ISSWOV
INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY
FOR THE STUDY OF
WORK & ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES

VALUES: AN ORGANIZATIONAL RESOURCE

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Values: An Organizational Resource

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PREFACE

Values in the workplace and society are coming under fire again. Recent events and the turn they take currently around the world beg the question – what are the values that we uphold today? Can we afford to turn a blind eye to those in suffering around us? Are our goals superordinate over what is valued by humanity? There will be no clear answers, but a quest to find them is going to be an important step in shaping our destiny or the future.

Like humans, organizations too are perplexed. May be they are bound to be so. Organizations today are reeling under pressure to perform because Darwinism and Population Ecology are probably working at their best. The demand to perform is so high that the consumers or customers are gasping for some reprieve, and then there are others in the same space who serve the clueless consumer and reap higher margins. At an abstract level, the answer is clearly emergent – we are what our values are. This is especially true when one infers or tests the linkage between core values and behaviours exhibited in the field.

At the heart of this debate is the issue whether organizations recognize their values and stand up to them when we are under test. Do they understand what their practiced values are, what is the gap vis-à-vis what they wanted to have? Having a set of values is one, but to know whether the organization is able to stand those values is another task. The former could be a conceptual exercise, an arm-chair attempt. The latter, however, would require serious conceptualization and measurement of how the values are governing the organizations. A measure for values based behaviour is particularly required, I would argue, for the organizations of tomorrow.

Several academic institutions and business organizations claim a strong set of values at the time of strategic thinking but the practice and upholding those values requires a different set of parameters and courage altogether. Most of the times the organization and their systems are so blinded by the pursuit of value incoherent results that the set of practiced values is sometimes far away from the desired set. Who is responsible for this deviation – the Organization? All the members in the system? Their inability to find a direction? The leadership?

As has been discovered, the times that go by remember us by our actions and judges us according to what the future would regard as values. This should don upon us the need to recognize that values are a resource, they need to be preserved, nurtured – only then shall we and our actions would be sustainable. If we and our organizations could add that as a value, and start working towards parameters that use values as a resource, our alignment with what we value would be absolute.

Several researchers from different countries around the world have explored questions outlined above. The result was a very rich ensemble of texts depicting variety of methodologies representing various parts of the world. It was heartening to see so much activity around values. There are seven parts in this book with several chapters in each part. These parts are based on themes collaboration, performance & satisfaction, motivation, interface of the organization and the employee, reviews or perspectives on the journey so far, and our future – the youth. There is a special section on Latin American studies. This section houses some of the studies rooted in a specific context yet valued for their strong learning potential and connect.

Some of the texts and ideas were personally very enriching. It was a privilege to go through them and put them together. I hope the readers too would find this quite enriching to suit their needs, raise some more thought and questions, and possibly, start a quest to obtain some answers.

Abhishek Goel

Kolkata: June 30, 2016

ABOUT ISSWOV

International Society for Study of Work and Organizational Values (ISSWOV) was founded in Budapest, 1988, by the participants of the first International Conference on Work Values organized by Professors Dov Elizur from Bar Ilan University, and Istvan Magyari-Beck, from the Budapest University of Economics.

ISSWOV aims to advance the study of work and organizational values and related aspects of the organization; to encourage the exchange of ideas and interaction among scholars engaged in these topics; to collect, generate, preserve, decipher, and disseminate data and information relating to work and organizational values, and to encourage and initiate publications concerning research on values.

ISSWOV organizes a conference every two years around June-July of the even year. The first international conference took place in June 1988 in Budapest, Hungary. Subsequent conferences were held in Prague (Czech Republic), Karlovy Vary (Czech Republic), Barcelona (Spain), Montreal (Canada), Istanbul (Turkey), Jerusalem (Israel), Warsaw (Poland), New Orleans (USA), Tallinn (Estonia), Singapore, Estoril-Lisbon (Portugal), Goa (India), and Riga (Latvia).

The organization publishes an internal newsletter twice a year. Also ISSWOV publishes the proceedings of the international conferences. It is affiliated with the International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management.

ISSWOV now has more than 700 members representing Argentina, Australia, Austria, Barbados, Belgium, Brazil, Bulgaria, Canada, Chile, China, Denmark, Ecuador, Estonia, Fiji, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hong Kong, Hungary, India, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Pakistan, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sri Lanka, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Ukraine, USA, Venezuela.

PART – 1
COLLABORATION AS RESOURCE

ANTECEDENCE OF TEAM PERFORMANCE IN A COMPLEX ENVIRONMENT

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Abstract

Team performance is the most important outcome of performing projects. The purposes of the study were to identify the different variables that affect team performance in a complex environment, to suggest a model of antecedents affecting team performance, and to empirically examine the proposed model.

An empirical examination was conducted among 1337 working students studying for an MBA that were involved in a computerized business simulation course with 226 self-managed teams that competed with each other.

The findings show that 5 variables explain 17% of the team performance: Work satisfaction of the team members, the conflict of obligations of the teammates, the team cohesiveness, the personal learning of the team members, and the personal interest of the team members in the project.

Introduction

Over the last few decades, various studies have emphasized the positive effect of work teams on organizational effectiveness and success. Teamwork in organizations has increased radically over the years as a response to competitive challenges (Cohen and Bailey, 1997; Spreitzer et al., 1999) and received vast attention in literature (McGrath, 1997; Sundstrom, McIntyre, Halfhill and Richards, 2000).

The participative management style of teams is becoming quite popular (Cook and Goff, 2002; Elloy, 2008). In self-managed teams work-team members are jointly responsible for their own work and project results (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). They have no official supervisors to direct their work and they must cooperate and coordinate with each other in order to effectively conduct project goals.

Team performance is a vital determinant and frequently used indicator of organizational outcome. Considering the incorporate autonomy (Langfred, 2000) it is interesting to investigate the effects of this collaborating work process on team performance.

The purposes of the current study were to identify the different variables that affect team performance in a complex environment, to suggest a model of antecedents affecting team performance, and finally to empirically examine the proposed model.

The following variables referring to the team members' attitudes will be considered as antecedents of team performance: work satisfaction, conflict of obligations, team cohesiveness, personal learning, and personal interest.

Work satisfaction

Project satisfaction is treated as an important attribution in organizational behavior (Weiss, 2002) and is correlated to performance (Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton, 2001). Satisfaction is connected to the emotional state of the team member, describes how members are content with his or her team and project and overall satisfaction is a reflection of personal experiences with the group and might affect member friendly behavior during meetings (Keyton, 1991). A satisfied member may interact and cooperate more with his or her team mates and so we expect

team cooperation to leads to personal satisfaction (Erez, Lepine and Elms, 2002). A group member overall satisfaction with the project and team will influence his or her work behavior and involvement in the project (Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes and Van Dick, 2007). It is predicted that interaction between involvement in the project and satisfaction can predict absenteeism behavior (Wegge et al., 2007).

Accordingly, we should expect satisfied and involved member to participate relatively more, contribute to team performance and be appreciated for his or her efforts. On the other hand, when team members are doing a fair share of the team's work, we should find social responsibility, reciprocity (Kerr, 1983) and team members' satisfaction should be higher (Erez, Lepine and Elms, 2002). Therefore we propose that work satisfaction will be positively correlated with team performance.

Conflict of obligations

The teammate is also confronted with demotivating factor, which reduces his relative participation and commitment. Here we treat the concept as *conflict of obligations*. The literature suggests some expressions of conflict of obligations. Established conflict is known as work-family conflict or family-work conflict. This conflict is related to all workers; however, it is more common among parents who exhibit double career (Bakker et al., 2005). This conflict is created when both work and family are competing on the individual limited resources - time, energy and the like (Evans and Bartolome, 1986). Work-family conflict can be defined as a tension between two competing functions the individual is fulfilling as being a worker and a family person (Carlson et al., 2000).

The conflict is assumed to reduce the team performance. We therefore propose that conflict of obligations negatively relates to team performance.

Team cohesiveness

Team cohesiveness is a reflection of personal experiences with the group environment. Cohesiveness means interaction and cooperation among team members. Barrick, Stewart, Neubert and Mount (1998) found positive correlation between social cohesion and workload sharing. Erez, Lepine and Elms (2002) found also a positive relationship between cooperation and workload sharing.

Furthermore, cohesion motivates high learning climate were effective communication and sharing knowledge among members towards effective adaptability of the project (Townsend and DeMarie, 1998). Cooperation and a good relationship among the team members might result in a more caring and committed relationship between the members. Commitment to the team increases members' satisfaction with teammates and their willingness to help team members and improve team results (Bishop and Scott, 1997). Commitment and satisfaction creates a work environment where members are more involved in their project, have more interest in its success (Elmuti, 1996), and are satisfied with their work (Wageman, 1997).

Teamwork quality with team cohesion as one of its components was found to be positively correlated with subjective team performance (Hoegl and Gemuenden, 2001). We therefore propose a positive correlation between cohesiveness and team performance.

Personal learning

Teamwork provides the opportunity to collaborate with other people and to learn new things – social, project management, technical, and creative skills (Hoegl and Gemuenden, 2001).

Acquisition of new skills relates to teammates' desire for personal and professional growth (Denison et al., 1996).

There is a vast literature demonstrating the benefits of active, hands-on learning that gives people the opportunity to directly put their knowledge to use (Kosnik et al., 2013). The core premise of experiential learning theory is that people learn best by acquiring new experiences and transforming these experiences into active and tacit knowledge (Kayes, 2002).

Many studies have emphasized the positive effect of teamwork and particularly in self-managed work-teams on organizational effectiveness and success. Learning is a vital determinant and frequently used indicator of organizational outcome. This outcome is the most important one when using experiential learning in education.

The success of teams in complex projects relates to a positive interdependency between the individual and its teammates. Personal learning is supposed to increase the team ability to perform well in the project and therefore to increase the team performance.

Personal interest

In the educational field research has found that personal interest increases learning (Schraw et al., 2001). Promoting personal interest increases students' intrinsic motivation to learn.

Involvement in the project reflects the interest members have referring to the team project. Members interested with team project have motivation to make more effort to achieve project goals; they will express themselves more and will exhibit cooperative behaviors and satisfaction. Therefore, we should expect a positive relationship between personal interest and team performance.

Study Hypotheses

Following the above arguments, we formulated the 5 study's hypotheses:

H1: There will be a positive relationship between work satisfaction of the teammates and team performance.

H2: There will be a negative relationship between conflict of obligations of the teammates and team performance.

H3: There will be a positive relationship between team cohesiveness perceived by the teammates and team performance.

H4: There will be a positive relationship between Personal learning of the teammates and team performance.

H5: There will be a positive relationship between Personal interest of the teammates and team performance.

Figure 1 illustrates the relationships suggested in this study.

Figure 1: Study model describing the antecedents of team performance
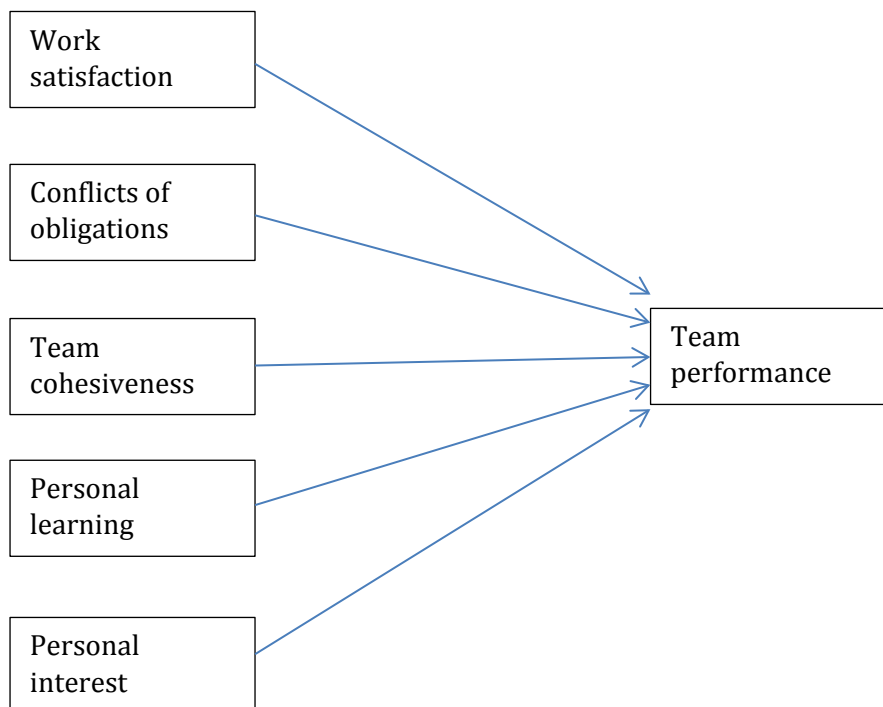
Method

Research Procedure

The study sample was composed of teams that were part of a business game seminar that was a part of the MBA studies. The participants were involved in a learning simulation of business management. They were organized into small teams, each team represented the management of one firm that interacted cooperatively and competed with other firms over several months. The teams were permanent during the management period and were required to operate in the dynamic hi-tech PC and chips industry. We used the Intopia B2B business simulation (Thorelli, Graves, & Lopez, 2005) with updated business scenarios as business environment. The main objectives were to develop the managerial and strategic skills, by practicing the abilities to manage a virtual global firm, operating in several international markets. The business position is influenced by the industry (other firms in the simulation), by the macro environmental conditions in the different areas, and by global economy conditions. Each management team was responsible for improving the firm's short-term and long-term performance, to create a competitive advantage in the dynamic arena in which it operates. This project is a complex one and not a routine project.

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 1337 graduate students, which were divided into 226 teams with an average of 5.9 team members per team. All participants were in their last year of an MBA program.

Most of the participants were males (63%).

Ages ranged between 21 and 62, with average age of 31.

The family status of the participants was: 40% single, 59% married, and 1% divorced.

Occupational status of the participants: 97% were working.

Their specialization track in the MBA program was: finance (31%), marketing (25%), information systems (23%), and management and organizational behavior (21%).

Measures

The study included two data sources.

The first was a written questionnaire the team members were asked to fill in at the middle of the simulation. The items included the 5 variables that were considered as antecedents of team performance: work satisfaction, conflict of obligations, team cohesiveness, personal learning, and personal interest.

The second data source was the teams' actual performance that was measured as the teams' final grade at the end of the simulation. This grade was based on three components: the main component was the team performance rating grade based on the relative firm performance, the team assignments grade, and the teamwork grade based on objective measures.

Data Analysis

The statistical package used in this study was SPSS 23. First, descriptive statistics and a correlation analysis were applied to obtain initial insights. Then, we made a stepwise regression analysis with N=1337 respondents.

Results

All the variables in this study were measured by multi-item scales, except for the team actual performance that was calculated according to its 3 components.

First, internal reliability was checked and confirmed by Cronbach's alpha. The values for all the variables are acceptable (above 0.7): work satisfaction: 0.77, conflict of obligations: 0.73, team cohesiveness: 0.86, personal learning: 0.91, and personal interest: 0.72. Thus, internal reliability was confirmed for these scales.

Next, we examined the correlations among the research main variables. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviation and correlation coefficients of the study main variables.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and correlation coefficients of the study's variables (N=1337)

	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Work satisfaction	3.98	.82	1					
2. Conflict of obligations	3.88	.68	-.05	1				
3. Team cohesiveness	4.22	.67	.63**	-.04	1			
4. Personal learning	3.64	.95	.55**	-.01	.34**	1		
5. Personal interest	3.82	.88	.38**	.02	.16**	.64**	1	
6. Team performance	85.64	6.98	.34**	-.15**	.11**	.10**	.12**	1

Correlation is significant at: * 0.05 level; ** 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation between the team performance and all the 5 anteceding variables were found significant at the 0.01 level. All of them were positive, except for conflict of obligations that was negative. Furthermore, work satisfaction of the team members had the largest correlation coefficient 0.34, and therefore it was found as the most important antecedent of team performance.

Then we conducted a stepwise regression analysis with the team performance as the dependent variable and al the 5 variables as the independent variables. The findings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Regression Analysis results with Team performance as the dependent variable $R^2=.17$ (N=1337)

	Unstandardized Coefficients - B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients - Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	83.64	1.62		51.52	.000
1. Work satisfaction	4.29	.31	.51	13.86	.000
2.Conflict of obligations	-1.41	.26	-.14	-5.52	.000
3. Team cohesiveness	-1.75	.34	-.17	-5.19	.000
4. Personal learning	-1.15	.26	-.16	-4.35	.000
5. Personal interest	.53	.26	.07	2.05	.041

The findings show that 5 variables explain 17% of the team performance: Work satisfaction of the team members is the most important one and has a positive effect, then the conflict of obligations of the teammates from their other duties that has a negative effect, then the perceived team cohesiveness that has a negative effect, then the personal learning of the team members that has a negative effect, and finally the personal interest of the team members in the project that has a positive effect.

Surprising results were obtained referring to the negative effects for two variables on the team performance - team cohesiveness and the personal learning, while their correlation coefficients with the team performance were positive.

Discussion

The purposes of the current study were to identify the different variables that affect team performance in a complex environment, to suggest a model of antecedents affecting team performance, and finally to empirically examine the proposed model.

An empirical examination was conducted among 1337 working students studying for an MBA that were involved in a computerized business simulation course with 226 self-managed teams that competed with each other.

The following 3 out of 5 hypotheses were confirmed both by the correlation analysis and the regression analysis:

Hypothesis H1 suggesting that there will be a positive relationship between work satisfaction of the teammates and team performance.

Hypothesis H2 suggesting that there will be a negative relationship between conflict of obligations of the teammates and team performance.

Hypothesis H5 suggesting that there will be a positive relationship between Personal interest of the teammates and team performance.

These results indicate that leading teams to high performance requires making the proper actions in order to enable individuals to enjoy high work satisfaction, enable them to invest the needed time in performing the project, and increasing their personal interest in the project.

Surprising results were obtained referring to the negative effects for two variables in the regression analysis - team cohesiveness and personal learning, while the correlation analysis found positive correlations.

The first one is H3 suggesting that there will be a positive relationship between team cohesiveness perceived by the teammates and team performance.

Possible explanation for the negative effect of the cohesiveness is that in order to succeed in a complex job you have to collect teammates from several areas of knowledge and each one should contribute his expertise, so individual contribution is important. Another possible explanation is that work satisfaction mediates the relationship of team cohesiveness with team performance. If team cohesiveness will not lead to increased work satisfaction it might decrease the team performance. In order to confirm this mediation we made another regression analysis that excluded the work satisfaction and the coefficient of the team cohesiveness was positive.

The second one is H4: suggesting that here will be a positive relationship between Personal learning of the teammates and team performance.

The negative effect of the personal learning can be explained by the need to have teammates with good skills and sufficient prior knowledge in order to succeed, and therefore the incremental learning of such team members is relatively lower.

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PERSONAL LEARNING AND ITS ANTECEDENTS IN TEAM PROJECTS

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Abstract

One of the most important outcomes of performing a complex project is personal learning of the teammates. In education it is the most important outcome. The purposes of the current study were to identify the different variables that affect personal learning in a complex project, to suggest a model of antecedents affecting personal learning, and to empirically examine the proposed model.

An empirical examination was conducted among 1337 MBA students that were forming teams in a computerized business simulation course.

The findings show that 4 variables explain 51% of the personal learning: The personal interest of the team members, the teamwork quality, the team conflict, and finally the appointed leader.

The results indicate that increasing the personal learning of team members requires making the proper actions in order to enable individuals to increase their personal interest in the project and its importance, and improving the teamwork quality.

Introduction

The positive effect of teamwork and particularly in self-managed work-teams on organizational effectiveness and success was demonstrated in many studies (Cohen and Ledford, 1994; Wageman, 1997; Robbins and Judge, 2009). This participative management style of teamwork is becoming quite popular (Cook and Goff, 2002; Elloy, 2008). In self-managed teams work-team members are jointly responsible for their own work and project results (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). They have no official supervisors to direct their work and they must cooperate and coordinate with each other in order to effectively conduct project goals.

Considering the incorporate autonomy (Langfred, 2000) it is interesting to investigate the effects of this collaborating work process on the project outcomes.

One of the most important outcomes from the individual perspective is the personal learning of the teammates as a result of performing the project. It is the most important outcome in the educational field. Therefore this study is focused on the variables that are supposed to increase the personal learning of teammates as a result of performing an educational project.

The purposes of the current study were to identify the different variables that affect personal learning in a complex project, to suggest a model of antecedents affecting personal learning, and finally to empirically examine the proposed model.

Personal learning

Teamwork provides the opportunity to collaborate with other people and to learn new things – social, project management, technical, and creative skills (Hoegl & Gemuenden, 2001). Acquisition of new skills relates to teammates' desire for personal and professional growth (Denison et al., 1996).

There is a vast literature demonstrating the benefits of active, hands-on learning that gives people the opportunity to directly put their knowledge to use (Kosnik et al., 2013). The core

premise of experiential learning theory is that people learn best by acquiring new experiences and transforming these experiences into active and tacit knowledge (Kayes, 2002).

Many studies have emphasized the positive effect of teamwork and particularly in self-managed work-teams on organizational effectiveness and success. Learning is a vital determinant and frequently used indicator of organizational outcome. This outcome is the most important one in using experiential learning in education.

The success of teams in complex projects relates to a positive interdependency between the individual and its teammates. Personal learning is a result of two major resources: person based resources and teamwork based resources. The personal based resources proposed in this study are the personal interest teammates have in performing the project, and the leadership role. The teamwork based resources dealt in this study are: teamwork quality, and team conflict.

Personal interest

Involvement in the project reflects the interest teammates have with the team project. Members interested with team project have motivation to make more effort to achieve project goals; they will express themselves more and will exhibit cooperative behaviors and satisfaction.

In the educational field research has found that personal interest increases learning (Schraw et al., 2001). Promoting personal interest increases students' intrinsic motivation to learn. Therefore we propose that personal interest of the teammates will increase the learning achieved by performing the project.

Teamwork Quality

The theme of quality collaborations in work teams was conceptualized and constructed by Hoegl and Gemuenden (2001). They suggest a framework for quality collaborations, named Teamwork Quality, and sees it as a multifaceted construct.

The Teamwork Quality construct is assembled from six facets: communication, coordination, balance of member contributions, mutual support, effort and cohesion. Hoegl and Gemuenden (2001, p.436) clarify that "the underlying proposition of this construct is that highly collaborative teams display behaviors related to all six Teamwork Quality facets. Thus, these six facets are indicators of the collaborative work process in teams and combine to the Teamwork Quality construct". The proposition here is that highly collaborative teams display behaviors related to all six Teamwork Quality facets (Hoegl and Parboteeah, 2006).

The Teamwork Quality construct was empirically validated in Hoegl and Gemuenden's (2001) study and further treated and verified in later studies (Hoegl, Parboteeah and Gemuenden, 2003; Hoegl and Parboteeah, 2006; Dayan and Di Benedetto, 2008, 2009). Following the foundation of prior studies, Hoegl and Gemuenden (2001) suggested and empirically verified a framework displaying two separate paths from Teamwork Quality construct to project success. The paths were individual success and team performance. They found positive relationships between the quality of collaboration in teams and personal success of the team member, reflected in member's satisfaction and learning aspects. They also found positive relationships between the Teamwork Quality and subjective team performance, reflected in the effectiveness and efficiency aspects. Therefore we propose that Teamwork Quality will be positively correlated with personal learning.

Team conflict

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Team conflict consists of two dimensions: relationship conflict and task conflict (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Korsgaard et al., 2008, Bradley et al., 2012). Relationship conflict refers to disagreements among team members coming from interpersonal incompatibilities and includes tension, annoyance, and animosity (Jehn, 1995). Task conflict refers to disagreements among team members related to the content of their decisions and differences in viewpoints, ideas, and opinions about the task the team has to perform (Jehn, 1995; Simons & Peterson, 2000).

Task conflict was found to be negatively related to team performance in a meta-analysis research ($\varrho = -.23$; De Dreu & Weingart, 2003). The explanation to this negative relationship might be that task conflict, like relationship conflict, is based on disagreement among team members, and therefore high-performing teams avoid it in order to maintain a harmonious and productive atmosphere. Therefore we suggest that team conflict will be negatively related to personal learning.

Appointed leader

It is generally thought that empowerment through self-management includes reliance on emergent leadership and team's ability to allocate leadership responsibilities among members consensually. This appointed leader should be the most qualified person to lead the team and carry the leadership responsibilities. Pearce, Manz and Sims (2009) in their approach of shared duties, suggest that at any time the person in charge should be the one with the key knowledge, skills and abilities for the current task. Furthermore, members of self-managed teams are expected and required to support each other in order to achieve the common goals (Ellemers, De Gilder and Haslam, 2004); therefore, the appointed leader must be motivated also by needs, goals and expectations of the team in order to sacrifice personal needs for better collective performance.

An employee that exhibits leadership is more motivated to achieve high collective performance and team success. There is evidence also that experiencing leadership should increase self-efficacy (Eden, 1992) and so elected leaders may express themselves more in meetings and feel they are contributing relatively more to team effort and success. Considering that expressed motivation, the leader would learn more from the project compared to his teammates. Accordingly, we suggest that appointed leader will have a higher personal learning compared to his teammates.

Study Hypotheses

Following the above arguments, we formulated the 4 study's hypotheses:

H1: There will be a positive correlation between personal interest and personal learning of teammates.

H2: There will be a positive correlation between teamwork quality and personal learning of teammates.

H3: There will be a negative correlation between Team conflict and personal learning of teammates.

H4: Appointed leader will have a higher personal learning compared to his teammates.

Figure 1 illustrates the relationships suggested in this study.

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Figure 1: Study model describing the antecedents of personal learning of teammates as a result of a complex project
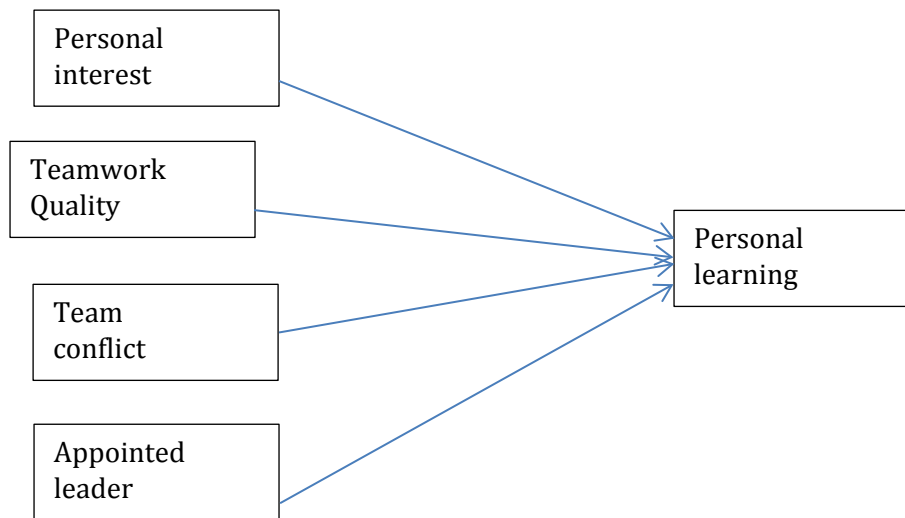
Method

Research Procedure

The study sample was composed of teams that were part of a business game seminar in MBA studies. The participants were involved in a learning simulation of business management. They were organized into small teams, each team represented the management of one firm that interacted cooperatively and competed with other firms over several months. The teams were permanent during the management period and were required to operate in the dynamic hi-tech PC and chips industry. We used the Intopia B2B business simulation (Thorelli, Graves, & Lopez, 2005) with updated business scenarios as business environment.

The main objectives were to develop the managerial and strategic skills, by practicing the abilities to manage a virtual global firm, operating in several international markets. The business position is influenced by the industry (other firms in the simulation), by the macro environmental conditions in the different areas, and by global economy conditions. Each management team was responsible for improving the firm's short-term and long-term performance, to create a competitive advantage in the dynamic arena in which it operates. This project is a complex one and not a routine project.

Sample Characteristics

The sample consisted of 1337 graduate students, which were divided into 226 teams with an average of 5.9 team members per team. All participants were in their last year of an MBA program.

Most of the participants were males (63%).

Ages ranged between 21 and 62, with average age of 31.

The family status of the participants was: 40% single, 59% married, and 1% divorced.

Occupational status of the participants: 97% were working.

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Their specialization track in the MBA program was: finance (31%), marketing (25%), information systems (23%), and management and organizational behavior (21%).

Measures

The study included two data sources.

In the beginning of the simulation, each team was told to elect a leader. This nomination was the first data source. The appointed leader was coded as "1" and the other teammates as "0".

The second data source was a written questionnaire the team members were asked to fill in at the middle of the simulation. The items included the main study variable – the personal learning and 3 variables that were considered as antecedents of the personal learning:

The personal interest of the team members; The teamwork quality that was adopted from Hoegl and Gemuenden (2001) with its 6 components: communication, coordination, balance of member contributions, mutual support, effort, and cohesion; team conflict.

Data Analysis

The statistical package used in this study was SPSS 23. First, descriptive statistics and a correlation analysis were applied to obtain initial insights. Then, we made a stepwise regression analysis with N=1337 respondents.

Results

All the variables in this study were measured by multi-item scales, except for the team appointed leader that was a binary variable according to the leader appointed by the teammates in the beginning of the simulation.

