1997). High levels of ambiguity surrounding crisis parallel high levels of ambiguity found in sensemaking, a cognitive process that lets action continue during chaos (Weick, Obstfeld, and Sutcliffe, 2005). Sensemaking guides cognition when reality differs from expectations. Sensemaking provides plausible explanations that allow action amid increasing ambiguous chaos and provides plausible reasons to continue to act -- “what’s the story” -- and not isolating accurate causes -- “what happened” so that plausibility becomes more critical than accuracy (Weick, et al., 2005). Sensemaking may fail when chaotic surroundings are so severe that the “flow of action has become unintelligible in some way” (Weick, et al., 2005:409). The result is a “*cosmology episode*” where it is no longer possible to make sense of what is occurring and what actions to take (Weick, 1993).

Both crisis management and sensemaking are based on responses to high levels of ambiguity and on guiding action as ambiguity rises. Different stages of crisis management overlap with different phases of sensemaking and the failure of sensemaking (Sherman & Harris, 2019). They suggested that the crisis intensity over time has an inverted-U relationship and that sensemaking passes through three distinct “acts” as crises evolve over time (Exhibit I).

FIGURE I



The first act includes moderate levels of intensity and ambiguity as an initial story is constructed that is critical to detecting later crisis. Increasing ambiguity may eventually overwhelm crisis manager's ability to maintain a plausible story in Act 2, as sensemaking collapses and a cosmology episode occurs where actions directed at a specific solution stops. The crisis exits the cosmology episode in Act 3 as a new story to guide action and lower ambiguity evolves.

METHODOLOGY

The study was qualitative in nature and focused on the effects of Hurricane Harvey in the Texas Coastal Bend region. The study relied on three questions to ten managers on duty during the storm's landfall. Five managers were crisis management professionals and five were managers at a gulf-front resort. The interviews were done by telephone and asked ambiguity overwhelm situational comprehension, when was situational comprehension, if lost, re-established, and what were the storm's damages and organization effects. Five of the ten subjects clearly recalled one or more points in time during landfall when the situation exceeded their comprehension – a cosmology episode. Four of the five subjects who reported a cosmology episode reported it as both momentary and distinct. Those with higher responsibility or facing more ambiguity were more likely to experience a cosmology episode, especially if faced with a need to act.

DISCUSSION

The contribution of this study is that crisis management planning might be improved by integrating sensemaking to develop a plausible narrative or story for action to resume. Minimum requirements for such narrative are discussed in the paper. This concept of narrative as crisis management planning tactic is in its infancy and needs further development.

CONCLUSION

This research was originally intended to answer an academic question regarding sensemaking mechanics and dynamics. The research is evolving into how the sensemaking mechanics may aid crisis management by guiding development of a plausible narrative.

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JOB EMBEDDEDNESS TO CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR: ROLE OF OUTCOME ORIENTATION AND RELATIONSHIPS WITH PEERS

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KEYWORDS

Job embeddedness; team-member exchange; outcome orientation; conservation of resources; social exchange.

INTRODUCTION

Job embeddedness offers unique perspective to explain why people stay with their current organization (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablinski, & Erez, 2001), but it also implies that employees who are more embedded in an organization are rooted in a more complex social “web” than other less embedded individuals, and thus are able to access more information and resources, and have more opportunities (Lincoln & Miller, 1979; Zhang & Chen, 2010). While organizations pay enormous efforts to retain employees, the disproportionate resources allocation and asymmetry of membership status between more embedded and less embedded individuals may facilitate unique social consequences. As work grows more relational (Campbell, Liao, Chuang, Zhou, & Dong, 2017; Grant & Parker, 2009; Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007), it is important to investigate highly embedded individuals’ exchange relationships with, and behaviors towards their peers in a workgroup settings.

