The Journal of Business Leadership Spring 2012

American National Business Hall of Fame
ANBHF

THE JOURNAL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP

Editor's Preface

The Journal of Business Leadership [JBL] is the official journal of the American National Business Hall of Fame [ANBHF]. The ANBHF conducts an active research program with three primary objectives. The first objective is to collect and analyze information regarding the leadership skills of Hall of Fame members. The Hall believes that business success stories are an important part of American history and strives to document and preserve these stories.

The second objective of the research program is to support the research objectives of the associated academic journal, *JBL*, through support of certain areas of business leadership, ethical practices and management academic research.

The third objective is to evaluate the effectiveness of Hall of Fame classroom presentations. Evaluation instruments are developed and administered in classes following Hall of Fame presentations.

In support of the ANBHF mission, *The Journal of Business Leadership* is a multidisciplinary journal of interest to scholars, professionals, students, and practitioners in a broad range of management thinking. The purpose of the journal is to encourage the publication of case studies of business leadership. In keeping with the Hall's longitudinal study, The Ethical Views of Business Leaders, University Faculty and Students in the United States, submissions highlighting ethical leadership practices are encouraged.

JBL offers both peer-reviewed and non-peer-reviewed articles. All peer-reviewed articles must meet the highest and most rigorous standards and are anonymously reviewed by at least two scholars in the field. Non-peer-reviewed materials can be essay, research-in-progress, pilot studies, or commentary on some topic relevant to the field of business leadership. All non-peer-reviewed materials will be reviewed by the Editorial Board for quality and appropriateness, but are not guaranteed publication.

Welcome to this issue of *The Journal of Business Leadership.*

Robyn Hulsart, Ed.D.
Journal Editor

Building a Model of the Synergistic Effects of Constructs Affecting Organizational Citizenship Behavior Leading to Team Engagement in Continuous Improvement Programs

Helen Wagner , Sue Morton, Chris Backhouse, Neil Burns, Manufacturing Organisation Group, Wolfson School of Mechanical & Manufacturing Engineering, Loughborough University, Ashby Road, Loughborough, LE11 3TU, UK. Phone +44 1509 227680, H.T.Wagner@lboro.ac.uk

Abstract: Organizations are recognizing that, in striving to remain competitive, their strength lay with the engagement of staff in programs such as continuous improvement (CI). Contributing to such programs involves organizational citizenship behavior, which is given on a discretionary basis and is not something that can be demanded by management. However, there are ways that management can improve their practices in order to encourage staff to become engaged and, ultimately, feel the desire to offer the extra-role efforts over and above what is expected. Early examination of extant literature led to the linkages model, which shows the constructs of leadership style, leader-subordinate relationship, empowerment, creativity and personality, which have been found to have the greatest potential to affect employee and team engagement with CI. Further investigation and analysis of the literature brought clear evidence of links between the constructs, which allowed for the development of propositions to test the conclusions formed and the detailed model showing the synergistic effects that applying the constructs concurrently would have on team engagement with an organizational CI program.

Keywords: Organizational Citizenship Behavior, Continuous Improvement, Employee and Team engagement

Introduction

For some time now, it has been recognized that organizations wishing to remain competitive need to continually examine themselves and seek the incremental improvements that lead to better working practices and cost savings. Katz (1964), argued that organizations will not succeed solely on the level of performance as laid out in job descriptions, stating that organizational effectiveness is reliant on the voluntary behavior of employees, to vocalize suggestions for improvement, help each other and safeguard the organization Bowler et al (2010), which requires voluntary commitment and involvement of staff (Sharkie, 2009; Benkhoff, 1997) at all levels. However, many organizations find barriers to this in the form of disillusioned and obstructive staff, who cannot see what benefit it would be to add these additional tasks to their job. Engaging these staff, who have the ability to give or deny their discretionary efforts at will, has to be a top priority (Woodruffe, 2006), both in terms of retention of their most valuable asset and the advantages linked to the discretionary effort (DE) that engaged employees bring to the organization (Devi, 2009). Bateman and Organ put forward the term Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB), to explain these discretionary *"organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense"* Organ (1990). Expanding the work, Organ (1988) categorized these behaviors as: civic virtue – becoming involved in activities related to the organization; conscientiousness –

doing more than just what is expected; altruism – helping colleagues with work problems; courtesy – politeness towards colleagues to avoid conflict; and sportsmanship – limiting complaining and accepting what is asked (Mahdiuon, 2010; Zeinabadi, 2010).

The DE that is considered to be so valuable by managers and leads to OCB is contingent not only on the individuals' desire to offer it, but also on the perception of what is perceived to be discretionary by both the individual and leader. When roles are loosely defined, it is likely that OCB will be considered as in-role, making employees more likely to engage in these behaviours (Wanxian & Weiwu, 2007; Kwantes, 2008). However, supervisors and team members often have difficulty discerning whether behaviours are in-role or extra-role (Bolino, 2004). Klieman et al. (2000) describe this as the subjective perception, by the employee, of the reciprocal agreement with the organization, known as psychological contract. Job descriptions and cues from others help individuals to know what is considered in-role and extra-role (Klieman et al., 2000) and this leads to the understanding of where involvement is an individual's choice, and so it is anticipated that the relationship between the individual and their supervisor could have a significant impact on the decision to offer DE and OCB.

Benkhoff (1997) suggested that DE emanates from personal characteristics that motivate an individual, the desire to not be seen by others as sub-standard and the potential to develop and sustain relationships that promise rewards. Varkey et al. (2008) went further, classifying five drivers of DE: the desire to improve; cooperation and teamwork; problem solving; accountability; and respect, while Devi (2009) identified teamwork, considerate treatment, training and a belief in a future to be significant drivers. When specifically related to OCB, primary antecedents are recognized as leadership style (Zeinabadi, 2010; Rubin, 2010; Bettencourt, 2004) fairness (Organ, 1990) and support (Oguz, 2010); organisational commitment (Organ, 1990; Zeinabadi, 2010), job satisfaction (Organ, 1994) and being part of a team (van Dick et al, 2008). Each of these classifications sheds light on the potential constructs that could impact on the ability of a supervisor to encourage their team members to freely engage and offer the OCBs needed. In order to understand engagement, the components that make it up, the issues that affect it and the ability to encourage engagement in team members must be understood. This is a vital part of creating a successful and ongoing culture for improvement and, therefore, it is critical that organizations can convince staff that their extra efforts are warranted.

As organizations face large-scale change to restructure and adapt in a poor economic climate, often integrating previously competitive teams under new leaders, a need has been identified to create a diagnostic tool for use within organizations to assess all levels of staff, facilitate continuous organizational improvement and to assist with problem solving at the level of supervisory/team management, in particular. Literature offers a vast array of potential solutions to those seeking help. However, negotiating a way through to find those which will really prove useful and appropriate to facilitating increased discretionary and organizational citizenship behavior can prove challenging. In order to create a bespoke tool that truly measures the constructs directly involved, an investigation is needed into the potential constructs, their effects on individuals, the team, leaders and the organization as a whole, in order to identify those whose benefits will not only be felt when utilized alone, but can create synergistic effects when applied concurrently.

Constructing the model

When examining the literature on continuous improvement and innovation, several major themes began to emerge on the factors that affect the potential for individual employees and teams to engage and contribute. Initial examination of each theme for an understanding of the construct led to its consideration and inclusion in the model, now shown in Figure 1.
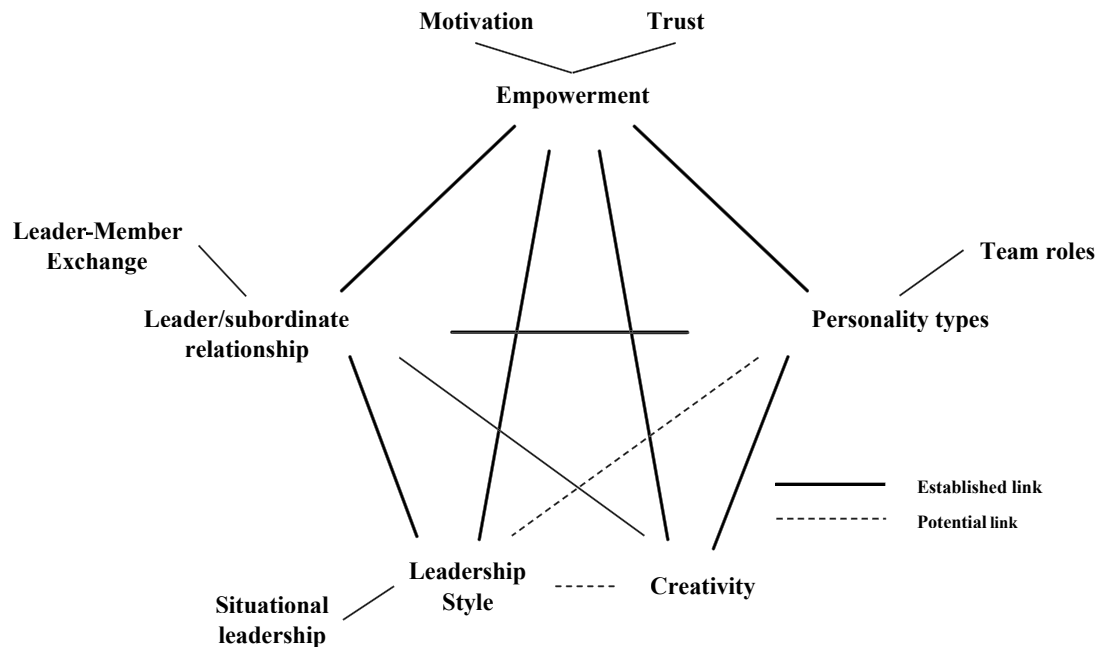
Figure 1: Model of the interlinking factors that impact on engagement of employees in continuous improvement

a. Empowerment

As employees become more valued as assets, it is being recognized that empowering them is a primary part of any strategy for organizational effectiveness (Ergeneli et al., 2007; Conger, & Kanungo, 1988; Keller, & Dansereau, 1995; McEwan, & Sackett, 1998), considered by some as an extension of employee participation (Dainty et al., 2002). However, although many advocate empowerment, several definitions of what empowerment really means still exist. Conger and Kanungo (1988) offer up their interpretation of empowerment *"as a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members"*, which is achieved through identifying issues that lead employees to feel powerless and removing them, recognizing the meaning of empower as to enable rather than delegate. Spreitzer (1995; Wang, & Lee, 2009), sees empowerment more as *"a set of motivational cognitions shaped by a work environment and reflecting an individual's active orientation to his or her work role"*. It involves having the resources, information and authority to complete a task, and the ability to monitor and modify processes and procedures (Swanson, 1997). For many though, empowerment is intrinsically linked with the transference or sharing of power (Conger, & Kanungo, 1988) from those in a senior position to subordinates, authorizing them (Greasley, et al., 2005). However, often this is restricted to *"timid shifts of power"*

(Malone, 1997) due to strict hierarchical structures, which limits its true effectiveness. Evident problems with the concept of power transference are a) the resistance it can incite in those who feel they are losing it and b) the reluctance of disempowered employees who fear the added responsibility and accountability (Greasley, et al., 2005). Lee & Koh (2001) suggested that empowerment had two components; the psychological state of the subordinate and the influencing empowerment behavior of the leader. This can include providing a caring (Kratzer et al., 2005; Zarraga, & Bonache, 2005), positive atmosphere, encouragement, individual recognition and rewards, showing confidence and passing on responsibility while fostering initiative and building on success (Ergeneli et al., 2007; Conger, & Kanungo, 1988; Katragadda, 2006) . Establishing a culture that promotes each individual to contribute is necessary for success (Oke, 2007), as is the ethical behavior of leaders (Zhu et al., 2004).