First, internal reliability was checked and confirmed by Cronbach's alpha. The values for all the variables are: Personal interest: 0.72, teamwork quality 0.93, Team conflict 0.68, and personal learning: 0.91. Thus, internal reliability was confirmed for these scales, except for the variable Team conflict that was very close to the acceptable value of 0.7.

Next, we examined the correlations between the research variables. Table 1 presents the means, standard deviation and correlation coefficients of the study variables.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics and correlation coefficients of the study's variables (N=1337)

	Mean	Std. Dev.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Personal interest	3.82	.88	1				
2. Teamwork quality	4.10	.56	.27**	1			
3. Team conflict	1.56	.66	-.07*	-.54**	1		
4. Appointed leader	.17	.38	.09**	-.06*	.01	1	
5. Personal learning	3.64	.95	.64**	.47**	-.16**	-.02	1

Correlation is significant at: * 0.05 level; ** 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The correlation between the personal learning of the teammates and 3 out of 4 anteceding variables were found significant at the 0.01 level. The correlation with the personal interest was the highest – a positive coefficient of 0.64. The correlation with the teamwork quality was the second highest – a positive coefficient of 0.47. The correlation coefficient with the Team conflict was negative: -0.16. The correlation with the appointed leader was negative but insignificant.

Therefore, 3 out of 4 hypotheses were confirmed using correlation analysis. Only hypothesis 4 that refers to the correlation between the appointed leader and the personal learning was not confirmed.

Then we conducted a stepwise regression analysis with the personal learning of teammates as the dependent variable and al the 4 variables as the independent variables. The findings are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Regression Analysis results with Personal learning as the dependent variable R^2=.51 (N=1337)

	Unstandardized Coefficients - B	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients - Beta	t	Sig.
Constant	-1.24	.20		-6.21	.000
1. Personal interest	.60	.02	.56	27.36	.000
2. Teamwork quality	.60	.04	.35	14.53	.000
3. Team conflict	.10	.03	.07	3.08	.002
4. Appointed leader	-.13	.05	-.05	-2.61	.009

The findings show that the 4 variables explain 51% of the personal learning of teammates and all the coefficients were significant at the 0.01 level. Personal interest of the team members was found as the most important one and has a positive effect, then the teamwork quality that has a positive effect, then the team conflict that has a positive effect, and finally the appointed leader that has a negative effect.

Surprising results were obtained referring to the effects of two variables on the personal learning. Team conflict has a positive effect in the regression analysis, but a negative effect in the correlation analysis. Appointed leader has a negative effect in the regression analysis, but a non-significant negative effect in the correlation analysis.

Discussion

The purposes of the current study were to identify the different variables that affect personal learning in a complex project, to suggest a model of antecedents affecting personal learning, and finally to empirically examine the proposed model.

An empirical examination was conducted among working students studying for an MBA. The 1337 participants were involved in a computerized business simulation course which required forming self-managed teams. Each team represented the management of one firm that competed with the other teams. The team challenge was to maximize the firm value and to successfully complete assignments. The study examined data from several sources. This project is a complex one and not a routine project.

The findings show that 4 variables explain 51% of the personal learning: The personal interest of the team members is the most important one and has a positive effect, then the teamwork quality that has a positive effect, then the team conflict that has a positive effect, and finally the appointed leader that has a negative effect.

The following 2 out of 4 hypotheses were confirmed both by the correlation analysis and the regression analysis:

Hypothesis H1 suggesting that there will be a positive relationship between personal interest and personal learning of teammates..

Hypothesis H2 suggesting that there will be a positive relationship between teamwork quality and personal learning of teammates.

These results indicate that increasing the personal learning of team members in complex projects requires making the proper actions in order to enable individuals to increase their personal interest in the project and its importance, and improving the teamwork quality.

Surprising results were obtained referring to the effects of the two other variables - the team conflict and the team appointed leader on the personal learning.

Hypothesis H3 suggesting that there will be a negative correlation between Team conflict and personal learning of teammates was confirmed in the correlation analysis while in the regression analysis the effect obtained was positive.

Possible explanation for the positive effect of the team conflicts is that learning is enhanced by conflicts and debates and not by agreeableness. Some support to this evidence was given by Bradley at al. (2012) that claims that task conflict may improve performance under certain conditions, such as psychological safety. Task conflict may improve team performance through more creativity and better decision making but may also damage performance if it leads to detrimental interactions such as relationship conflict. They investigated the relationship between team conflict and team performance, while in our study we investigated the relationship of team conflict with a different outcome of a team project - personal learning.

Hypothesis H4 suggesting that appointed leader will have a higher personal learning compared to his teammates was not confirmed in the correlation analysis, and in the regression analysis an opposite effect was obtained.

The negative effect of appointed leader as compared to the other team members can be explained by the sufficient prior knowledge of the appointed leader that is needed in order to be elected as the group leader, and therefore the incremental learning of the team leader is relatively lower.

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COLLABORATIVE WORK WITHOUT ORGANIZATION- THE ROLE OF SOCIAL VALUES AND PRACTICES IN NON-ORGANIZATION WORK PROCESS

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Abstract

This paper wishes to propose a conceptual interpretation based on a study of a coworking space in a Moshav - *a* cooperative agricultural settlement and a work organization that has been in existence in Israel for nearly one hundred years.

We will present an inductive case study of an Israeli Moshav. The Moshav we analyze no longer constitutes a work organization, but shared work is carried out in it even without an organization. The entity integrating the work of individuals into cooperative action is the coworking space in which the work is carried out, aided by norms, practices, and values stemming from organizational culture. This case study may shed some new light on the importance of work values even in the absence of a traditional organization

Introduction

The conmen work assumption in the social science asks for a coherent organization in order to understand the work effort of free agents as a collaborative work. Never the less Since the 1970s, organizational life in developed countries has undergone a dramatic change from an industrial to a post-industrial era. The relationship between employees and organizations, once considered to be (ideally at least) fixed, stable, and long-term, have become much more short-term, unstable, and temporary (Bauman 2000; Beck 1992; Castell 1996; Harvey 1992). Moreover, in the past two decades, a significant portion of the literature on organizations has become increasingly irrelevant. In light of these changes, Barley & Kunda (2001) propose to refocus on 'work' as the main research object and to analyze 'work' as an organizing process dealing with the significant changes in the concept of *organization* and its components.

This study is based on an exploratory case study strategy, portraits a case of individuals collaborate their work without any formal organization in Moshav a rural village in southern Israel (Ha'Arava).

At the end of the 80's the village cooperative went through privatization process. From that day on work domain in the Moshav spouse to be private. Nevertheless, the end of the organization was not the end of the collaborative work but rather the beginning of a new form of organization – one that imbedded in common work values rather than in formal organization.

Research findings indicate that shared work may exist in a given space, based on common values alone. In this study the case of an Israeli Moshav (village) illustrates that cultural practices creates coordination between individuals in almost all fields of work (such as transport and sorting of agricultural products, joint use of agricultural tools , etc.). Furthermore, learning practices are also imbedded in cultural norms such as apprentice training, knowledge transfer from one household to another, shared economic information, etc.

This case study may shed some new light on the importance of work values on new forms of organizations.

Organizational Culture

Culture in organizations has been the subject of academic exploration for over thirty years. The cultural perspective attempts to expose an additional tier of the organizational phenomenon: the normative structures and the values that characterize the organization and underpin the customary practices and beliefs of its members. The term *organizational culture* entails a built-in paradox – an organization pretends to be a controlled, planned, and rational entity, while culture is dynamic and lends itself to individual interpretations, which often cannot be controlled (Raz 2004).

The term "organizational culture" presupposes the existence of an organization. In this paper we describe shard work in the absence of a coherent labor organization. We therefore go beyond the traditional use of the term, expanding it to relate to coworking within a particular space. Based on a case study of Moshav Zin, we claim that independent agents working in a shared geographical space that share the same culture –work together despite the fact that they no longer belong to the same organization.

Socio-Historical Background of Israeli *Moshavim* (Agricultural Cooperatives)

In contrast with other Western countries modernism in Israel did not bring about the abandonment of farming as a result of an accelerated industrialization process. In Israel, alongside industrialization, farming continued to be an important source of income. Until the turn of the twentieth century, farming was done in a family setting, while the early twentieth century in Israel was characterized by the establishment of agricultural cooperatives. Weitz (1971) describes this process as a transition from farming to agriculture. He claims that while farming was an individual activity – every farmer in his own private field - agriculture was characterized by organizing for joint agricultural production. Two agricultural settlement forms that organized farming as a joint activity were established in Israel (e.g. Weintraub, Lissak and Azmon, 1969):

- **The kibbutz** – A collective organization, or commune, where all the production means are shared. The kibbutz's unique structure led to a great deal of research worldwide.

- **The Moshav** – A cooperative that combines individual and collective values. It did not receive the same amount of attention as the kibbutz. The object of this study is the Moshav

The Moshav is a cooperative agricultural organizational settlement that was a social community, municipal authority, and organizational configuration of work distribution and capital allocation. The social ideal to which the Moshavim aspired was the settlement form that combined individual values with collective ones. In the classic Moshav, every family cultivated a private farm, but activities such as purchasing raw materials, allocating resources and production means, selling the crops, and recruiting credit were conducted by the cooperative, which was owned by all members of the Moshav. Thus, the Moshav had an organizational form enabling a socialist society while making room for individual entrepreneurship and family life.

In the Moshav, unlike other work organizations, each family almost completely independently cultivated the agricultural plot where it also lived. However, through the cooperative practices, the Moshav controlled what occurred in the family farms. Allotting production means to a specific farm, such as allotting cows to one farm, and soil and water to another farm, enabled the cooperative to create a process of division of labor so that it determined which family farm would be engaged in a particular agricultural industry, what inputs it would receive, and when it needed to bring the crops for sale.

In addition, the Moshav, unlike other work organizations, was a defined space, social community, municipal authority, and organizational configuration that created division of labor and capital allocation. Therefore, all aspects of the Moshav members' lives overlapped to a great degree. In fact, the individual's daily routine was run from one power center, which indicates that the Moshav (in a similar manner to the more famous kibbutz) previously had characteristics of a total organization (Goffman 1957).

Moshav Zin: The "little village on the prairie" as a social lab for organizing

Moshav Zin was founded as part of a settlement project of the Arava - Israel's southern arid area. Zin was founded 100 km away from the nearest city and 30 km away from the nearest settlement (Eisenman 1993)..

Moshav Zin was incepted in November 25, 1971. By then, the collectivistic ideology has changed in many of the Moshavim, and a wide variation of values was created among them (Appelbaum & Margolis 1979; Weintraub 1984). In 1976, when the guidelines for Zin as a Moshav were determined, its residents chose the most stringent ideological position, allegiant to the classic Moshav values. It was decided that the Moshav would have a strong cooperative that would provide the following services to the family farms: purchasing, selling, credit allotment, allocation of production quotas, and sorting of agricultural products. The cooperative was given a great deal of power, and it was involved in managing the family farms. Moreover, the cooperative had a set of guidelines that determined the structured rules according to which the cooperative was meant to be run.

It may seem as if the case study focusing on a Moshav in the desert located in the South of Israel will emphasize the exotic and the peripheral. On the other hand, the geographic isolation, community life, and the socio-historical process that the Moshav has underwent turn it into a social laboratory that enables us to highlight the relationship between general objects of organizational theory: *organizing, culture* and *space*. Thus, the "little village on the prairie" becomes a tool for understanding change and structuration processes with contemporary and global relevance.

At the beginning, the Moshav was both a working and a municipal organization in a given space. Privatization of the cooperative generated a process where the work organization was almost completely dissolved; however, Moshav members continued to live as neighbors, and to work in agriculture in a given geographical area. Ostensibly, following privatization, work ceased to be a shared activity and the Moshav abolished previously centralized practices that integrated individuals' activities. However, in Moshav Zin, several new practices were generated that kept the work process as a shared pursuit. As we later show, the majority of these practices are conducted by virtue of the Moshav's culture. To recapitulate, the Moshav underwent the following socio-historical process:

1. 1971 – 1985: The institutionalization of a cooperative work organization – shared work based on formal organizational practices combined with community life in a confined space.

2. 1985 – 1991: The organization is dismantled, the space remains – The practices used to integrate individual labor cease to exist but individuals stay to live and work in the same space.

3. 1991 – 2011: A Work ground is re-created – shared work culture without an overarching organizational structure is generated within the spatial boundaries of the old/new Moshav.

The following section presents the findings, beginning with a historical description of these three phases of transformation and the dialectics of culture, space and organizing they reflect. We then focus on a typology of the work ground mechanisms created in the third and present stage, using vignettes from the interviews to illustrate how these mechanisms embody and promote the process of spatial organizing.

Changes in the Moshav's Organizational Patterns

The Israeli economy experienced a severe crisis in the 1980's (Ben Basat 2001). This crisis, and the economic policy employed in its wake, prompted numerous organizations with cooperative characteristics to undergo privatization, including the Moshavim (Ben Bsat 2001; Ram 2005; Schwartz 1995). For many organizations, privatization meant a transition from public to private ownership, though the organizational power center remained intact (Ram 2005). In contrast, privatizing a Moshav cooperative meant annulling the cooperative's responsibility for mechanisms of sharing, distribution of labor, and allocation of capital – in other words, dismantling the organizational power center that controlled these domains – and transferring the responsibility for them to each family and its private farm. This process aimed to turn work in a Moshav into an individualistic pursuit: every family would work alone at its private farm or outside the Moshav, without any mutual guarantee or coordination among farms for production processes such as selling and purchasing. This was also the aim of privatization in the Moshav studied here, Zin – where privatization began in 1989 (Shnider 2008).

Research Methods

This study is based on an exploratory case study strategy (Yin 1994). The study uses two main research tools –interviews and historical analysis of archive records. Thirty-eight semi-structured in-depth interviews were conducted with former and current Moshav residents, and a content analysis of the protocols of the various committees and the general assembly of the Moshav cooperative, as well as other relevant documents and texts, was conducted by the first author. Content analysis of the materials collected in the interviews and of the protocols was conducted in order to map the practices that characterize the work process on the Moshav and to link them to themes, values and the basic assumptions that repeatedly appear among the interviewees (Schein 2004). An analysis of the data collected in the interviews was conducted by inductive coding (categorization, thematization).

The Cooperative – Moshav Zin Prior to Privatization (1971 – 1985)

Each family on the Moshav cultivated the plot of land it received from the cooperative while taking part in several centralized mechanisms: Allocating means of production , joint sorting and selling of the agricultural products, equipment pooling joint management of capital, and mutual guarantee.

In February 1989, the Moshav committee decided, subsequent to a decision of the general assembly, that:

"…from July 1, 1989… all members will be entitled to manage their farms independently…"

Following its privatization, the Moshav has shed all the characteristics of a cooperative organization: joint selling, joint purchasing, joint sorting of the agricultural products, enforcing the reliance on agriculture in all the family farms, supervision over employment of hired workforce, allocating production quotas, managing the capital, and giving credit to the family farms. Despite this, the Moshav cooperative was not completely dissolved. The Moshav cooperative still exists from a legal standpoint. The cooperative still has a limited role in community and municipal domains. In addition, the cooperative, by virtue of historical contracts, still possesses the central means of production such as land and water. However, the cooperative had ceased to supervise the work processes in the farms.

Shared Work without an Organization – Normative Work Space (1991 – 2010)

A reasonable assumption would be that with the annulment of the cooperative's supervision on family farms, the division of labor patterns that the cooperative has enforced before privatization would disappear as well. However, a normative workspace was created at Zin that preserved and recreated shared work patterns. In this section we present the contemporary work practices that have emerged at Moshav Zin.

In 2010, 87% of the agricultural land in Moshav Zin was dedicated to growing peppers (Arava R&D 2010). The agricultural focus on pepper has been similar in the past, although each farm could choose which crop it wished to grow. Only 3 of the 101 farms on the Moshav chose otherwise: two grow flowers, and the third germinates pepper seeds for the rest of the Moshav. However, some farms now have an additional branch, such as dairy farming, dates etc. However, the total non-pepper crops does not exceed 13%. Even though the decision-making process regarding which crop to cultivate on the farm is decentralized to 101 independent units, there is a great deal of homogeneity in the Moshav pertaining to the chosen agricultural industry. Work at Zin is not exclusively agricultural, but includes agronomic, technological, economic and marketing aspects as well. This type of agriculture, which uses research and technology, is also referred to as green-tech.

Major Practices of Shared Work

The purpose of privatizing the cooperative was to end the mutual dependence among family farms in the Moshav and provide each farm with the freedom to manage itself independently. In 2010, more than 20 years after the official start of privatization, the cooperative has, indeed, been formally and legally privatized but the mutual dependence between the Moshav members is still apparent, although the practices that create this dependence today are bottom-up organizing processes rather than top-down ones. The mutual dependence is noticeable in the collaboration regarding the means of production and knowledge sharing among the Moshav members. The collaboration following privatization does not imply a uniform partnership structure that integrates all the Moshav members in numerous domains, but rather specific collaborations between Moshav members for particular processes.

Collaboration Regarding Means of Production

In 2010, there were over 600 collaborations among the 101 family farms in Zin. These collaborations have diverse characteristics, different magnitudes, and varied purposes. Therefore, only the main collaboration categories are presented:

1. **Full partnership** – two family farms that merge into one entity and work together. This collaboration includes all the work domains of the farm, from purchasing to cultivating, sorting, and selling. In 2010, there were 24 collaborations in Zin comprised of 2 farms each. Nine of these collaborations were comprised of father-and-son units, while 15 collaborations were not within family settings. A total of 48 of the 101 farms on the Moshav were engaged in such collaborations.

2. **Collaborations in the work process**

Collaborating use of sorting machines – Since the vast majority of Moshav members cultivate the same crop – peppers - all these farms are required to undergo a similar sorting process. Moreover, the digital pepper sorting machines are very expensive, yet they highly optimize the process. Only 9 of the 98 farms cultivating peppers sort the peppers on their private farm. The remaining 89 farms are joined in partnerships involving between 2 to 8 farms that sort their products together. Currently about 30 working pepper machines in Zin sort peppers for 98 farms. Twenty-one of these sorting machines are shared by collaborating farms.

Collaboration in the purchase of agricultural equipment – when the cooperative was active, a practice known as equipment pooling was employed. The cooperative purchased a portion of the agricultural cultivation equipment and the family farms used it in turn, according to need. When the cooperative was dissolved, equipment pooling ceased and family farms was forced to buy this equipment, even though it was not always financially justified for every farm to own all the agricultural equipment. Consequently, several family farms jointly purchased the equipment they required. The equipment in these collaborations is relatively inexpensive up to 15000 NIS (3000 euro). Thus, some of the farms in the Moshav conduct several collaborations in agricultural equipment, which is the most common type of collaboration. However, because the equipment purchased is relatively inexpensive, it is the least institutionalized collaboration, and we could not find any written contracts regarding these collaborations.

The next quote taken from an interview made with one of the Moshav members emphasize that having an agricultural equipment partnership is taken-for-granted in Zin:

"I lost my count of my partnerships … we have one field sprayer for four farms: Avner, Hemi and another one that does not live here anymore were my partners. One of them left the partnership and then Hemy became Aharons partner and Avner become became Yoni partners.   And when a new member came to the Moshev so I took him "under my wings" and became his partners. Later we split up.   Nir is my partner only on the farm plow, I think; maybe we are partners on other things? I don't even remember. People forget their partnerships "

Collaboration in marketing processes – In 2010, there were 4 companies that marketed agricultural products in Zin, and were jointly owned by the Moshav members. The largest joint marketing company was established in 1991 by the Moshav members. Over the years, control of the company was sold to a large corporation outside the Moshav but even today, 27 of the Moshav members continue to hold one third of the company shares. In addition, another 3 companies are jointly owned by 2-5 family farms at Zin. There are currently 4 companies in Zin that are jointly owned by Moshav members. Approx. 70 of the farms sell through these companies, so that even Moshav members that are not partners in these marketing companies are still stakeholders in them.

Collaboration in refrigeration and transportation processes – This practice was created in order to solve a problem caused by regional circumstances: Because of Zin's distance from sea and airports, transporting the crops outside the Moshav is relatively expensive. From a financial perspective, it is not worthwhile for a family farm to transport half a truck of peppers on a given day because of the relatively expensive transportation costs. In order to optimize the transportation process as much as possible, there are four refrigeration centers on the Moshav from which shared transportation of the crops depart. Each transportation center is responsible for ensuring that full trucks leave the Moshav, combining crops from several farms to attain that. The largest transportation and refrigeration center is jointly owned by approx. 65 Moshav farms. There are 4 smaller centers in the Moshav. One is jointly owned by 4 farms, the second is jointly owned by 2 farms and 2 are individually owned

Branch collaborations – In addition to the pepper industry, there are two additional main industries in the Moshav – dairy farming and dates. The date industry is currently a cooperative of 93 Moshav members. The date cooperative has an administration chosen from members. There are several industry collaborations in the dairy farming industry as well. One such collaboration unites all the dairy farmers in the Moshav in order to jointly purchase inputs such as cattle feed. The second collaboration is the organization of five dairy farms, following the Israeli dairy farm reform in 2002, to unite all their individual dairy farms into one large dairy farm. The new dairy farm is united as an official cooperative, but like the date cooperative, it is only for this specific purpose rather than having a centralized role like the Moshav's cooperative used to be.

3. Knowledge Sharing Practices

In addition to sharing means of production and equipment, professional knowledge can also be a source of collaboration. Several knowledge-sharing practices are employed in the Moshav:

The Parliaments

Moshav members call one of the practices employed for learning and knowledge sharing on the Moshav *parliaments*. A parliament is a meeting of Moshav members to discuss current affairs: from the weather and its effects on the crops to political matters on the Israeli agenda. These meetings are not formally organized and are not run like a hearing. They are more accurately described as friendly meetings over coffee. The next quote taken from an interview made with one of the Moshav members:

> There are no **places to go get a coffee here**… so we drink coffee together in the parliaments; **I like it in a social matter**
>
> In the parliaments we talk about peppers according to the season: before the season we talk about the Plant nurseries then we talk about the water supply problems. Later we have a big debate about the paper packs prices: We check each other pack prices – everyone wants to know that they aren't suckers- that they pay a reasonable price. Then during the (paper) season we talk about the pepper prices in the markets. We have argues all year long   – about ropes, nylon for the green houses about drippers   - professional issues '

This quote emphasizes how the parliament that was create upon spatial and social issues (as emphasized in the first row) became a professional knowledge arena:

Apprenticeship

Another learning practice is the apprenticeship mechanism. In the past, when a new member joined the Moshav, the cooperative appointed a veteran member to accompany him professionally and socially. It is important to understand that during the cooperative period, one member's farming failures affected the entire cooperative. It was therefore the cooperative's interest to help the new member. However, since the cooperative's privatization, there is no mutual guarantee and a new member's financial failure (or success) is their own responsibility. Still, when a new member joins the Moshav (during the past decade, there were more than 20 new members), he contacts one of the veteran farmers requesting his guidance. The mentor does not receive any financial compensation for this role. We asked one of the Moshav members why is willing to undertake the role of mentor, without any compensation?

> "This is a **small place**. I think it's important that we don't have **large social gaps** among people. Not that I am a socialist but Moshav Zin isn't only my work place this is the place I live in and meet people upon social circumstances. I think we should not have people tailing behind – this is socially wrong"

This answer we got resurfaced the spatial and social issue as the reason for Apprenticeship as a learning practice.

Discussion

The purpose of the privatization process that Moshav Zin has undergone in 1985-91 was to dissolve the institutionalized cooperative practices and to enable each family farm to work independently without being mutually dependent on all the farms of the Moshav. An interpretive analysis of the practices and norms occurring in the Moshav in 2010 shows that despite the privatization process, there is considerable mutual dependence between the family farms. This mutual dependence is no longer characterized by a uniform and centralized rational mechanism, like that of the cooperative (which existed until 1989). The mutual dependence between the family farms is structured in a decentralized manner through numerous formal and informal collaborations and sharing mechanisms. The work activity of the 101 family farms currently in Zin is not an individual activity of each farm separately, but rather a shared work process.

Actually most of the work process that was held by the cooperative is now made collectively upon cultural sub structure that grow collective work norms and practices. That includes: sorting, marketing, purchasing, transporting, knowledge sharing etc. We claim that the cooperative went through privatization process – work has not.

Since there is currently no coherent organization at Zin integrating the work on the farms, we claim that *space* and *organizational culture* generate a working and organizing mechanism that integrates the individuals' activities into a shared work process

Intriguingly, Moshav Zin of 2010 has shed its previous top-down cooperative organizational structure, only to replace it with a bottom-up normative space of shared work activities. This case study may shed some new light on the importance of work values even in the absence of a traditional organization.

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RELIGIOUS DIVERSITY AT WORK IN INDIA

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Abstract

India is a highly diverse society with strong religious traditions and values manifested in the day to day personal and work lives of the majority of Indians, resulting in a significant impact on workplace policies and practices. As a high context culture, with a strong emphasis on hierarchy and interpersonal relationships, there are many levels at which social, cultural and religious demands influence formal and informal workplace policies and practices in Indian organizations although empirical evidence of this in Indian diversity management literature is rather limited. Tolerance for religious diversity has been a strength of the Indian culture. This paper contributes to the conference theme "Values: An Organizational Resource", discussing how Indian workplaces value and accommodate religious diversity in organizations.

The Context

India is a multi-religious, multicultural, and multilingual country with 1.21 billion population (Census of India, 2011).Throughout India's history religion has been an important part of the country's culture and a vast majority of Indians associate themselves religious. Religious diversity and religious tolerance are both established in the country by the law and custom. The term Hindu and Hinduism have been described as geographical terms for those who lived near river Sindhu (a Sanskrit word for the river Indus) in India (http://hinduismfacts.org/hindu-religion/). India, a 5000 year old civilization has Hinduism as the dominant religion, though India is the birth place of three other religions: Buddhism, Jainism, and Sikhism. Hinduism believes in pantheism which "may be understood positively as the view that God is identical with the cosmos, the view that there exists nothing which is outside of God" (http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/pantheism/). It also believes in polytheism, belief in many Gods/deities, however, many Hindus explain that the Gods are various forms of a single Supreme Being 'Brahman'. Brahman has three forms, the 'trinity' – the creator called Brahma, the preservator called 'Vishnu' and the destroyer, 'Mahesh' popularly called Shiva two of which are believed to have had human incarnation (avtar) on earth to save the good from the evil(http://www.comparativereligion.com/avatars.html,). With so much of polarity of views many Hindus believe "The Truth is One, but different sages call it by different names" (RIG VEDA 1.164.46). As people find it difficult to understand the abstract God, they rely on different symbols/ God/goddesses and follow a variety of rituals. Thus religious diversity is a part of Hindu religion. There are several Hindu scriptures in the form of Vedas and Upanishads, which go back to 3000 to 5,500 years. These scriptures are believed to be what God said and are considered to be divine truth which was revealed to some seers who chose to remain anonymous. They passed on their vision of the truth to their disciples in oral form. The date of the writing of the Vedic literature is not known but Vedic culture is believed to have started in India between 2000 and 1500 BC (Paul, 1987) and Hinduism emerged from Vedic religion (Hoiberg). Hindu religion is also referred to as 'Vedic Religion', 'Vedic Dharma' or 'Sanatana Dharma'.

India has been influenced over the centuries through foreign cultures, which came to India for political or commercial reasons, which has led to the emergence of a culture marked by a)

pluralistic world view, b) synthesizing mindset and c) high context sensitivity. Pluralistic world view reveals that Indians are open to new ideas and influences adopting values, norms, beliefs and practices of other cultures. The aspect of synthesizing mindset yields that Indians either integrate influences from diverse cultures (if these match) acceptable to their culture, if not, they simply allow these differences to co-exist. "In the 8th century Arab incursions began, followed by a Turkish invasion in the 12th century. India had Mughal rule from 1526 to 1857 followed by the British rule for 200 years" (Sharma & Abraham, 2012). They also allowed early immigrants and invaders to retain their religions and cultures. Consequently one comes across consistency, inconsistency as well as opposite components in the Indian culture. As regards high context sensitivity they adapt their behavior/response according to the situation/context. Indigenous mindset retained ancient Hindu culture, at the same time integrated/ shared culture of others (who entered/ruled India) which was compatible.

The colonial experience was different; the British Empire adopted bureaucratic style of amoral familism (Banfield 1958:89). This had significant impact on the religious mindset of people. "The education during the ancient period was influenced by the country's indigenous theory of knowledge based on Indian Philosophy. …It was aimed at holistic development and manifestation of divinity in the learner and not merely transfer of information….". Universities of Nalanda and Takshashila imparted education in fields like astronomy, astrology, religion theology, ethics, values, arithmetic, law, metaphysics, medical science, economics and politics (Pathak, Sharma et. al, 2013:83-104). In 1835 India witnessed introduction of modern system of education by the British replacing its ancient system; colleges and universities were set up in 1837 (Porter, 1967). People considered indigenous mindset and religion to be obstacles in their growth and development, and started shunning to acquire knowledge embedded in *Vedic* literature and began seeking Western knowledge and English language (over Sanskrit) to become modern. This led to disintegration of indigenous schooling called *'Gurukulum'* and higher education system discovering self for attainment of true knowledgefrom Vedic literature (Pathak, Sharma et. al, 2013:83-104).