Drawing on theories of conservation of resources and social exchange, this study joins and extends research on job embeddedness and helping behavior (OCBI) by introducing team-member exchange (TMX) as the linkage, and expands understanding of the formation of the reciprocal relationships between embedded employees and peers in an outcome orientation workgroup climate. Scholars have laid important foundations for the job embeddedness-OCBs linkage (e.g., Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004), but the explanations of OCBs’ motives were constrained in the concept of job embeddedness per se, and overlooked the possibility that members, including those outside the “web,” would choose to develop high quality relationships with highly embedded employees and become the beneficiary. Also, it would be difficult to identify and theorize why certain forms of citizenship behaviors are linked to job embeddedness without sufficiently considering the underlying mechanism and indirect effect of job embeddedness on OCBs (Holtom & Sekiguchi, 2018; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Furthermore, Holtom and Sekiguchi (2018) suggested that job embeddedness scholars should explore and assess a broad spectrum of situational factors. As one

of the most prominent team climates, outcome orientation has been theorized as achievement centered, but its effect has been less empirically assessed. Though tagged as “competitiveness” (Baird et al., 2011; O'Reilly et al., 1991), our results show that outcome orientation can actually strengthen highly embedded individuals' social exchange relationships with their peers, because their peers may feel that their relationships with highly embedded individuals are more transactional based, and then will seek more social exchange opportunities.

METHODOLOGY

Data was gathered from 450 employees and 51 supervisors in a large private university in Asia. Employees responded to the job embeddedness and TMX measures, and their respective managers provided OCBI and outcome orientation for each employee and their workgroups. The final sample consisted of 297 employees and 49 supervisors. The average size of workgroup was about 8 employees. Because our data contains feedbacks from employees nested within groups, we adopted hierarchical linear modeling (Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000) for the analysis.

FINDINGS

We found that TMX mediates the relationship between job embeddedness and OCBI ($\gamma = .14, p < .05$), and the indirect effect of job embeddedness on OCBI through TMX is more positive when outcome orientation is high ($coeff = .10, SE = .05, p < .05$). The results supported our hypothesized relationships. These findings suggest that, highly embedded individuals tend to be identified as the foci of resources, especially under high outcome oriented climate, in which goals become harder and require more sources to complete, and thus their peers are motivated to build up high quality relationship with those focal individuals to become the beneficiary of highly embedded employees' resources.

CONCLUSION

Though subject to a number of limitations (e.g., using cross-sectional design and having limited generalizability due to Asia-based sample), the present study contributes to the research on job embeddedness and OCBI relationship by developing and testing a multilevel moderated mediation model that includes TMX, which mediates the job embeddedness-OCBI relationship at individual level, and outcome orientation, which moderates the job embeddedness-TMX relationship, and the mediating role of TMX, at the group level. Results help to explain highly embedded employees are likely to elicit helping behaviors towards peers because they are able to maintain high quality relationships with workgroup members. Further they see maintaining these relationships more valuable in high outcome-oriented workgroup climates.

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TRUST, CORRUPTION, AND THE MEDIATING ROLE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR)

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INTRODUCTION

Over the decades, the literature collectively argues that corruption is an undesirable condition for trust, both political trust and generalized trust (e.g., Anderson and Tverdova, 2003; Chang and Chu, 2006; Doig and Theobald, 2013; Uslaner, 2004). There have also been significant efforts to eliminate instances of corruption and identify the effective enforceable mechanisms against corruption (e.g., anti-corruption law enforcement and regulations). Nevertheless, little attention has been paid on investigating the role of business corporations (non-enforceable mechanisms) in reducing the trust-eroding effect of corruption and promoting trust in society. This study helps to fill this theoretical void by investigating the potential role of a corporation in reducing the trust-eroding effect of corruption and building trust in society through its CSR initiatives.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

A measure of trust is drawn from the World Values Survey (WVS) which represents the level of trust among people in society, and it has been widely used in various fields of research to identify trust (Banerjee, 2016; Thanetsunthorn and Wuthisatian, 2019a). Then, the WVS trust data is supplemented with corruption risk scores collected from the International Country Risk Guide (ICRG) database. Subsequently, the study combines the data on trust and corruption together with the rating of overall CSR performance obtained from the CSRHub database which has been widely used to measure CSR performance in the extant literature (e.g. Stemler and Fort, 2015; Thanetsunthorn, 2015; Thanetsunthorn and Wuthisatian, 2016, 2018, 2019b).