Studies have shown that empowerment is also dependent upon establishing a level of trust between the leader and subordinate (Dainty et al., 2002; Greasley, et al., 2005; Mishra, & Spreitzer, 1998; Robbins, et al, 2002; Richards, 1995), which is enhanced by a belief in the leader's competence, reliability and dependability (Ergeneli et al., 2007). Having this trust leads to greater freedom for workers, allowing them more flexibility, the ability to begin to make their own decisions (Greasley, et al., 2005) and to feel that they can genuinely contribute to plans and decisions within the organization (Dainty et al., 2002). Such feelings of having meaningful work plays a large part in an employee's perception that they are really empowered (Ergeneli et al., 2007; Thomas, & Velthouse, 1990) and to see themselves as connected to the organization (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997). Feeling empowered links into the construct of motivation, as tasks are seen as valued and motivation to take part leads to empowerment (Thomas, & Velthouse, 1990). The link was further established as Wang and Lee (2009) related the construct to the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) of Hackman and Oldham (1980), which looks at motivation and job satisfaction. The components of autonomy, significance, variety and feedback that make up the JCM have also been directly linked to OCB outcomes Organ, 1990).

Benefits of empowerment have been observed as increased job satisfaction, enthusiasm (Ergeneli et al., 2007) motivation, and organizational loyalty (Greasley, et al., 2005) as well as increased skills and innovative capabilities (Dainty et al., 2002); empowerment can energize, direct and sustain desired task behaviors (Harris et al., 2009).

b. Leader/subordinate relationship

The relationship that develops between the supervisor and team members is a special one, which affects the climate in the team and, as a result, the quality and performance of its output, and can impact on the task expectations (Klieman et al., 2000; Tierney, 1999) and responsibilities of members (Klieman et al., 2000). All relationships mature over time (Atwater, & Carmelli, 2009), but it is essential that the supervisor is able to persuade team members of their skills and capabilities from the beginning, as this influences team members' evaluation of their supervisor (Ballinger et al., 2009): the more positive their approach (Tierney, 1999) and the more receptive to suggestions that they are, improves the potential for team members to reflect the same values (Atwater, & Carmelli, 2009).

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX), with its origins in Social Exchange Theory (Harris et al., 2009; Cropanzano, & Mitchell, 2005), is founded on the notion of a two-way, dyadic relationship (Tierney, 1999) between an individual subordinate and their leader (Northouse, 2007; Kim, & George, 2005), and has a clear link to OCB (Kim, 2010). The level of interaction, communication, understanding and trust (Scandura, & Pellegrini, 2008; Vecchio, 2005) constrains or facilitates the development of the relationship (Aryee, & Chen, 2006), creating differentiated relationships for each team member (Tierney, 1999; Tse et al., 2008). For each dyad, the perceptions of both the leader and subordinate affect the measure of the multidimensional relationship (Scandura, & Pellegrini, 2008) making it essential to view it objectively from both sides (Nahrgang et al., 2009). The quality of relationships are termed high or low LMX (Northouse, 2007), each displaying different characteristics and consequences that will have an effect on the organization (Harris et al., 2009). Employees that develop high LMX relationships with their leader display loyalty (Scandura, & Pellegrini, 2008), increased organizational commitment (Northouse, 2007; Cogliser et al., 2009; Mazibuko, & Boshoff, 2003), and are likely to stay (Vecchio, 2005). This relationship also leads employees to engage in OCBs based on the desire to support both their leader and the organization (Sharkie 2009; Ilies, 2007). Personal benefits include increased job satisfaction (Vecchio, 2005), support (Tierney, 1999; Harris et al., 2009) and respect (Scandura, & Pellegrini, 2008) from their leader, along with rewards (Harris et al., 2009) and other benefits (Atwater, & Carmelli, 2009). Those at the lower end of the spectrum can expect a more formalized relationship with their leader (Tierney, 1999) recognizing a lack of trust and support (Harris et al., 2009) and experiencing few additional benefits. However, employees may feel that offering OCBs may help increase the chance of acceptance by the leader and develop their relationship (Sharkie 2009). Identifying the level of relationships that exist in a team can create a polarization within the team, between the high-level in-group and the less favored out-group (Northouse, 2007).

Some of the most common factors to affect LMX level are personal values and attitudes; the more similar these are between the leader and team member the greater likelihood of a high LMX relationship, which often develops further into friendship (Tierney, 1999; Kim, & George, 2005). Building a relationship is dependent on the development of trust (Sharkie, 2009) and the perception of fairness, which is crucial to establishing this trust (McLain, & Hackman, 1999). It is this trust along with support that often leads the way to the engagement that is essential for DE (Sharkie, 2009). When individuals begin to experience the rewards of a high-level relationship they begin to reciprocate in discretionary forms (Klieman et al., 2000) increasing commitment (Cogliser et al., 2009) as they perceive their potential to make a difference increases (Eisenberger et al., 2002).

It is important that leaders are aware of the quality of their relationships and how team members perceive it, as employees perceive their leaders to assign positive or negative evaluations of them and this affects their view of the value of their contribution (Sharkie, 2009; Kim, & George, 2005; Eisenberger et al., 2002). Observation and feedback on tasks can allow team members to assess their performance and their supervisor's perception of them; however, excessive monitoring could lead to undesirable behavior (Klieman et al., 2000). It is important, therefore, that the perceptions of the supervisor and the team member are balanced as this establishes reciprocal behaviors, especially when both perceive the relationship as high, as LMX

has been shown to be a significant antecedent of OCB in all levels of employee Bettencourt, 2004.

c. Leadership Style

Like LMX, Situational Leadership Theory (SLT) (Hersey, & Blanchard, 1977) involves a relationship between the team leader/supervisor and their team member, but it deals primarily with finding the leadership style that is most appropriate for a person in a particular situation. Recognizing that it should be the subordinate who determines leadership behavior (Graeff, 1983) and that leadership is not something that is *'done to'* subordinates but something that should be *'done with'* them (Hersey, & Blanchard, 1996; Blanchard et al., 2004). The key to SLT comes from behaving consistently, but not necessarily the same way to all individuals (Blanchard et al., 2004; Blanchard & Johnson, 2003). Offering up sound bites such as *"different strokes for different folks"* and *"there is nothing so unequal as the equal treatment of unequals"* (Blanchard et al., 2004), SLT recognizes that some people need a lot of support and direction, while others can work with a minimum of interaction with their leader. However, it is not just the individual that dictates the leadership style; it is also possible that the same person can require a different level of support when undertaking a task or role in which they have less or more experience (Sims Jr. et al., 2009). In fact, the founders of the theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) have created a model (Hersey, 2009) that shows how the behavior of the leader should change, based on the competence and confidence of the individual; with a path moving from directing to coaching for those with little experience of the role, then progressing to supporting and ending at the ideal delegating style, where the individual is motivated and able to complete the task autonomously (Blanchard, 2008). It is the responsibility of the leader to make an accurate assessment (Blanchard, & Johnson, 2003) of where an individual falls on the path in order to determine the leadership style that is right for the situation (Johansen, 1990) and to continually reassess as progress is made. It is important, however, that this is done with the employee so that an agreement can be made on the level of leadership they need (Blanchard et al., 2004).

Fundamental to SLT and the OCBs that can be displayed as a result is the fair treatment of team members (Organ, 1990), as these behaviors are often a direct result of the perception of fairness in the way they have been treated (Organ, 1994). Leading in this way looks to build trust and a sense of ownership and responsibility in employees (Blanchard, & Johnson, 2003), but this can only be done by ensuring that a leader's actions meet the needs and fulfill the perceptions they wish the team to have (Blanchard et al., 2004). It is important to work with individuals to increase their self-esteem, suggesting that workers who feel good about themselves are more productive (Blanchard, & Johnson, 2003). This is often achieved by providing constructive feedback, which allows an individual to know how well they are performing and also to recognize areas for improvement and further training. It is also essential with SLT that the leadership and feedback relates directly to the task they are performing, delivered in a non-personal manner and unaffected by other people or what is taking place elsewhere in the organization (Blanchard, & Johnson, 2003).

d. Personality types and team roles

Individualizing a relationship based on experience and competence has the potential to improve leadership. However, each person is not just made up of their work based

characteristics, but is also driven by their personality, and personal characteristics such as gender, age, background, values and ethics (Kwantes, 2008). Developing an understanding of these characteristics will enhance the leader-subordinate relationship, and have the potential to influence OCB (Mahdiuon, 2010). Past research has shown that there is a significant link between OCB and personality, with agreeableness (Mahdiuon, 2010; Organ, 1994), conscientiousness; (Mahdiuon, 2010; Kwantes, 2008) and openness correlating most closely (Mahdiuon, 2010).

Several authors have gone deeper into the effects an individual's personality has on their behavior in a team-based work environment. Previously, people would be selected for teams by job function, although this approach does not automatically create effective team working (Senior, 1997) nor give the benefits of increased creativity, participation and commitment (Partington, & Harris, 1995) it is recognized to offer. Henry and Stevens (1999), concluded that team effectiveness could result in greater satisfaction, participation and willingness to collaborate. McCrimmon (1995) identified the need for members to propose ideas, critically evaluate and implement them, while sustaining team harmony. This suggests that members need to behave as a team instead of as individuals (Sommerville, & Dalziel, 1998), but for this to take place each must perform a role that fits their own personal characteristics (Davies, & Kanaki, 2006). Team roles are defined by a specific pattern or style of behavior made up of personality, mental ability, values and motivations, experience and field constraints, and role learning (van de Water et al., 2008; Belbin, 1993); but it is the synergy of these complementary styles that builds truly effective teams (Sommerville, & Dalziel, 1998).

The makeup of a successful team has been studied widely in management literature for several decades, with team roles studied back as far as 1948 (Benne & Sheats, 1948; cited in Adair, 1986). An idea followed up by further studies leading to the identification of nine (Margerison & McCann, 1990), ten, [(Spencer and Pruss, 1992) twelve (Woodcock, 1989) and even fifteen different team roles (Davis et al., 1992). Probably the best known theory and the preference of many organizations is the Belbin Team Roles Model. Developed over a nine year study (Dhingra, 2002) of personality types and behaviors, the theory proposes that combining all roles offers the greatest potential to work effectively (Broucek, & Randell, 1996). Belbin (1981) developed a classification of the roles each individual could exhibit in a team environment, detailing skills and behaviors each can offer the team dynamic. Since its publication, some researchers have expressed doubt over the model's academic validity (e.g. Fisher et al., 2002), while many others support the model, suggesting it has made a significant contribution to understanding (Fisher et al., 1996); recognizing its value in use to be more important than its psychometric validity (Partington, & Harris, 1995) and acknowledging that to discard the work due to uncertainty would be a great pity (Fisher et al., 1996).

Balderson and Broderick (1996) discovered that identifying a person's natural team role facilitated an understanding of how they were able to contribute to the team and Fischer at el. (2002) recognized that the model aimed at management levels, was also applicable and should be applied at lower levels within an organization. The nine roles comprise: the determined leader roles of Coordinator, who manages and Shaper, who motivates the team into action; the thinker roles of Monitor-Evaluator, who critically analyses viability and Plant, who initiates creative ideas; the company workers of Implementer, who carries out the work and Completer-Finisher, who works

methodically to completion; the negotiator roles of Resource Investigator, who networks with outsiders and Team Worker, who keeps harmony in the team; and the Specialist, who provides task expertise (McCrimmon, 1995; van de Water et al., 2008; Pritchard, & Stanton, 1999).

e. Creativity

Weisberg (1986) suggested that creativity emerges from the problem solving activities of individuals, on work that has no easy solution, forcing them to progressively modify their initial ideas to find a solution. Furnham and Bachtiar (2008) found most authors suggest that potential creativity in an individual would be linked to cognitive ability and style, such as the ability to think quickly; however during their study, they found that level of intelligence was not linked to creativity measures. This was supported by the work of Batey et al (2010), who found that extant literature offered only modest correlations. Other characteristics linked to creativity include long attention span, persistence and sustained high energy, but it was also dependent on one's own perception of creative potential (King, & Gurland, 2007) and goals to be creative (Hewett, 2005). In their study, Pirola-Merlo and Mann (2004) identified two relevant creativity models; firstly the Componential Model of Organizational Innovation, put forward by Amabile (1997), which brings together other ideas to recognize the importance of domain relevant knowledge, creativity relevant skills and motivation. Whereas Ford's (1996) Theory of Creative Individual Action, identifies knowledge, ability and motivation, with the work environment and sense making.