Important Symbols in Hinduism

There are many symbols in Hinduism(http://www.ancient-symbols.com/hindu-symbols.html accessed on 4.10.15) but the most popular ones used at workplaces are described below.

 OM or AUM: Om comprises of three letters A, U and M, it is a symbol and a syllable. It is a sound which is believed to be present at the time of creation of the universe and is considered sacred. All important mantras start with *Om*. It is considered to be a powerful word and syllable as 'Brahman' with all words, mantras and sounds. People use it during meditation too. It is a sacred word for other religions too viz., Buddhists, Jains, and Sikhs. People use this popular symbol at workplaces on the desk; in lockets or rings for good luck.

 Swastika: The word Swastika is derived from a Sanskrit word sv (well) + asti (is). Archaeological evidence of swastika-shaped ornaments is dated to the Neolithic period and was first found in the Indus valley civilization of the Indian subcontinent. The *swastika* is an ancient symbol which is a sign of good fortune, luck and well-beingamong the Hindus. Its four angles or points also symbolize the four directions or *Vedas*. This symbol is often drawn on the floor with colours or flower petals on special occasions. It represents honesty, truth, purity and stability. Like *Om* people use this symbol at workplaces at the entrance, in cash office, on the table. It is also used as an ornament.

The Sri Yantra: *Sri Yantra* is used to symbolize the bond or unity of both the masculine and the feminine divinity which is supposed to bring good fortune. Also called *Shri Chakra*, is a symbol characterized by nine interlocking triangles that radiate from a central point. The symbol contains four upright triangles representing the masculine side or *Shiva*; while the five inverted triangles represent the feminine or the *Shakti* (divine mother). It can also mean the unity and bond of everything in the cosmos.

Religious Diversity Management Practices at the Workplace

India became independent in 1947 and its constitution, adopted in 1950, declares it a secular democratic republic granting equality to all to pursue one's religious belief. According to 2011 Indian census Hindus constitutes 80 per cent of the total population, whereas Muslims, Christians and Sikhs constitute 14 per cent, 2.3 per cent and 1.7 per cent respectively. Buddhists, Jains, Zoroastrians, Jews, and Bahais constituted less than 1 per cent of the population each (Census of India, 2011). It is important to note that, unlike secularism in France and the province of Quebec in Canada where it is defined as the separation of religion (private sphere) from the state (public sphere), the constitution protects religious freedom in India by granting equal respect to all religions and prohibits discrimination on the basis of religion, requiring workplaces to accommodate the religious beliefs and practices of their employees. People from various religions are free to keep religious symbols like *Bible*, *Koran, Granth Sahib* or pictures of their religious places or deities on their desk, dress according to their religious beliefs, and wear religious symbols as ornaments. Religious intolerance in the form of disrespect to another religion is punishable by law. The Government is empowered to ban religious organisations that incite friction among communities or indulge in terrorism or similar activities. Nevertheless, despite these protections, religion based riots and conflicts are quite common in the history of India requiring everyone to be on high alert for the slightest provocation.

The major religious texts of Hindus are four Vedas, 18 Puranas, Smiritis, Ramayan, Mahabharat and Bhagvad Gita which contain knowledge, wisdom, timeless teachings for realization of self, victory of good over evil, preservation of cosmos (water, earth, nature etc.), well-being of the society and the world at large. "Vasudhaiv Kutumbakam" implying "world is a family" is the Indian ideology from Upnishad (Mahōpaniṣad- VI.70-73). India is a collectivistic culture and the Hindu religion focuses on peace, harmony and welfare for all. Vedic teachings relate to philanthropy, self-realization, concern for others, sharing of one's wealth with the disadvantaged, service to community and protection of the cosmos. Influenced by these values Indian organizations have been engaged in philanthropic/community development activities for centuries long before these concepts were introduced in management. Thus companies in India run schools/centres for girls/women from poor communities, support welfare schemes, offer scholarships to socially/economically disadvantaged children of all the ethnic groups for inclusive growth of the society and protection of the environment.

Principles from Bhagvad Gita at Indian Workplaces

The spiritual traditions of India offer wholesome spiritual foundation to the modern era and also provide practical wisdom to lead a stress free and fulfilling life. Gandhi (2009) called Bhagvad Gita, a sacred Sanskrit scripture of Hindus, "The Gospel of Selfless Action". Bhagvad Gita, provides four main paths that people choose as an approach to life to reach the ultimate goal,

union with the Supreme (*Brahman*).Yoga is not a physical exercise, as is commonly thought; it is a lifestyle which lays down some steps to reach this ultimate goal. The four paths are i) Karma Yoga ii) Gyan Yoga, iii) Raj Yoga and iv) Bhakti Yoga. The karma yoga which is prevalent at the Indian workplaces, is explained below:

1. **Karma Yoga-**Karma Yoga is the discipline of action and is generally adopted by people who are outgoing. This principle teaches that a person has control only on one's efforts/actions and not on the reward as these may be controlled by external factors. This belief helps people focus on the task and not be obsessed with the reward.

   Selfless devotion to work is not only highly satisfying intrinsically but it sublimates oneself. In a fair system one would get reward but if, for some reason the person is unable to get it, with karma yoga belief, he does not feel dejected or leave the job. Some people mistake *karma yoga* to be fatalism but it is not. This could possibly be one of the reasons for low attrition rate in Indian organizations, in general. This phenomenon of intrinsic motivation would be very different from the western theories of motivation and operant conditioning where one works for a reward or reinforcement and feels frustrated/dejected when the reinforcement/reward is not achieved. Thus external reinforcement dependent motivated behaviour often leads to low productivity or employee attrition. Parboteeah et. al. (2009) conducted a survey of 44,030 people in 39 countries and found that Buddhism, Hinduism, Christianity and Islam are all positively related to intrinsic and extrinsic work values.

   Another powerful concept at the Indian workplace is *Arthashashtra* written by Kautilya during the fourth century B.C., grounding the art of governance on *nyaya* (justice) and *dharma* (ethics) as the two key pillars for success, now known as organizational justice theory and ethics (Rai 2005:388). Other relevant concepts from Bhagvad Gita relevant to the Indian workplace have been discussed in the following paragraphs (McShane, Glinow & Sharma, 2011: 10-11):

2. **Swadharma (**Performing one' duty)- *Swadharma* articulated in *Bhagvad Gita* states that individuals should perform the duties and responsibilities assigned to them with positive mindset and effectiveness treating it as their *dharma (ethics)*.They should not overstep into others' roles and responsibilities as it would create conflict in the organisation.

3. **Loksangraha**(Collective Mindset)- *Loksangraha*(lok=people; and sangraha=holding together) means that actions of an individual or organization should be in collective interest of the people/ society. Inclusive growth which is the pivotal agenda across organizations in the Indian economy is based on the ideology of *loksangraha* from *Bhagvad Gita.*

4. **ParasparamBhavayantaha** (Affinity and interdependence)- A society depends on interdependence of its constituents- the individuals and the organizations. Affinity and interdependence are essential to live in harmony and thrive in an organization or a society which pave the way for cooperation and co-existence despite differences in values, beliefs and cultures. India is a country of diversity where diversity exists in various forms such as - religious, geographic, linguistic, caste and culture. Indian organizations have managed diversity at the workplace with the principle of *Parasparam Bhavayantaha,* which is also gaining ground in different forms of diversity management programs in the culturally diverse globalized world.

5. **Cosmic Collectivism-** Ancient view based on Hindu mythologies comprises of cosmic collectivism (assumption that the universe consists of diverse forms and elements), hierarchical order and spiritual orientation. Hierarchical order signifies that all things within the universe are arranged in order of being superior or inferior to the other. Spirituality is considered to

enable people to rise above their physical and material well-being to spiritual well-being or well–being of the soul. Rai (2005) presents the role played by the Hindu religion in forming the business values and ethics in India. "As can be seen in the Indian organizations, hierarchical perspective, the power play, preference for personalized relationship, social networking through own-other dichotomy and collectivistic orientation, play a significant role in determining organizational effectiveness in India". He posits "The salient ethical dimensions of sharing, respect for age, social networks, selfless work,…necessity of hierarchical levels, role and responsibility of leader,… and interpersonal relationships have significant impact on the personality of its constituents and these, in turn, are likely to manifest in the workplace as attitudes and behaviours "(Rai 2005:388).

In a scholarly review of the HRM literature in India, Pio (2007) explains that centuries old Hindu traditions are still prevalent in India, such as the social stratification system of caste which continues to have significant implications, both explicit and implicit, in Indian HRM policies and practices such as recruitment, selection, promotion etcetera. *Karma* (destiny) is the belief that one must bear the consequences of one's actions from the present and past lives lived; *Dharma* (righteous duty) gives precedence in importance to family over professionalism; *Bhakti* (devotion) is the worship of deities and at the temple of work; *Guru* (teacher) is revered as learning is highly valued (Pio, 2007:322). These are some religious Hindu beliefs that overflow into organizational life leading to behaviours of submissiveness, fatalism, clan orientation with in-group and out-group distinctions and power consciousness (Amba-Rao, Petrick, Gupta, and Embse, 2000). India is a highly collectivistic society (Hofstede, 1980) with much emphasis on in-group and out-group categorization where individuals are often driven by the need to take care of those in their in-group, which is typically made up of extended family, and friends. Indeed, India is ranked as one of the most collective in-group countries where individuals' need to take care of the in-group may sometimes supersede the organization's formal rules. These issues matter a lot in the Indian workplace and individuals tend to seek small groups to identify with, and are often mistrustful of others who may be different in some way (Sahay & Walsham, 1997).

Social Hierarchy and Networks

Influenced by the hierarchical nature of Hinduism, the caste system and respect for age, superior-subordinate relations are extremely complex in Indian organizations where paternalism, hierarchy, legitimate authority, loyalty are all valued as employees are expected to obey, take orders and follow instructions with blind faith and without question (Varma and Budhwar, 2013). Hinduism is based on strict codes of relationships: *guru-shishya* (teacher-student), mother-child, god-devotee, boss-employee (Pio, 2007). The family and community supersedes the individual, parents often influence the career/profession of the children, parents-in-law often decide whether their daughter-in-law will be allowed to pursue her education or career after marriage, etc. It is expected that one will behave unquestioningly within the boundaries of one's status in the family, community and society to maintain peace and harmony even if it is at the cost of personal ambitions and aspirations. Personal sacrifice for the good of family and community is valued, above all for loss with hope of better rewards in the afterlife, thus becoming rather fatalistic in their world-view (Sparrow and Budhwar, 1997).This strict code of relationships is also reflected in the caste system which is based on a hierarchal division of labour. Socio-demographic characteristics receive great importance; age, education, occupation and family background influences one's place in the Indian family, workplace and society.

Nuclear and extended family dynamics are complex and critical in India, making work-life balance issues all the more important for employees and managers alike. The nuclear family is

defined as the husband, wife and children. The extended family includes each of these on both maternal and paternal sides-the parents, grandparents, aunts and uncles as well as nieces and nephews. However, the father-in-law and mother in-law receive more importance, even above the needs of the nuclear family at times. There is high pressure on the couple and their nuclear family to honour and respect family ties by participating in important religious/ ceremonial occasions every year if the family is in the same city/town. If the extended family lives in another city/town, people often commute to be together on important family events like marriage, religious festivals, birth of a child, death, and so on. Therefore, most Indian workplaces are quite willing to accommodate requests for such work-life balance events.

According to social capital theory (Bourdieu and Waquant, 1992) this resource is acquired through different kinds of relationships in families, organizations, neighbourhoods, communities, caste, including vertical and horizontal social networks. Social capital at Indian workplaces has not been documented in the Indian management literature but plays an important role in HRM functions. "HRM in India is strongly influenced by social relations, political affiliation, informal networks, and one's caste and religion" (Cooke and Budhwar, 2015: 346). A common Indian behaviour is to ask for the last name to determine a person's clan or caste and lineage. Personal recommendations and requests for favours are mutually supported with an understanding of returning the favour in the future socially.

Indian Hindu caste system has been based on work and the division of labour- Brahmins were engaged in teaching/advising and knowledge pursuits; Kshtriyas were warriors; Vaishyas were trading communities and Shudras were engaged in manual labour. Indian business is dominated by the traditional trading communities by religion (such as the Parsi, or Hindu); sometimes by geographic origin (Gujaratis, Punjabis, Rajasthanis and Marwaris) engaged in traditional business/trades. There are strong corporate business families (such as Tata, Birla, Mahindra, Jindal and Bajaj) who often arrange strategic marriage alliances and are generally managed by multiple generations of family members and close family friends because bloodlines, caste, and community ties are all important aspects of personal identity and social networks in India with powerful implications for the workplace.

Indians have held strong beliefs in astrology and numerology right from the Vedic era. A horoscope is made at the time of birth keeping in view planet positions which help make predictions about an individual's life. Belief in God, destiny and astrology are commonplace in India even now both in the private and public lives of most Hindu managers and employees. Consequently, many people start their day with daily *aarti or puja* (ritualistic prayers) at home or at work. Sharing and distributing *prasaad* (religious sweet offerings) on '*shubhavsar*' (special occasions) such as birthdays, graduation, weddings, religious events are commonplace. Serious attention is paid to the timing of special occasions for invoking divine blessings based upon religious '*mahurat*' (auspicious date and time) guided by Hindu priests based on astrology and numerology. These are often accommodated in the workplace. Religion based charity and philanthropy is prominently displayed through the temples, hospitals, schools and other institutions established by rich business conglomerates as a commonly practiced way of giving back to society.

Numerous Hindu holidays are celebrated in India, the major ones being *Holi* (the festival of colours) and *Diwali* (the festival of lights) which are recognized as gazetted or mandatory holidays. Diwali is like Christmas for Hindus when gifts are exchanged not only with family but also with friends. Some organisations provide bonuses while others offer gifts to employees.

Some Hindu festivals such as *Karva Chauth* (the festival of a wife fasting all day to pray for her husband's long life) and *Raksha-bandhan* (the festival to strengthen the bond between brothers and sisters) are observed. Many of these also have an important impact on the workplace, for example, bonuses on Diwali are an important marker of how much the employees are valued by their employer. In fact, when workers at a Japanese company in India-Honda Motorcycle and Scooters India Ltd. were given a lower than expected value of the Diwali gift, it led to the formation of a labour union which went on strike resulting in violence and a major financial loss to the company (Saini, 2007).

Religion and Spirituality

"Spirituality is distinguished from institutionalized religion by being characterized as a private, inclusive, non-denominational, universal human feeling: rather than an adherence to the beliefs, rituals or practices of a specific organized religious institution or tradition" (Karakas, 2010:91). Karakas posits that there are over 70 definitions of spirituality at work but there is none that is universally accepted (Karakas, 2010). There is evidence of growing spirituality around the world in a number of multinational corporations in the form of prayer groups, inter-faith dialogue, reflection sessions, meditation exercises, yoga sessions and servant leadership development programs under their diversity initiatives, religious accommodations or corporate social responsibility policies for enhancing organizational performance and profitability. However, from the secular perspective religious and spiritual beliefs are considered to be a personal and private matter raising "negative connotations with the focus often being religious militantism, dogmatic prejudices, uncompromising and excluding attitudes, and religious worship practices and ceremonies disrupting organizational life and performance" (Bendl and Groshl, 2015:1). But this is not so in secular India. Pardasani, Sharma et al (2014); Sharma and Pardasani (2015) and Sharma & Sagar (2013) have analysed several facets from Indian spiritual traditions for facilitating workplace spirituality and religious diversity in India and their application in effective human resource management. India is a secular country by its constitution, which is ingrained with religious values, beliefs. People in general and employees (managers or employees alike) prominently display religious symbols and practices in their daily personal and professional lives; which provides undisputed evidence of the presence of religious identity and intersectionality in the workplace with many implications for individuals and organizations.

Due to the significant presence of multiple religions in India, religious differences are respected by law and by custom, though, occasionally inter- intra- religious tensions and conflicts do erupt impacting people and communities. At the time of reconstruction of India after independence Mahatma Gandhi, was concerned about discrimination based on caste, religion and gender (Varshney, 2002), therefore, these were addressed while drafting the Indian Constitution which was adopted by Indian parliament in 1950 and continues to be the most authoritative document. Crowne (2013) posits that poverty sometimes plays a key role as a backdrop that can lead to ethnic violence. There are some sensitive issues like Hindus worship the cow and consider it sacred, therefore, slaughtering of cows raises emotions and sometimes arouses tension among the believers). Similarly, pork is not sold in most restaurants to respect the feelings of the Muslim community. Religious dietary restrictions are respected in most Indian homes and workplaces. People of religious diversity have been living and working together in harmony for centuries evidencing religious tolerance derived from Hinduism principle of 'interconnectedness'.

Mitroff and Denton (1999) define spirituality as "the basic feeling of being connected with one's complete self, others and the entire universe" (p.83). Neck (2002) sees a link between workplace spirituality and creativity, honesty, trust, personal fulfillment and increased commitment to

organizational goals. Spirituality also leads to a higher awareness of self and others and would lead to a personal vision or meaning in life (Mitroff & Denton, 1999a). Mitroff, referred to spirituality as "the desire to find ultimate purpose in life and to live accordingly" (Cavanagh, 1999). Pawar (2009) suggests spirituality for an individual as an affective and cognitive experience of spiritual connection to work and workplace. At the organizational level, it is the practice of spiritual values as part of organizational culture and therefore, affects behaviors, decisions and resource allocation. "Although some research reveals that organizations with voluntary spirituality programs have had higher profits and success (Karakas 2010:92), spirituality is not to be used as an administrative/managerial tool to manipulate employees for increasing the financial performance of the organization. This is advocated by scholars cautioning on the potential misuse or abuse of spirituality in the workplace (Fernando, 2005).

The Indian workplace has mixed influence of ancient Hindu mythologies, indigenous mindset, colonial experiences, and globalization. Many companies celebrate major festivals such as, *Christmas, Eid, Holi* and *Diwali* by organizing special events for the employees. Religious rituals such as reciting prayers or hyms, worship, *yagna* (invocation of deities with mantras), reading of religious texts are performed on special occasions such as opening of a new business/store/office for good luck and welfare. There are prayer rooms for various faiths in some offices at Mahindra and Mahindra Tech. Though JP Morgan does not have a prayer room, Muslim employees use one of the meeting rooms for prayers (Layak, 2015).Some companies such as Starbucks and Tata allow their staff to do a little religious ceremony or prayer of their choice when opening stores. Birla group employs Hindus, Parsis, Muslims and Buddhists and takes special care of their needs (Layak, 2015). Therefore, focus is on secularism- treating all the religions alike. Yoga and meditation classes are offered in some organizations in the mornings/ during lunch/ or evening hours/weekends where employees from all the religions participate on voluntary basis. The Indian government recognizes holidays for all religions. This evidences that secularism is practiced at Indian workplaces in letter and spirit. A review of 140 articles on spirituality and performance in organizations yields that spirituality improves employees' performance and organizational effectiveness in three ways: i) it enhances employee well-being and quality of life, ii) provides a sense of purpose and meaning at work, and iii) gives a sense of community and inter-connectedness (Karakas, 2010). This is seen in practice at the Indian workplaces, thus spirituality can be leveraged effectively by human resource (HR) managers, practitioners and policy makers to promote religious tolerance at the workplace.

Conclusion

India's religious, linguistic, geographic, ethnic, cultural and socioeconomic diversity is more complex in its breadth, depth and scope than any other country in the world. This makes workplace policies and practices complicated at many levels of sensitivity, understanding, coverage and implementation. In terms of religion, Hinduism is not a homogeneous religion as there are many different sects, beliefs and practices within it. India is constitutionally a secular nation with equal respect for all religions and there are no reservations based on religion per se (Haq, 2010:182). While the caste system originates from Hinduism, casteism is a universal Indian issue today (Haq, 2010). However, conflicts over India's reservations policy are a common occurrence and require greater sensitivity at the social level and the workplace. Tolerance for religious diversity which has been the strength of the Indian culture needs to be refocused at the social level, although manifestations of religious diversity seem to be generally accepted at the workplace. This paper fills a gap in management literature linking Hinduism, spiritual principles and valuing religious diversity as an organizational resource.

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RELATIONAL LEADERSHIP: DEVELOPING LEADERS FOR CREATIVE AND INNOVATIVE AMBIENCES

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Abstract

The relational approach assumes that leadership arises from the interrelation of different dimensions - beyond those unidirectional ones between leader-follower - that, besides the individual level, also include the organizational and societal ones. Within such a context, the purpose of this essay, which articulates different fields of knowledge, disciplines and epistemological bases, articulating them from an anthropophagic - or *bricoler* (Lévi-Strauss, 1989) method - lies in proposing a device to develop and exercise relational leadership in creation and innovation organizational contexts: the "Relational Leadership Development Spiral" involves the *Socialization-Externalization-Combination-Internalization* schema developed by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1997), and the four speeches formulated by Lacan (2008) within the context of psychoanalysis.

Introduction

The relational leadership approach presupposes that leadership arises from the interrelation of different dimensions - besides those unidirectional ones between leader-follower - encompassing not only individual levels but also organizational and societal ones (Uhl-Bien, 2006; Gittell, 2011; Sant'Anna, Nelson, Carvalho Neto, 2015). Thus, it focuses on the complex interactions underlying the dynamics of influence and change at different spheres and levels. According to Uhl-Bien (2006), relational processes make up the core issue that guides her investigations, in which leadership emerges and is exercised.

Therefore, unlike approaches aiming at researching traits, individual attributes or effective leadership behaviors, mostly centered on the individual or, at most, on the leader-follower dyad, relational leadership emphasizes relationships through which leadership is built on, activated, exercised and reconfigured. The relational perspective also aims to overcome leadership notions that are excessively linked to developing the skills required of the occupants of managerial positions, thus validating the importance of gaining a broader understanding of leadership as a phenomenon that permeates the universe of human relations, as well as of different actors and not only those included in the hierarchical structures of organizations (Ospina, Kersh, Quick, 2014). Another feature of relational leadership is its appreciation of the context dimension, both of the macro context and of the organizational and micro physical environments where it takes place. At the same time, it is guided towards building and supporting enabling multi-level contexts within which new leadership styles are required due to new macro environmental and organizational settings that are increasingly relational: networked organizations, virtual organizations, local productive arrangements, and others.

Despite its potential contributions, relational leadership is a relatively recent theme. Thus, its meaning and implications are still open to different interpretations (Uhl-Bien, 2006). A recent review of international and national production on the topic (Sant'Anna, 2015) corroborates the low volume of works aimed at its research studies, while highlighting studies carried out by Uhl-Bien (2003; 2006), Day and Harrison (2007), Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011), Gittell (2011), Ospina, Kersh and Quick (2014) and, in Brazil, Sant'Anna, Nelson, Carvalho Neto (2015).

According to Gittell (2011), however, two elements are common to the approaches that surround the theme: 1. the notion of decentralized and collective leadership; 2. the notion of leadership that is not linked to hierarchical positions. Furthermore, in terms of its development, they emphasize: 1. the exercise of an intuitive mind that can understand the complex and natural forces that influence the construction of collective meanings; 2. the analytical thinking ability needed to understand complex situations and problems; 3. the skill to integrate uncertainty into the environment.

It is within the current context, which is remarkable for demanding new styles of leadership that are capable of more effective responses to building creation and innovation organizational environments, that the proposal of this essay emerges, which, based on the articulation of different bodies of knowledge, epistemological bases, disciplines and authors, whether directly related to the relational leadership construct (Uhl-Bien, 2003; 2006; Day & Harrison, 2007; Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011; Gittell, 2011; Ospina, Kersh, Quick, 2014; Sant'Anna, Nelson, Carvalho Neto, 2015), or to notions such as femininity, transfer, symptom and fantasy, contributed by psychoanalysis (André, 2001; Miller, 2002; Lacan, 2008), or even to studies on knowledge management (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1997), consists of proposing a device to develop and exercise relational leadership within creation and innovation organizational contexts.

Leadership in creation and innovation contexts

At the organizational level, it seems intuitive to articulate relational leadership and the promotion of devices targeted towards building organizational environments that will fit the demands of the current competitiveness standard, which is based on flexibility and innovation, such as those forged around the notions of *Enabling Context* or *Ba*, as elaborated by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1997). According to these authors, human knowledge is created and expanded by means of social interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge. Furthermore, individuals learn when involved in everyday activities that require interaction with others and with the outside environment. Hence they call attention to the importance of shared learning, at a collective level, highlighting the importance of the group in this process.

Based on the *Enabling Context* or *Ba* device, the authors propose the construction of *loci* that are adhere more closely to the demands for knowledge creation within an organizational environment that promotes the initiatives needed for the flow of tacit knowledge. According to Von Krogh, Ichijo and Nonaka (2001), the enabling context is a shared space that works as a basis for the creation of knowledge and is characterized by a network of interactions. *"Ba"* integrates the physical, human and virtual spaces involved in knowledge creation. According to these authors, promoting an enabling context implies, therefore, in creating conditions that will make the environment more encouraging as regards promoting creative knowledge and innovation activities. From such a perspective, organizations can be understood as *loci* that integrate relations among people who mobilize knowledge, one of their functions being the *management* of this intangible fundamental resource. This implies, among other factors, in a demand for specific creation, application sharing, and, sometimes, external knowledge transfer

processes, this capacity being a key factor to create value and obtain competitive advantage (Bresman, Birkinshaw, Nobel, 1999; Grant, 1996; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1997).

Beyond the classic management sphere, there is also demand for leadership relations that can attract, develop and retain the human talents the device requires, as well as to deal with the personal and subjective nature of tacit knowledge. After all, for it to become collective there must be a culture of innovation that encourages the interaction and the carrying out of observation, practice and collective learning activities (Kogut & Zander, 1992; Nonaka &Takeuchi, 1997). Given its characteristics, it is possible to infer about the difficulties of articulating tacit knowledge, given its status as a captive and valuable asset and, therefore, an important source of value creation and competitiveness (Grant, 1996; Kogut & Zander, 1992; Szulanski, 1996). Thus, it becomes a relevant matter to understand the dynamics through which an organization will create, maintain and exploit this resource.

According to Nonaka, Toyama and Konno (2000), knowledge creation consists of a spiral that develops from these three elements, thus making it possible to overcome old routines through the acquisition of a new context, a new vision of the world, and new knowledge. In general, it is by using existing knowledge assets that an organization creates new knowledge through the process of converting the tacit and explicit knowledge that occurs in *Ba*, where new knowledge, once created, will become the basis for a new spiral of knowledge creation (Nonaka, Toyama, Konno, 2000; Nonaka, Krogh, Voelpel, 2006). Knowledge is created through interactions among individuals or between individuals and their environment, occurring at different organizational levels and even beyond the borders of a company. An individual (micro-level) influences and is influenced by the environment (macro level) with which he interacts (Nonaka, Toyama, Konno, 2000). In organizations, many vital processes of innovation, change and renewal can be analyzed through the lens of the conversion of tacit knowledge into explicit one (Nonaka, Krogh, Voelpel, 2006).

As regards the process to convert tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, the authors assume that knowledge is created and expands through the interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge, based on four modes of conversion: *Socialization, Externalization, Combination* and *Internalization* - SECI (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1997).

According to them, *Socialization* is the process of creating new tacit knowledge by sharing experiences, feelings and mental models. In this case, it is common to use informal and loosely structured mechanisms such as informal meetings, group dialogue, communities of practice, and observation activities (Nonaka, Krogh, Voelpel, 2006). On the other hand, *Externalization* is the process of articulating/clarifying tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge. In this stage it is essential to use metaphors, analogies, schema and models. *Combination*, in turn, implies the articulation of different types of explicit knowledge, generating a more systematized and complex set of explicit knowledge. Lastly, *Internalization* is the process of turning explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge, which is similar to what is called learning by doing. It is when knowledge is internalized to become a part of the tacit knowledge database of individuals, under the guise of mental models or know-how, that it becomes a very valuable asset. Tacit knowledge accumulated at the individual level can initiate a new spiral of knowledge creation when it is shared with other individuals by means of socialization (Nonaka, Toyama, Konno, 2000; Nonaka, Krogh, Voelpel, 2006).

The knowledge creation process cannot be *managed* in the traditional sense of the term, which implies planning, organization, control and assessment activities. The main function of *leadership*,

in this case, is to create a favorable context for the multiplication of this process throughout the organization (Nonaka, Toyama, Konno, 2000). Furthermore, the leadership process must be distributed. Those involved in a leadership position articulate and disseminate the knowledge management vision, encourage the sharing of knowledge assets and create a favorable context, or a "Ba Context" (Nonaka and Konno, 1998). From this perspective, which are the organizational conditions that would be favorable to *Ba*? Despite their not exhausting the subject, some variables are recurrently highlighted in literature: structure, organizational model and the *relational dimension of leadership*. Regarding this last item, what is particularly emphasized is the key role leadership plays in establishing the conditions needed to create knowledge, including a compatible degree of autonomy, a certain creative chaos, diversity, trust, commitment, social and emotional connection (Nonaka, Toyama, Konno, 2000; Nonaka, Krogh, Voelpel, 2006).

Relational leadership development spiral

In view of the path delineated up to now, which turned out to involve a mainstreamed perspective of different knowledge fields, epistemological bases, concepts and notions, the effect of this anthropophagic method (Oiticica Filho, 2011; Andrade, 1976) - or *bricoler* (Lévi-Strauss, 1989) - leads to the proposition of a *Relational Leadership Development Spiral*, which runs through the SECI schema (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1997), incorporating elements of the psychoanalysis.