To ensure unbiased results in the empirical analysis, the study also controls for the effects of other factors that are likely to influence the level of trust in society (i.e., economic risk factor, law and order, and socioeconomic condition), as well as the existence of unobserved heterogeneity across regions using the region-specific dummy variables. In addition, the regression with robust standard errors and the regression with censored data (Tobit model) are performed to ensure the robustness of our findings.

RESULTS

The results suggest the trust-eroding effect of corruption, that is, a higher degree of corruption reduces the overall level of trust in society. However, the study further provides evidence that firms' overall social contributions and corporate social responsibility (CSR) efforts can help lessen the negative impact of corruption on trust as a whole.

CONCLUSION

This study highlights and unfolds the mediation role of a socially responsible corporation in the interplay between corruption and trust. In line with previous research, the study finds that corruption generates a highly detrimental effect on the level of trust demonstrated among people in society. However, the study provides further additional insights into the potential role of a corporation in building trust in society through its corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives.

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INDUSTRY COMPETITION AND TRAINING INVESTMENT: EVIDENCE FROM THE U.S. AND CHINA

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KEYWORDS

training investment, industry competition

INTRODUCTION

Standard economic theory predicts that firms will not invest in general training and will underinvest in specific training. Empirical evidences, however, indicate that firms do invest in general training. Also, evidences from laboratory experiments point to less underinvestment in specific training than the level that theory predicts. Drawing upon the structure-conduct and performance paradigm, we argue that specific industry competition environments influence firms' decision in training investment. In addition, firm size and firm financial status should be positively correlated with training investment because larger firms with more financial resources can afford the risk of losses in training investment. Empirical evidence from both the U.S. and China mostly supports the hypotheses.

Drawing upon the structure-conduct and performance paradigm to examine when firms invest in training, we argue that industry environments are important factors that decide the optimal level of training investment. Specifically, when industry competition level is low, firms investing in training are less likely to lose their training investment, because trained employees have fewer outside opportunities. Thus, firms in such environment tend to invest more in training. Furthermore, I argue that industry environments affect less on training investment of core employees than on that of other employees because the marginal benefit from training core employees is important across industries while the marginal benefit from training other employees could be very different across industries. Thus, the variation of training investment in core employees across industries is less than the variation of training investment in other employees. Finally, we argue that because of the fixed costs of the training investment, the larger a company is the less costly for a firm to invest in training. Hence larger firms tend to invest more in training.

METHODOLOGY

In Study 1, data were gathered on 819 firms in the State of Minnesota consisting of information derived from a survey of human resource managers of each firm on various human resource/management practices (e.g., decision-making, communication emphases, TQM, etc.), and organizational programs (e.g., physical work environment, psychological, social, and financial programs, etc.). It is a cross-sectional dataset. The population of the sample represents is the industrial organizations in the state of Minnesota. Unless the source of the data is specially mentioned, the data of the variables used were gathered around 1999 by the survey, the response rate of which is 45%.

In study 2, we employ a sample collected from China. Besides the fact that Study 2 can complement Study 1 in terms of the generalizability of empirical results in another country, Study 2 has the strength of using a continuous variable of estimating training investment. In addition, training investment in Study 2 will be based on employee responses and other variables based on HR managers' responses, and thereby it has the strength of being multi-source. However, because of the lack of data on non-core employees and firm-specific training, we will only test Hypothesis 1-3 in Study 2.