Continuous improvement itself relies on the generation of incremental ideas and, as a result, is intrinsically linked to the concept of creativity (Oke, 2007; Perel, 2002; Morton, & Burns, 2008; Hewett, 2005; Amabile et al., 1996). Amabile et al (1996). Amabile et al (1996) described creativity as *'the seed of all innovation'* but warned that an individual's perception of the innovation process will impact on their personal motivation to contribute ideas. There are, however, barriers to, or requirements for a culture of creativity. One barrier is the level of involvement that people feel with the problem and the understanding they have of its importance (Oke, 2007; Gruber, 1989; Csikszentmihalyi, & Sawyer, 1995). Hewett (2005) found that creativity could only be fostered in an environment where external conditions do not disrupt or compete with the desire for creative ideas and is only likely to exist in a culture where people feel safe (Kofoed et al., 2002), where failure is not punished, but rather seen as part of the learning experience (Perel, 2002). West et al (1990) recognized this, stating that *"creative cognitions occur when individuals are free from pressure, feel safe, and experience relatively positive effect"*. It was also found that rigid management structures impacted negatively on the potential for creative innovation (Amabile et al., 1996), while those showing high levels of support offer greater knowledge creation and transfer (Kratzer et al., 2005; Zarraga, & Bonache, 2005). It is important that an individual feel they have a level of control over their working environment, *"There should be room for immersion in concentrated activity and for stimulating novelty. The objects around you should help you become what you intend to be"* (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). Recommendations for enhancing personal creativity also include the idea that an individual should identify where their talents lie and make efforts to practice to improve, to open one's mind and consider the world anew, and to be prepared to take risks (Shekerjian, 1990).

Furthermore, if employees are to be truly motivated to innovate, the assessment of ideas must be seen to be fair with successful innovations publicly rewarded in a way that is valued by the individual and is in line with the benefits attained by the organization (Perel, 2002).

Interlinking of the constructs

It can clearly be seen that numerous elements of each theory overlap with others, but it is considered that interlinking these approaches will allow for a more holistic approach to optimize the benefits of each and reduce the disadvantages.

Empowerment and Leadership-subordinate Relationship

Within the literature, there has been shown to be a clear link between empowerment and the concept of Leader-Member Exchange (Keller, & Dansereau, 1995), which individualizes leader-subordinate relationships. Aryee and Chen (2006) sought to demonstrate that LMX quality directly relates to empowerment, finding a direct correlation between high LMX relationships and empowerment of subordinates. Harris et al (2009) also found a link between the constructs, establishing their interdependency, when related to task outcomes; recommending that supervisors should work towards improving LMX and empowerment activities with their subordinates. Ergeneli et al (2007) broke down the relationship and linked supervisor approachability, shared interests and emotional ties to an increased level of belief in their ability to make a difference, in the minds of their team. Boies and Howell (2006) stated that there was empirical evidence to show a link between LMX level and self-efficacy; given in the definitions for empowerment (Conger, & Kanungo, 1988), and recognizing that similar elements, such as respect, loyalty and mutual obligation exist between the constructs (Boies, & Howell, 2006). Within extant literature on both empowerment and LMX, authors consider the necessity of the relationship between the leader and their subordinate. The dynamics between the two are considered by many as a crucial factor in the empowerment process (Greasley, et al., 2005), recognizing the support and latitude given to employees (Kim, & George, 2005; Keller, & Dansereau, 1995). Trust is a big part of building that dynamic relationship (Sharkie, 2009; Ballinger et al., 2009; Gillespie, & Mann, 2004), as lack of trust reduces the risk-taking behavior of leaders who must delegate and empower their teams (Scandura, & Pellegrini, 2008). Bijlsma and Koopman (2003) claim that trust, in itself, is a key component in the offering of discretionary effort and the willingness to perform above expectations (Sharkie, 2009). This has been shown to be because it facilitates a less formal contract that allows for greater autonomy, choice and shows confidence in the worker (Klieman et al., 2000). Similarly, it has been shown that trust is linked to OCBs as trustworthy leaders create an environment that supports this kind of behavior (Zeinabadi, 2010). When this trust proliferates to the team the collectivism that occurs enhances the likelihood of OCB (Kwantes, 2008).

It has also been found that a link exists between empowerment and the intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction measured by the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Harris et al., 2009; Aryee, & Chen, 2006).

This leads to Proposition 1:

Individualized relationships with high quality exchanges, displaying significant trust, will directly increase empowerment and job satisfaction within the members of a team leading to OCB and engagement with CI.

Empowerment and Situational Leadership

The concept of Situational Leadership is enacted in phases that transition from *'directing'* to *'coaching'*, then progressing to *'supporting'* and ending at a *'delegating'* style, (Hersey, 2009). This process involves not only learning on the part of the worker, but also a level of empowerment, that progresses as the stages are moved through, until reaching the delegating phase where team members are sufficiently empowered, competent and confident to manage their own work (Blanchard, 2008). As this transition takes place, employees develop ownership and responsibility, and build trust with their leaders, as they are recognized as *'appreciating assets'* (Blanchard, 2009).

In their study, Sims et al (2009) found that empowerment also moved in stages and often depended on the criticality of the project and its due date, and was intrinsically linked to the experience of the workers. Also similar to situational leadership, it was recognized by Malone (1997) that, as employees begin to take on more responsibilities, leaders are becoming more like coaches rather than decision makers, as they observe and empower their team to fulfill these new roles.

This leads to Proposition 2:

As individual team members move through the leadership styles based on situation, ability and confidence, their level of empowerment and engagement rises.

Empowerment and Personality

Koberg et al (1999) recognized that many personal factors affect empowerment on the part of both the leader and subordinate (Ergeneli et al., 2007). These include *"age, gender, ethnicity, self-concept, self-esteem, self-efficacy, motivational needs, profession and cultural background"* (Koberg et al., 1999); those that come from the leader include approachability and influence, and dependability and integrity (Sharkie, 2009). Further studies have examined other factors that individualize workers, such as education. Hancer and George (2003) investigated the effects of level of education on empowerment; finding that those with less education had higher scores in the measurement of empowerment and meaning, contrary to the findings of earlier work. Ergeneli (2007) and Koberg et al (1997) also reported that status and position within in an organization had a significant effect on empowerment, with those considering themselves to be of higher status feeling more empowered, linking in to the power ascribed to the roles they held.

This leads to Proposition 3:

Personal factors, characteristics and background affect the potential level of empowerment in individual team members.

Empowerment and Creativity

Sims et al. (2009) found that, if a leader wishes to develop creativity in their team members, an empowering type of leadership is recommended. Individual empowerment has the potential for better skill utilization and innovative capabilities, which leads to increased motivation, loyalty and job satisfaction (Dainty et al., 2002). Empowered employees experience greater autonomy. This leads them to positively interpret events as opportunities, which also links to creativity (King & Gurland, 2007). Conger and Kanungo (1988) put forward the idea that empowerment was important for stimulating and managing innovation in organizations, and recognized that creativity remains even in times of disruption. This is especially useful when undergoing change within the workplace, when empowered team members can be a valuable source of ideas (Ergeneli et al., 2007).

The work of Sharkie (2005) investigated how an individual's perception of the organization in which they work affects their willingness to share ideas and knowledge. From his study, a model was developed showing that trust is the primary concept needed to develop a culture of sharing. Comprising the six components of security, employability, management, fairness, supportiveness and rewards (Sharkie, 2005); these elements mirror those required for creativity, thus establishing a link between the two constructs.

This leads to Proposition 4:

Creating a relationship based on trust will aid a leader in empowering individuals to fulfill their creative potential in the team and organization.

Leadership-subordinate Relationship and Situational Leadership

Both Hersey (2009) and Blanchard (2008), the original creators of the situational leadership model, acknowledged the need to individualize the relationship between the leader and subordinate, basing their actions primarily on the situation, but also recognizing the needs of the worker and adapting their behavior in line with this.

This leads to Proposition 5:

Learning more about an individual team member's skills, abilities and confidence levels will allow a leader to lead and empower their subordinates more effectively.

Leadership-subordinate Relationship and Personality

Dyadic leadership relationships are affected by the characteristics of the individuals on both sides of the relationship; equally by the personality of both the leader and subordinate (Sogruno, 1998). Asendorpf and Wilpers (1998), therefore, stated that it is important to examine the personality traits of both the leader and subordinate (Nahrgang et al., 2009). It is also the case that when a more social aspect develops in the relationship between the leader and team member OCBs are more likely to occur (Rubin, 2010).

This leads to Proposition 6:

Learning more about an individual team member's personality, interests and working preferences will allow a leader to lead and empower their members more effectively.

Leadership-subordinate Relationship and Creativity

Elkins and Keller (2003) recognized that the high quality exchanges, characteristic of high LMX relationships between a leader and subordinate, are important for creativity. High LMX leads to feelings of energy, which has led to greater involvement in creative work (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009) and has a positive effect on less creative individuals (Tierney, 1999). One author, in co-authorship with others over the years, has made significant contribution to the understanding of creativity and leadership. Amabile (1988; cited in Atwater & Carmeli, 2009), created the Componential Theory of Creativity, which showed that leaders have a direct influence on the creativity of their team members, through their supportive behaviors. Sharkie (2009), linked this to the perceptions the individuals have of the support being given, which influences ownership and competence and leads to more motivated and involved teams. It was found by Atwater and Carmeli (2009), that the benefits of a high LMX relationship are essential for workers to become involved in creative work.

This leads to Proposition 7:

Creating a supportive relationship with high quality exchanges leads to greater discretionary involvement in creative activities

Situational Leadership and Personality

Although no formalized link has been found between situational leadership and personality, it is proposed that one exists; albeit for what may be the wrong reasons. The stages within situational leadership that progress from *'directing'* to *'coaching'* and *'supporting'* to *'delegating'* are structured with the situation and an assessment of skills and competence in mind. However, these do not take account of the individual's personality. For instance, in the early stages it calls for the leader to direct, but some individuals may find this intimidating and may feel they are not forming a relationship with their leader; actually requiring the support and encouragement that comes at a later stage. It also does not take account of an individual's background and past experiences of leadership, or their demographic factors such as gender, age and ethnicity, all of which could lead to personal needs or expectations.

This leads to Proposition 8:

Learning more about an individual team member's personality, background and preferred leadership style will allow situational leadership to be applied appropriately and effectively.

Situational Leadership and Creativity

A link between situational leadership and creativity has yet to be established. It is again proposed that a link between the two constructs exists. By applying the correct style of leadership at the appropriate stage of development, negotiated between the leader and team member, should lead to a good working relationship, which in itself has been shown to facilitate creativity (Atwater & Carmeli, 2009). It is also thought that providing the right level of support, direction, coaching or delegation, would allow the individual to thrive, in any task they become involved in, which would include creative pursuits.

This leads to Proposition 9:

Applying the correct leadership style from the situational leadership model will facilitate creative activities in team members.

Personality and Creativity

Furnham and Bachtiar (2008) identified that within extant literature a consensus was emerging that creativity was linked to personality factors (e.g. Feist, 1998), as well as motivation and cognitive style. Csikszentmihalyi (1997) cited personal prerequisites for creativity, which include curiosity, patience and a willingness to take risks. Although characteristics such as openness to new experience, extraversion and low neuroticism were found to be congruent with creative individuals, Furnham and Bachtiar (2008) also discovered that only certain measures of creativity, such as divergent thinking, were linked to personality traits. Working with the 'Big Five' personality traits, Feist (1998) found that extraversion, openness and neuroticism were positively related to creativity, whereas agreeableness and conscientiousness were negatively related.

Teamwork has been seen to contribute to creativity in the workplace, but particular care must be taken with the mix of people who make up the team (Partington & Harris, 1995). Belbin's (1981) assessment of team roles feeds into this idea; with an ideal team requiring more than just the Plant, which is characterized by Belbin as creative (Belbin Associates, 2010), but a mix of the other roles that support creativity and facilitate taking the ideas into real solutions. The Plant role is considered as embedded into a team to improve creativity and inspire other team members (Titterington, 2010). However, Augsdorfer (2008) found only 5-10% of people working in research and development can be considered to be truly creative, in what would usually be considered as a creative role. This highlights an even greater need to recognize the contribution that the other eight team roles have in the creative process, and to give them a chance to flourish and contribute both creatively and supportively in the team environment (Augsdorfer, 2008).