By engaging in conversation with psychoanalytic knowledge (Miller, 2002), and by analogy with the roles of manager and leader, we could consider the position of the therapist and the analyst according to the dominance of the position they place themselves in the four speeches formulated by Lacan (2008). They are the speeches of the *Master*, the *University*, the *Hysteric* and the *Analyst*. We could summarize the *Master*'s speech as the one in which subject occupies the dominant position, there being a subject who *knows* and not a *subject supposed to know*. Also, we could limit ourselves to stressing that the speech of the *Analyst* is the reverse, the only one in which the other takes the place of *subject*. If we adopt the *Master*'s speech as a starting point, we will find it possible to obtain the others by a one-quarter spin of the letters that make up its formula. Thus, by a one-quarter spin starting from the *Master*'s speech we will arrive at the *Hysteric's* speech. In this speech, the symptom is the dominant position represented by the subject. In it, the hysteric will embrace the other as the master to whom he will drive his demand to cure the symptom. By observing the production of the *Hysteric's* speech we will find knowledge occupying the place of production, which places itself in the field of the other.

By performing one more quarter turn we will reach the University's speech. As the statute of the University's speech we will find knowledge that intends to objectify the other in order to produce a subject decoupled from its primordial significants (Coutinho Jorge, 2008). On the other hand, the *leader* circulates the speeches, focusing his ethical stance with reference to the *Analyst's* speech. His position is that of the object that causes desire in the other. He recognizes that *fantasy* is something that no one wants to know about, inasmuch as it leads to the axiom of "his way of being". He also recognizes that no significant is able to highlight it, as well as being well aware that it is impossible to change it. Therefore, such findings assume a much deeper change, because what is sought is a certain change in the person's *subjective position*. And this is not a matter of a problem-solving technique, of training or of cure.

In other words, what is sought is *fantasy* as a means to place jouissance within the pleasure principle. Its operation consists of once again opening the dimension of what lies beyond the pleasure principle, looking to link - to the extent to which it may be possible in the space among the registers of the Real, the Symbolic and the Imaginary - jouissance and pleasure. And that,

according to Miller (2002, p. 109), "[...] when it deals with the issue of fantasy it is very useful because it corresponds both to the manifestation of the desire of the *Other* while, at the same time, corresponding to the manifestation of a lack in the field of the significant".

Still according to Miller (2002), the *symptom* and the demand for its resolution are only points of entry, the points to establish the relationship. However, it is the *fantasy* that determines the *symptom*. Thus, given a *symptom* it would be possible to find the *fantasy* that determines it. As per Freud, Miller (2002) believes the movement would, therefore, happen from *symptoms* to *fantasies*, on a journey that makes the latter appear as a precursor of the former. Thus, the operation of the *analyst* would thereby promote turns on the *symptom-fantasy* spiral, aiming at subjective, *successive subjective rectifications*.

Relational leadership development spiral

As result, a relational leadership development and exercise device is suggested at the organizational level, covering four moments. At the first moment is the *Master's speech* that prevails. At this stage, called *Socialization* (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1997), the leader-led dyad would be oriented by a *transfer-repetition*, and the subject in a leadership position must be aware of the underlying seductions to the demand or complaint that is directed at him. Such seduction stems mainly from his position as the *Other* in the structure of the relationship. As he has been promoted to the position of supposed to *know subject*, the subject in a leadership position must be aware that relational leadership will consist, primarily, of allowing the group to find out that, in a real sense, there is no such supposed to know. Actually, it constitutes the subject in a leadership position's desire. The desire not to identify oneself as the "Lord of the truth", to respect the group's individuality by not being an ideal, a model, an educator. In short, the desire to leave room for the group's desire to emerge. To extricate oneself from such a trap, the device assumes that the subject in a leadership position is able to listen, to allow the group to speak. The core issue permeating this moment is, therefore, *"[…] to which problematics does the symptom introduce us to?"* (Miller, 2002, p. 97).

The turn that follows on the spiral will involve an equal turn in the speech, which will seek to orient itself by the *University's* speech. The idea is to allow the group to seek out and try the external, the weird, the outlier. To lead the group to investigate the possibilities of settling the demand or complaint through bibliographic surveys, conversations with experts, contacts with other people, situations, groups and organizations. In this stage - *Externalization* - the occupant of the subject in a leadership position position must then act as the one who fosters the process of articulating-explaining tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge by allowing the group to symbolize it through metaphors, analogies, diagrams and drawings. Such a step is vital for the next turn, whose emphasis is on the *histerization* of the speech, as a harbinger of the move to the level of the *Analyst's* speech.

Therefore, this third moment concerns a turn in the direction of the *Hysteric's* speech. The focus will fall on the group's questioning his own demand, complaints or the early means used to settle them. It will also involve the group's recognition of the prevalence of desire, which, as such, will always go unsatisfied. It will also involve recognizing that there is no perfect solution. Through the *Combination* of the elements and the remnants of the previous moments, it will be possible to produce a new and more complex set of possibilities or even the emergence of new significants, allowing the opening of new significant chains, the creation of something effectively original. This is done by combining proprietary aspects that derive from experts, other groups, situations and organizations.

Lastly, the fourth turn - *Internalization* - aims to achieve a much deeper transformation than the settling of the *symptom* that triggered the relationship. What is being sought in this stage is a certain change in the group's *subjective position* within the *fundamental fantasy* that mainstreamed the relationship. It is not a question of interpreting this *fantasy*, even as it falls outside the significant. Neither is it of "curing", as Miller (2002) has advised us. On the contrary, the transformation that is sought is that the group components should question themselves about what his *fantasy* masks in the relationship, overcoming the illusion that one *Other* will appear as a complete one, as the master and Lord of his desire. In other words, he must recognize his own style, his uniqueness, his "way of being", and leaderhip style (Miller, 2002, p. 128).

Conclusions

To sum up the *management-leadership* dyad, Zaleznik (1977) believes that while the goals expected of a manager would derive from needs and not from wills, as they would come to the fore as they pacified conflicts and, at the same time, ensured that an organization's day-to-day activities would be met. Leaders, on the other hand, would adopt personal and proactive attitudes in relation to objectives, they would look for opportunities and rewards that are right there, inspiring and fostering the creative process through their own energy. Their relations with subordinates and colleagues would be intense, and the work environment would usually be chaotic. However, this author believes that if organizations are to survive and succeed, they must be challenged to demand people who can articulate themselves through both of these positions - similar to the movement of the Möbius strip, which we have already mentioned - as well as to overcome obstacles and identify opportunities to build enabling contexts that are favorable to them.

Three decades later, the same challenges identified by Zaleznik (1977) become even more apparent, although, paradoxically, they perpetuate a certain managerial mystique around the leadership function that emphasizes developing managerial personalities that depend on disciplined work patterns and that strive, as much as possible, to maintain them. Just like a certain management ethic related to power that emphasizes collective leadership, however, it seeks, to the utmost, to eliminate risks and vulnerabilities arising from individual dependencies. In addition, of course, to a mystique around the very notion of leadership that assumes that only people of great value are worthy of the drama of power and politics.

If in Zaleznik's time the traditional notion about management was centered on structure and organizational processes while focusing on management development with an emphasis on qualification, control and balance of power, thus omitting essential leadership elements of leadership, nowadays it can be ascertained that organizations increasingly concern themselves with enhancing the scope of knowledge, skills and attitudes of their management profiles, incorporating individual attributes that used to be expected only of those who occupied leadership positions. But why not develop leadership on new and broader bases, more horizontal and on more relational bases? Why not emphasize organizational learning processes and organizational development that will emphasize creation and innovation through leadership? This essay's findings point to an articulation between different knowledge fields and theoretical perspectives as possibilities to reach answers.

Lastly, as Maturana (1997) reminds us, reductionist solutions cannot be applied to complex issues. On the contrary, the best solution often comes exactly from introducing more complexity into the system, which will lead to the opening up of new mental paths and to forcing an organization to not limit itself only to the instance of overcoming the *symptom*, but to advancing

the fortunes and misfortunes of creation and innovation by overcoming the *fantasies* that mainstream it.

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PART – 2
MOTIVATION

ORGANIZATIONS' MANAGEMENT: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE VARIABLES VALUES, MOTIVATION, COMMITMENT, PERFORMANCE AND REWARDS

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Abstract

Individuals hold personal values, guide and motivational basis for their behavior, which can influence the type of commitment with the organization and the results generated, especially if there is satisfaction with the rewards received. Based on this enchainment, the objective is to validate an hypothetical structural model that analyzes the influence among five constructs and to assess whether such model changes over time. This is a longitudinal, quantitative, descriptive and conclusive study, using Structural Equation Modeling, via PLS, considering a non-probabilistic sample for convenience, in four organizations in Minas Gerais, through anonymous structured questionnaire. The results highlight the studied theories, showing relationship of influence between the constructs. Moreover, the model has not changed significantly in the three stages investigated.

Introduction

Significant economic and social changes are taking place in the global context resulting from the accelerated process of globalization and advances in production technology, computer science and telecommunications areas (Gracioli et al., 2012). These changes point to new forms of perception of the society by organizations, which have become vulnerable as to their productivity, competitiveness, innovation and learning.

The intellectual capital of an organization is essential source of competitive advantage and must be managed more systematically (Gracioli et al., 2012) to obtain better results. The organizations performance is linked to the achievement of the results obtained by the human capital, comprised of individuals with expectations, skills and ways of perceiving the facts different from one another. They have a set of personal values, composed of needs, attitudes and beliefs about life and explain the motivational bases of attitudes and behaviors of the individuals (Schwartz, 2006).

Realizing the importance for organizations in seeking effective solutions for people management, this study starts from an hypothetical structural model covering the constructs *values*, *motivation*, *commitment*, *performance* and *rewards*. It aims to: a) validate, through a methodological and theoretical model, the relationship of influence between these constructs; b) assess whether the model changes over time (three different moments), in certain organizations.

It is proposed, therefore, an analysis of the relationship of influence among these constructs, established through a research performed with professionals of organizations of Belo Horizonte/MG, Brazil. This proposal is aimed at understanding how groups of individuals endowed with different values behave guided by relations, in an integrated manner, between motivation, commitment, performance and rewards. It is expected to contribute to the

continuous managerial challenge of assimilating what involve the behaviors and choices of their professionals in dynamic scenarios.

Theoretical Background

Aiming to consolidate the theoretical model of this study, the literature review focused on the understanding of *human values*, *motivation*, *commitment*, *performance* and *rewards*. The presented theoretical basis converges with the proposition of the study that there is a relationship between these constructs, as described below.

The **values** are related to what the individual sees as desirable in certain aspects of life that direct their actions and evaluations (Rokeach & Regan, 1980). They are constituted in a motivational construction and refer to desirable goals that people strive to achieve (Schwartz, 2006; Gouveia 1998, 2009). Based on this, the **hypothesis 1** of this study shows that the values affect the motivation of the individual.

The **motivation** is related to movement, motive. "A motive is the reaction to do something, to move in a particular direction (Armstrong, 2007, p. 120)". According to Locke (2000), the concept of motivation is grounded by the needs, values, emotions and objectives of the individual. They are forces derived from the inside of a person, responsible for the active engagement and the intentional direction of his/her efforts (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Thus, the effort, the contribution and the commitment, at the organizational level, are affected from these elements. These findings lead us to the **hypothesis 2** of this research, which assumes that the motivation influences the commitment of the individual.

The organizational **commitment** is like "a psychological state that connects the individual to the organization" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 14) and determines the relationship between the employee and the organization, producing implications for the employee's decision to remain there. The studies about organizational commitment are based on the assumption that high employee engagement levels are able to provide improvement of their performance in the organization (Medeiros & Albuquerque, 2005; Maciel & Camargo, 2011), highlighting the **hypothesis 3** of the model proposed here, where the commitment influences the employee performance.

The **performance** is related to the value expected by the organization. It is important to consider the individual differences on the result of work performance and analyze it in the context of the task, as cognitive and contextual skill, with regard to personal variables (Motowidlo, 2003). The performance presents measurement challenges, because it is influenced by factors such as regulatory restrictions, staff, managers and resources (Lyster & Arthur, 2007). It is a substantial component of the motivation model: more effort and involvement can lead to a better performance, which, in turn, leads to rewards. If the employees do not perceive this relationship as fair, the performance will be compromised (Murray & Gerhart, 1998). These assumptions lead us to the **hypothesis 4**, where it is perceived the influence of the performance self-perception in the compensation satisfaction.

The **rewards** systems represent "the set of instruments coherent and aligned with the company's strategy, which are the return of the contribution made by the employee to the business results through his/her professional performance" (Camara, 2006, p. 87). They can be of a material and immaterial nature and are designed to enhance the worker motivation and productivity (Vroom, 1964; Camara, 2006), representing the **hypothesis 5**, where it is noted the influence among the satisfaction with the reward and the motivation.

Locke and Latham (2002) reinforce that the performance and the rewards can generate satisfaction among the employees, which makes them give themselves new challenges. This process provides feedback of some elements, including the commitment, constituting the **hypothesis 6**, which represents the influence of the satisfaction with the reward in the commitment.

It is emphasized the importance of reward in the organizational context, which relates to the valorization and the recognition of the employee's work, and greatly influences the motivation, commitment and performance of the employees and, thus, the organization's results.

The theoretical basis described above supports the hypothetical structural model (Figure 1) following post.

Methodological Strategies

The methodological approach proposed for this study is quantitative, because it has objective character, seeks to measure a phenomenon, to analyze numerical data and to apply statistical tests (Collis & Hussey, 2005). Regarding its objectives, it is characterized as a conclusive descriptive research, because it is based on representative samples, it is formal, structured, and its findings are used as data for managerial decision making (Malhotra, 2012). It is also classified as a longitudinal study unbalanced in time (Fitzmaurice, Laird & Ware, 2014), since it was applied in a year and a half, at three different times, with different groups of individuals measured at each time.

To answer the research question: *What is the relationship of influence between the constructs values, motivation, commitment, performance and rewards?*, it was proposed an hypothetical structural model called "Virtuous Circle of Professional Life" (described in Figure 1 and not included in this stretch due to the space limitation), which depicts the relationship of influence between the variables involved.

It was investigated whether the described model was able to portray the possible statistical relationships between the analyzed phenomena and to demonstrate changes in the three surveyed steps, in each organization (Table 1), according to the presented assumptions (see previous chapter), through the relationship of influences (positive) between the respective constructs.

TABLE 1 – Summary of the investigated organizations

Organization	Product/Service	Sphere	Branch	Employees number
A	Construction Material (CM)	Private	Retail	130
B	Technology (TE)	Private	Industry	240
C	Advertising Agency (AA)	Private	Service	98
D	Minas Gerais Secretary of State (SS)	Public	Service	1.300

Source: Elaborated by the author

It was made a field research with individuals of these organizations in the metropolitan region of Belo Horizonte, in Minas Gerais / Brazil, from August / 2014 to November / 2015, with an average interval of six months between each time.

The elements of the sample were collected in a non-probabilistic way, for accessibility and convenience of the researcher (Malhotra, 2012). For data collection was used an anonymous structured questionnaire applied in accordance with the reality of each organization and the researched individual.

To compare the items of each construct, for each organization, in different times, it was used the average and the bootstrap percentile interval of 95% of confidence, and the items were distributed on a Likert scale (1-10). The Structural Equation Modeling was performed using the PLS approach (Partial Least Square), which offers an alternative to the traditional approach of setting a structural model based on CBSEM covariance structure (Covariance-based Structural Equation Modeling Techniques).

To verify the validity of the measurement model were measured: a) the *convergent* validity (average variance extracted - AVE, which must be greater than 50%); b) the *discriminant* validity (maximum shared variance greater than the respective AVEs); c) the *reliability* (Cronbach's alpha - CA and composite reliability - CR, which must be greater than 0.70); and d) the *dimensionality* (criterion of parallel analysis). The structural equation model and the measurement model were adjusted for each moment in time, and the models were compared using the multi-group comparisons. To check the quality of the model adjustments, the R2 and the GoF were used. For Structural Equation Modeling via PLS method was used the plspm function () of the plspm package of the R software (version 3.2.2).

It was evaluated the univariate and multivariate outliers in order to check different response patterns and adjust the collected elements. The linearity of the data and constructs was also analyzed. For all constructs were observed p-value lesser than 0.001, indicating that there are significant evidences of linearity within the constructs.

This study involves complex components, since it includes structural equation modeling and multi-groups analysis, with a non-recursive model, in a study over time, with four different organizations.

Analysis and Discussion of Results

The sample of this study was represented by employees with signed labor cart, from four organizations (Table 1), which are not part of their management body. In all of them there is some kind of incentive or variable remuneration to their employees.

It was found the following samples in the three times (t1, t2 and t3): CM: t1 = 93, t2 = 93, t3 = 84; AA: t1 = 68, t2 = 63, t3 = 58; TE: t1 = 82, t2 = 108, t3 = 79; and SS: t1 = 377, t2 = 338, t3 = 310, with a total average of 600 respondents in each stage of the research. The sample size was based on test power for regression analysis assuming a 5% level of significance and test power of 80% (Cohen, 1992).

All constructs showed convergent validity (AVE > 0.40). The majority of the constructs presented Cronbach's alpha (CA) values and Composite Reliability (CR) higher than 0.60. In all constructs the adjustment of the Factor Analysis was adequate, since all KMO were greater than or equal to 0.50. And, by the Parallel Lines criterion, all constructs were one-dimensional.

The **first objective** of this study was to validate the adequacy of the proposed hypothetical structural model, analyzing the relationship of influence between surveyed constructs.

The research has validated completely the structural model at the Minas Gerais Secretary of State (SS), a public organization, as shown in Figure 1, given the raised hypotheses in the three phases of the study, corroborating the studied theory:

- **H1:** The individual *values* positively influence his/her *motivation* > Kamakura & Novak (1992); Schwartz (1999, 2006), Locke (2000); Gouveia (1998, 2009); Steel & Konic (2006); Armstrong (2007).

- **H2:** The *motivation* positively influences the *commitment* to be established > Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004); Steers, Mowday and Shapiro (2004); Armstrong (2007).

- **H3:** The *commitment* positively influences the *performance* of the individual > Bastos (1993); Mowday (1998); Stephens, Dawley and Stephens (2004); Maciel and Camargo (2011).

- **H4:** The self-perception of the achieved *performance* positively influences the satisfaction with the *rewards* of the individual > Vroom (1964); Latham and Locke (1990); Chamber (2006); Jensen, McMullen and Stark (2007); Marras (2012); Reis Neto et. al (2012).

- **H5:** The satisfaction with the *rewards* positively influences the *motivation* of the individual > Vroom (1964); Latham and Locke (1990); O'Driscoll and Randall (1999); Camara (2006).

- **H6:** The satisfaction with the *rewards* positively influences the *commitment* of the individual with the organization > O'Driscoll and Randall (1999); Armstrong (2007).

FIGURE 1- Structural model in the SS organization in times 1, 2 and 3
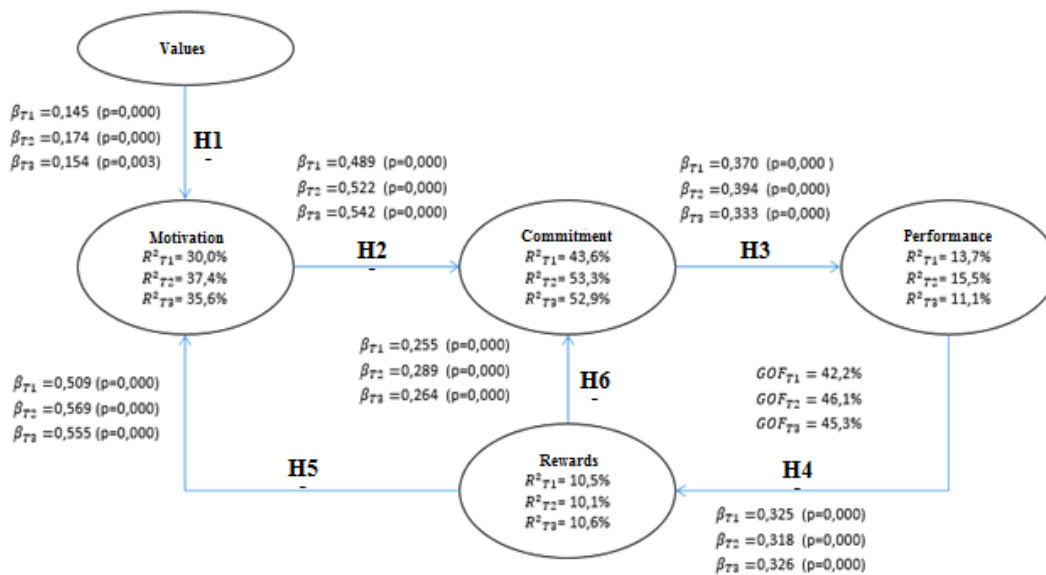
Source: Original of this research based on: Allen & Meyer (1990); Armstrong (2007); Bastos (1993); Camara (2006); Deci & Ryan (2000); Gouveia (1998, 2009); Jensen, McMullen & Stark (2007); Kamura & Novak (1992); Liou (2008); Locke (2000); Locke & Latham (2002); Marras (2012); Meyer & Allen (1997); Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe (2004); Mohamed, Taylor & Hassan (2006); Mowday (1998); O'Driscoll & Randall (1999); Reis Neto *et al.* (2012); Rokeach & Regan (1980); Steers, Mowday & Shapiro (2004); Steel & Konic (2006); Schwartz (1992, 1999, 2006); Somers & Birbaum (2000); Vroom (1964).

As shown in Figure 1, the assumptions of the model, in the SS, were confirmed in the three stages of the study (p-value greater than 0.05). The GoF – the adjustment quality measurement of the structural model - was around 44.5%. And the R², the coefficient that explains the values, remained similar in the three times and the highest rate was in relation to the "commitment".

In the private organizations surveyed, the hypotheses were partially confirmed, meeting the majority of them, in the three stages, as shown below in Figure 2.

FIGURE 2 - Structural Model for *CM*, *AA* and *TE* organizations in the three stages
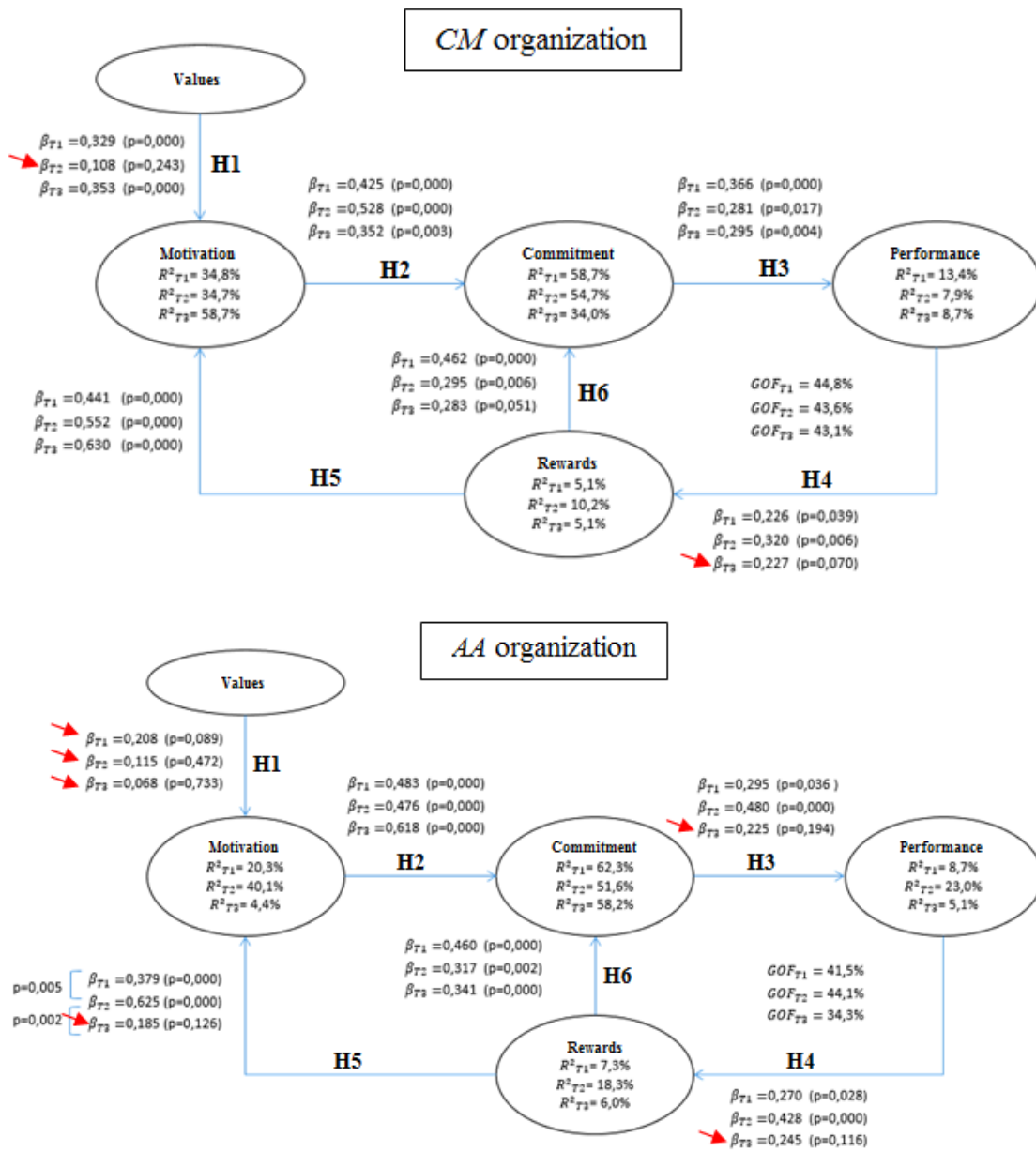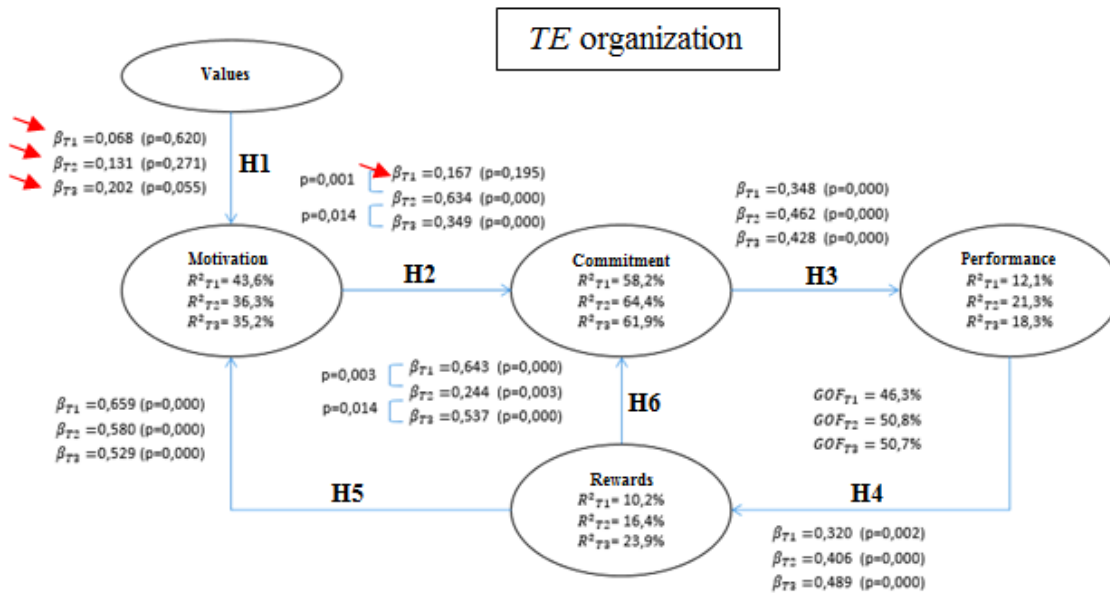
Source: Original of this research.

In the *CM* organization, two hypotheses were not confirmed in two specific moments (H1, t1 and H4, t3). In the *AA* organization, the H1 was not confirmed in any of the three stages, and three other hypotheses (H3, H4 and H5) were not confirmed in the third stage of the research. In the *TE* organization, the H1 also was not confirmed in the three stages and the H2 was not confirmed only in t1.

These findings indicate that: a) the hypothesis 1 (personal values positively influence the motivation of the individual) was not confirmed in two organizations, although the literature indicates this relationship. One of the possibilities of these results is the nature of the individuals and such organizations, the form of the questionnaire application or the obtained sample; b) the other hypotheses that have not been confirmed were very punctual and it was not possible to detect a particular reason.

The **second objective** was to analyze the ability of this model to point out modifications in the relations between the constructs due to the changes in the four organizations, over about a year and a half, in three different moments. It is observed when comparing the investigated steps, that the model did not show significant changes in its relationships of influence between the constructs. This demonstrates, in this particular study, that the evaluated period was not decisive for changes occurred with respect to the proposed model, presenting a degree of stability in relation to the surveyed variables. This proposed objective has no parallel in the literature.