FINDINGS

Study 1: Hypothesis 1a which states that firm training investments differ across industries is supported for core employee job rotation, core employee training in statistical analysis, other employee general training. Hypothesis 1b which states that industry competition level is positively correlated to firm average training investment is partially supported, models excluding industry competition level are all significantly different from models including it and industry competition level is positively correlated with all of the training investment variables although not all of them are significant. As for Hypothesis 2, firm size is found to be positively correlated with general training investment but not specific training investment. Hypothesis 3 which states that specific training percentage is positively related to cost leadership strategy is not supported. Hypothesis 4 states that industry differences of training investment are smaller for core employees than for other employees. It is supported for general training but not for job rotation. Job rotation is actually more different across industries for core employees than for other employees.

Study 2: Hypothesis 1a is mostly supported. The odds ratios of being in a higher category of the time length of training mostly differ significantly across various industries.

However, Hypothesis 1b is not supported. The perceived competition level is not correlated with employees' training time length ($b = .06, p = .39$).

Hypothesis 2 which states that firm size is positively related to training investment is supported, albeit with a very small effect ($b = .00, p = .001$).

CONCLUSION

The hypotheses of impacts of economies of scale and industry structure, and competition on training investment mostly have shown empirical support.

TWITTER AND YOUTUBE AND FACEBOOK, OH MY! HOW CEOS STREAMING ON NEW MEDIA CAN IMPACT PERCEPTIONS

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KEYWORDS

Upper echelon theory, CEO characteristics, voice, new media, streaming

INTRODUCTION

Over the last twenty years, the boom of new media generated a multitude of new avenues for researchers across all disciplines to explore. “New media” is the term for all types of communications that occur digitally, mostly through the internet. New media sits in contrast to older, traditional media, because companies and governments utilized media offline—like newspaper and press releases. One topic yet to be explored is the impact of many types of new media (e.g. video/audio availability) on stakeholder perceptions. Since these are now so heavily used by society and organizations alike, there is a need for exploration. Using upper echelon theory as a driving force, this paper proposes that CEO announcements of strategic change may be an initiating source of stakeholder perception. Further, this paper argues that a CEO's vocal pitch specifically impacts such stakeholder perception. Lastly, this paper posits that stakeholder perception can be studied as a mediator in the relationship between strategic decisions and performance in the upper echelon model.

American executives are of societal and research interest alike. As such, upper echelon theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) receives an overwhelming amount of attention in strategic management literature. This theory posits that CEO's life experiences, demographics, and fixed characteristics lead to the implementation of certain organizational strategic decisions, which then impact firm performance. Since the establishment of this theory, there has been discussion that, although CEOs may make decisions based on their characteristics, their characteristics may also be *perceived by others* in certain ways that impact decisions and outcomes (Hambrick, 2007). For parties such as the board of directors or shareholders, access to CEOs and their characteristics is seemingly easier than it is for the average person. Instead, the average person may only get CEO exposure through media. One avenue of media that is overwhelmingly unexplored in this regard is new media. New media, defined by Lexico (a collaboration between Dictionary.com and Oxford University Press) as “means of mass communication using digital technologies such as the internet (www.lexico.com)” has over three billion people users, according to Statista, a statistics portal for market data and research (www.statista.com). Some examples of new media include Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, and YouTube. Increasingly, CEOs are swarming to social media and live streams. These live streams provide multiple opportunities for researchers interested in CEOs. Outside of management literature, other disciplines such as political science have looked at how characteristics of an individual can shape subsequent perceptions and outcomes (Klofstad, 2016; Klofstad, Nowicki, & Anderson, 2016; Klofstad, 2017). These findings indicate that lower vocal pitch lead people to believe an

individual has more dominance, power, is a better leader, etc. The purpose of this conceptual paper is to outline how these previous findings can speak to the current state of CEOs and new media. Further, this paper seeks to extend the current thinking of upper echelon theory to include market and stakeholder perceptions and reactions as a mediating mechanism in the relationship between upper echelon characteristics and organizational performance.

FINDINGS

Through combining findings and theories from political science and psychology, a model is proposed that encompasses four propositions.