This leads to Proposition 10:

Recognizing the personality traits and team role preferences of all individual team member's, and the contribution they can make, will lead to more successful creative CI outcomes within a team.

Synergistic Effects of Applying Multiple Constructs

Merit has been shown for each of the individual constructs and links have been found between most. However, it is proposed that the real benefit for organizations, leaders and team members will be gained from the synergistic effects resulting from applying and investigating each construct, with respect to the individual subordinates of a leader. Application of the constructs in this way are believed to increase the likelihood of creating the optimal conditions for OCB in terms of its antecedents labeled by Van Dyne (1995) as affective states, individual differences and situational factors. This will lead to greater involvement, engagement and a willingness on the part of individual team member's to offer discretionary OCBs.

A model has been developed to show the relationship of the application of each construct to the benefits gained by utilizing each construct simultaneously (Figure 2).

It has clearly been shown that getting to know each person individually can facilitate not only the formation of a high quality relationship with all its benefits, but also create an understanding that will allow the leader to effectively support, direct or delegate an individual and their tasks. The creativity required for continuous improvement is only truly present in some individuals, but recognizing the strengths of each will allow them to become involved in creative activities that they feel comfortable, valued in and rewarded by. Treating people as individuals, building relationships and recognizing their strengths, growing abilities and confidence levels will allow a leader to empower subordinates, finding the right time to begin increasing responsibility when the person is most receptive and enthusiastic to become involved.

Directions for future research

The model sets out to link the primary concepts involved in the relationships between the individual and the supervisor that impact on employee engagement within CI programs, this is however, by no means exhaustive in terms of everything an organization can do to involve and engage employees. Further work could be done to examine the effects of more environmental factors that exist around the CI program, such as organizational culture, routines and the nature of the work. There are also further psychological/sociological issues that may impact on the process, such as work-life balance, ambition, self-esteem and friendships which could influence an individual's decision to engage with an additional task like CI.

In order to test the model and the links shown, the next phase would be to utilize both existing quantitative tools and qualitative methods to measure and analyze the views of individuals currently taking part in a CI program. Establishing the links and recognizing the information that is needed to provide useful feedback to organizations is required to inform and advise managers on how to best support and encourage their workers to achieve the best results for all.

This will lead to the design of a bespoke quantitative tool that provides the important information on all of the constructs identified, which together with supporting training materials will meet a need identified by industry that is currently unfulfilled.

Acknowledgment

Understanding of an individual's personality and background facilities an understanding of their perceptions and confidence in their abilities and allows them to flourish in their chosen team role

Personality types – Team roles
Learn about each subordinate as an individual
Understand their background, personal characteristics and preferred supervision style
Assess natural team role preferences to facilitate full, meaningful involvement in projects

Understanding personality traits and assessing natural team roles will allow all individuals to play an effective and valued role in the CI process

Creativity
Look for an individual's talents and strengths
Recognise that not all people are naturally creative
Ensure all CI initiatives have support roles that drive the creative ideas to practical solutions and make all staff feel involved and valued

Empowerment, Motivation, Trust
Build trust between leader and each subordinate,
Motivate by encouragement, recognition and rewards
Empower staff by recognising skill, ability and willingness to take on responsibility

Empowerment of individuals leads to autonomy and optimism which leads to creativity
Feelings of trust lead to greater sharing of ideas

High quality exchanges energise subordinates which leads to greater involvement in CI
Perception of leader support promotes motivation and engagement with CI

Moving through the situational leadership stages leads to empowerment as the support, becomes delegation
Individuals become more able and likely to engage with CI activities

Facilitates building of high LMX relationship, provides context, knowledge, understanding and can identify shared interest, beliefs and ideals

Learning about personality, experience and considering individual factors allows the leader to appropriately choose the correct leadership style and apply it with the subordinate

Applying the correct leadership style in negotiation with subordinates allows them to work comfortably and engage with the CI tasks at their own level

Increased feeling of making a difference, greater autonomy and job satisfaction
Better relationship allows leader to trust subordinate with added responsibility and freedom

Leader/subordinate relationship- LMX
Treat every subordinate as an individual
Build a relationship with each, so that both feel connected and loyal to the team and the organisation
Work together as a partnership

A good relationship will facilitate true understanding or skills, abilities and confidence to move an individual through the stages of leadership style based on each situation as it presents

Leadership style – Situational Leadership
Recognise the skills, abilities, confidence level and willingness to take on responsibility of an individual so that an accurate assessment of leadership style can be made for each situation
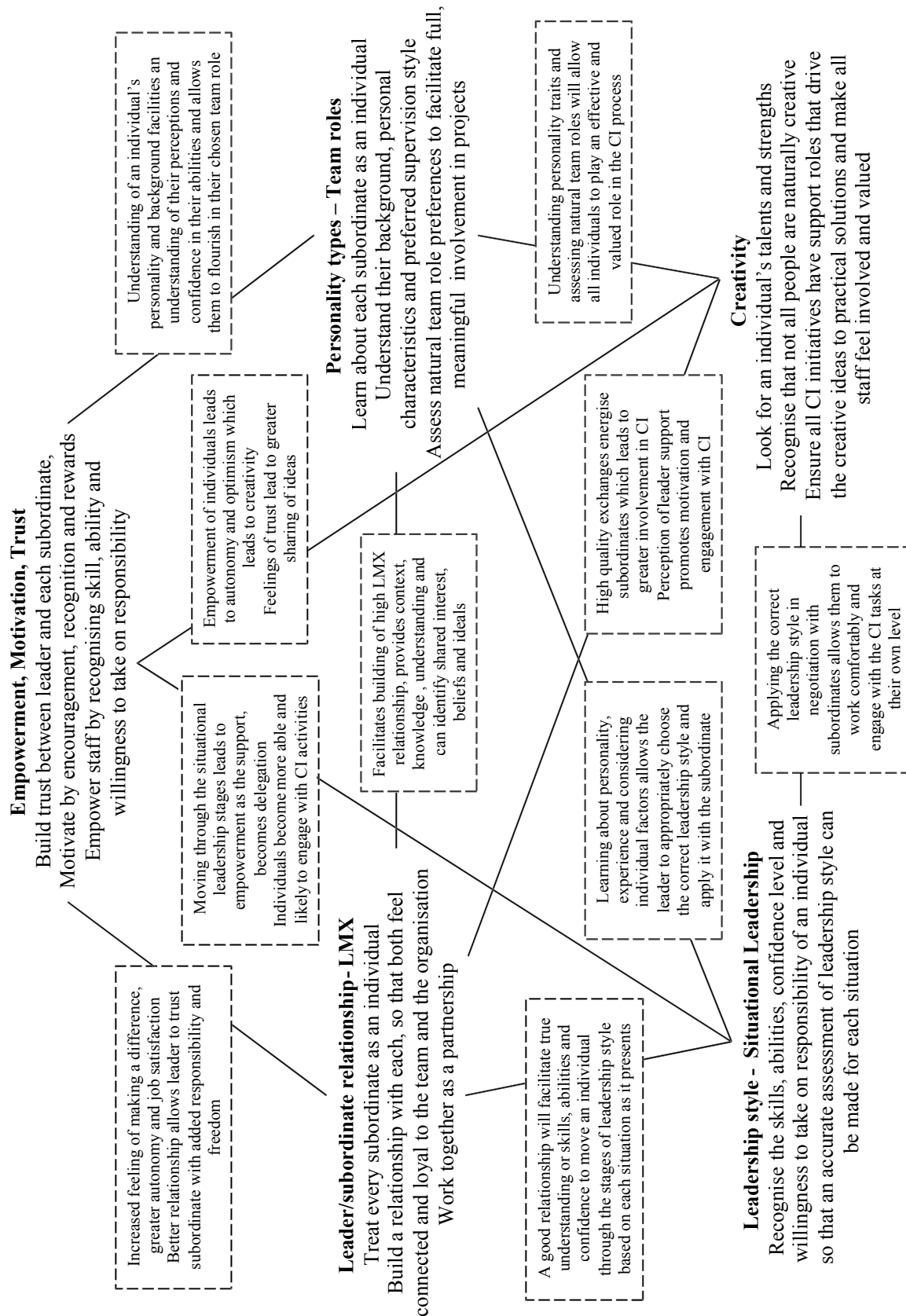
Figure 2: Synergistic Model of the interlinking factors that have the potential to increase engagement of employees in OCBs and improve continuous improvement

References and Notes

Adair, J. (1986). *Effective Teambuilding*, Aldershot: Gower Publishing Co. Ltd.

Amabile, T. M. (1988). A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. In Staw, B. M., & Cummings, L. L. (Eds.) Research in organizational behavior, Vol. 10. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Amabile, T.M. (1997). Motivating creativity in organizations. *California Management Review*, Vol. 40, (1), pp. 22-26

Amabile, T.M., Conti, R., Coon, H., Lazenby, J., & Herron, M. (1996). Assessing the work environment for creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 39(5), pp. 1154-1184.

Aryee, S. & Chen, (2006). Z.X. Leader-member exchange in a Chinese context: Antecedents, the mediating role of psychological empowerment and outcomes. *Journal of business research*, Vol. 59, pp. 793-801.

Asendorpf, J.B., & Wilpers, S. (1998). Personality effects on social relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 74(6), pp. 1531-1544.

Atwater, L. & Carmeli, A. (2009). Leader-member exchange, feelings of energy and involvement in creative work. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 20, pp. 264-275.

Augsdorfer, P. (2008). Managing the unmanageable. *Research-Technology Management*, 5 Vol. 1 (4), pp. 41-47.

Balderson, S.J., & Broderick, A.J. (1996). Behaviour in teams: Exploring occupational and gender differences" *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Vol. 11(5), pp. 33-42.

Ballinger, G.A., Schoorman, F.D., & Lehman, D.W. (2009). Will you trust your new boss? The role of affective reactions to leadership succession. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 20, pp. 219-232.

Bateman, T.S. & Organ, D.W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 26, pp. 587-595

Batey M., Furnham, A. & Safiullina, X. (2010). Intelligence, general knowledge and personality as predictors of creativity. Learning and Individual Differences. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2010.04.008

Belbin, R.M., (1981). *Management Teams: Why They Succeed or Fail*. London: Heinemann.

Belbin, R.M. (1993). A reply to the Belbin team role Self-Perception Inventory by Furnham, Steele & Pendleton" *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* Vol. 66, pp. 259-260.

Belbin Associates. (2010). What are Belbin Team Role profiles? available online (accessed 08 Jan. 10) http://www.belbin.com/rte.asp?id=10

Benkhoff, B. (1997). Disentangling organizational commitment. *Personnel Review*, Vol. 26(1/2), pp. 114-131.

Bettencourt, L.A. (2004). Change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviors: the direct and moderating influence of goal orientation, *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 80, pp. 165-180

Bijlsma, K., & Koopman, P. (2003). Introduction: trust within organizations. *Personnel Review*, Vol. 32(5), pp. 543-555.

Blanchard, K. (2008). Situational Leadership: Adapt your style to their development level. *Leadership Excellence*, Vol. 19.

Blanchard, K. (2009). The changing face of management. *Manager*. pp. 22-23.

Blanchard, K., & Johnson, S. (2003). *The one minute manager*. London: Harper Collins.

Blanchard, K., Zigarmi, P,. & Zigarmi, D. (2004). Leadership and the one minute manager. London: Harper Collins.

Boies, K. & Howell, J. M. (2006). Leader–member exchange in teams: An examination of the interaction between relationship differentiation and mean LMX in explaining team-level outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly,* Vol. 17, pp. 246–257.