The studied model, called "Virtuous Circle of Professional Life", symbolizes a process performed by the employee in order to act, to commit, generate results and feel fulfilled within the organization. Based on referenced authors, the model shows that individuals have their *personal values* and these values are guides in their lives, they are *motivational basis* for their behavior, attitudes and choices. At the corporate level, they will exert influence on the type of link and effort that the individual will choose and practice in the organization. The form and intensity of *commitment* of this individual can generate important results for him/her and the organization, especially if he or she feels satisfied with the types of *reward* received. In this direction, the employee remains motivated and committed, making this cycle flows.

To understand the human values, the behaviors and motivations of the individuals is not a simple task, but required to be included. The prerogative that the values affect the motivation has been studied in order to explain what makes individuals choose one behavior over another and why different individuals respond differently to the same motivational stimuli (Carsrud & Brannback, 2011). Pay attention to what connects the professional to the organization, how reward him/her and generate significant results for both sides, is essential task in the people management perspective. After all, individuals, teams and organizations are different and they change over time, even if gradually, fruit of the environment in which they live and interact.

Final Considerations

In general, this study made it possible to test and validate the proposed hypothetical structural model in a public organization and validate it partially in three private organizations, being possible, therefore, to respond to the presented objectives.

The research sought to examine the ability of this model to assess the influence between the constructs *values*, *motivation*, *commitment*, *performance and reward*, in organizations of different profiles, over time. It is highlighted here the importance of analyzing these aspects related to people management policies, especially in longer periods of time, since there are shortages of longitudinal analyzes in many markets.

In this course, from the managerial point of view, this research contributes to discussions about organizational strategies more appropriate to the profile and the performance of their employees, involving the five proposed constructs.

The scientific-methodological contribution covers the robustness of the studied model and the elaborated statistical analysis, which involved multi-group analysis, between times, with different organizations, in a non-recursive model. Furthermore, it is an innovative model in the representation of the variables involved and the purpose of measure it over time, since there is no theoretical support in relation to the fluctuations of the constructs involved, with the passage of time.

This research can be replicated in other organizations, in future studies. It is recommended: a) to consider a longer time interval, between two stages, in order to provide that changes in the organization's internal environment can generate more expressive effects; b) review the questionnaire section about values, which is the starting point of the study and its relationship with motivation in some organizations was not confirmed. It is also suggested, the use of qualitative methods associated with the quantitative, allowing deepen into the analysis of the results, and consider other possibilities such as investigating the predominant type of commitment of the individual: affective, instrumental and normative (Allen & Meyer , nineteen ninety).

We experience a complex world, with continuous and rapid changes, requiring an attentive look to the individuals and the corporate decision making processes. The proposals contained in this study may contribute to reflections about these particularities in the evolutionary environment in which we are inserted, in order to contribute to the prosperity of the organizations, businesses and society as a whole.

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STRESS IN THE WORK ENVIRONMENT: A STUDY IN AN OUTSOURCED ENGINEERING COMPANY

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Abstract

Stress is considered an emotional response of the body when faced with threatening or unpleasant situations. These situations can even be desired, but the uncertainty of the result can cause stress. Therefore, the objective of the research was to identify the aspects of organizational stress and the stressors present in an outsourcing company in the engineering segment. The specific objectives were: to characterize the aspects of organizational stress; to show which factors are recognized as sources of pressure at work by the research subjects; and to describe the physical, psychological and behavioral consequences self-assigned and allocated to other employees of the organization.

Introduction

The new habits and styles of behavior, as well as different methods of work and the technological development demand a lot of the professionals, who, in the attempt to follow and understand all the transformations, are exposed to a series of situations generating stress. Rufino (2007) claims that outsourcing is part of these transformations and represents the process through which the companies delegate part of their activities considered accessory to independent providers. As often as not, outsourcing aims only to reduce costs, using poorly qualified labor, with reduced wages and benefits.

Rufino (2007) also states that the employees are exposed to pressures resulting in varied physical and mental sufferings, generating discomfort, physical pains and depression, which can culminate in stress, with consequences for the employee's life, the company and society. Ahead of the facts, this work becomes relevant due to its objective to identify the aspects of organizational stress and the stressing factors present in an outsourced Engineering company acting in projects. Three specific objectives were defined to assist in reaching the general objectives: to characterize aspects of organizational stress, in the investigated company; to present which factors are recognized as sources of work pressure; and, to describe, according to interviewed subjects, the physical, psychological and behavioral consequences self attributed and attributed to the other employees in the organization in study.

In the organizational scope, the study demonstrates empirical evidences that can assist when recognizing and managing stress. To the professionals of the area, the study enables the structuring of an optimized and strategic management of organizational stress. To the academic world, a study based on the daily life of a large-sized company and the workers is presented, addressing, in an updated way, aspects involved in organizational stress, detailing its effect on the worker and society. Therefore, the debate on stress from the understanding that it is a phenomenon generating behavioral, physical and psychological consequences which impact in workers' health and well-being is stimulated, resulting in consequences for, besides themselves, the business performance.

Theoretical / Conceptual Fundaments

Next, the organizational stress is described and characterized as theoretical category, by means of presentation of aspects important to understanding the subject, amongst which organizational stress and its physical, psychological and behavioral consequences, as well as the measuring scale called Job Stress Scale (JSS).

Stress and Organizational Stress

Stress represents a person's reaction to a strong threatening stimulation, according with Griffin and Moorhead (2006). Such stimulations are known as stressors. Sharing similar positioning, Rossi (1991) states that stress is the organism's physical or emotional reply to an external stimulation, considered awkward.

By extension, O' Donnell (1992) assures that organizational stress relates with pressures in the labor environment, which can be caused by a number of reasons. Limongi-França (2008) emphasizes that stress in its positive dimension (eustress) portrays the balance between four forces: effort made to accomplish the activity, time spent in the accomplishment, accomplishment and results. It constitutes, therefore, a positive form to deal with pressures, which stimulate workers to overcome inherent challenges.

The conceptualization for organizational stress proposed by Jex (1988 *apud* Tamayo & Paschoal, 2004) considers the phenomenon from three axes: the stressing factors, the organism's reply to these factors and the stressing stimulations / replies. For the author, these axes generate two approach to stress; the occupational approach related to the labor environment and the stress in general regarding the stress present in life. This approach receives criticism, for considering the most objective aspect of the stressors. According to the author, for a factor to unchain stress in workers, it must be evaluated and perceived as such.

Thus, organizational stress is regarded as the discomfort felt by some people when they live deeply new situations and experiences in the professional environment.

In this point, the internal and external variables that can influence the organizational stress are considered, with variables being the implied factors.

The data in PICTURE 1 reaffirm that stress can be caused by multiple and ample factors, both of internal nature (particular to the individual) and of external nature (present in the context the individual is).

PICTURE 1 – Stressing Factors

AUTHOR	STRESSING FACTORS
Lida (2001)	Unreasonable demands, family problems, conflicts and lack of valuation from the command, unfavorable physical conditions, such as extreme heat and noise, inadequate illumination and use of irritating colors.
Chiavenato (2006)	Routine, constant inquiring and pressures, authoritarianism, lack of professional and personal perspective, security, tranquility and amount of (both external and internal) customers to serve.
Wagner III & Hollenback (2004)	Social and physical environments, in the personal inclinations, organizational tasks and roles.
France & Rodrigues (1997)	Overload, alterations in sleep, lack of stimulations, noise and changes determined by the company or new technologies, possibility of losing job and pension.
Greemberg (2002)	Low resistance to the frustration, high competitiveness,

> lack of personal time, frequent threats, anxiety, low esteem and stress at the end of the career.

Source: Research Data

The changes in life (positive or negative) in personal and/or professional fields are considered stressing factors. Although people behave in different ways, the behavioral, physical and psychological consequences caused by stress are well-known.

Personal (physical, psychological and behavioral) and organizational characteristics and consequences of stress

The impact of organizational stress in workers' well-being and health has been a reason for concern for the companies, since it reaches, besides the workers themselves, the business performance. Therefore, companies have tried to identify ways that make it possible to measure the level of organizational stress and the consequences it bring to human being's personal and professional life.

Marras (2000) affirms that the pressures derived from the necessity to change and increase productivity, added to the emotional and physical wear, making these workers subjected to organizational stress. In this reasoning, reactions of emotional background are known to be associated to stressing factors. Cooper (2005) complements that studies on stress must be based on the emotions at the workplace; therefore, the greater the stress, the more depressed the person will be.

The extension of the time of occurrence and degree of stress are significant features, according to Lipp (2004), especially when related with fatigue. For the author, there is a sequence of body reaction to activities in the environment, called phases, where: in the phase of **alarm**, the person lives situations as paleness, tachycardia and rapid breathing, trying sensations not always identified with stress. In the phase of **resistance**, the organism tries to reestablish the balance, which leads to some of these signals disappearing. However, the effort of neutralization used in this adaptation leads the organism to wear itself out or spend the energy that would be directed to other vital functions. Finally, the phase of **exhaustion**, corresponding to the organism's incapacity to return to the balance.

As for the organizational consequences, Wagner III and Hollenback (2004) emphasize the raised costs with medical assistance. They emphasize that the companies bear such costs and are subject to liability for incidents related to deriving diseases as well. The authors cite the indirect costs, generated by absenteeism and turnover, causing a fall in the workers' commitment with the company and the violence in the workplace.

It is verified, therefore, that the individual under stress signals the existence of wear, mental and psychological suffering reflected in the social, physical and organizational spheres. It becomes essential, then, that the companies monitor and measure the stress index in their work environment so that, even if they cannot eliminate it, it is reduced to acceptable levels.

<div align="center">

Mechanisms to measure organizational stress

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Nelson and Hurrel (1997, *apud* Tamayo & Paschoal, 2004) explain that in Brazil two instruments are used to quantify the level of stress: OSI (Occupational Stress Indicator) and the SWS Survey (Questionnaire of Stress, Mental Health and Work). As for OSI, it is an instrument of stress measurement, composed by stressor measures, mediators and physical and psychological consequences, by means of 167 items grouped in 25 factors. SWS is composed by 184 closed items, distributed in the following scales: stress at work, social and personal stress, mental health, psychosocial risk factors, support in the work place and personal support.

Another scale used to measure organizational stress is Job Stress Scale (JSS) composed by 31 items, elaborated from the organizational stressors of psychosocial nature and studies of the psychological reactions to organizational stress. Lazarus (1985) claims that 40% of the JSS items are based in the stressing factors considered in the Brazilian version of OSI.

In accordance with Lazarus (1985), based in psychosocial factors, such as conflict between roles, career development and work overload, the items in the scale have been elaborated, which also considered the reaction to the stressor and developed to be applied in diversified environments and occupations. Using the a agreement scale with five points arranged as follows: 1 (*I completely disagree*), 2 (*I disagree*), 3 (*I agree in part*), 4 (*I agree*) and 5 (*I completely agree*) with each item tackling a stressor and the reaction to it.

However, as reported by Tamayo and Paschoal (2004), due to the difficulties in analyzing the contents of the answers, items were eliminated from the scale, without prejudice to the result. the version composed by13 item is considered representative of the main organizational stressors and the reactions. JSS, as evidenced by the authors, has satisfactory psychometric characteristics, and can be used to measure organizational stress for diagnosis on the organizational environment, for instance.

With regard to the reaction to the stressors, Lazarus (1985) understands that it cannot be calimed that all the investigated symptoms are consequence of organizational stressors. He exemplifies that problems such as sleeplessness, dissatisfaction at work, anxiety, cardiac dysfunctions and mood oscillation, which normally are pointed as consequences of organizational stressors, may have diverse origins.

It can concluded, according to was reported by authors mentioned previously, that the use of JSS contributes to measuring whether the factors are stressors or not. However, it is necessary to consider that the problems lived by the workers may not be consequence of organizational stress, but of other types of problems. And, although it is subjected to other criticisms, literature has evidenced that the scale is well accepted as an instrument to measure stress, since it is based on theoretical model and allows to verify whether the experienced factors are stressors.

Outsourcing and stress

Giosa (1993) explains that outsourcing represents the tendency to transfer, to a third party, activities that are not part of the company's core business, making it possible to concentrate efforts in the essential activities. Codo and Sampaio (1995) and Leiria (1995) complement that outsourcing brought the lack of job security, having an impact on the outsourced workers and the employees of the hiring company as well. For these authors, the lack of job security is manifested in the reduction of benefits and wages, which are normally lesser when compared with the main company's staff. Along with these factors, there is a high turnover at work, since contracts can be for a fixed term.

Similarly, Cerutti et al. (2006) evidence as negative impacts of outsourcing: feeling of disdain, moral degradation, anxiety, minor devotion from the company for the hired personnel and the deprivations of working rights.

In this way, under the optics of abovementioned authors, stressing factors that involve the outsourced employee are evidenced, and amongst which are reduction in the wage and benefits, difficult interpersonal relations with the hiring company's employees, feelings of inferiority that can culminate in occupational illnesses and of stress.

Methodology

The research strategy used in this study was quantitative and qualitative, of the descriptive type. The method was the field research. The universe considered was composed by 375 workers of an outsourced Engineering company, headquartered in the city of Itabira/MG, and the probabilistic sample was 64 employees for the quantitative research. The non-probabilistic sample was selected for accessibility and tipicity for the qualitative study. The collection techniques were a questionnaire and semi structuralized interviews. The data of quantitative origin were analyzed by descriptive statistical analysis, and the content analysis was used for the qualitative data. The main restriction and limitation was its range, for involving only one unit of the company, which prevents the results from being generalized.

Results and Discussion

As for the characterization of the organizational stress index in the company studied, the amount of weekly hours worked and the frequency of work performed on weekends and bank holidays were verified, as they are potentially considered as contributing factors to stress generation. In the following phase, the factors recognized as sources of pressure at work were investigated. For this analysis, the same scale validated by Paschoal and Tamayo (2004) was used. In accordance with JSS, the average punctuation of the group corresponds to the index situated between 2.0 and 2.5, with the superior values indicating high stress and inferior values indicating absence of stress. The following classification was considered: 1- never, 2 - rare, 3 - sometimes, 4 - frequent and 5 - very frequent.

Concerning the weekly workload, most of the interviewees log in exactly the contracted journey. The other employees work under the regimen of overtime, carrying out an average of six hours/week, in compliance with what the art. 59 of the Consolidation of Labor Laws. As for the extra hours, only 2.08% of the respondent who occupy administrative positions generallydo them, 41.67% sometimes and 56.25% never do overtime. In relation to the ones in operational positions, it was proven that 23.08% do overtime sometimes whereas 76.92% never do it. No meaningful percentage was found amongst employees who occupy management positions.

When questioned on the frequency they remain in the company on weekends and banks holidays, it was verifies that occurrences are not constant, with, in the operational positions, 23.07% not working or rarely working and 76.93% working sometimes. As for the administrative positions, 41.67% sometimes and 56.25% rarely work on these days. There was no report of working in the indicated period from the employees of management positions.

França and Rodrigues (1997) show that the work overload is a determinative factor of stress and overtime can represent this overload. Thus, considering overtime and working on weekends and bank holidays in the studied company, the demands are in conformity with the legal parameters and do not represent representative index as cause of stress.

To identify which factors are recognized as sources of pressure in the workplace, those factors enumerated by the workers in question and present in the investigated company are described. In this aspect, Lazarus's positioning (1985) that an organizational factor can only be considered as stressor if perceived as such is distinguished.

Initially, the interviewees were questioned if the way the tasks are distributed made them tense. It was determined that 56.26% affirmed they are tense with the way the tasks are distributed. The operational respondents are the ones affected the most by the way tasks are distributed, with an index of 76.93%.

Then, they answered on the discomfort with the accomplishment of tasks beyond the capacity: 35.42% of the administrative employees felt uneasy to perform these tasks. Among the ones in operational positions, the percentage was 61.54% and 33.33% in the management. Thus, the accomplishment of tasks beyond the capacity was identified as a discomfort for all the positions, in special for the operational, corroborating with Lazarus (1985) and França and Rodrigues (1997) who describe the execution of the tasks beyond the capacity as sources that pressure the workers and become stressing factors.

As for the discomfort of performing task below their level of ability, only the employees in administrative positions seemed to feel it. On the other hand, the ones in operational and management positions rarely feel bothered.

When referring to workload, most of the interviewees consider the time insufficient to perform their labor activities. The ones who occupy operational positions showed the higher index, being 53.85% those that consider the time insufficient sometimes and 23.08%, frequently insufficient. The lack of time and the performance of tasks beyond or below their capacity are evidenced by Limongi-França (2008) as source of stress for the workers, because they feel coerced to yield performances for which they are not qualified or feel apt to answer for.

Thus, the items related to autonomy in the performance was established and 55.00% of all those interviewed miss the autonomy in the environment. Per position, the higher percentages were those from the ones in operational positions, with 69.24% missing autonomy sometimes, while 15.38% claimed not to miss or rarely miss autonomy in the execution of tasks. For the ones in management positions, 66.67% miss autonomy and 33.33% rarely do so. The lack of autonomy is of note in France and Rodrigues's theory (1997) that enumerates factors such as lack of stimulation, autonomy and overload, amongst other factors, as sources of stress.

Thus, the employees were questioned on the perception of lack of reliability in the accomplishment of tasks by the superiors. The ones in administrative and operational positions do not perceive the lack of trust whereas the ones that occupy management positions do so at times.

If the understanding that the superiors have on the responsibilities attributed to the respondent causes irritability, for 32.00% of the administrative and management interviewees, the lack of understanding on the responsibilities has caused irritation whereas, for the operational employees, this percentage rises to 65.00%.

Lida (2001) includes amongst the stressing factors, family problems, conflicts and lack of understanding from the command, besides favorable work conditions. Thus, based on the data, the lack of autonomy and understanding from the command was verified to be stressing factors present in the analyzed environment.

In the perspective factor of professional growth, the respondent occupying operational and administrative positions claimed to frequently feel overwhelmed with the low perspective of growth, which is rarely or never lived by those in management positions. The anguish deriving from small perspectives of growth, which was evidenced, proves to be a stress factor among those surveyed. For Chiavenato (2006) factors such as routine, inquiring, pressure, authoritarianism and the lack of professional and personal perspective are factors of professional stress.

On the question of business management, we sought to understand how information occurs and is perceived. For those in management positions, 66.67% are not irritated with the deficiency in the information regarding organizational decisions and 33.00% claim to be at times. Amongst the administrative employees, 35.42% sometimes, 25.00% frequently, and 10.41% very often feel

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irritated with this situation. The ones in operational positions claimed to be irritated with the deficiency in the information, 53.85% frequently and 7.69% sometimes.

Carvalho and Serafim (2002) point out the importance of communication in the work environment. From the analysis it is verified that the deficiency in information is a factor of stress present in the research environment.

Next, the existence of discomfort with regard to deficiencies in training for professional qualification was verified. For the respondents in management positions, the research shows that the deficiency in training does not consist in factor for discomfort. However, the same is not reflected amongst the ones in operational positions. For these, 46.16% sometimes and 15.38% frequently feel awkward. In the administrative scenario, 12.5% report to fell awkward frequently and 25.00%, at times.

Questioned if isolation in the organization puts them in bad mood, it was verified that this is factor of discomfort only for few of the respondent. Although the factor is not a stressor in the studied environment, Lazarus (1985) signals it as a factor of stress present in the organizations. Greemberg (2002) complements that the competition is considered one source of stress; however, it was found that, for 85.95% of the interviewees, the competition does not constitute a factor present in the analyzed environment.

After investigated the stressing factors present in the analyzed environment, the interviewees were asked if they had been tense over the last weeks. 61.54% in the operational positions and 60.42% in the administrative area acknowledged they had been tense in the last week.They were asked then to point the factors generating the situation and, from their answers, it was possible to verify the existence of several causes of stress or tenseness on the part of the respondents. The amassing of services was eminent with 33.33%, along with personal factors and lack of growth perspective with 11.59% each. Other factors such as the excess of activities, conflicts with work peers, frequent overtime, demotivation, lack of valuation and tight deadlines, were also mentioned at 5.80% each.

To measure the physical, psychological and behavioral consequences, self-attributed and attributed to the others, it was requested that the respondent describe the level of patience they had presented in the service over the last three months. The analysis demonstrated that 93.2% consider themselves to be impatient because of the stress they are submitted to, authenticating O'Donnell's positioning (1992) that impatience is a mental consequence of occupational stress. Thus, it was concluded that impatience is a consequence of stress evidenced in this study, indicating the need to investigate the causes so as to reduce it to acceptable levels and avoid aggravating the condition of stress and its consequences.

The interviewed workers were then questioned about the occurrence of problems related to their physical health as stomachaches and migraines, sleeplessness, fatigue, chest pains, high blood pressure, pointed by literature as consequences of stress. They mentioned several of these symptoms, e.g., sleeplessness, migraines attributed to it stress at work, pains in the arms, shoulder and neck, all related to stress according to the interviewed ones. Frequent chest pains, body pains, heartburn and sleeplessness are consequences predicted by most of the researched authors, such as O'Donnell (1992) who relates, as physical signals of stress, digestive unrest, chest pains, increase in the heart rate, fatigue, increase in the blood pressure and sleeplessness.

They were also questioned if they were able to sustain concentration, if they felt disposition to seek new ways and if they were productive in comparison with their peers. Subsequently, they were asked on their positions regarding work motivation and whether they related the health problems with work absences. They demonstrated difficulties in keeping concentrated during work hours, as consequence of stress caused by excessive noise and the high volume of people

who move in the workplace. However, they told that they remained motivated, pointing out the disposition to seek new perspectives as academic education and geographic changes to bring them closer to home. It is possible to deduce, then, that the search for new ways and the motivation represent the positive side of stress, known as eustress, which represents, according to Limongi-França (2008), a positive way to deal with pressures, stimulating workers towards overcoming challenges.

In relation to the consequences of stress in the productivity, if compared with that of their colleagues, it was concluded that the employees' level of productivity at studied company is high, even though there were highlights of those who did not use the time productively as they should. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that there was no prove of fall in productivity in consequence of stress.

They were, equally, inquired on how they relate the health problems with absences from work. Their answers demonstrate that they try to watch their health and avoid being absent; but, when necessary, they prioritize health. The study found out that absenteeism is low. It was evidenced, however, that physical problems as chest pains headaches are responsible for the rare medical licenses evidenced, but that they endorse consideration made by Marras (2000), who thinks health problems contribute for the absenteeism.

On the other hand, the positive consequences of stress, as motivation and disposition to face challenges, endorse Limongi-França (2008) who states that eustress is a positive form to deal with the pressures and that it stimulates workers towards overcoming challenges, being able to improve performance.

Finishing the analysis, the psychological and social consequences of stress were analyzed, initiating from the consumption of tobacco and alcohol as a way to alleviate tension. The analysis of the interviewees' reports evidences that none of them smokes nor drinks alcoholic beverages frequently to alleviate tension. Even though Robbins (2002) warrants that the increase in the intake of alcoholic beverages as consequence of occupational stress is an indicator of stress, such fact was not proven in the studied population.

Regarding the interpersonal relationships, the research shows that the interpersonal relationship that they practice was considered satisfactory by most of the interviewed ones. However, when questioned on the time that have to dedicate to social and family activities, it was verified that most of them considered it insufficient, attributing the lack of time to the period when they perform their professional activities. In fact, Robbins (2002) affirms that the interpersonal relations are negatively affected as a consequence of stress, caused by the lack of time and impatience they have with the situation.

Final Considerations

The speed at that transformations occur demands an immediate adaptation, especially from the workers, who have to answer for productivity goals, reduction of time and costs and higher celerity in the execution of the activities. The outsourced workers, normally submitted to the inferior work conditions than those of the proper employees, are exposed to the pressures that generate physical and psychological sufferings, which may culminate in stress.

In the present research a high percentage of respondents working on weekends and bank holidays was not reported, proving, however, there is work overload noticed in other indicators, which is configured in stress, if associated with other requirements. The following stressing factors were mentioned: the amassing of services, the lack of growth perspective, distribution of tasks, lack of autonomy, valuation and understanding from the superiors, besides deficiencies in

the information and the training. The moderately evidenced stress results, apparently, in variables more subtly felt that cognitively identified by those interviewed, in an explicit way.

They also pointed out that the more frequent physical, psychological and behavioral consequences , self-attributed and attributed to the other workers, are: health problems (physical consequences), in special chest pains, sleeplessness and migraines, observing the existence of medical leaves to take care of health problems even in moderate levels of frequency.

As for the psychological and social consequences of stress, the data demonstrated that the majority of the interviewed workers considered the time insufficient for social and family activities and would like to have more time for these relationships.

The data showed that stress has negative and positive consequences in the behavioral field. The evidenced negative consequences were difficulty in keeping concentration, and absenteeism; and the positive consequences were motivation, disposition to face challenges and maintenance of productivity.

Therefore, it is possible to state that the employees of the company in analysis suffer the physical, psychological and behavioral consequences of stress, evidencing the necessity for the company to review the stress management, in order to find better conditions of life and work, unburdening the company, the workers and the society in general from the consequences caused by the symptoms. It is worth of note that the occurrence of positive stress was proven, which motivates and stimulates the interviewees to seek new challenges.

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MILLENIALS AND GENERATIONAL CONFLICT IN THE TROUBLED WATERS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: IS TRUST THE KEY TO SAILING THEM?

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Abstract

Cultural changes challenge organizations to move from their analogical mindset into a digital and customer centered one. That demand comes not only from the market, but also from the Millennials, newcomers in their workforce, a fact that causes generational conflicts in the workplace. Simultaneously, Brazilian organizations face an enhanced VUCA scenario, due to recent economical and political shifts. This manuscript attempts to outline the interrelationship between the searches for a solution to generational conflicts, the strategic attitude towards a VUCA context using the VUCA prime model, and trust building in the organizations.

Introduction

"Culture eats strategy for breakfast": the famous quote by Peter Drucker portrays the impact of culture and its changes in the organizational world. Recent studies of organizations have shown continuous and increasing change in the workplace. Beyond coping with the economic and political turbulences, companies are challenged by major cultural shifts, starting in society and infiltrating their environment via the newcomers at their workforce. Society has moved into thinking digitally, as the customer centricity tendencies lead people to standing up for their rights in their relations to the companies, and solutions are demanded in a fast, organic way (Fader, 2012; Gulati, 2013).

Young workers have grown up with this digital mindset, sharing opinions with teachers, parents and as customers, and they enter the workplace with the same mindset (Harbert, Dudley, & Erbes, 2007). However, once they enter the organizations, they find a structure that still works analogically. Inspired by the classic management models, such as Taylor's, Weber's and Fayol's, the companies still protect their hierarchy and their linear processes, plodding with overloaded bureaucracy, while the market, and now the newcomers in their workforce demand agile, efficient solutions for increasingly complex situations.

What differs from previous turmoil periods is that this one comes with four specific characteristics that put managers in a gridlock situation. Johansen (2011) named it the "VUCA Context": volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous[1]. Volatile, for instance, is represented by the economic and monetary fluctuations that make budgets very tricky. Uncertainty is the consequence of too many variables in the hypercomplex society (Qvortrup, 2002) to make a sound decision. Complexity is seen as the difficulty to define the key success factors of a business, and Ambiguity represents the paradoxes in a liquid society (Gaviria & Bluemelhuber, 2010) that blurs what is "real" or "true".

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[1] Concept derived from military use in the context of the Cold War and reframed at Operation Desert Storm in Iraq. (Lawrence, 2013)

Brazil has experienced this "VUCA" context in the recent years. Up until 2015, the Brazilian economy experienced a relatively long period of stability and growth (Silva and Gomes, 2011). The Gross Domestic Product (GDP) had been constantly increasing and, according to the country's governmental agency for Geography and Statistics (IBGE), the expanding economy was leading to a full employment situation, as unemployment rates reached down to 4,7% in the
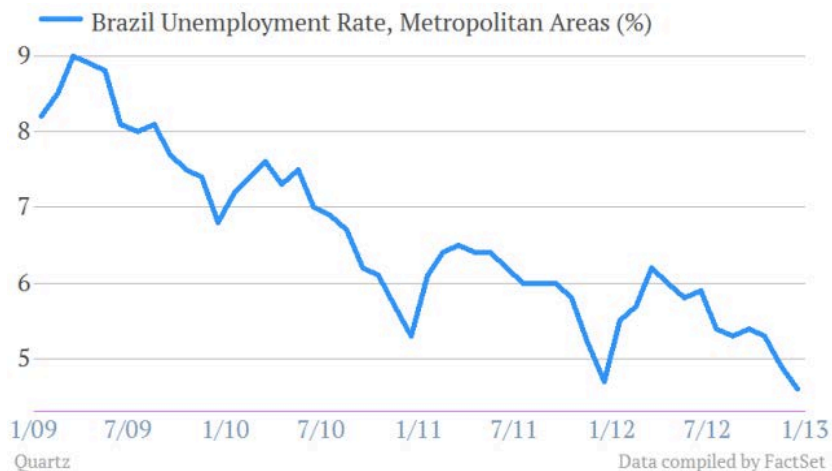
metropolitan regions, as illustrated by Figure 1.

Figure 1: Unemployment Rate, Metropolitan Areas retrieved from http://qz.com/49466

However, the year of 2015 brought a series of political and economical shifts to the Brazilian scenario, which developed into an enduring crisis. Unemployment rates have spiked up to 8.2% (February 2016) and GDP has sunk from 3.7% (Q1, 2014) to -5.9% (Q4, 2015) (see Figure 2), numbers that tend to be aggravated by the expanding political crisis in 2016.