P1: CEO vocal pitch via new media mediums will have an impact on intermediate organizational outcomes through the perceptions of others.

P2: CEO's with lower voices will be viewed as more trustworthy when making announcements on new media video streaming apps

P3: CEOs with lower voices will be perceived to have more power when making announcements on new media apps

P4: Market perceptions serve as a mediator between strategic choice and firm performance when the choice is voiced by the CEO via a new media outlet.

CONCLUSION

The current paper brings together theories from management, political science, and evolutionary psychology to extend current management theory and research. Further, this investigation extends upon what Hambrick previously proposed regarding upper echelon theory (Hambrick, 2007) – Upper echelon characteristics may impact more than decisions. Finally, this paper begins to tend to Hambrick's previous suggestion of using a more diligent effort when discussing psychology within the realm of upper echelon literature.

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**ALL IT TAKES IS FAITH AND TRUST:
BUILDING EFFECTIVE LEADERS WITH EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

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KEYWORDS

emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, team trust, upper echelons theory, TMT

INTRODUCTION

Many companies struggle with inclusion, diversity, and how these factors influence the effectiveness of leadership. One diversity question that has gone unanswered to date revolves around the challenge of emotions. Emotions in organizations create difficulty because they are ever-changing and multi-faceted. People also express multiple emotions at any given moment and those emotions can result in a variety of different outcomes. With that said, do leaders need to have a better understanding of emotions to be effective? Research has yet to investigate the role of EI in TMT members. Therefore, this paper answers the call for greater attention to the behavioral processes in the upper echelons of firms (Carpenter, Geletkanycz, & Sanders, 2004) and will insert emotional intelligence theory into a larger upper echelons model to examine its role on team trust and leadership effectiveness. Specifically, we will look at the effects of TMT EI diversity on leadership effectiveness through the mediation of team trust.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to discuss these practical questions surrounding EI within the TMT, we need to understand what is meant by emotional intelligence. The earliest conversation of EI utilizes strictly abilities as the foundation for defining a model. Salovey & Mayer (1990) define EI as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p.189). In this, EI is a narrowly defined set of theoretical constructs relating to the ability to recognize and control emotion.

Trust represents a fundamental social construct, highlighted as the state of an individual as vulnerable in response to a belief that others’ future behaviors will be positive and beneficial. A range of leadership theories indicate the need for this positive interpersonal capital and for leaders to foster the social health of their organizations (Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2004). To achieve this goal, relationally attentive leaders cultivate connections, convey openness, and portray their emotional accessibility (Dutton, 2003). These trust building actions highlight the connection between emotional intelligence and trust. *Proposition 1*: TMT EI diversity will have a direct and positive influence on the top management team’s experience of trust.

TMT trust promotes team efficacy, an essential ingredient to successful firm initiatives (Carmeli, Tishler, & Edmondson, 2012). Further, the trust among TMT members grows out of positive emotions, including hope and optimism, to engender follower effort and job performance (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). Through enhanced TMT learning, confidence in decision-making, and exhaustive exploration of potential outcomes, team trust

plays a significant role in the effectiveness of TMT leadership. With the importance of team trust on effective leaders, it is important to understand the characteristics of an effective leader. The theory of leadership effectiveness speaks to how group effectiveness depends on the relationship between leadership styles and the degree to which situations allow leaders to exert influence (Fiedler, 1967). These theoretical foundations hint at the need for leader EI. Based on the current understanding of EI, the style, motivation, personality, and influence of a leader may significantly change with the introduction of EI. Further, the diversity of TMT members appraisal, management, and expression of emotions, may enhance leadership effectiveness by increasing social integration and driving consensus within the TMT (Finkelstein, Hambrick, & Cannella Jr., 2009). *Proposition 2*: The impact of TMT EI diversity on follower's perceptions of leadership effectiveness will be mediated by TMT trust.