Bolino, M.C.; Turnley, W.H.; & Niehoff, B.P. (2004). The other side of the story: Re-examining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behaviour, *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 14, pp. 229–246

Bowler, W. M.; Halbesleben, J R.B.; & Paul, J.R.B. (2010). If you're close with the leader, you must be a brownnose: The role of leader–member relationships in follower, leader, and co-worker attributions of organizational citizenship behavior motives, *Human Resource Management Review,* Vol. 20, pp. 309–316

Broucek, W., & Randell, G. (1996). An assessment of the construct validity of the Belbin Self-Perception Inventory and Observer's Assessment from the perspective of the five-factor model. *Journal of Occupational and Organisational Psychology,* Vol. 69, pp. 389-405.

Cogliser, C.C., Schriesheim, C.A., Scandura, T.A., & Gardner, W.L. (2009). Balance in leader and follower perceptions of leader-member exchange: Relationships with performance and work attitudes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 20, pp. 452-465.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The Empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 13(3), pp. 471-482.

Cropanzano, R. & Mitchell, M.S. (2005). Social Exchange Theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 31, pp. 874-900.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. & Sawyer, K. (1995). Creative insight: The social dimensions of a solitary moment. in *The Nature of Insight*, Sternberg, R.J. & Davidson, J.E. (Eds.) Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press, pp. 329–364.

Csikszentmihalyi, M., (1996). Creativity. Harper-Collins: New York, p146.

Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1997). *Finding Flow: The Psychology of Engagement with Everyday Life*. New York: Basic Books.

Dainty, A.R.J., Bryman, A., & Price, A.D.F. (2002). Empowerment within the UK construction sector. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 26(3), pp. 333-342.

Davies, M.F., & Kanaki, E. (2006). Interpersonal characteristics associated with different team roles in work groups. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Vol. 21(7), 638-650.

Davis, J., Millburn, P., Murphy, T., & Woodhouse, M. (1992). Successful Team Building: How to Create Teams that Really Work, London: Kogan Page.

Devi, V.R. (2009). Employee engagement is a two-way street. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, Vol. 17(2), pp. 3-4

Dhingra, D. (2002). Spot the Skipper. *The Guardian*, July 22.

Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhodes, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organisational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 87(3), pp. 565-573.

Elkins, T., & Keller, R. T. (2003). Leadership in research and development organizations: A literature review and conceptual framework. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 14, pp. 587–606.

Ergeneli, A., Arı, G. S., & Metin, S. (2007). Psychological empowerment and its relationship to trust in immediate managers. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 60, pp. 41–49.

Feist, G.J. (1998). A meta-analysis of personality in scientific and artistic creativity. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, Vol. 2(4), pp. 290-309.

Fisher, S.G., Hunter, T.A., & Macrosson, W.D.K. (2002). Belbin's team role theory: For non-managers also? *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Vol. 17(1), pp. 14-20.

Fisher, S.G., Macrosson, W.D.K., & Sharp, G. (1996). Further evidence concerning Belbin team role Self-Perception Inventory. *Personnel Review,* Vol. 25(2), pp. 61-67.

Ford, C.M. (1996). A theory of individual creative action in multiple social domains. *Academy of Management Review,* Vol. 21, 4, pp. 1112-1142.

Furnham, A., & Bachtiar, V. (2008). Personality and intelligence as predictors of creativity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, Vol. 45, pp. 613–617.

Gillespie, N. A., & Mann, L. (2004). Transformational leadership and shared values: The building blocks of trust. *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Vol. 19(6), pp. 588-607.

Graeff, C. L. (1983). The situational leadership theory: A critical view. *Academy of Management Review,* Vol. 8(2), pp. 285-291

Greasley, K., Bryman, A., Dainty, A., Price, A., Soetanto, & King, R. N. (2005). Employee perceptions of empowerment. *Employee Relations,* Vol. 27(4), pp. 354-368.

Gruber, H.E. (1989). The evolving systems approach to creative work. In *Creative People at Work*, Wallace, D.B. & Gruber, H.E. (Eds.) Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 3–24.

Hackman, R., & Oldham, G.R. (1980). Work Redesign. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Hancer, M. & George, R. T. (2003). Psychological empowerment of non-supervisory employees working in full-service restaurants. *Hospitality Management,* Vol. 22, pp. 3–16

Harris, K.J., Wheeler, A.R. & Kacmar, K.M., (2009). Leader-member exchange and empowerment: Direct and interactive effects on job satisfaction, turnover intentions and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 20, pp. 371-382.

Henry, S.M., & Stevens, K.T. (1999). Using Belbin's leadership role to improve team effectiveness: An empirical investigation. *The Journal of Systems and Software*, Vol. 44, pp. 241-250.

Hersey, P. (2009). Situational Leaders: Use the model in your work. *Leadership Excellence,* 12.

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1969). Life cycle theory of leadership. Training and Development Journal, Vol. 23(2), pp. 26-34.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). Management of Organizational Behavior – Utilizing Human Resources. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. (1996). Great ideas. Training & Development, pp. 42-47

Hewett, T.T. (2005). Informing the design of computer-based environments to support creativity. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, Vol. 63(4-5), pp. 383-409.

Ilies, R.; Nahrgang, J.D.; & Morgeson, F.P. (2007). Leader–Member Exchange and Citizenship Behaviors: A Meta-Analysis, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 92(1), pp. 269–277

Johansen, B. C. P. (1990). Situational Leadership: A Review of the Research. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, Vol. 1, pp. 73-85

Katragadda, G. (2006). Organizational and individual innovation practices in industrial research. *Proceedings of the 2006 IEEE International Conference on Management of Innovation and Technology*. Singapore.

Keller, T., & Dansereau, F. (1995). Leadership and empowerment: A social exchange perspective, *Human Relations,* Vol. 48(2), pp. 127-45.

Kim, B.P., & George, R.T. (2005). The relationship between leader-member exchange (LMX) and psychological empowerment: A quick casual restaurant employee correlation study. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 29(4), pp. 468-483.

Kim, S.; O'Neill, J. W.; & Cho, H.-M. (2010). When does an employee not help coworkers? The effect of leader–member exchange on employee envy and organizational citizenship behaviour, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 29, pp. 530–537

King, L. & Gurland, S. T. (2007). Creativity and experience of a creative task: Person and environment effects. *Journal of Research in Personality*, Vol. 41, pp. 1252–1259.

Klieman, R.S., Quinn, J.A., & Harris, K.L. (2000). The influence of employee-supervisor interactions upon job breadth. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 15(6), pp. 587-605

Koberg, C. S., Wayne Boss, R., Senjem J. C., & Goodman, E. A. (1999). Antecedents and outcomes of empowerment: Empirical evidence from the health care industry. *Group & Organization Management,* Vol. 24, pp. 71-91

Kofoed, L.B., Gertsen, F., & Jørgensen, F. (2002). The role of CI and learning in an organizational change process: Experiences from a longitudinal study of organizational change. *Integrated manufacturing Systems*, Vol. 13(3), pp. 165-175.

Kratzer, J., Leenders, R.T.A.J. & van Engelen J.M.L. (2005). Informal contacts and performance in innovation teams', *International Journal of Manpower,* Vol. 26(6)**,** pp. 513-528.

Kwantes, C.T.; Karam, C.M.; Kuo, B.C.H.; & Towson, S. (2008). Culture's influence on the perception of OCB as in-role or extra-role, *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 32, pp. 229–243

Lee, M., & Koh, J. (2001). Is empowerment really a new concept? *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 12(4), pp. 684-95.

Mahdiuon, R.; Ghahramani, M.; & Sharif, A.R. (2010). Explanation of organizational citizenship behavior with personality, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 5, pp. 178–184

Malone, T. W. (1997). Is 'empowerment' just a fad? Control, decision-making, and information technology. *Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 38(2), pp. 23-35.

Margerison, C., & McCann, D. (1990). *Team Management*, London: W.H. Allen.

Mazibuko, N.E., & Boshoff, C. (2003). Employee perceptions of share ownership schemes: An empirical study. *South African Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 34(2), pp. 31-45.

McCrimmon, M. (1995). Teams without roles: Empowering teams for greater creativity. *Journal of Management Development,* Vol. 14(6), pp. 35-41.

McEwan, A. M., Sackett, P. (1998). The human factor in CIM systems: Worker empowerment and control within a high-volume production environment. *Computers in Industry*, Vol. 36, pp. 39–47.

McLain, D., & Hackman, K. (1999). Trust, risk and decision making in organisational change. *Public Administration Quarterly*, Vol. 23(2), pp. 152-176.

Mishra, A. K. & Spreitzer, G. M. (1998). Explaining how survivors respond to downsizing: The roles of trust, empowerment, justice, and work redesign. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 23(3), pp. 567-588.

Morton, S. C., & Burns, N. D. (2008). Understanding and overcoming resistance to innovation, in Creating Wealth from Knowledge: Meeting the Innovation Challenge, Bessant, J., & Venables, T. (Eds.) Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Nahrgang, J.D., Morgeson, F.P., & Ilies, R. (2009). The development of Leader-member exchanges: Exploring how personality and performance influence leader and member relationships over time. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, Vol. 108, pp. 256-266.

Northouse, P.G. (2007). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. London: Sage Publications

Oğuz, E. (2010). The relationship between the leadership styles of the school administrators and the organizational citizenship behaviours of teachers, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences,* Vol. 9, pp. 1188–1193

Oke, A. (2007). Innovation types and innovation management practices in service companies. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, Vol. 27(6), pp. 564-587.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational Citizenship Behavior - The Good Soldier Syndrome*. (1st Ed.). Lexington, Massachusetts Heath and Company, Toronto

Organ, D.W. (1990). The Motivational basis of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, *Research on Organisational Behaviour*, Vol. 12, pp. 43-72

Organ, D.W. (1994). Personality and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, *Journal of Management,* Vol. 20, (2), pp. 465-487

Partington, D., & Harris, H. (1995). Team role balance and team performance: An empirical study. *Journal of Management Development,* Vol. 14(6), pp. 35-41.

Perel, M. (2002). Corporate courage: Breaking the barrier to innovation. R*esearch Technology Management*, Vol. 45(3), pp. 9-17.

Pirola-Merlo, A., & Mann, L. (2004). The Relationship between Individual Creativity and Team Creativity: Aggregating across People and Time. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, Vol. 25(2), pp. 235-257.

Pritchard, J.S. & Stanton, N.A. (1999). Testing Belbin's team role theory of effective groups. *Journal of Management Development,* Vol. 18(8), 652-665.

Quinn R. E., & Spreitzer, G. M. (1997). The road to empowerment: Seven questions every leader should consider. *Organizational Dynamics,* pp. 37-49.

Richards, L. (1995). Empowerment and trust key to partnerships. *The TQM Magazine*, Vol. 7(1), pp. 38-41.

Robbins, T.L., Crino, M.D., & Fredendall, L.D. (2002). An integrative model of the empowerment process. *Human Resource Management Review*, Vol. 12, pp. 419–443.

Rubin, R.S.; Bommer, W.H.; & Bachrach, D.G. (2010). Operant leadership and employee citizenship: A question of trust?, *The Leadership Quarterly,* Vol. 21, pp. 400–408

Scandura, T.A. & Pellegrini, E.K. (2008). Trust and leader-member exchange: A closer look at relational vulnerability. *The Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies,* Vol. 15(2), pp. 101-110

Senior, B. (1997). Team roles and team performance: Is there 'really' a link? *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* Vol. 70, pp. 241-258.

Sharkie, R. (2005). Precariousness under the new psychological contract: the effect on trust and the willingness to converse and share knowledge. *Knowledge Management Research and Practice*, Vol. 3, pp. 37-44.

Sharkie, R. (2009) Trust in leadership is vital for employee performance. *Management Research News*, Vol. 32(5), pp. 491-498.

Shekerjian, D. (1990). Uncommon Genius. Penguin Books, New York.

Sims Jr., H. P., Faraj, S., & Yun, S. (2009). When should a leader be directive or empowering? How to develop your own situational theory of leadership. *Business Horizons*, Vol. 52, pp. 149-158.

Sogruno, O.A. (1998). Leadership effectiveness and Personality Characteristics of group members. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(3), pp. 26-40.

Sommerville, J., & Dalziel, S. (1998). Project teambuilding – the applicability of Belbin's team-role self-perception inventory. *International Journal of Project Management*, 16(3), 1 pp. 65-171.