Figure 2: Key economic indicators from Brazil, retrieved from Moody's Analytics

Source: https://www.economy.com/dismal/countries/IBRA

This VUCA scenario has standardized defensive, workaholic behavioral patterns among all kinds of employees of multiple generations, and influenced their behaviors, once the competition for a smaller market has risen. The interaction between generations in the workplace, which had already themed a series of conflicts in the organizations for some time (Grün, 1999; Karp & Sirias, 2001; Deyoe & Fox, 2012), has become an even more complex issue for HR personnel.

In this work, we aim to tackle the polemical issue of generation concept as a pathway to get into the real issue that is how to take the best of newcomers and old-timers in a corporate context that each one of them is very necessary. A particular important moment of the aforementioned interaction is the very beginning of a new employee and how he or she is introduced to the new environment, named the socialization process. The authors present trust and trust building as a perspective to approach the generational interaction. The managerial relevance of this study regards the importance of dealing with three or four different generations in the same workplace, while the academic relevance points to the need of advancing in the understanding of generational interaction phenomena.

Generations

Among the major changes mentioned in the organizational scenario, the coexistence of three or four different generations in the workplace is a constant (Meister & Willierd, 2010). Although theoreticians may say that diversity can bring completeness and strategic advantages, as, for instance, a broader perspective of problems the real life situations mentioned by many authors, present something different (Johnson & Lopes, 2008).

According to Harbert, Dudley, and Erbes (2007) the youngest generation to arrive at the workplace, named as Generation Y or Millennials, come with a different mindset: they don't fear the previous generations and don't fear losing their jobs. Therefore, fear, one of our primal motivators, is not the main motive for action for this new generation. Their work values; ambitions, communication styles and preferences and worklife balance demands tend to be considerably distinct, thereupon rising important issues at the workplace.

Although the uprising of these issues has motivated several studies concerning generational differences, there is still much to be understood about these differences, their causes and consequences.

The foundations of the theories about generations were set by Mannheim's studies (Mannheim, 1982), in which he describes a generation as a group that, even without physical proximity, develops cultural resemblances as a result of similar experiences in their formative years. Inglehart (1977) expanded Mannheim's concept into the theory of generational cohort, which was further explored by Strauss and Howe (1991). Only then, the issues of generations and generational conflict could be addressed as more complex phenomena.

Other studies have pointed generations to be social constructions, in which individuals born in a close period and location can be shaped by social contexts, in a way that distinguishes that generational cohort from others. (Jurkiewicz & Brown 1998; Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, & Brown, 2007).

Generations in Brazil

Silva (2013) has observed the main differences among the three main generations found in the Brazilian organizations nowadays: the Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y. In his research, items like social responsibility, the relationship with remuneration and benefits, learning and personal development did not show significant differences between the generations. However, those related to work commitment, meaning of work, work/life balance, career development, and the relationships to the leaders and to other coworkers were quite distinct.

According to Silva (2013, p.33), the members of Generation Y showed a lower level of organizational commitment but longing for challenges in their work and a fast career growth.

Silva (2013) adds that they also tend to prefer more flexible work arrangements to accommodate work-life balance. They also expect their leader to coach and protect them, as well as to give them constant feedback. This may be a major conflict area once these leaders are not available to 'baby sitter' the newcomers, but are more result oriented. Generation Y have different communication preferences, looking forward information sharing and connecting to people personally or virtually, inside and outside the organization.

These characteristics were then associated to Brazilian Millennials. However, the stormy scenarios in Brazil's government and economy, with the spiking rates of unemployment, have caused these observed attitudes to change. Now, individuals from all generations act much more defensive, resorting to a workaholic behavior in order to save their jobs. As a result, analyzing the generations' behavior and its nuances has become an even more complex task.

Many different authors have approached the methodological complexity of the generational studies (Rhodes, 1983; Parry & Urwin, 2011; Joshi *et.al*, 2010; Sutter & Kocher, 2003; Schaie, 1965; Oliveira, Piccinini & Bittencout, 2012). Since most of the academic works on generational differences are cross-sectional studies, it becomes difficult to distinguish the effects of cohort, period (life and career stage), and age, as they are all mingled in the behaviors of each generation. According to Schaie (1965), the best research design for understanding the nuances of generational differences would be a longitudinal one, examining individuals of the same age, in different periods of time. Nevertheless, this type of design is hardly ever viable for most researchers and has not been done yet. Furthermore, researchers have questioned the concept of generations as stereotyped groups, especially in developing countries, which have higher inequality rates (Oliveira, Piccinini & Bittencout, 2012). The authors argue that people the same age may experience the same historical event in different ways depending on the social context they live in.

Although all these issues may be relevant and need sorting out, they are not the focus of this study. The authors have opted to set these conceptual issues aside, and shed lights on what is known so far: there is a group of young, urban professionals, who are struggling in their entrance process in the organizations, worsened by the VUCA context.

Socialization, Trust and the Leader's Role

The first experiences when entering an organization are one of the most relevant and determining phases of a person's life in the organization (Kammeyer-Mueller & Wanberg, 2003; Reichers, 1987; Wanous, 1980, 1992). However, it is a delicate phase once it includes a heavy load of uncertainty, anxiety and reality shock (Jones, 1986), issues that can considerably increase the sense of vulnerability of an individual (Fischer & Novelli, 2008).

It is at this point that the *socialization process* occurs, also called as *membership negotiation,* or *on-boarding* process, more specifically to the organizational studies. The socialization process consists in the stages through which a newcomer goes, until he or she becomes a fully integrated member of an existing group. It involves understanding and adapting to a group's standards of values, beliefs, norms and behaviors (Persell, 1990). The process can happen through formal or informal ways, regarding the organization's institutionalized efforts to support the newcomers at this first moment, and it leads to a feeling of belonging.

According to Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003), this process has short and long term effects (proximal and distal outcomes, respectively), which are influenced by four main aspects: pre-entry knowledge, proactive personality, socialization influence and perceived alternatives.

Here, we highlight the relevance of the socialization influence aspect, which, as the authors assert, involves the organizational efforts to aid newcomers in their adaptation process (i.e. formal training, orientation material, welcoming events). It also includes the leader's and coworkers' support, as indispensable components of the socialization process, as they introduce the newcomer to important information and directions (Kammeyer-Mueller &Wanberg, 2003, p.780).

There are two main theoretical streams that touch the questions of the socialization process from different angles: the *Symbolic Interactionism Theory* and the *Expectancy Violation Theory*. The Symbolic Interactionism Theory states that, a social actor attributes meaning to every event or interaction, based on their previous references of other interactions, and these meanings are constantly being reinterpreted, while new interactions happen (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011, Mead, 1934, Tye & Tye, 1992). In the socialization process, both sides build meanings from the first interactions, based on previous experiences in life. These meanings can be altered or confirmed later on, but they affect the disposition of the parties when interacting and alter their expectations (Bigley & Pierce, 1998).

The Expectancy Violation Theory, in its turn, declares that for all interactions, individuals hold expectations of how the other party should act, the anticipation that is based on the patterns accepted by the social norms and on personal idiosyncrasies (Burgoon, 1978). Myers and Sadaghiani (2010) affirm that interactions can be described as positive or negative, according to the conformity or contrast between one's expectations and the other person's actual behavior. When the other party fails to meet these expectations, it can significantly influence future interactions between the two (or more) agents.

In the socialization process, more specifically, old-timers evaluate the behavior of a newcomer, and react differently, depending on how much their expectations are met. If a newcomer acts correspondingly to the social norms of the group, the others will welcome him and commit to him (Moreland & Levine, 2001). However, if there are too many critical disparities in behaviors and values, the acceptance process can be disturbed (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010, p. 227).

This is a complex balance, because when it comes to the socialization process of Millennials in a workplace ruled by Baby Boomers and Generation Xers, there can be significant gaps between newcomers' and old-timers' expectations, namely, their sets of values, beliefs and norms of acceptable behavior (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002; Smola & Sutton, 2002). Many of these differences have to do with work ethic issues and imply consequences on behaviors, such as organizational commitment, work-life balance, and the relationship with the leaders, for example. Issues that can make them seem, to the eyes and references of Baby boomers and Generation Xers, as not committed, self-entitled and untrustworthy (Collinson & Collinson, 1997; Raines, 2002). Thus, conflicts may rise, as the judgments established by the old-timers about the Generation Y newcomers generate certain discomfort, disrespect and even distrust (Myers & Sadaghiani, 2010), therefore bruising the socialization process.

The membership negotiation process is also closely related to the trust building process. For it is when the first interactions occur that trust begins to be built. Interpersonal trust is based on the information gathered from past or present interactions of two agents, or from third parties, on what is called the individual's reputation (Zanini, 2007, p. 44). Thence, also related to the Symbolic Interactionism theory and the Expectancy Violation theory, individuals generate meaning and expectations regarding the trustworthiness of others, from the interactions they engage in.

Researchers also describe the construction of interpersonal trust in the workplace relations as "an interactive process in which two individuals learn about each other's trustworthiness in different situations. This implies, among other things, that an individual is simultaneously trustor and trustee" (Six, Nooteboom, Hoogendoorn, 2010, p. 289).

An important question to understand the mechanisms of trust is the one concerning presence of vulnerability, i.e. the existence of risk. Despite the multiplicity of the theories about trust, many times opposite in their statements, all of them include the assumption of risk (Bigley & Pearce, 1998). Without any risk, there would be no need for trust, since trust can be defined as:

> "The willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party." (Mayer & Davis, 1995)

A second critical element for the existence of trust is time, in the perspective of future interactions. Zanini (2007, p.17) states that, for trust-based cooperation relationships to be established, it is necessary that the parties are engaged in several interactions, for a reasonable period of time, and also that it is expected that these interactions will continue, that their end is not predictable. Besides that, there is also the need for the perception of advantages in the continuity of these interactions by both the parties involved.

Time also seems to be relevant as, when interactions start with a positive, trust-building cycle, the tendency is that it generates even more trust (Reina & Reina, 2006; Zanini, 2007). People use their previous experiences and information, as well as the reputation of the other party, as an input for decision-making in the present. Therefore, the reverse also occurs: when there is the perception of betrayal, the trend is that trust levels will fall rapidly and continuously, unless something is done to change it (Zanini, *op.cit*; Reina & Reina, *op.cit*, Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995).

Reina and Reina (2006) describe two major categories of trust, composed by other subcategories. Transactional trust is related to the basic, daily transactions, and without it, it would be impossible to interact in the workplace at all. Transformative trust consists in a higher level of trust, it boosts the efficiency of a group and improves relationships exponentially (Reina & Reina, *op.cit*).

According to Reina & Reina (2006), transactional trust consists in contractual trust, communication trust and competence trust. Contractual trust is the trust of character; it regards ethic behavior, and the clarity of expectations on both sides of an interaction, as well as fulfilling those expectations. Communication trust is the trust of disclosure. It involves the sharing of possible information, maintaining confidentiality, speaking the truth, along with giving and receiving constructive feedback. Finally, competence trust is the trust of capability, and it concerns acknowledging people's skills, delegating decisions, seeking others' input and helping them learn skills.

Transformative trust, in its turn, can be expressed by conviction, courage, compassion and community (sense of responsibility with the group). According to Reina and Reina (2006), conviction is related to one's knowing what they stand for and believe in, to the meaning behind a person's actions. Courage involves believing in others and in one's self, to taking bold steps in controversial, VUCA scenarios. Compassion concerns caring about people, more than just looking at them as employees, and trying to understand and connect to them. Community is a

sense of responsibility with the group. It involves the identity of an individual as a part of that group, and thus, can only happen where the socialization process has been successful.

Fischer and Novelli (2008) studied trust in the Brazilian organizational scenario, and found that it acts as a reducer of the feeling of vulnerability. Trust plays this role, especially when dealing with contexts in which complexity, among other factors, tends to weaken the cohesion and the cooperation bonds between individuals.

According to the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (EU-OSHA), stress is caused and manifested when an individual's psychological demands are high and autonomy for decision-making is low (low control at work). Iwata and Suzuki (1997) studied the relationship between social support from supervisors, colleagues, family members and significant others with occupational stress. Their studies have shown that the higher the support received from immediate managers (supervisors, leaders), the lower the perception of stress in the workplace, that is, the lower the perceived impact of a stressor. Thus, trust relationships, especially with the immediate managers and leaders, can generate a structure of social support that will reduce the perception of stress and its reactions (such as fatigue, anxiety, depression and physical illness) [2]

Discussion

The turbulent, VUCA scenario that Brazilian organizations are facing at the moment can cause managers to work in an operational hypnosis (Aylmer, 2010), focusing only solving urgent demands, while ignoring strategically relevant issues, such as the conflicts involving the Millennial incoming workforce in their socialization process.

Considering that trust can build stronger cooperation bonds and reduce the perception, and thus the effects of vulnerability and stress in the workplace, the question that emerges is: how can organizations build trust in a VUCA context?

Bob Johansen (2011, as cited by Lawrence, 2013) developed the concept of VUCA Prime, a strategic reaction to the VUCA context. The author suggests a set of "flips", in which volatility can be fought with vision, uncertainty with understanding, complexity with clarity and ambiguity with agility.

According to Johansen, volatility can be countered with vision, because clear ideas and goals for short and medium terms can guide managers' decisions in volatile times. It is a vision in which they know where they want to get and can focus in getting to the next step in order to achieve bigger goals, in other words, the leader doesn't try to define the war in a battle but to reach the next trench. Understanding can counter uncertainty, because uncertain environments demand the sensibility to observe beyond obvious evidences, and to communicate, listening to different levels of the organization to decide which is the "next step" of the vision. Complexity, in its turn, can be opposed by clarity, in a "deliberative process to make sense of the chaos" (Lawrence, 2013, p. 6). Once a leader has clarity about which variables are influencing the scenario, which can be influenced and which not, he can make "better, more informed business decisions" (*op.*

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[2] (EU-OSHA, available in http://osha.europa.eu/en/topics/stress/definitions_and_causes/- accessed last on the 27th of April, 16).

cit, p.6). Finally, ambiguity can be countered with agility, the capacity of quickly communicating and activating different areas of the organization to implement problem-solving actions.

Associating the different aspects of VUCA prime to the ones discussed in the sections above, it is possible to understand that they are tightly related to Reina and Reina's (2006) concepts of transactional trust. For instance, vision is the knowledge of what the next goal is, and can be correlated to contractual trust. Once a team knows what is expected of them, it becomes simpler to follow a leader's vision. Understanding converges to communication trust. Speaking the truth, with good purpose, listening to people and giving feedback are behaviors of communication trust (Reina & Reina, *op.cit*) that support understanding. Clarity connects to both contractual and communication trusts. Making expectations and boundaries clear, as well as sharing information in an honest way (*op.cit*) can endorse clarity in VUCA contexts. Agility, in its turn, is related to competence trust, for when a leader can trust the competence of their team and empower it, instead of micromanaging, processes are more agile and solutions can rise faster and more efficiently.

Furthermore, if we take into consideration the items of transformative trust, it is possible to analyze how they can increment the principles of VUCA prime. Conviction of one's beliefs and goals can solidify a vision and improve clarity, for it brings meaning to the actions taken (Reina & Reina, 2006). Courage can improve agility, once leaders have the courage to trust their team and themselves, decision-making becomes more agile and efficient (Reina & Reina, *op.cit*). Compassion can break barriers between the leader and the team, and deepen understanding about each other, their strengths and fragilities as human beings. Community, or the sense of responsibility with the group, can unite the group to pursuing the vision; it can also strengthen understanding and additionally, improve the connections between people, making processes flow with agility (Reina & Reina, *op.cit*).

In the VUCA context, Millennials newcomers demand a differentiated attention. Trust emerges as an alternative to moderate the socialization process (Zanini, 2007), lowering the feeling of vulnerability (Fischer & Novelli, 2008), and strengthening bonds, especially between leaders and team-members (Reina & Reina, 2006). With all its categories and nuances, trust can also be a supporting guideline to build the principles of VUCA prime, enabling people and organizations to make this volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous scenario a springboard that tightens our bonds and releases our potential.

Conclusion and Suggestions for Future Research

Considering this study, we propose that the relationship between the remedy for generational conflicts, the strategic attitude towards a VUCA context, and trust building in organizations is a relevant topic for further researches. As the theories regarding these questions present significant intersection areas, a combination of the three can unfold into innovative, systemic solutions for organizations. In this short manuscript, we observed the Brazilian recently enhanced VUCA scenario, and the position of Millennial newcomers in organizations. We have attempted to demonstrate the VUCA prime characteristics, as well as its possible connections to the trust categories studied by Reina and Reina (2006). There is still much to be discerned in the research field of generations, as well as in trust studies and in coping with VUCA contexts. We suggest future research to evaluate the interrelationship between trust, generational conflict solving and

the VUCA prime model. We hope our manuscript instigates further research regarding these matters, and inspires organizations to pursue trust-building policies, improving relations and results.

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MALAISE IN PHYSICIANS. A CHARACTERIZATION BY WORKPLACE.

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Abstract

The objective of this research was to describe the dimensions of psychosocial malaise and the work values in physicians at two Ecuadorian hospitals. The research design was cross sectional. A convenience sample was composed by 169 physicians who completed a questionnaire to evaluate their psychosocial malaise and their work values (Schwartz, 2001). The results showed medium levels of somatization, exhaustion and alienation. Moreover the groups who work in critical departments showed highest levels of somatization, exhaustion and alienation. The values more frequent in physicians with high levels of somatization, exhaustion and alienation are self-transcendence believes. It's significant that physicians share a philosophy and work values which have built around values as self-transcendence because their Hippocratic profession and service vocation.

Introduction

The revolution of Talent is also the revolution of the work values. The work values are part of our skin during our job trajectory. In each responsibility, people discover new values or combine the preexisted believes. Sometimes we adore or we regret the values depend on our job, teams, responsibilities or organizations; but beyond our preferences we need them as our blood. The working life contributes to sculpt our work values as a center of our professional profile.

Our study was carried out in Ecuador. The Ecuadorian health sector has been lived numerous changes in terms of the public policies, economic investments, the improvement of infrastructure and enhancement of sanitary covertures. These transformations were combined with the reforms in labor laws and in the legal frame for medical professionals (PAHO, 2009; Lucio, Villacrés & Henríquez, 2011; Ochoa & Blanch, 2015).

In our theoretical frame we expose two main conceptual ideas, the psychosocial malaise and the work values. Physicians face many psychosocial risks factors at work as overload, high job demands and new working conditions which affect their levels of wellbeing and health. The work psychosocial malaise is defined as a psychosocial state of cognitive and emotional unpleasant, stress and discomfort, concerning to the organizational conditions and unbalance in demands-resources at work (Ochoa & Blanch, 2015).

Regard to the job values, there are several typologies that have been created to classify the values, just to mention some, Elizur (1984) classified those related to cognitive outcomes (aspects linked to the meaning of working and achievement); instrumental results (related to the salaries and the working conditions); and affective outcomes (those linked to self-esteem and recognition). For his part Schwartz, Ros and Surkiss (1999) classify them into intrinsic, extrinsic, social and power values. The current study used Schwartz tipology (1992, 2001) because it has a dynamic scheme of comprehensive classification to cover all values types that exist and also its extensive world validation (Schwartz, Lehmann & Roccas, 1999; Schwartz & Boehnke, 2004).

The Schwartz categorization (1992, 2001) has two bipolar dimensions that divided into four higher order factors and these in ten specific values. In the first axis, the values expressing the

bipolar extreme, open to change and conservation. The open to change believes including the self-direction and stimulation types and the conservation extreme, grouped conformity, tradition and security values.

The other axis is determined by the self-enhancement and self-transcendence poles. The self-enhancement have been integrated by values that are manifested through goals whose motivational objective are relates to the achievement and authority, while at the opposite pole are grouped values related to universalism and benevolence. The Figure No.1 shows the specific description of values by Schwartz
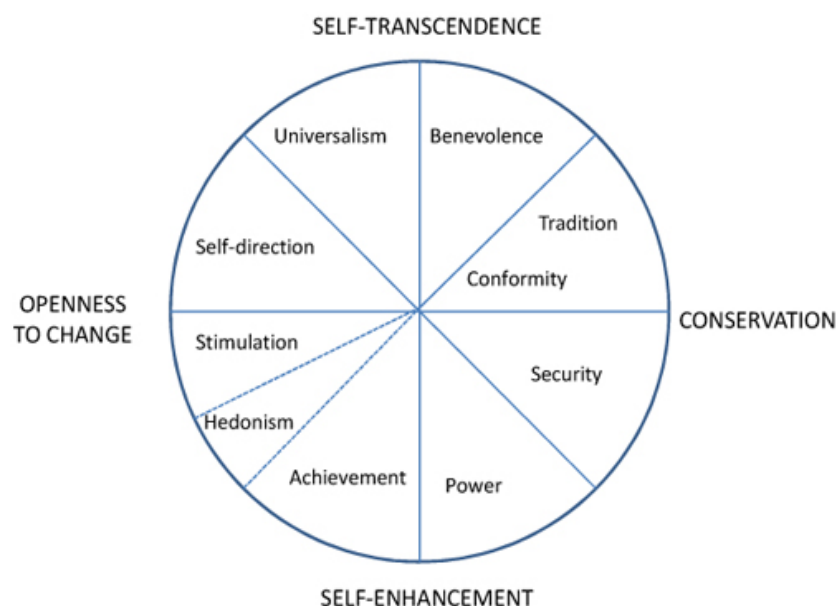
Fig. 1. The structure of the value types. Source: Schwartz (1992).

From this social context and the consequences of values in the results at organizations (González & Arciniega, 2000), the objective of the current research was to describe the dimensions of psychosocial malaise and the work values in physicians, according to the medical specialties departments, at the University Hospital and the Maternity Mariana de Jesús, Ecuador.

Method

The research design was cross sectional. The analysis techniques were an exploratory analysis and descriptive statistics techniques. A convenience sample was composed by 169 physicians who completed an extensive questionnaire. We used part of the General Wellbeing Questionnaire (qBLG) (Blanch, Sahagún, Cantera & Cervantes, 2010) to evaluate the psychological dimensions of malaise at work, integrated by somatization, exhaustion and alienation dimensions. Also we asked to the participants for five professional's values in the questionnaire and included the relation between the physician's professional values and their psychosocial malaise.

Results

We show the results in 3 segments, the values distribution by Schwartz's higher order factors, the values by hospital's departments and the psychosocial malaise by Schwartz's values. Regard to the values distribution, the study illustrated that the predominant values in the total sample were self-transcendence and conservation values (see figure No. 2).
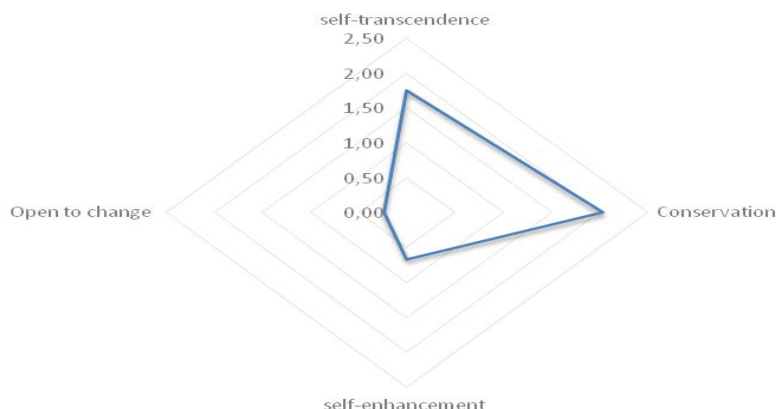
Fig. No.2. Values characterization by Schwartz's higher order factors

In relation to values differences by departments (see figure No.3), the values more common at medical specialties units were the self-transcendence values, in the critical departments the conservation values were the highest and in the administrative departments the most remarkable are conservation and self-transcendence values.
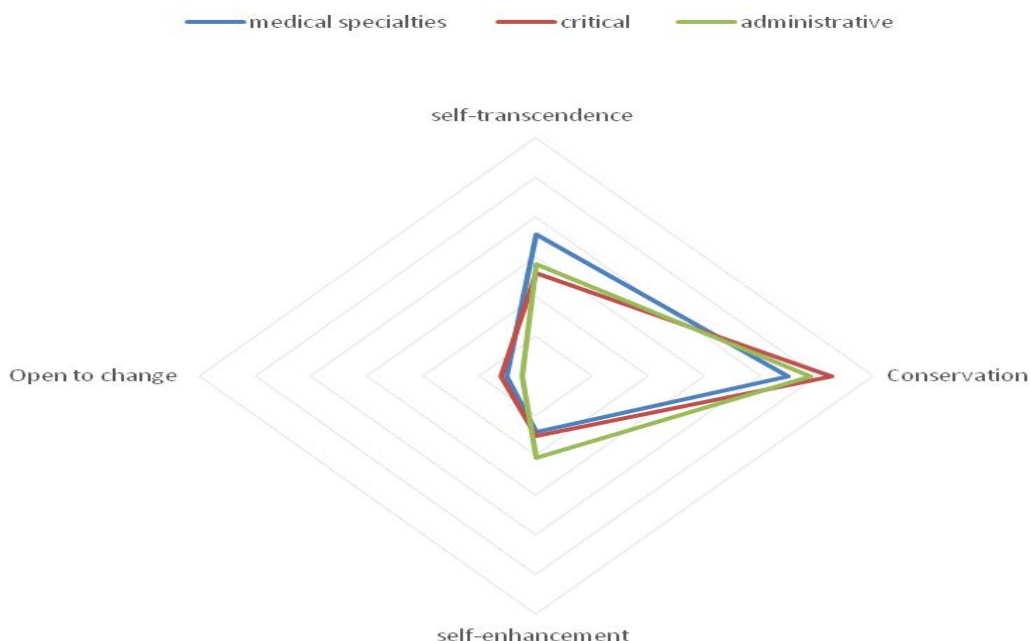
Fig. No.3. Values by departments

In next section we expose the results of values according each dimensions of psychosocial malaise. The values more frequent in physicians with high levels of somatization (see figure No.4), were the self transcendence, follow by conservation values and in minor levels the self-enhancement and open to change believes. By their part, the dominant values in physicians with medium levels of somatization were conservation, follow by transcendence and in minor percent the self-enhancement and open to change values. Regarding to the values more frequent in

physicians with low levels of somatization are conservation, follow by self-transcendence and in minor levels the self-enhancement and open to change principles.

The values more frequent in physicians with high levels of exhaustion (see figure No.5), were the self transcendence, follow by conservation values and in minor levels the self-enhancement and open to change believes. By their part, the dominant values in physicians with medium levels of exhaustion were conservation, follow by transcendence, self-enhancement and open to change values. Regarding to the values more frequent in physicians with low levels of exhaustion were conservation, follow by self-transcendence and in minor levels the self-enhancement and open to change principles.

The values more frequent in physicians with high levels of alienation (see figure No.6), were the self transcendence, follow by conservation values and in minor levels the self-enhancement and open to change believes. By their part, the dominant values in doctors with medium levels of alienation were conservation, follow by transcendence and in minor level the self-enhancement and open to change values. Regarding to the values more frequent in alienation with low levels of exhaustion were conservation, follow by self-transcendence and in minor levels the self-enhancement and open to change principles.