DISCUSSION

Organizations either grow or die. In turn, TMTs either effectively lead their companies or soon find themselves looking for a new job. We propose that for leaders to effectively lead their organizations they need to build trust through the use of emotional intelligence. We further contend that a diversity of emotional intelligence abilities further enhances trust and effectiveness. The role emotional intelligence plays in upper echelons theory and within the TMT is not fully understood at this point. We attempt to add to the upper echelons literature by including emotional intelligence into this widely-used theory. The result of this addition is new guidance for TMT members to more successfully lead their organizations.

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AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND ITS ROLE IN BUILDING MEANINGFULNESS AND ENGAGEMENT

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KEYWORDS

authentic leadership, meaningfulness, engagement, transformational leadership

INTRODUCTION

Leaders play a crucial role in transforming their companies and employees. To bring about transformation, leaders need to be inspirational, encourage new ideas, empower others, and have a vision for growth (Bass & Riggio, 2014). But, do leaders need more than these transformational qualities? Can an organization achieve its goals without hiring leaders that are transparent, positive, and honest? Further, the importance of leaders to develop meaningfulness and engagement in order to transform a company is highlighted by Mann and Harter's (2016) proclamation that "the world has an employee engagement crisis, with serious and potentially lasting repercussions for the global economy." Just how serious is the engagement problem? Gallup (2013) reports that across 142 countries throughout the world, only 13% of employees are engaged in their work. With the costs of disengagement so high, I warn that leaders must understand its antecedents and how their leadership style affects this relationship.

LITERATURE REVIEW

This paper concentrates on the relationship among authentic leadership, meaningfulness, and engagement. Authentic leadership and transformational leadership theories share many similarities, but also employ notably different characteristics. Avolio and Gardner (2005) and George (2003) note that authentic leadership contrasts with transformational leadership in that charismatic traits may not be essential. Furthermore, Avolio and Gardner (2005) outline that authentic leaders do not set out to mentor and transform followers into leaders. These two examples provide specific instances of how authentic leaders differ from transformational leaders. It is also useful to break down the differences between authentic and transformational leadership through an elaboration of the themes they discuss versus the focal points of each. First, transformational leadership theory does not discuss emotional contagion, follower development, strength-based organizational context, and veritable performance (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). However, transformational leadership theory discusses but does not focus on, positive physiological capital, authentic behavior in leader self-regulation, relational transparency, and authentic behavior in follower self-regulation (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Therefore, transformational leaders need to be authentic; however, authentic leaders are not always transformational.

Meaningfulness, or meaningful work, is the amount of purpose or significance work holds for each individual worker (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). Leaders primarily influence meaningfulness at work by imbuing their organizations with values, purpose, meaning, and identity (Cameron, 2012). The question becomes, what kinds of leaders work with integrity, build trust, provide

psychological safety, and exemplify the cosmology of their organizations? What kinds of leaders enhance meaningfulness at work? Followers, by experiencing perceived authentic behaviors from their leaders such as honesty, integrity, and transparency, develop goodwill, shared commitment, and a cumulative trust. Therefore, if an employee experiences authentic leadership, they will be able to find meaningfulness at work, and this leads to increased engagement. If authentic leadership influences meaningfulness and engagement in the ways that transformational leadership has been shown to (Whittington, Meskelis, Asare, & Beldona, 2017), then authentic leadership may be a more worthwhile avenue to transform a company through enhanced engagement than the transformational leadership paradigm. Based on all this, I postulate the following propositions:

Proposition 1: Authentic leadership will have a direct and positive influence on an employee's experience of meaningfulness. *Proposition 2:* The impact of authentic leadership on employee engagement will be mediated by their experience of meaningfulness. *Proposition 3:* The impact of authentic leadership on employee engagement will be greater than that of transformational leadership on employee engagement.

DISCUSSION

I propose that for leaders to enhance the engagement of their employees they need to build meaningfulness. I also propose that the more effective way to do this is through authentic instead of transformational leadership. The role authentic behavior plays in engagement theory is not fully laid out at this point. I attempt to add to the engagement and positive leadership literature by including authentic leadership into this widely-used theory. The result of this addition is new guidance for leaders to more effectively transform their organizations.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN EFFECTIVE LEADERS: IS IT THE MISSING FACTOR?