Spencer, J., & Pruss, A. (1992). Managing Your Team, London: Piatkus

Spreitzer, G. M., (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 38(5), pp. 1442-1465

Swanson, D.X. Requisite conditions for team empowerment, Empowerment in Organizations, Vol. 5(1), 1997, pp. 16-25.

Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 15(4), pp. 666-681.

Tierney, P. (1999). Work relations as a precursor to a psychological climate for change. *Journal of Operational Change Management*, Vol. 12(2), 120-133.

Titterington, D. (2010). Build better teams: All team members play key roles. *Manufacturing-today.com,* pp. 22-23.

Tse, H.H.M., Dasborough, M.T., & Ashkanasy, N.M. (2008). A multi-level analysis of team climate and interpersonal exchange relationships at work. *The Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 19, pp. 195-211.

van de Water, H., Ahaus, K., & Rozier, R. (2008). Team roles, team balance and performance. *Journal of Management Development,* Vol. 27(5), pp. 499-512.

van Dick, R.; van Knippenberg, D.; Kerschreiter, R.; Hertel, G.; Wieseke, J. (2008). Interactive effects of work group and organizational identification on job satisfaction and extra-role behaviour, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 72, pp. 388–399

Van Dyne, L., Cummings, L.L., & McLean Parks, J. (1995). Extra-role behaviors: In pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (A bridge over muddied waters). In B. M. Staw, & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 17, pp. 215–285. JAI Press, Greenwich

Varkey, P., Karlapudi, S.P., & Hensrud, D.D. (2008). The impact of a quality improvement program on employee satisfaction in an academic microsystem. *American Journal of Medical Quality*, Vol. 23(3), pp. 215-221.

Vecchio, R. (2005). Explorations in employee envy: Feeling envious and feeling envied. *Cognition and Emotion*, Vol. 19(1), 69-81.

Wang, G. & Lee, P. D. (2009). Psychological empowerment and job satisfaction: An analysis of interactive effects. *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 34(3), pp. 271-296.

Wanxian, L.; & Weiwu, W. (2007). A demographic study on citizenship behavior as in-role orientation, Personality and Individual Differences, Vol. 42, pp. 225–234

Weisberg, R. W. (1986). Creativity: Genius and Other Myths. New York: W. H. Freeman.

West, M. A., Sacramento, C. A. & Fay, D. (1990). Creativity and Innovation Implementation in Work Groups: The paradoxical role of demands, in West, M. A. and Farr, J. L. (Eds), Innovation and Creativity at Work: Psychological and Organizational Strategies, Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Woodcock, M. (1989). Team Development Manual, Aldershot: Gower Publishing Company Ltd.

Woodruffe, C. (2006). The crucial importance of employee engagement. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, Vol. 14(1), pp. 3-5

Zarraga, C. & Bonache, J. (2005). The impact of team atmosphere on knowledge outcomes in self-managed teams. *Organization Studies,* Vol. 26(5)**,** pp. 661-681

Zeinabadi, H. (2010). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) of teachers, *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 5, pp. 998–1003

Zhu, W., May D. R., & Avolio, B. J. (2004). The impact of ethical leadership behavior on employee outcomes: the roles of psychological empowerment and authenticity. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies,* Vol. 11(16), pp. 16-26

Getting Work Life Balance on Steady Ground: the Effects of 9/11 on Careers

Amy E. Hurley-Hanson, Cristina M. Giannantonio, Argyros School of Business and Economics, Chapman University, One University Drive, Orange, CA 92866, Phone: (714) 628-7312
Fax: (714) 532-6081, Ahurley@chapman.edu

Abstract

As we approach the 10 year anniversary of the 9-11 attacks, it gives us the occasion to reflect on the changes that have occurred in the past ten years. After the attacks there was much speculation by the popular press that Americans would change many aspects of their behaviors and attitudes. It has been commonly thought that Americans would become much more focused on their families and give up their obsession with climbing the corporate ladder. There have been many antidotal articles about people changing their careers completely to become more altruistic. The purpose of this study is to determine to what degree if any have people's behaviors, attitudes, or even careers changed as a result of the *9/11* terrorist attacks. This paper presents the results of an empirical study that surveyed whether employees in the United states of America have changed their attitudes and beliefs towards their careers as a result of the *9/11* terrorist attacks.

Introduction

As we approach the 10 year anniversary of the 9-11 attacks, it gives us the occasion to reflect on the changes that have occurred in the past ten years. After the attacks there was much speculation by the popular press that Americans would change many aspects of their behaviors and attitudes. It has been commonly thought that Americans would become much more focused on their families and give up their obsession with climbing the corporate ladder. There have been many antidotal articles about people changing their careers completely to become more altruistic.

Many individuals report being greatly affected by the tragedies of the *9/11* terrorist attacks. Whether it was an entire change in career or just wanting to spend more time with their family the *9/11* terrorist attacks have had an effect on people's lives. Some Americans made dramatic career changes as a result of *9/11*. Many Americans who have made career changes in the aftermath of *9/11* have switched to work in a helping profession. In an article in USA today Stephanie Armour states, "For more than six years, Angela Yoo worked to become a journalist. She studied communication in college, tackled internships and landed a job at InStyle magazine in New York. It was what she had always wanted. But all it took was one day for her to realize that she no longer wanted what she had. That day was Sept 11, 2001. The terrorist attacks in New York and Washington left Yoo wanting to do something that would help others. So in a dramatic career overhaul, she quit her hard-

won magazine job and joined the non-profit volunteer organization New York Cares" (p.1a).

Just like Angela Yoo, many Americans have begun to look at their priorities in life to examine what they really want and what is really important to them. Armour writes about the signs of the changing emphasis everywhere, "Teach for America, which places recent college graduates in urban and rural public schools, received 14,000 applications for its 2002 corps. That's the most in its 12 year history and nearly tripled the number received for *2001*. Organization officials credit the increase in part to renewed interest post-Sept 11" (p.1 a). In regards to Teach for America an article from the New York Times states, "Teach for America officials see their recruiting success as a sign of the post-9-11 generations' commitment to public service, and to improving the quality of education for low-income children. The application numbers we're seeing reflect college students' belief that education disparities are our generation's civil rights issue' said Elissa Clapp, Teach for America's vice president for recruitment and selection"(Lewin, 3).

A pentagon spokesman says that there has also been a jump in inquiries and recruiting visits since Sept 11. The Peace Corps also reported a spike in inquiries and online applications after Sept 11" (p.1 a). Both Teach for America as well as the Peace Corp are examples of helping professions that as a result of the *9/11* attacks have seen an increase in participants.

One profession that has really seen a large change as a result of *9/11* is the United States Military. As a result of the *9/11* terrorist attacks, many people felt compelled to join the military. PFC. William S. Baxter of the U.S. Army writes of his reaction to *9/11,* "On September 11, 2001, I watched the events of that horrific day unfold, knowing that I was going to enlist in the Army. If ever there was a time for it, it was now. Unfortunately I was injured in an unrelated incident, and due to the nature of my wound, I was not allowed to join for one more year. Another member of the United States Military Pfc. Thomas Sloan Roberts also writes of his reaction to the 9/11 attacks, "I decided to join the Army after 9/11. I was 31 years old, married with two children and had a very well paying job. The emotions that welled up inside me were incredible. I wanted to do my part as an American. I gave up many nice things to do what I am doing now. It's been a complete change of life, and I don't regret any of it, not for one moment" (www.defendame.com). These are two examples of people who were inspired, post 9/11, to join a type of helping profession and defend the United States of America.

Another example of someone who changed his career path due to 9/11 is Marc Mayes of Chattanooga. He originally moved to New York City to, "follow his fiancé's career path, but found a new calling himself as a physician's assistant in the aftermath of the Sept 11, 2001, terrorist attacks"(Galletta, 1). Mayes states, "I was working for Colonial Pipe and transferred within the company to New York City ... My second day on the job was Sept 11, 2001"(Galletta, 2). As a result Mayes and his fiancé began volunteering for the American Red Cross and carried workers, supplies and messages to and from Ground Zero. This sparked his career change of becoming a physician's assistant (Galleta, 2). Jan Galletta of the Chattanooga times also states, "Mr. Mayes isn't the only American for whom terrorist attacks of five years ago sounded a wake-up call, according to the

NASDAQ;MNST Investor Relations. The online financial planning source reports thousands of its money management clients redefined their work values as a direct result of the 2001 strikes. In its survey-based report, '9/11: A year later in the world of work, it notes that, for many, career emphasis shifted from security, money, power and advancement toward better work-life balance, job control and personal fulfillment"(p,2), Tim Kennan who was a purchasing manager working with hazardous agricultural chemicals has also changed his career. "Sept. 11 gave me the courage to do the right thing and spend more time with my son and find a job that was safer. I left a pretty secure job, with benefits and insurance. It's scary, but it's a part of growing up. I've realized you only have one life to live" (Armour, 1).

John Weaver states of these changes in careers and attitudes, "As a society, we have begun to place increased value on public service and on volunteerism. We've seen increased respect for the roles our police, fire/rescue emergency service personnel, and even the roles other health/human service workers play in our society. After 9/11, many Americans also did some serious rethinking about issues of work and money. Folks were asking themselves: "Did I pick the right job?" (and the right career); "Is it worth *it (*to put in so much overtime); and "Is this really what I want to do with my life?" Consequently, there were many "career transformations" due to post-9/11 introspection on employment issues" (p.1).

Post 9/11, Americans seem to focus more on Quality of life. Harry Gruber, CEO of Kintera, an internet marketing provider for non-profits states, "since *9/11,* there's a tremendous emphasis on family and community that wasn't there before'. I interview people and they say I am traveling too much and I want to be with family". Laura Berman Fortgang, author of Living Your Best Life states, "People are really searching. If you're not chasing money, what are you chasing? It sounds corny, but happiness is the new bottom line" (Armour, 3). Weaver states, "Since *9/11* we have seen dramatic changes in social relationships. Many people made major moves - some more quickly married than they had originally planned, others tired of unhappiness in their lives, separated or divorced. Many folks travel less and cocoon more - family time is more important to them. Finding time for small pleasures (like attending all kid's activities) is easier and people make sure to stay in closer touch with family members and friends. People say goodbye differently and many people physically moved back to communities they long considered their "real homes.""(p.1). Many Americans may not have changed careers entirely but seem to have changed their way of thinking about their own lives and personal goals.

The purpose of this study is to determine to what degree if any have people's behaviors, attitudes, or even careers changed as a result of the *9/11* terrorist attacks. This paper presents the results of an empirical study that surveyed whether employees in the United States of America have changed their attitudes and beliefs towards their careers as a result of the *9/11* terrorist attacks.

Methods

For the study we choose to target individuals in various industries to determine how people have changed their behaviors, attitudes, and occupations because of the events of *9/11*. One might speculate people will react to disasters by trying to figure out how they can help by changing their occupation to a more "helping profession". We asked a total of a 102 individuals over a two-week period to participate in filling out surveys. Participation in the survey was voluntary. There was no reward or incentive provided to participants for participation in the survey. In total, 102 surveys were returned, out of the 112 distributed, yielding a response rate of 91 percent. Two additional surveys, from the 102 returned surveys, were removed from the analysis because more than a quarter of the survey was not completed. The distribution of the surveys was hand delivered by three methods; to the employees at the companies of the four
authors of this article, nursing school students at California State San Bernardino, and to MBAIMSHRM students at Chapman University.

The respondents were asked to answer a total of 76 questions on the survey anonymously in order to produce truthful responses. Question one on the survey asked respondents to identify the industry they currently work in. Question two through eight required the respondent to select a response of yes or no. These questions were general in nature and mostly centered on identifying the physical location of the respondent on September 11, 2001, personal knowledge of someone killed in the terrorist attack of *9/11,* and occupational changes that occurred because of *9/11*. Question nine through seventy three had respondents indicate on a five-point Likert scale, whether in general, their lives changed because of the terrorist attacks of September 11,
2001. Question seventy four through seventy six asked respondents demographic information such as age, gender, and race. All questions were measured on a five-point Likert scale. Participants were asked to select a response ranging from "1" indicating a selection of "definitely no" and "5" indicating a selection of "definitely yes".