As additional information in the sample the psychosocial malaise by dimensions showed medium levels of somatization, exhaustion and alienation. According to the workplace, the groups who work in critical departments (including Emergency units) revealed the highest levels in each dimension of the instrument, followed by the medical and the administrative departments.
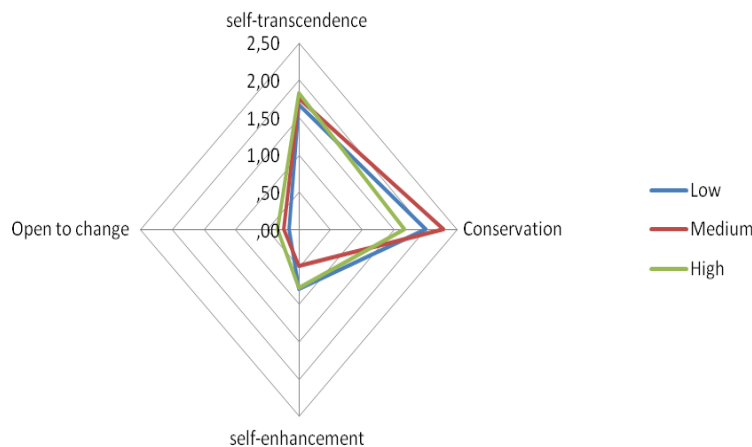
Fig. No.4. Values by somatization
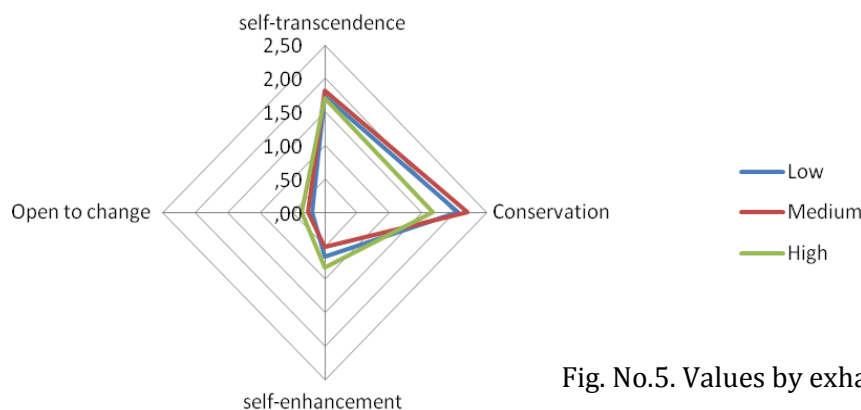
Fig. No.5. Values by exhaustion
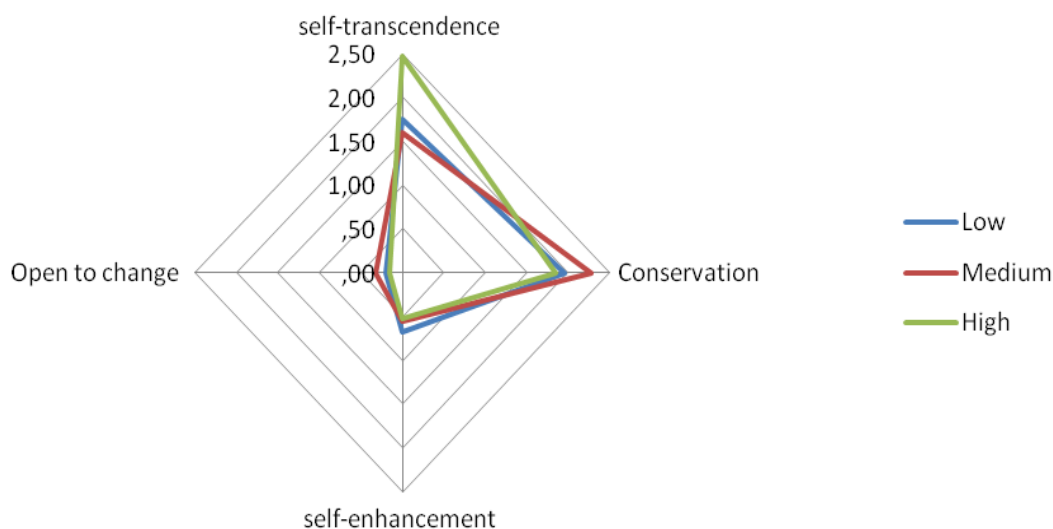
Fig. 6. Values by alienation

Regarding the differences of Medias of the psychosocial malaise dimensions by Schwartz's values, the results showed that only resulted in statistical differences the medias of alienation by self-transcendence values. We found statistical differences between the high, medium and low levels of alienation.

Discussion

The results illustrated that the predominant values in the sample are related to self-transcendence and conservation, in part due to the influence of medical vocation, education background and characteristics of the Hippocratic profession (Ochoa & Blanch, 2015). Concerning to the differences found by departments, the high percentage of self-transcendence values in medical specialties corresponding, between several factors, to the focus on patients health, the interest in altruism and less interested in self-enhancement. In case of critical specialty doctors, we detected a different group of values, the combination of conservation and self-transcendence believes, because the work experience at urgency units which demands more control and security believes. Also in emergency units are constant the tensions between doctors and families, the stress of daily life and the dilemma to respond to administrative and medical goals at the same time.

There is something paradoxical in observed results of work values by psychosocial malaise dimensions. The physicians with alienation, equivalent to depersonalization and cynicism (indifference to people and patients) also had high levels of self-transcendence values (believes to support and help people). This is a contradictory and paradoxical result that is very interesting to deepen in the future, because the physician expose formal values of self-transcendence but in the real life could suffer an alienation experience.

The Job Demands–Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007, 2013) let explain the tensions between working conditions, psychological demands and the personal, organizational and social resources. The positive beliefs and work values aligned to organizational goals, as self-transcendence, in medical case, are strengths and resources that permit to the physicians deal with the social, political and legal pressures at health organizations in Ecuador.

Physicians have development a philosophy and work values built around values as self-transcendence because their humanitarian profession and service vocation. Also, the study open the vision to study some aspects to deepen in the future, as well as the generational gap between baby boomers, X, Y, millennial groups (Jin & Rounds, 2011; Krahn, & Galambos, 2014; Kuron, Lyons, Schweitzer & Ng, 2015); the relations between values and working conditions (Paschoal, Álvaro, & Barreiros-Porto, 2015), and more issues related the cultural and social differences. In conclusion, the future of studies in work values is promising and is a world of opportunities!

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MOTIVATIONAL PROCESSES IN ENVIRONMENTS OF REWARD: PROPOSAL AND TESTING OF AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL FOR RE-EVALUATION OF RESULTS

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Abstract

This study sought to reevaluate the effects of the elements of theories of expectation and determination of goals in motivational processes related to reward programs. The research used the model of Porter & Lawler III (1968) augmented with other elements of other studies on the subject. Conclusive research was done using standardized questionnaires on a sample of (n=594) employees in private and public organizations. The model showed that the studied theories continue to explain the motivation of people to work in programs of reward in both organizations. The results supported by the model studied confirm the hypotheses that reward environment do not influence people motivation, because people motivation is related to human nature rather than organizational nature.

Introduction

Organizations survive through the achievement of results obtained by people. A major challenge for most managers is to work with people who are motivated to deliver results continuously (Kumar, 2011). The idea of rewarding people, looking towards satisfying their needs that generate motivation to work, is used in organizations and investigated by many scholars.

The origin of this line of action is in the unfolding of studies conducted on human motivation by researchers such as Maslow (1943, 1954), McClelland (1961) Alderfer (1969), Herzberg (1981) and Adams (1965), among others. Theories of motivation and their links to the concept of satisfaction of individual needs generated a movement in the organizational means for the use of mechanisms for allocating s to employees. At the heart of the matter is the expectancy theory of Vroom (1964) and further work by Porter & Lawler III (1968) and Porter, Lawler III & Hackman (1975).

A large proportion of motivation theories (Maslow, 1954; Alderfer, 1969; Herzberg, 1981; Hackman & Oldham, 1976) state that motivation occurs by seeking the satisfaction of individual needs. To achieve this motivation, the Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964; Porter & Lawer III, 1968) states that s should be offered based on individual values. Reward seeks to leverage individual results by achieving pre-established goals, aligning them to company goals. Therefore, reward may motivate some and not mean anything to others. Additionally, some may feel motivated to work, while others do not.

Given the information above, the article is justified because managers must ascertain the scope of reward for the motivation of their employees. Another justification arises as a result of work, such as, Weibel *et al.* (2010) which show opposite results of motivation in environments of reward. This creates a possibility of understanding this phenomenon in a more comprehensive and integrative approach using classical and contemporary literature on the topic. Thus, this research was guided by the research question: How the elements of classical theories of motivation acting on reward environments? The objective of the study was to reassess, in environments of reward elements of classical theories of motivation gathered in a model.

Theoretical Background

Motivation

To Longeneker (2011) and Park & Word (2012) motivation means getting people to appropriate the needs of the organization, achieving higher levels of performance. Deci & Ryan (2000) and Hitt et al. (2007) define motivation as the force deriving from within a person who is responsible for the active engagement and intentional targeting of efforts. Given this, motivation is intrinsic to human nature. Bowditch & Buono (2006) define intrinsic motivation as the desire of an individual to develop an action alone.

To the Self Determination Theory what moves human beings are the basic and innate psychological needs which are: self-management, the ability to successfully interact with the environment and the need to bond (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ntoumanis et al., 2009; Park & Word, 2012). Thus, motivation is essentially intrinsic because individuals need to feel competent and self-determined. In this conception material reward undermines intrinsic motivation (Weibel et al., 2010) because the individual will feel externally controlled (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Extrinsic motivation is defined by Bowditch & Buono (2006) as that which the individual wishes to develop the action because of external stimuli, in order to receive or avoid punishments. Armstrong (2007) adds that it is only simpleton thinking that extrinsic factors can motivate in the long term, because the reasons are inversely proportional.

The Theory of Expectation, created by Vroom (1964) subsequently extended by Porter & Lawler III (1968) is based on the belief that behavior at work is determined by the expectation of the consequences of a particular individual behavior. The choice of behavior depends on what each individual expects that their actions will produce specific and attractive results. The extended version of the Theory of Expectation by Porter & Lawler III (1968) and Porter, Lawler III & Hackman (1975) incorporates considerations of the concept of equity, which proposes that the employee evaluates how fair his is in relation to the effort undertaken and comparing it to the effort of other employees. Lawler III (2000) states that motivation is a function of the importance of and its degree of linkage to a specific behavior or performance.

Motivation can also be described as a goal-directed behavior. The theory of determination of goals of Locke & Latham (2002;2006) shows that specific and difficult goals lead to a higher level of task performance compared to weak or vague goals, because they require more to be accomplished.

Methodological Strategies

It is noteworthy that the proposed theoretical model is an adaptation of the model of expectancy theory of Porter & Lawler III (1968), incorporating ideas from the theory of the determination of goals by Locke (2004) and Locke & Latham (2002, 2006). The model concepts deriving from the work of Locke & Latham (2006) and Bandura (1986) also added the use of an individual action plan as a tool to direct efforts, by Locke & Latham (2006), and using feedback in order to correct the course of action in case of deviation and keep the individual directed toward the goal, according to Herzberg (1981), Hackman & Oldham (1976), Locke & Latham (2006) and Bandura (1986). Thus, a more comprehensive model was created, in which actions were outlined to test the mechanisms by which the reward culminates in motivation and satisfaction with regard to the received value.

For the sake of space, the research model will be presented only once (FIG. 1) at the moment of its test. The proposed constructs from literature are listed as follow: a) Single Goal. Clear goal (objective, value and timing), challenging but attainable; b) Individual Action Plan (specific tasks). Action plan to detail the actions necessary to achieve the goal; c) Value of :Value that will be paid to the individual in case of success; d) Perceived effort – Probability of: Perceived probability of receiving a based on effort; e) Effort : Perception of the effort the individual will have to make; f) Skills and Characteristics: Skills and characteristics the individual has to perform his task; g) Perceptions of Task : Perception of individual regarding the task to be performed; h) Performance - Accomplishment: Results obtained with the work; i) Feedback: Guidance from a superior about the current performance and how to improve performance; j) Rewards: Value paid to the individual in case of success; l) Perceived fair: Perception of the value of the received as fair; m) Satisfaction : Individual satisfaction regarding the value received.

According to the hypothetical model (FIG. 1) when a goal is set for the individual (1), it should be clear, difficult but achievable and agreed upon by the employee. It should give origin to an individual action plan (2) which will unfold or detail the goal in specific tasks. The goal identifies the value of the (3) that will be paid if the person achieves it. The value is evaluated differently for / by each type of individual, depending on their psychographic profile (4). The value of expected by the different profiles is combined with the perception that the individual has the effort involved in getting and the probability of obtaining it (5) to produce certain level of effort (6). This effort is combined with the skills and characteristics of the individual (7), and the way in which he sees the task (8) to produce a specific level of performance (9). Performance is measured from time to time before the final result. Feedback is given to the employee so he adjusts his action plan and improves his performance. The resulting level of performance leads to s (11) which are due to the good performance. The s can be intrinsic or extrinsic, but the focus of this work is extrinsic. The individual has his own idea about whether the total set of s received is appropriate (12), which, when compared to the s actually received, results in the level of satisfaction experienced by him (13).

H1: Reward environment do not influence people motivation.

Regarding the approach

The research was conducted in two phases. In the first, managers of the organizations were investigated, aiming to study the phenomenon in greater depth and identifying the components of the questionnaire variables. The second phase consisted of a quantitative survey with analysts, engineers, supervisors, coordinators and managers in the organization.

The survey was conducted in two organizations, one of private nature and the other of public nature. Both had reward programs. The private company is an industrial organization, with over six thousand employees in Brazil and abroad. In this case, the employees located in the Metropolitan Region of Belo Horizonte - MG were surveyed. The public organization is a Secretary of State of Minas Gerais.

A survey was conducted using a self-completed questionnaire without identification, composed of questions evaluated on forced and balanced Likert scales of 11 points (0-10). The selection of respondents in both organizations was made upon convenience (willingness to answer the questionnaire). Fieldwork was conducted by an interviewer. In the private company employees from different hierarchical levels (laborers, analysts, engineers, supervisors, coordinators, managers and directors from three states) were surveyed. The sample consisted of 400 employees. At the Secretary of State, 194 employees were surveyed.

The results of the study were tested using programs SmartPLS, Microsoft Excel and SPSS 13.0 and are described below. Described below are the details of the data analysis used in this study and the discussion of results. The first stage of analysis includes qualitative analysis, through the characterization of the organizations studied, while the second phase will include a quantitative analysis of the data. The total sample consisted of 61% men, majority (76.5%) were married (a), most with one or more children (54%) and predominant schooling was complete high school (67.5%). More than half have been in the company for more than 10 years (51.5%), from one to two years in the same position (44%) and 36% held supervisory or coordination of a subordinate. The system of goals was, in most cases, collective (93%) or mixed between individual and collective (53%).

Starting at descriptive analysis (Pestana & Gagaceiro, 2000) concentrated indicators can be found around the center of the scale, showing moderate levels of motivation and other components of the model. This implies a neutral perception, characterized by high dispersion around the mean responses, revealing wide disparity of opinions. One should highlight that the differences between means (t test) and variances (Levene test) between the two companies were punctual and very expressive, showing that the nature of the organizations (public and private) do not produce large differences in the means and global results.

In sequence analysis with missing data was carried out, which showed little data loss (less than 5% for all variables) except thirteen questionnaires with a loss superior than 50%, was excluded from analysis. When a non-random pattern for loss of data is verified, the replacement of missing information proceeded as a more appropriate method in these situations (Hair *et al.,* 1998).

Deviations from normality were significant (Jarque-Bera test and Z-test of parameters of Skewness and Kurtosis), but due to the significant size of the sample the implications in terms of underestimation of the variance and correlations becomes less problematic (Muthén & Kaplan, 1985; Tabachinick & Fidel, 2001). The extreme cases (univariate outliers) were substituted, as suggested by Tabachnick & Fidel (2001) and Kline (1998), and eleven responders were classified as multivariate extremes (kept in the analysis for comparison purposes: differences between the results with and without outliers were imperceptible).

As for the assumption of linearity no significant deviations in the scatter plots were detected. Finally, regarding multicollinearity, no VIF value exceeded the limit of ten (10) and no correlation exceeded the threshold of 0.90 (in absolute terms), indicating the absence of major violations. After initial depuration the review of quality of measurements was preceded. Starting at the analysis of dimensionality, as method suggested by Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma (2003), employing the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) (Principal Component for extraction). A combination of Kaiser criteria (eigenvalues greater than 1) and scree plot were used to define the number of dimensions. Applying these procedures, all scales proved to be one-dimensional, requiring the exclusion of only one question of the construct "Individual Goals". Measures of *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin* (KMO) (only one case is inferior to 0.700, but within 0.600) and extracted variance (all above 50%) showed good conditions for the factorial solution (Hair *et al.,* 1998).

In sequence the evaluation of reliability and quality of measurements by means of Cronbach's Alpha (CA), Composite Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) measures was applied. The CA and CR measurements indicate the percent of the variance attributed to the true score of the latent variable (Spector, 1992), or the percentage of free variance of random measurement errors, and typically acceptable amounts higher than 0.700 but may comprise

values to 0.6 for scales under construction (Malhotra, 2006), which is the typical case of this study. These measurements showed that the scales hold acceptable properties, since they are, in mostly from values greater than 0.800. The AVE should submit values greater than 0.400 (Bollen, 1989), this being the case for all scales.In the following validity of the measurements through the procedure and construct validity was evaluated (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2002). The approach to structural equation modeling was applied (Mackenzie, 2001; Bagozzi, YI & Philips, 1991; Fornell *et al.*, 1981) by the method of Partial Least Square (PLS) estimation, which is more appropriate given the sample ratio vs. model size and the occurrence of deviations from normality (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Fornell & Bookstein, 1982, p.440; Chin, 1998).

Construct validity (convergent, discriminant and nomological validity) met the proposed criteria. The convergent validity revealed virtually all indicators given the proposed requirement, with good reliability (square of the standardized factor loads superior than 0.4 in most cases). In discriminant validity only the pairs of scales "s" and "Satisfaction" did not show discriminant validity, but because of the evidence of validity in the previous steps and range of validity according to the confidence interval of 99.9% of the corrected correlation (Netemeyer, Bearden & Sharma, 2003) ranged from 0.965 to 0.940, confirming the discriminant validity with correlation between scales lower than one (1). It was also found that nomological validity, ultimately seeks favorable evidence for the set of assumptions of the hypothetical research model (Netemeyer, Bearden & Shama, 2003). The results of the hypothetical research model are present in FIG.1.

Analysis and Discussion of Results

This study allowed us to test a larger reward model and its relation to motivation. The research model was based on Porter & Lawler III (1968) with the constructs " value", "perceived effort - probability of ", "effort", "skills and characteristics", "perception of the task", "performance", "s", "perceived fair " and "satisfaction". Besides these, the model works on "individual goals" of Locke & Latham (2006) and Bandura (1986) the use of the "individual action plan" as a tool to direct "efforts" of Locke & Latham (2006) and the use of "feedback" in order to correct the direction in case of deviation and maintain the individual toward a goal incorporated into the model, according to Herzberg (1981), Hackman & Oldham (1976); Locke & Latham (2006) and Bandura (1986).

The standardized values used to mark the importance of independent constructs (the higher the absolute value of the measurement the greater its relative influence) indicate that more independent constructs impact on the dependent constructs studied. The foregoing results show a good fit of the estimated models, which demonstrates a good quality of the research model supporting most of the relations originally found in studies of the authors cited in the previous paragraph. In general, the achieved results corroborate with these studies.

As observed in FIG. 1 the tested hypotheses indicate confirmation of the established relation, except the relation between "Skills and Characteristics" and "Performance" that showed a non-significant weight. It is noted that effects of moderate to high among the variables that make up this model with variance percentage explained largely above 30%. Thus, as in the work of Shafiq *et al.* (2011), this study found that employee motivation is explained by several factors.

Based on the Locke & Latham model (2006) the positive relation that would be expected between the individual goal and the elaboration of a personal action plan was tested and, the relation was significant and positive ($\square$ = 0.57; p < 0.001).

According to Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1935), Locke & Latham (2006), Vroom (1964) and Porter & Lawler III (1968), the goal and the value associated to it will be paid if the individual reaches the clearly defined goal. This relation was significant and positive ($\square$ = 0.62, p <0.001) in this study.

Based on the Porter & Lawler III model (1968), the positive relation would be expected between the " value" and "effort", relation that was significant and positive ($\square$ = 0.26; p < 0.001) as tested. The " value" along with the "individual action plan" ($\square$ = 0.22; p < 0.01) and "perceived effort - probability of " ($\square$ = 0.36; p < 0.001) explain 50% of "effort".

The "performance" was explained in 59% by the constructs "perceptions of the task" ($\square$ = 0.35; p < 0.001) and "Effort" ($\square$ = 0.51; p < 0.001), whereas "skills and characteristics" were not significant in this relation ($\square$ = 0.04; p > 0.05). This means that the more an individual makes an effort and realizes the tasks that must be performed, the higher his performance.

Based on the model of Herzberg (1981), Hackman and Oldham (1976), Locke & Latham (2006), and Bandura (1986) the positive relation would be expected between "performance" and "feedback", relation that was significant and positive when tested ($\square$ = 0.76; p < 0.001). However the "performance" variable had no positive association with "perceived effort - probability of ." The "feedback" showed no positive relation, as expected, with the "definition of a personal action plan." This can be explained by the survey having been compiled in a single moment of time and not being a longitudinal study, which limits the testing of models regarding relations of "feedback" as well as stability (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989).

Based on the theory of Pavlov (1927), Skinner (1935), Locke & Latham (2006), Vroom (1964) and Porter & Lawler III (1968), the level of "performance" leads to "s". Relation that proved to be significant and positive ($\square$ = 0.76; p < 0.001).

Confirming the theory of Porter and Lawler III (1968), "satisfaction" was explained in 79% by the constructs "perceived fair " ($\square$ = 0.32; p < 0.001) and "s" ($\square$ = 0.63; p < 0.001). This means that employees are satisfied with they received when they get what they want or need and when they perceive that the received was fair. This result is corroborated by recent research as performed by Shafiq *et al.* (2011) in a private banking system in which it was identified that the is directly proportional to employee motivation and employee motivation depends on s. As well as research conducted by Mahazril'Aini *et al.* (2012), with government officials in Malaysia, a significant positive relation between s and recognition with the motivation to work was found.

Unlike the study by Weibel *et al.* (2010), which claim that the financial s sometimes impact negatively on individual efforts, this study corroborates with research showing the role of monetary s in the motivational process. The research of Zaidi & Abbas (2011) with officials of the telecommunication sector of Pakistan has shown that monetary s have greater impact on motivation of employees than non-monetary s. Also, Liu & Tang (2011), in a research with public Chinese servants, identified that those employees who hold a strong love of money, have a significantly stronger motivation in relation to public service and job satisfaction compared to those who have less love for money. Therefore, the reward is still an effective tool to encourage employees to improve effort and performance.

As for the model tested by organization (public and private) it was observed that there were some notable differences in the relation between the weights of motivation, but most relations seem to act similarly regardless of the nature of the organization. This means that the model operates in a similar manner regardless of the structure and human resources policy adopted in

the organization. This reinforces that the relation between reward and motivation depend on organizational policy and its expression in the constructs in the model. This supports a greater generality of the model, demonstrating that relations tested here behave consistently across different organizational contexts.

Given the above, the survey results support the proposed model because the test of the relation in the structural model showed statistical significance for the most part. Therefore, the tests are statistically valid and the results are consistent. Given this, it appears that the theories that supported this study were adequate to explain the motivational process in reward environments studied.

FIGURE 1 - RESEARCH MODEL: ESTIMATES OBTAINED FROM PLS
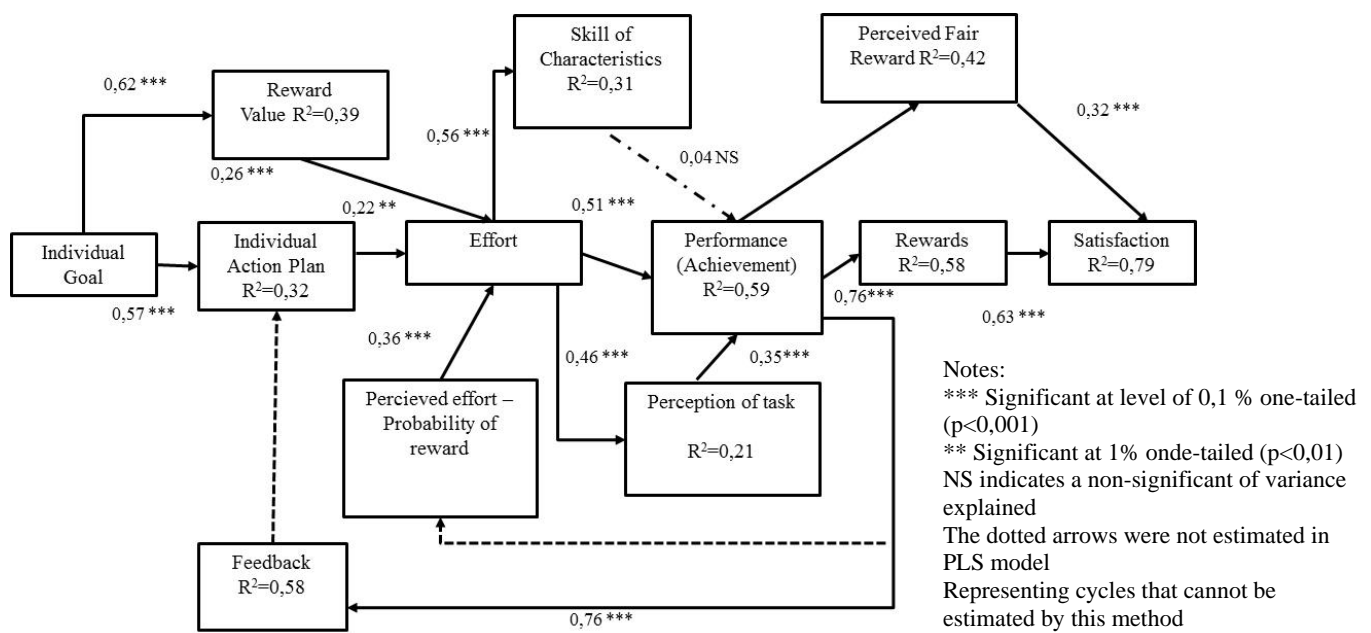
Source (theoretical model): Adapted by the authors as of Porter and Lawler III (1968), Locke (2004) and Locke and Latham (2002, 2006).

Source (statistics): Treatment of collected data.

Conclusions

It was found that the proposed model formulated from Porter & Lawler III (1968), Locke (2004) and Locke & Latham (2002, 2006) continues to explain in a relevant way the satisfaction received with s ($R2 = 0.79$) and the motivational process arising from the Theory of Expectancy extended by Hackman and Oldham (1976), Herzberg (1981), Bandura (1986) and Locke & Latham (2006).

In public organizations and private organizations, programs for reward mobilized people for the production of results according to the goals assigned to them. This conclusion answers the question formulated for the research. The elements of expectancy theory and the theory of the determination of goals are motivational sources inherent to reward policies.

The results show that the model is still valid and relates to human nature rather than organizational nature, not confirming the hypothesis. One can further advance assuming possible managerial misunderstandings in the operationalization of a reward program disrupt the

theoretical model assumptions. In an organizational setting (public or private), configured according to the model, to not check the results obtained here, it can be assumed that the problem is the result of an imperfect operationalization of the reward program. A managerial deficiency can disrupt the theoretical logic, which remains valid. This may be an explanation for the negative results mentioned in some research in VC environment.

Similar to managerial implications, the results of the research show that in the public and private organizations surveyed, there is evidence that in adopting a policy of management of reward compatible with clear goal setting, a well-defined criteria (values and deadlines) and detailed plans of action could aim to better performance. It was noticed that there was motivation, stress and satisfaction with the s offered.

Here there is a note of caution, since other elements (such as stability) that are not integrated in the model can affect the actions resulting from the implementation of a reward plan. Thus, even though the model demonstrates that elevating levels consistent in exogenous variables (such as goal setting) generate similar results in terms of performance, one may have greater difficulty in achieving the same level of sedimentation of variable remuneration policies. This implies that in the public sphere it can be a more arduous climb to achieve the same level of applicability of strategies observed in reward compared to in the private sector.

As a limitation, there is convenience sampling and field of study restricted to two organizations. Moreover, the collection of data in a single time period precludes the estimation of reciprocal relations (feedback) where satisfaction of a past moment influences the individuals action plan in the next period, so that feedback and could influence motivation and plans for future action.

It is suggested to future researchers a longitudinal study which would be more appropriate to estimate reciprocal relationships, such as feedback to the individual action plan, as it would be possible to measure how feedback influenced future performance. In addition, possible distortions in the perception of officials could be seen.

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PART – 3
PERFORMANCE AND SATISFACTION

PERSONAL AND WORK CHARACTERISTICS AS CAUSES OF ABSENTEEISM IN BUSINESS ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract

The study purpose was to examine the relative impact of personal and work variables on absenteeism by conducting an empirical study in Israel.

Subjects were 2292 employees in business organizations. The survey included questions about the amount of absenteeism and its specific causes.

The findings show that women have a higher rate of absenteeism, 24% more than men. The higher rate of women absenteeism is mainly due to sickness in the family, personal sickness, and trips aboard.

Only few demographic traits were found significant, mainly age of the employee and the age of the young child. The work characteristics that influenced absenteeism were the number of subordinates, and the seniority in work.

Introduction

Absenteeism is one of the oldest research topics in the field of work and organizational psychology (Johns, 2003). The commonly used definition of absenteeism is "a lack of physical presence at a behavior setting when and where one is expected to be" (Harrison & Price, 2003, p. 204).

Absenteeism and its subsequent cost is a significant problem for organizations. In the United States, the overall cost of absence to employers has been estimated at more than $253 billion (Work Loss Data Institute, 2003) or the equivalent of 35 percent of base payroll (Mercer, 2010). However, not all organizations supervise their works' absence rates and only few analyze the causes of absenteeism. In academic research most of the studies focused on absenteeism regarding organizations of the public sector, like schools or hospitals, or on absenteeism regarding health related subjects. This research deals with organizations in the business sector and cover various industries.

A number of explanatory theories have been proposed to understand the absenteeism behavior at work (Laaksonen et al., 2010). Broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001) and engagement theory (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, & Taris, 2008) are the main theories that explain workers' absence.

Most of research regarding the correlates and causes of absenteeism focused on individual characteristics such as work attitudes and experiences, personal traits, and illness (Johns, 2008). The key absenteeism determinants have been identified as the sociodemographic indicators, personality, workplace behavior, social context, and the decision process itself (Gosselin et al., 2013). Studies also examined the effects of low job satisfaction and low organizational commitment on absenteeism (Punnett et al., 2007).

Other studies found that socio-demographic variables affect absence behavior, such as employees' gender and age (Martocchio, 1989), personality characteristics (Bernardin, 1977), job attitudes (Hackett, 1989), and experience of strain (Darr & Johns, 2008).

The main purpose of this study is to analyze the relative impact that personal and work variables have on absenteeism in the business sector.