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KEYWORDS

emotional intelligence, effective leadership

INTRODUCTION

Leaders face many day-to-day challenges, especially when they attempt to create an effective organization. These challenges amplify with the introduction of emotions. Emotions in organizations create difficulty because they are ever-changing and multi-faceted. With that said, do leaders need to have a better understanding of emotions to be effective? Can leaders without emotional intelligence (EI) successfully guide their followers and organizations? Whether in human resources, marketing, or strategy, the judgement of how effectively companies take action relies on an assessment of organizational leadership effectiveness. Researchers utilize several perspectives on the measurement of leadership effectiveness (e.g., theoretical vs. practical, external environment vs. internal environment, leader vs. follower behavior). This study will explore leadership effectiveness through a combination of these perspectives but with a focus on performance management (e.g., strategic thinking, result achievement, cultivates working relationships, influential communication, personal drive and integrity) (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Through these measurements, we hope to better understand the impact of leadership EI and the individual dimensions of EI on an organization.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Two models, the ability-based EI model and the mixed method EI model, provide two different ways for leaders to generate perceptions of leadership effectiveness. Monitoring one's and others emotions, discriminating among these feelings, and using this information as a guide for one's emotions underpins the ability-based EI (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Mixed methods EI builds on ability-based EI by adding skills to the tool box of an EI leader (Goleman, 1995). While these two models appear to share more commonality than current research would like to concede, the debate surrounding these two models creates a need to explore both models in this study. With that said, we ask ourselves if EI may be a vital antecedent to followers' perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Empirical tests attempt to answer these questions through a range of posited relationships between EI and leadership. Despite evidence of the link between EI and leadership, skeptics abound and question these links to leadership outcomes (Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009). Some EI researchers go as far as pointedly ask, "To manage the emotions of others does one need to have an inordinately well-tuned EI?", and just as pointedly answer that question in the same breath with a succinct, "I vote no. Smarts will do" (Antonakis et al., 2009, p. 250). These varied findings portray an accurate picture of the lack of direction and turbulence with the

EI research stream. Whether because of problems defining EI, issues with what makes an effective leader, or the inability to measure either of these constructs, an answer to why the best and brightest leaders do not always make effective leaders still remains uncertain (Higgs, 2003; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). This raises the question, is EI the missing factor beyond intelligence and personality that allows a better understanding of leaders and their success?

In order to find insight into this question, we must find a deeper understanding of EI dimensions, perceptions of leadership effectiveness, and the positive outcomes that follow. Several authors suggest a range of EI qualities that result in effective leadership. First, leaders who generate enthusiasm, cooperation, trust, and confidence in their followers may allow leaders to be effective. Second, effective leaders employ goal-setting and monitoring behavior to enhance achievement. Third, reaching these goals includes the need to make strategic choices and tough decisions. The final building block relates to how followers can perceive EI and connect these perceptions to leadership effectiveness as EI leaders create an organizational culture. Through an investigation of these EI qualities, we attempt to answer three research questions:

RQ1: What are employees' definitions of leaders' emotional intelligence?

RQ2: How do employees react to different characteristics of emotional intelligence?

RQ3: What do employees perceive to be the influence of leader emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness?

DISCUSSION

This study will insert emotional intelligence theory into a larger conversation about leadership and leadership effectiveness. We will look at the effects of EI on leadership effectiveness by understanding the thoughts, feelings, and responses of followers in a series of focus groups. We also contemplate how this study sets a foundation for a less controversial view of EI that integrates both ability-based and mixed-method models. The state of EI research is still up in the air within the field of leadership, and there are many future studies that can help integrate EI and leadership theories. When we understand if EI plays a role in leadership effectiveness, we can also reassess the EI construct and provide future utility in the model and measures moving forward.

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