The final *100* surveys were used in the analysis of this paper. There were significantly more female than male (64 female, 36 male), a ratio of approximately 3 to 1. Approximately 84 percent of the participants in the survey had an average income level in the $26,000 to $75,000 bracket, with the majority (64 percent) of participants in the $26,000 to $50,000 range. The age of participants varied somewhat evenly between all ages with the exception of the age category less than 18 that yielded only two participants.

Results and Discussion

The first group of questions addressed whether or not the person was affected by *9/11* in some capacity. The results were an overwhelming 'No'. There were three questions that all people surveyed had a negative response. These questions were: (1) Because of *9/11,* I personally changed to a helping profession, (2) Were you near any of the center(s) affected by *9/11?* (3) Were you in New York City during *9/11?* The majority of the remaining

questions had a 'definitely yes' or 'definitely no' response with minimal variation to responses in between.

Seven questions that had 100 percent 'definitely no' responses. These questions were: (1) I have joined the Red Cross, (2) My desire for materialistic items has decreased, (3) I am more concerned with diversity, (4) I decided to start a family or increase my family size, (5) I became depressed and needed to seek medical help, (6) I changed my career objectives, and (7) My confidence in my company due to the crisis planning helped me get past *9/11*. The results of these questions were interesting because one would assume that the impact of *9/11* made the
nation see life in a different perspective but the results dramatically show otherwise. Instead, the responses to these questions show that a person's personal objectives still remain strong after the tragic events. The question that had the highest 'definitely yes' average was 'Meeting a deadline is important to me'. As a result this question shows that people are still motivated to meet objectives or goals and were not influenced by *9/11* in changing the timetable of a deadline. Additionally, demographics were asked as part of the survey. There were 64 females and 36 males. The majority age group was 46-55 years old and had an average income level of $26K-$50K per year. The participants used in the study varied from graduate level college students to the real estate and finance industry, healthcare, retail, and the biotechnology pharmaceutical industry sectors.

The results of the study were interesting. It did not show that there was an overwhelming interest in moving to a profession that directly helped other people. The respondents that were part of this survey did not indicate that there was a major shift in lifestyle and personal priority due to *9/11*. It is difficult to determine whether there was a shift of people changing their career paths to a 'helping' occupation because there was no 'pretest' measure that was taken for comparative purposes. Additionally, the term 'helping' was not clearly defined in the survey. This word can have different meaning to different individuals based on a person's culture, ethnicity, and up-bringing. The word 'helping' could mean to directly or indirectly affect. For example, a person that moved into healthcare can be seen as moving into a profession that directly helps a person whereas a person changing occupations to work in the pharmaceutical or biotechnology
industry can be seen as indirectly helping people. Therefore, in terms of the survey, without this clear definition of 'helping' being defined, there may be some ambiguity in the respondent's answers. Another key point in the results of the survey was that the demographics placed a significant influence on what the results concluded. The majority of applicants were female living in the western portion of the United States. Due to this, the applicants did not experience the tragedies of *9/11* first hand rather they experienced it through family and friends and the media. Many people living on the West Coast cannot imagine the experience the people actually had living on the East Coast. The results showed that many people are still motivated and driven to achieve the high professional goals that he or she had established prior to *9/11*. This survey shows that a shift towards family and personal importance has not completely taken place.
Another key piece to keep in mind when reviewing the results and looking at the data is that the information obtained was collected nine years after the *9/11* tragedy actually took place. While certain regulatory requirements have changed, especially in the aviation

industry, people that were surveyed may not have had the direct effects of this because the events were so far back. The participants may no longer feel the immediate effects of *9/11,* hence skewing the data. The
data did not reveal any direct impact in the lives of people surveyed but one must keep in mind that these individuals may have also became used to the effects of *9/11* as part of each person's life. With this said, it also raises further questions of whether or not people are beginning to forget about the events of *9/11?* Were people 'changed' differently according to geographic location?

References

America's Call to Action. (2004), Retrieved from www.defendamerica.mil.

Armour, S. (2002), "After 9/11 Some Workers Turn Their Life Upside Down" *USA Today,* p. 01A.

Changes Since 9/11 (2003), Retrieved from http://www.shrm.org/press/ntu_published/CMS_005497.asp.

Cohen, D. J. (2002), *HR Implications of the Attack on America: One year later.* Retrieved from http://www.shrm.org/hrresources/surveys_published/archive/HR%20Implications%20of%20the%20Attack%20on%America.pdf.

Delisi, L E., & Maurizio, A. (2003), A survey of New Yorkers after the Sept. 11, 2001, terrorist attacks [Electronic version]. *The American Journal of Psychiatry, 160(4),* pp. 780-783.

Fear Drives Americas Workforce. (2003), *Chicago Tribune.*

Fegley, S., and Victor, J. (2005), *2005 Disaster Preparedness Survey.* Retrieved from htlp:llwvvw.shrm.org/hrresources!surveys_published/2005%20Disaster%20P reparedness%20Survey%20Report.pdf.

Galletta, J. (2006), Changing Direction: Terrorist Strikes Drive A New Career. *Chattanooga Times and Free Press.*

Hurley-Hanson, A. E. (2006), Organizational Responses And Adaptations After *9-11. Management Research News,* 29(8), pp. 480-494.

Gallup Survey. (2002), Retrieved from http://www.bayerus.com/msms/news/pages/factsofscience/survey02.html.

Julie, J. (2006), *IN AFTERMATH, OPPORTUNITY.* Retrieved from Regional Business News (01496956).

Lewin, T. (2005), Options Open, Top Graduates Line Up to Teach to the Poor. *The New York Times,* pp. 1-26.

Lewin, T. (2004), Top Graduates Line Up To Teach To The Poor. *The New York Times,* p. 1.

Lockwood, N. R. (2005), C*risis Management in Today's Business Environment: HR's Strategic Role.* Retrieved from www.shrm.org/research/quarterly/captureIDs.asp?type=2005/1205/1205RQuart_essay.asp.

Moore, P. (2002), *College Students Believe Science And Technology Critical To The War On Terrorism.* Retrieved from EBSCOhost (1062-9351).

Roman, E. M. (2005), Terrorism Alter Outlook of Graduating Seniors. *Worcester Telegram and Gazette,* p. A1.

Study of *the effects* of *Resilience on September 11th by Crisis Planning* (2005), Retrieved from http://www.shrm.org/hrresources/surveys_published/12005%20Disaster%20Preparedness%20Survey%20Report.asp#P-7_0.

The meaning of work (2003), Retrieved from http://shrm.org/trends/visions/4issue2002/0702d.asp#fig3.

Weaver, J. (2006), Stories of September 11. Retrieved from www.911digitalarchive.org.

Survey

Thank you for participating in this survey. Since your answers will remain confidential, please answer truthfully.

The purpose of this survey is to evaluate changes in people's lives because of the terrorist attacks of Sept. 11, 2001.

Read each question carefully and circle the best possible answer as it applies to you.

Please circle just one answer:

1. *Which category best describes the industry you work in?*
   a. Agriculture
   b. Educational
   c. Construction
   d. Legal
   e. Government
   f. Retail/Wholesale
   g. Manufacturing

h. Transportation
  i. Finance/real estate
  j. Medical/health
  k. Other _____

For Questions 2-73, please circle a 'yes' or 'no' response:

2. Because of 9/11, I personally changed into a 'helping' profession If 'Yes', please specify the profession: _____	YES	NO
3. Were you near any of the center(s) affected by 9/11?	YES	NO
4. Were you in New York City on 9/11?	YES	NO
5. Did you know anyone killed or injured in 9/11?	YES	NO
6. My company had employees injured or killed in 9/11.	YES	NO
7. Because of 9/11, I know someone who has joined the military.	YES	NO
8. I have personally joined the military or know someone who has joined because of 9/11.	YES	NO

For questions 9-77, please circle the most appropriate response:

	Definitely 'No' 1	2	3	4	Definitely 'Yes' 5
9. My life has changed in some facet.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I changed my career.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I am more committed to my family.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I do not want to travel as much for pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I do not want to travel as much for business.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I feel nervous about violence at work.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My job is not my top priority in life anymore.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I have forgone climbing the corporate ladder to be more family oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I am more interested in politics.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I read the newspaper more.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I watch the news more.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I have joined a religion or participate more in religious activities.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I have gone back to school.	1	2	3	4	5

22. I have started spending my life savings.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I have started to save more money.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I have decided to pursue my lifelong dream.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I work fewer hours.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I volunteer my time more.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I now contemplate what my purpose in life is.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I have slowed down my pace in life.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I quit my job.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I have joined the American Red Cross.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I became certified in CPR and/or first aid.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I am less tolerant of the Arabic Culture.	1	2	3	4	5
33. If my employer offered me a position outside of the country, I would decline the position due to the fear of a terrorist attack.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I am less loyal to my employer.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I find myself not trusting others as much as I use to.	1	2	3	4	5
36. My desire for materialistic items has decreased.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I now have more flexible working hours.	1	2	3	4	5
38. My commitment to my employer is less.	1	2	3	4	5
39. I live for today rather than thinking of the long term.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I am more concerned with diversity.	1	2	3	4	5
41. I prefer to be in a job I love and make less money than in a job I dislike and make lots of money.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I decided to start a family or increase the size of my family.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I have changed my job to be closer to home.	1	2	3	4	5
44. My number one priority is my family.	1	2	3	4	5
45. My employer started a diversity program.	1	2	3	4	5
46. Being in a relationship is important.	1	2	3	4	5
47. My values have changed with what happened with 9/11.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Meeting a deadline is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I am involved with the community.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I became depressed and needed to seek medical help.	1	2	3	4	5
51. My family and friends are more important than work.	1	2	3	4	5
52. I registered to vote.	1	2	3	4	5
53. Happiness is more important than success.	1	2	3	4	5
54. Recognition is more important to me than compensation.	1	2	3	4	5
55. I am looking for secure and meaningful	1	2	3	4	5

experiences at work.					
56. I am more caring towards other employees.	1	2	3	4	5
57. I desire to work in an environment where managers care about me.	1	2	3	4	5
58. I fear that the work place is now a target for terrorist attacks.	1	2	3	4	5
59. I care about the well being of other people.	1	2	3	4	5
60. I have a genuine concern for other people.	1	2	3	4	5
61. I changed my career objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
62. My chosen line of work gives me a sense of well-being.	1	2	3	4	5
63. Compared to other areas of my life, my chosen line of work is not very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
64. If I were to rank all things that are important to me, I would rank work near the top.	1	2	3	4	5
65. My life goals are job oriented.	1	2	3	4	5
66. My company has an established plan in case of an emergency.	1	2	3	4	5
67. My confidence in my company due to the crisis planning helped me get past 9/11.	1	2	3	4	5
68. I am more concerned about security.	1	2	3	4	5
69. I am more caring towards others at work.	1	2	3	4	5
70. I am caring towards others in my personal life.	1	2	3	4	5
71. I have more emphasis on work/life balance.	1	2	3	4	5
72. I will cast a vote in the upcoming election for the president who promises to stop the war in Iraq.	1	2	3	4	5
73. I care about helping others.	1	2	3	4	5

74. *My gender is*
   a. Male
   b. Female

75. *My income level is*
   a. less than $25,000
   b. between $26K-$50,000
   c. between $51K-$75,000
   d. between $76K-$100,000
   e. more than $100,000

76. *My age is*
   a. less than 18
   b. between 18-25
   c. between 26-35
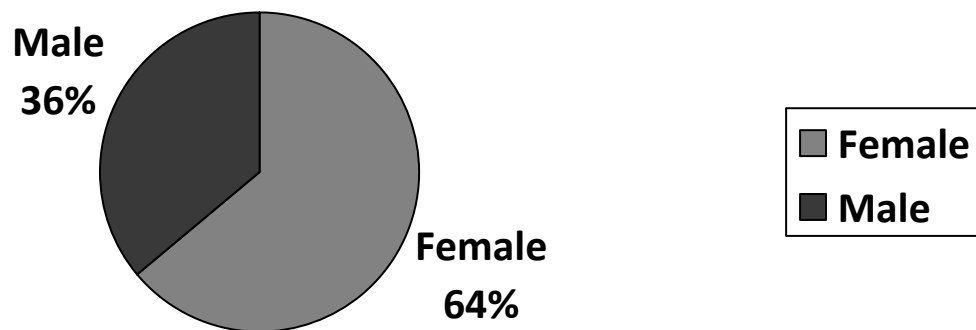   d. between 36-45
   e. between 46-55

f. more than 56

Thank you for your participation in our survey. You are entitled to a copy of the results by providing your email address: _____
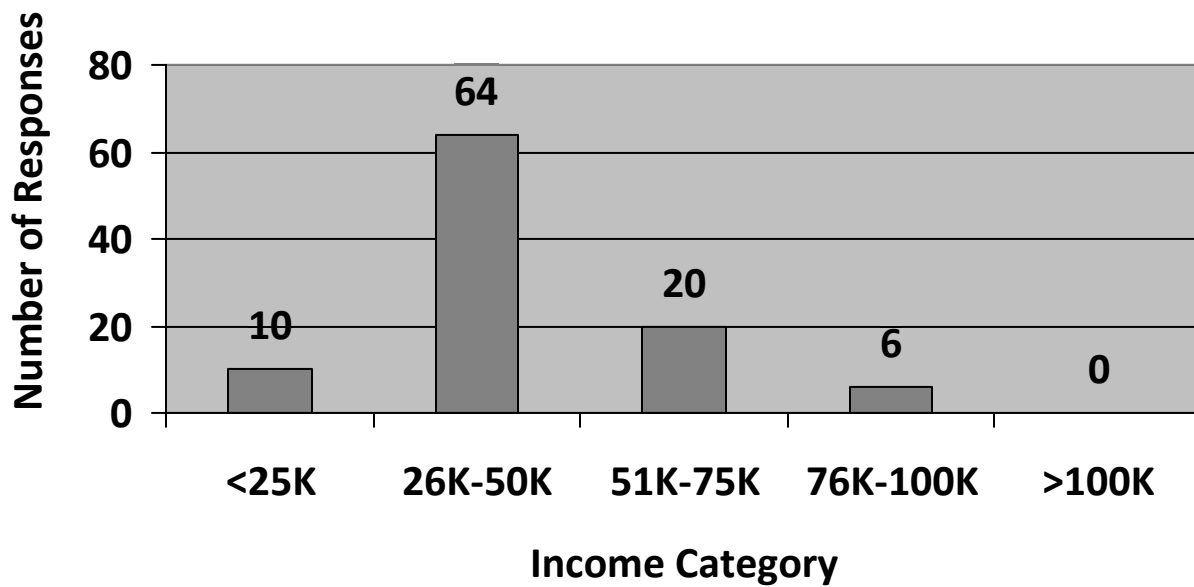
Results

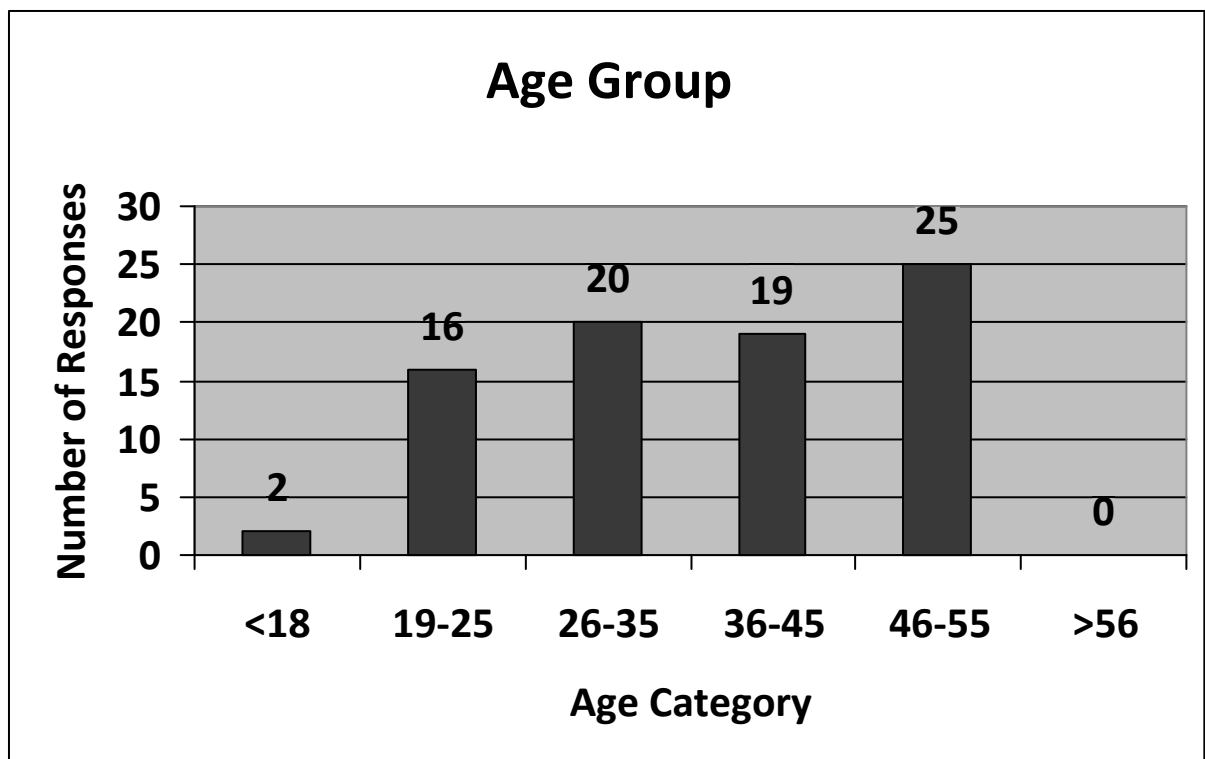|	%	%				Average
Because of 9/11, I personally changed into a 'helping' profession		100				2
Were you near any of the center(s) affected by 9/11?		100				2
Were you in New York City on 9/11?		100				2
Did you know anyone killed or injured in 9/11?	2	98				1.98
My company had employees injured or killed in 9/11.	1	99				1.99
Because of 9/11, I know someone who has joined the military.	19	81				1.81
I have personally joined the military or know someone who has joined because of 9/11.	6	94				1.94
	%NO	%	%	%	%YES	
My life has changed in some facet.	15	20	35	20	10	2.9
I changed my career.	80	0	0	0	20	1.8
I am more committed to my family.	0	0	2	12	86	4.84
I do not want to travel as much for pleasure.	5	18	50	17	10	3.09
I do not want to travel as much for business.	5	18	52	15	10	3.07
I feel nervous about violence at work.	20	18	22	32	8	2.9
My job is not my top priority in life anymore.	0	20	50	20	10	3.2
I have forgone the corporate ladder to be more family oriented.	20	25	25	25	5	2.7
I am more interested in politics.	15	15	10	10	50	3.65
I read the newspaper more.	15	15	10	10	50	3.65
I have joined a religion or participate more in religious activities.	10	5	15	40	30	3.75
I have gone back to school.	20	0	0	0	80	4.2
I have started spending my life savings.	80	0	0	0	20	2.4
I have started to save more money.	74	0	0	0	26	2.04
I have decided to pursue my life long dream.	45	0	32	2	21	2.54
I work fewer hours.	60	8	7	5	20	2.17
I volunteer my time more.	90	0	0	0	10	1.4
I now contemplate what my purpose in life is.	23	43	24	7	3	2.24
I have slowed down my pace in life.	25	45	25	3	2	2.12
I quit my job.	64	0	0	0	36	2.44
I have joined the American Red Cross.	100	0	0	0	0	1
I became certified in CPR and/or first aid.	94	0	0	0	6	1.24
I am less tolerant of the Arabic Culture.	15	3	72	10	0	2.77
Offer a position in another country, decline due to fear of terrorism	98	2	0	0	0	1.02
I am less loyal to my employer.	0	15	78	0	7	2.99

I find myself not trusting others as much as I use to.	23	23	46	4	4	2.43
My desire for materialistic items has decreased.	100	0	0	0	0	1
I now have more flexible working hours.	60	8	7	5	20	2.99
My commitment to my employer is less.	0	15	78	0	7	2.99
I live for today rather than thinking of the long term.	60	5	12	10	13	2.11
I am more concerned with diversity.	100	0	0	0	0	1
I prefer to be in a job I love than for money.	0	0	77	0	23	3.46
I decided to start a family or increase the size of my family.	100	0	0	0	0	1
I have changed my job to be closer to home.	98	0	0	0	2	1.02
My number one priority is my family.	0	0	0	2	98	4.92
My employer started a diversity program.	95	0	5	0	0	1.10
Being in a relationship is important.	78	2	5	3	12	1.69
My values have changed with what happened with 9/11.	81	4	8	0	7	1.48
Meeting a deadline is important to me.	0	0	0	4	96	4.96
I am involved with the community.	15	0	0	0	85	4.4
I became depressed and needed to seek medical help.	100	0	0	0	0	1
My family and friends are more important than work.	0	0	13	2	85	4.72
I registered to vote.	99	0	0	0	1	1.04
Happiness is more important than success.	0	0	5	0	95	4.9
Recognition is more important to me than compensation.	56	0	4	0	40	2.68
I am looking for secure and meaningful experiences at work.	0	12	35	45	8	3.49
I am more caring towards other employees.	0	18	50	4	28	3.42
I desire to work in an environment where managers care about me.	5	5	0	10	80	4.55
I fear that the work place is now a target for terrorist attacks.	98	0	2	0	0	1.04
I care about the well being of other people.	2	5	12	0	80	4.48
I have a genuine concern for other people.	2	5	12	0	80	4.48
I changed my career objectives.	100	0	0	0	0	1
My chosen line of work gives me a sense of well-being.	45	0	23	0	32	2.74
Compared to other areas of life, work is not as important	14	6	56	20	4	2.94
Rank all things inlife, I would rank work near the top.	20	25	25	25	5	2.7
My life goals are job oriented.	20	25	25	25	5	2.7
My company has an established plan in case of an emergency.	0	0	10	0	90	4.8
Confidence in my company due to crisis planning helped me w/ 9/11	100	0	0	0	0	1
I am more concerned about security.	20	5	5	5	70	4.15
I am more caring towards others at work.	2	5	12	0	80	4.48
I am caring towards others in my personal life.	2	5	12	0	80	4.48
I have more emphasis on work/life balance.	2	0	3	2	93	1.84
Vote for the president who promises to stop the war in Iraq.	20	10	40	0	30	3.1
I care about helping others.	2	5	12	0	80	4.48
My gender is	36 Male	64 Female				
My income is	A=10	B=64	C=20	D=6	E=0	
My age is	A=2	B=16	C=20	D=19	E=25	F=18

Gender

Male
36%

Female
64%

■ Female
■ Male

Income Level

Number of Responses

80

64

60

40

20

10

20

6

0

0

<25K   26K-50K   51K-75K   76K-100K   >100K

Income Category

Established in 1972, the American National Business Hall of Fame is a nonprofit education and research organization dedicated to creating an awareness and appreciation of exemploary business leadership. We research and seek to educate audiences on the management methods of our exemplary business leaders.

In our ANBHF Laureate program, we identify and induct outstanding American business leaders into the ANBHF. These exceptional business leaders' case histories offer the practical management techniques to which the Laureates and historians attribute their success. In addition, the laureates' lives provide inspiration -- to take risks, strive for excellence and to set high ethical standards.

The American National Business Hall of Fame program is managed by an executive office and a Board of Representatives from universities throughout the country.

The Journal of Business Leadership (JBL) is the official journal of the American National Business Hall of Fame (ANBHF). It is a multidiciplinary journal of interest to scholars, professionals, studeents, and practitioners in a broad range of management thinking. JBL offers peer-reviewed articles required that are anonymously reviewed by at least two scholars on the field to insure we meet the highest and most rigorous standards required by our reders.