Method

Sample Characteristics

A total of 2,292 female and male employees participated in the study. They were employed by four major private sectors: manufacturing (681), banking (477), professional services (384) and commerce and telecommunication (750). The employees represent all positions and ranks in these organizations. The sampling method was stratified sampling, stratums defined both by gender and ranks.   Seventy-two percent of the respondents were female (1,651) and 28% (641) males. The average age was similar for females and males –about 40 years, and 82% were 30-60 years old.

The family status of the participants was: 14% singles, 78%, married or livings with spouse and 8% divorcees, widowers or single parent families. Only 9% were families without any children. Forty eight percent of the employees had 12 or less years of education, 15% had 13-14 equivalent years, and 37% had over 15 years of education.

The average seniority (years at workplace) was the same for females and males, about 10 years. Only 26% of the females had subordinates compared to 48% of the males.

Research Procedure

The respondents were approached at their place of employment. Instructions were given to the responsible persons of the research in the organizations to select participants randomly according to gender and rank. Anonymity was insured by sealing envelopes containing the questionnaire for the responded, and putting them in a designated box. The respondents were informed that the questionnaires will be scanned optically by a computer.

Measures

The following variables were included in the questionnaire:

Working details: Seniority in the organization and in the current job, rank, working hours per week, part/full time job, number of subordinates.

Attitudes toward the current work place: Importance and satisfaction attached to the following work attributes: job security, salary, promotion opportunities, interest, independence, flexibility in working hours, interrelationship with superiors, and relationships with other employees in the organization.

For these measures the respondents were provided answer scales ranging 1-5 (1= very unimportant or very unsatisfied, and 5= very important or very satisfied).

Absenteeism: Direct question about the number of working days missed during the last year, and detailed questions about causes for the absenteeism.

The questionnaire also included the following background data: Gender, age, marital status, children information, education, religiosity, region of residence, and remunerations like salary and various benefits.

Data Analysis

The statistical package used in this study was SPSS. First, descriptive statistics and compared mean tests (Independent t test and one Way ANOVA test) for gender and other variables were applied in order to find the impact of those variables on work absenteeism. Then, two Ways ANOVA test (Univariate) was performed in order to find the relative impact of the study variables on the dependent variable: absenteeism.

Results

Difference in absenteeism according to Demographic traits

The findings show that females have a higher rate of absenteeism, about 24% more than men. The higher absenteeism rate of women is mainly due to sickness in the family, the personal sickness and trips aboard, usually accompanying spouse working trips. (See table 1 and figure 1).

As table 2 and figures 2 and 3 show, absenteeism from work is decreasing when age increases for both females and men; at age 24-34 employees have significantly higher absenteeism rate than other age groups. Also, at the age group of 35-54 the differences are significantly higher than the older groups. Yet, in every age group, females have a higher rate of absenteeism. For the age group of 34-54 the differences are significant.

Regarding causes, females are absent from work, much more than man, in all age groups, because of sickness in the family. Naturally, men are absent because their army reserve duties between the age 24-54, and females because birth delivery between the age 24-44.

A major factor that was found in previous studies was confirmed in these findings - as the age of the youngest child is growing, the rate of absenteeism for both females (Sig<.000) and men (Sig<.05) is reduced (see table 3 and fig. 4).

Table 1: Absenteeism by gender and by causes

	Females	Men	Significance	Surplus index of females compared to men	
				Absolute	Percent
Missing days (average)	2.15	1.73	<.000	.42	24%
Reasons for absence %					
Personal sickness	38.64	29.49	<.000	9.15	31%
Family sickness	24.29	12.01	<.000	12.28	102%
Trip aboard	14.11	7.64	<.000	6.47	85%
Arrangements	9.39	10.92	N.S	-1.53	-14%
Learning	7.33	8.42	N.S	-1.09	-13%
Reserve duty (army)	.48	20.75	<.000	-20.27	-98%
Birth delivery	4.72	1.56	<.000	3.16	203%
Other families problems	5.27	4.52	N.S	0.75	17%

Fig 1: Absenteeism by gender and by causes (percentages)
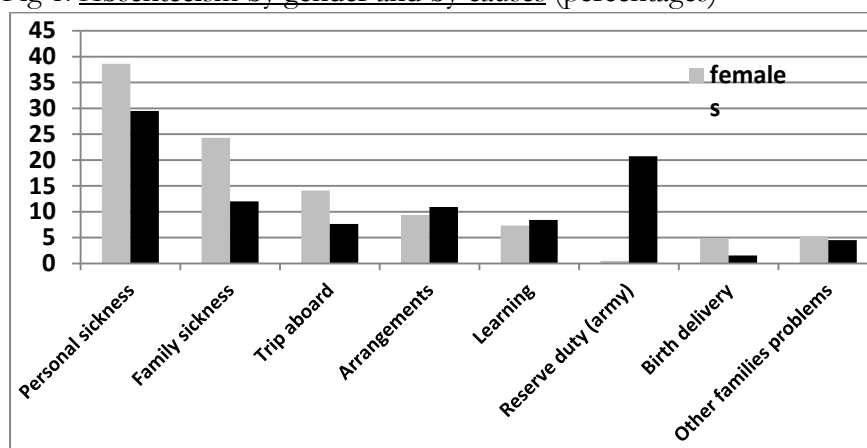
Table 2: Absenteeism by gender, by age, and by causes

Age	25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64	
Gender	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Missing days (average) Significance	2.53	2.24	2.14	1.68 **	1.75	1.27**	1.75	1.32
Person absent from work %								
Personal sickness	39.8	28.4**	36.4	28.9	36.9	31.2	48.1	30.6*
Family sickness	28.3	13.5***	33.4	14.4***	15.2	8.9*	11.1	6.5
Trip aboard	14.8	6.3***	11.7	5.6***	14.0	8.9	24.7	11.3*
Arrangements	9.6	12.0	8.0	10.6	10.6	10.2	4.9	4.8
Learning	10.3	15.9*	7.2	6.1	4.4	2.5	.0	1.6
Reserve duty (army)	.2	35.6***	.6	24.4***	.5	4.5*	1.2	1.6
Birth delivery	9.0	1.9***	4.4	2.8	.7	.0	1.2	.0
Other families problems	3.8	3.4	4.2	6.1	8.6	3.8*	7.4	4.8

***Significant at <.000, ** significant at <.01, * significant at <.05

Fig 2: Absenteeism by gender and by age (average missing days)
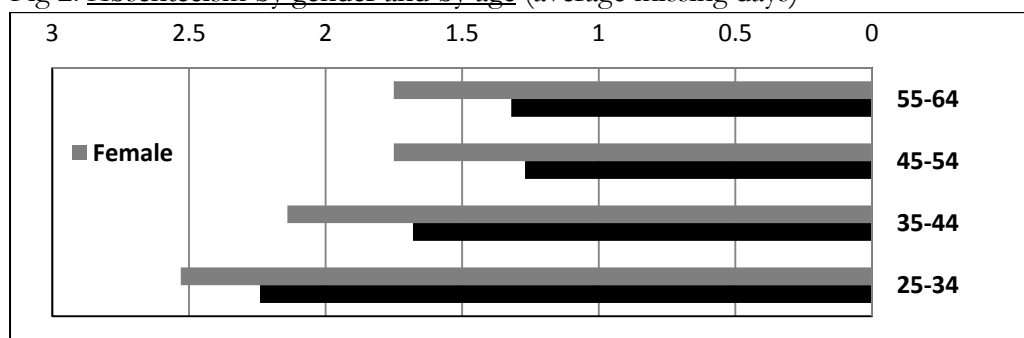
Fig 3: Absenteeism by gender, by age, and by main causes (Percentages)
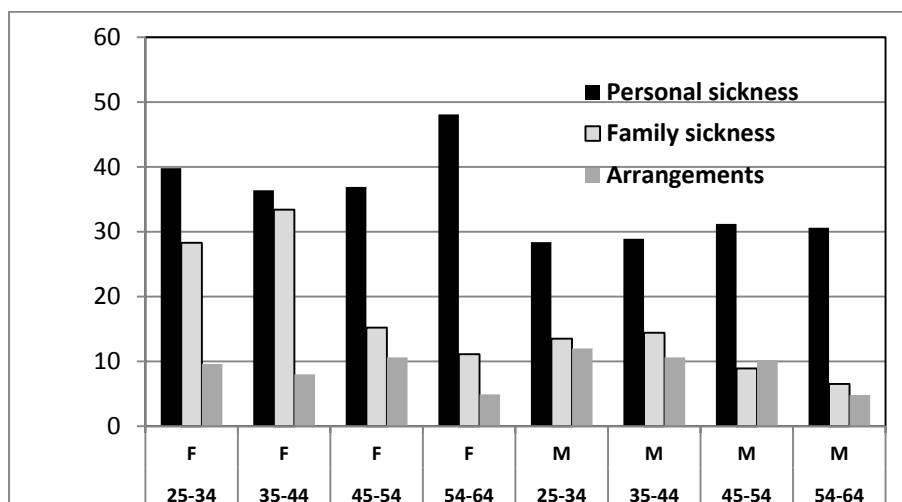
Table 3 Absenteeism by gender, and by age of the youngest child (average missing days)

	Females	Men	Surplus index of females compared to men	Significance
Less than a year	3.64	2.31	58%	<.01
1-2 years	3.12	1.89	65%	<.000

3-4 years	2.14	2.07	3%	N.S
5-9 years	2.12	1.38	54%	<.000
10-14 years	1.69	1.59	6%	N.S
15-18 years	1.77	1.36	30%	N.S

Fig 4: Absenteeism by gender, and by age of the youngest child (average missing days)
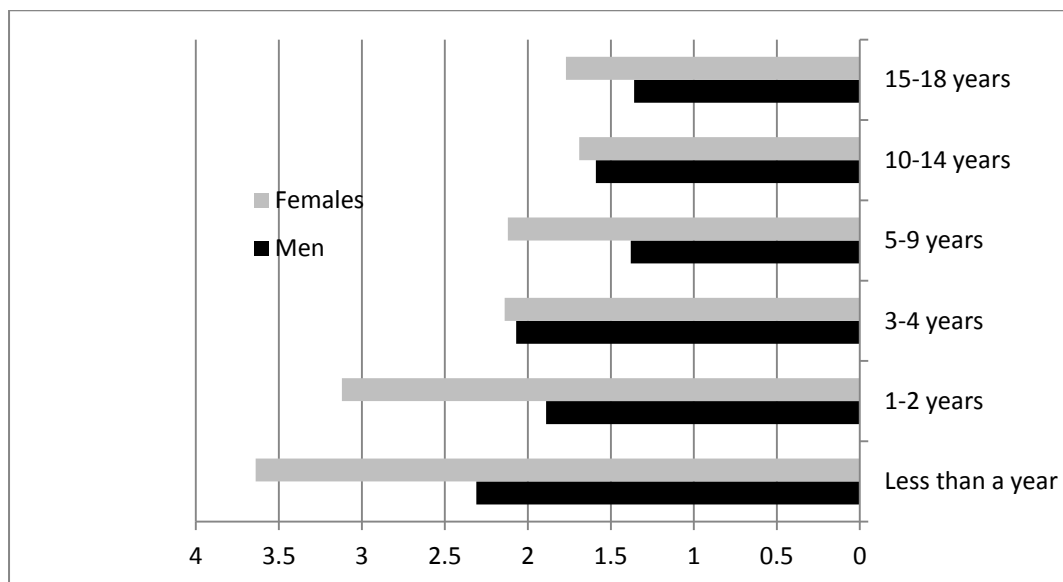
Difference in absenteeism according to employee workplace characteristics

Surprisingly, the ranks of the employees, both females and men, do not significantly influence absenteeism from work (see table 4 and fig. 5). Also, unpredictably, the weekly working hours do not significantly influence absenteeism for both genders (see table 6 and fig. 7).

The more the seniority at the work place of the employee, the less he is absent. However, this finding is significant regarding females, but not regarding men. Only men employed more than 20 years are significantly less absent (see table 5 and fig.6).

Men employees who work at the head office are significantly more absent than field employees; there is no similar difference found for females (see table 7).

Number of subordinates affect absenteeism; those employees, females or men, who do not have subordinates, have a higher rates of absenteeism compared to those who do have subordinates. Furthermore, the more subordinates the employee have, the less he is absent from work (see table 8 and fig. 8).

Table 4: Absenteeism by job ranks, and by gender (average missing days)

Job rank-	Females	Men	Significance dif. Of gender
1 (the Lowest)	2.12	1.62	<.05
2	2.14	1.66	N.S
3	2.29	2.00	N.S

4	2.29	1.79	N.S
5	2.44	1.31	<.01
6 (the highest)	1.94	2.02	N.S

One Way ANOVA (Sig. of job rank) : females F(5,1113)=.626, P>.10,

Men F(5,417)=1.057, P>.10,

Fig 5: Absenteeism by job ranks and by gender (average missing days)
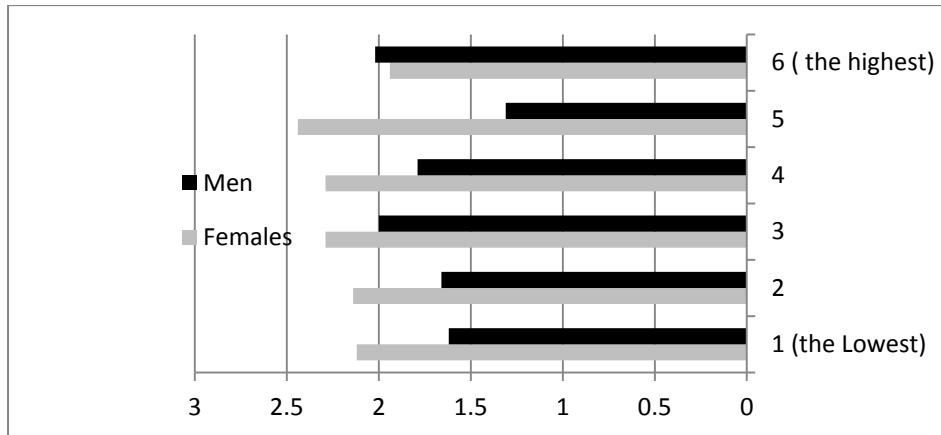
Table 5: Absenteeism by seniority (years) at work place and by gender (average missing days)

Seniority	Females	Men	Significance
Less than a year	2.01	1.72	<.05
1-2 years	2.19	1.86	N.S
3-5 years	2.21	1.92	N.S
6-10 years	2.35	1.68	<.01
11-20 years	2.07	1.53	<.05
More than 20 years	1.57	1.22	N.S

One Way ANOVA (Sig. of seniority): females F (5,1616)= 2.505, P<..05,

Men F (5,627)= .990, P>.10

Fig 6: Absenteeism by job seniority at work and by gender (average missing days)
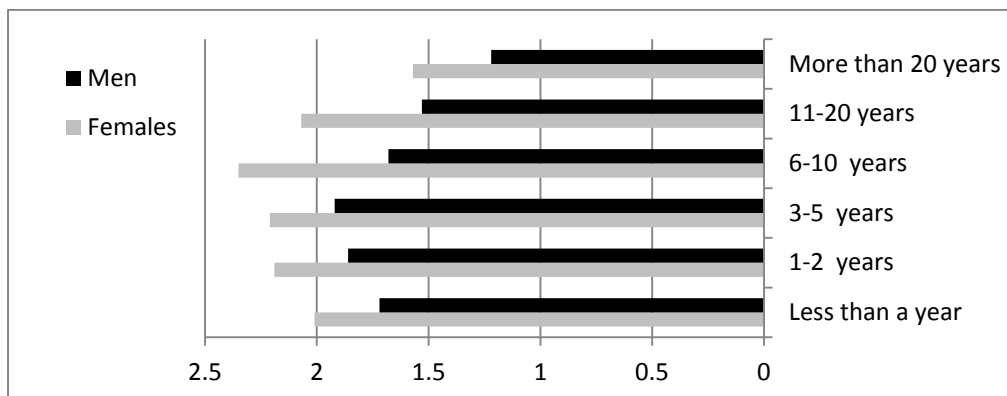
Table 6: Absenteeism by weekly working hours and by gender (average missing days)

Weekly working hours	Females	Men	Significance dif. of gender
10 or less	2.09	1.14	N.S
11-20 hours	1.98	1.47	N.S
21-30 hours	2.24	2.17	N.S
31-43 hours	2.34	1.98	<.05
44+ hours	1.90	1.67	N.S

One Way ANOVA (Sig. of hours): females $F_{(3,835)}= 1.261$, $P>.10$, Men $F_{(3,594)}= .594$, $P>.10$

Fig 7: Absenteeism by weekly working hours and by gender (average missing days)
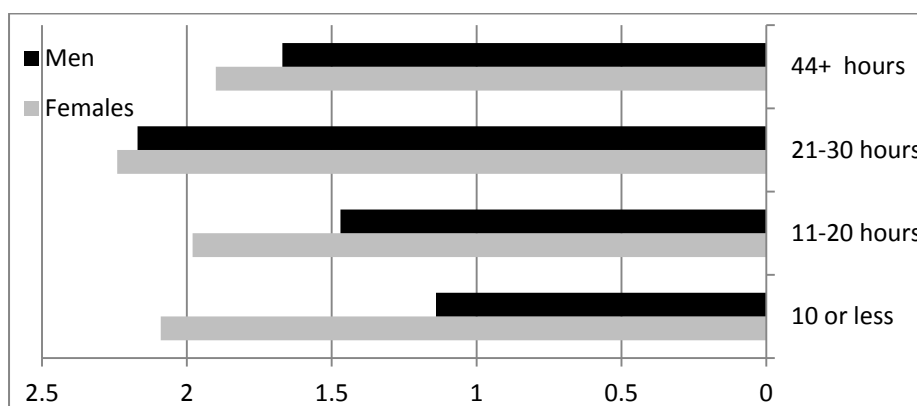
Table 7: Absenteeism by place of work (average missing days)

Working in head office	Females	Men	Significance dif. Of gender
No	2.09	1.55	<.000
Yes	2.22	2.01	N.S

Sig t- test of place dif: females >.01. men<.01

Table 8: Absenteeism by number of subordinates and by gender (average missing days)

No. of subordinates	Females	Men	Significance dif. Of gender
0 (none)	2.22	1.94	<.05
1	2.16	2.53	N.S
2-5	2.27	1.63	<.05
6-10	1.58	1.33	N.S
11+	1.51	1.12	<.05

One Way ANOVA (Sig. of subordinates): females $F_{(3,407)}= 4.522$, $P<.01$,
Men $F_{(3,295)}= 5.488$, , $P<.01$,

Fig 8: <u>Absenteeism by number of subordinates and by gender</u> (missing days)
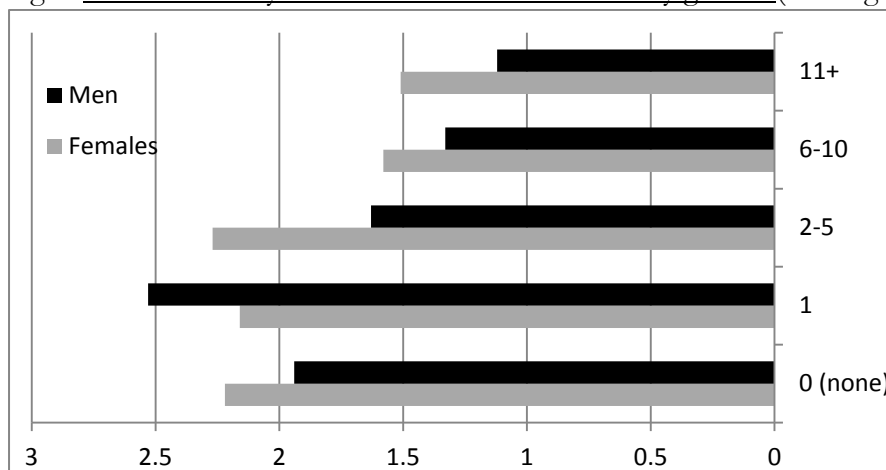
Integrated model - factors that affect work absenteeism

In order to analyze all the variables that were included in t tests or one Way ANOVA test, a Univariate (two Ways ANOVA) test was conducted. The results show that the combined variables explain 36% of the variance of absenteeism (missing days) - $R^2= .364$. The correct model was found significant (Sig< .01). The variables that were found to have significant effects are: number of subordinates (Sig< .05), gender (Sig< .05), and the interaction between gender and the age of the youngest child (Sig< .05).

Another Univariate (two Ways ANOVA) test was conducted for identifying variables affecting absence from work due to sickness in the family. The results show that the combined variables explains 36% of the variance of absenteeism due to sickness in the family - $R^2= .358$. The correct model was found significant (Sig< .01). The variables that were found to have significant effects are: gender (Sig< .000), and the age of the youngest child (Sig< .01).

No significant differences were found among the different industries for women absenteeism. However, significant differences were found for men absenteeism among industries - men employed in large scale service organizations had lower absenteeism rate.

Discussion

Family and work are the two significant dimensions for people who participate in the labor force. Research on absenteeism has focused on the conflicts between these dimensions and the efforts for balancing between them. This study focused on the causes of absenteeism by examining various dimensions of family life and various dimensions of work characteristics.

The main finding of our study is that although the females' participation in the labor market is increasing substantially, still family roles of females are a major cause for absenteeism at work. Females are more absent than men, especially if they have young children. This result is reflected by the significantly higher rate of absenteeism of females due to sickness in the family or sickness of the employee himself. It can be assumed, that actually part of the sickness of the employee himself is in fact sickness of the children.

Surprisingly, some work characteristics such as ranks and working hours ware not found to have a significant impact on absenteeism, despite the correlation between them and age, a factor found to have negative correlation with absenteeism. We found that also seniority at work and the number of subordinates have negative effects on the absenteeism rate. These variables are

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also correlated to age. We can wonder whether age is the key factor that reduces absence from work, or is it the feeling of responsibility towards the work and other employees, especially subordinates, that reduces absenteeism? Future research should investigate this question more thoroughly.

This study has some practical implications. Employers have to regularly track absenteeism and in particular, building a system that includes the causes, allowing management to recoup lost earnings as well as meet production and service demands without requiring an increase in headcount. Besides tracking, management should introduce family-friendly policies such as childcare services on site, subsidies for child care, compressed working week, flexible time and other adequate plans.

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THE EFFECTS OF EXPATRIATION AND REPATRIATION OF PERSONNEL ON EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

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Abstract

The systemic perspective in managing people delimits subsystems. This study focused specifically on the subsystem of retaining people, which incorporates the expatriation and repatriation (ER) of employees. The aim was to describe the influence of internal transfer practices in employee satisfaction, from the investigation of a mining company located in Itabira-MG. Overall, the ER sub-processes were valued as strategies that impact positively on employee satisfaction and consonant with their needs and professional growth expectations.

Introduction

In view of the pursuit of results, promoting the development of people and the organization itself, we are witnessing the creation and / or closing of positions more and more. Thus, positions and job opportunities arise, whether they are in the same geographical location, in other cities, states or even other countries, due to the frequent and intense growth of the global market. In recent scenario, organizations have offered their employees the expatriation and repatriation, which has become due common factor.

Even though the movement encloses the modalities: acquisition, internalization, transference, expatriation and replacement, as per classification suggested by Dutra (2006), this study had its strict focus on the expatriation/repatriation (ER). The present research report, therefore, presents a study carried out on a mining company's management guidelines and, more accurately, focuses on the problem: Which influence does the practices of expatriation/repatriation of staff have on the employee satisfaction? As secondary intentions, there was an attempt to identify the guidelines and practices of internal movement adopted by the organization and the degree of information the employees had. In addition, we sought to characterize the individual process of experienced expatriation/repatriation and to describe the positive and negative consequences and their effects on the satisfaction of those involved.

The Expatriation and Repatriation sub processes and the Satisfaction at Work

In favor of the improvement of people's performance and the appropriation of their abilities and knowledge, the management of people aims to promote satisfaction and positive results for the parts involved (Gil, 2001). People management can be seen as an attribution extended to all managers or as a specialized area and part of the organized whole, which is the organization. As in the latter case, it takes care of the reciprocal profits, draws on the theoretical conceptions to better manage the processes and strategies, apart from defining policies and practices (Fischer, 2002). In the systemic perspective, people management (PM) is, thus, a subsystem which is part of a bigger system, the organization, and an interdependent member, interacting and having reciprocal influence with other subsystems (Dutra, 2006). The adoption of such perspective, according to Werther Jr. and Davis (1983) and Oliveira and Moraes (2011), can lead to the best

efficiency, for the interaction between subsystems makes it work with more information and unification of the whole (Lacombe, 2005; Oliveira & Moraes, 2011; Dutra, 2006; Bohlander & Snell, 2009; Limongi-França & Arellano, 2002; Gil, 2001).

As Dutra (2006) characterizes, the movement of people occurs under diverse forms: change of workplace, function, company and employment relationship. It can be divided in acquisition, internalization, transference, expatriation and replacement. All the practices aim to narrow the employee-organization connection. Nevertheless, the research problem and its objectives delimited for this study are only the ones pertaining ER.

The expatriation can be understood as a transference since it occurs when the employee is placed in another country (Dutra, 2006), although they keep their specificities related to the acculturation. This is added to the fact that, generally, the expatriated employees are accompanied by their families, in the case of married employees, implying in the revision of the psychological contract firmed at the time of admission. The inverse movement, the repatriation, is the sub process of returning to the native country, where readjustments will have to be operated (Rasp & Braga, 2010). They are linked sub processes and, in both cases, the success is conditioned to the science and disposition of the parts to face the barriers, mainly because, besides the challenges of practical order, there are potential conflicts in relation to cultural differences (Miura, 2001; Mccal Jr & Hollenbeck, 2003).

The aspects involved in the expatriation and enumerated by Dutra (2006) as the most relevant ones are: adaptation to a new language and different customs, conditions that become more complex when the family is also expatriated; and other aspects that will demand a commitment firmed between the organization and the employee. Other aspects considered by Dutra (2006) concern the alteration of routines, of relationship networks and the necessity for the organization to constantly follow up. For McCall Jr. and Hollenbeck (2003), to cross geographic borders is an obvious condition, but to go through the cultural border is imperatively relevant. So, the process occurs due to the organization's and the individual's interest in the searching of new forms of knowledge, technical abilities, personal and professional growth, and in the development of the company's organizational strategies, in order to perfect its performance.

Commonly, it sums up to three complex phases. (1) The selection process for employees' expatriation is accomplished by means of an analysis of personality, the required abilities, the individual's and the family's readiness, the involvement with the base of decision making so that a profitable work abroad is developed, the technical experience and the work capacity with multicultural groups, since it is necessary to add value to the business (Sebben et al., 2009). After this phase, the process of (2) adaptation begins, sufficient to promote nimbleness in the international scene and the consequent satisfaction of the involved parts. Thus, the success of the enterprise depends on the selection and preparation, not only of the employee, but also of their family members. It demands economic and emotional investment. When realizing it, the person is expected to be selected and prepared to move in the new country; but, even though, it is not possible to foresee, with precision, the variables implied in the (3) return (Dutra, 2006). The return is conditional, then, to the schedule or even to an anticipation (Sebben et al., 2009). Thus, the reintegration must be lined up to the monitoring of the culture of origin, so there is no risk of cultural shocks, inversely to what occurred when the expatriation took place.

The follow-up, as an indispensable action to the expatriated and the repatriated, is of notable relevance because they are all subject to social and technical adversities among others, which can affect each one's psychological and professional state. In the readaptation to the native country,

an investigation is imposed: once other experiences are lived and new habits and customs are acquired, how to incorporate them to the routine recovered in the native country after the return? The culture of origin is the reference, but the fact that it is a return cannot be neglected. Without affirming that the person longs to resume their career, to practice the experiences and the acquired knowledge, they also expects to enjoy a differentiated *status*, partly valuating what they lived. Magalhães (2008) considers two other implied factors: remuneration to be received, as well as the capacity of new learning. The financial factor will also be affected when the expatriated one returns, due to the elimination of some benefits received for the housing abroad. The success of the repatriation, according to Chew (2004), depends on agreements settled and honored, which contributes for the feeling the employee will have of being capable to contribute with the evolution of the organizational environment, transforming the uncertainty of the readjustment in satisfaction in the work and social wellness.

Therefore, it is worth canvassing the possible relation between the internal movement and the work satisfaction, the latter being imperative for the narrowing of the organization-employee bond. The satisfaction *with* and *at* work for Robbins, Judge and Sobral (2010) regards the positive or negative feelings related to the characteristics that people attribute to their work experience. Its causality resides in the correspondence between how much people appreciate the social context in which they are inserted, the *feedback* received, the interdependence, the interaction with the fellow workers, the social support, the wage and the physical work conditions, in relation to the expectations weaved by the worker (Robbins, Judge & Sobral, 2010). In order to manage it, it is necessary to understand why people work (Bergamini, 2009). It involves considering the existing parallel between the company's and the employee's objectives. However, the company can be refractory as to attending to people's expectations, in all levels: from infrastructure to norms and guidelines, since satisfaction derives from multiple variables, which range from individual factors, such as interests, expectations in relation to the future, to those related to the organizational factors, such as physical, psychological and social work conditions (Robbins, Judge & Sobral, 2010; Bergamini, 2009).

The research tenet is that satisfaction is directly affected whether movement practices are adopted or not. Robbins (2002) is conclusive and emphatical when affirming that if the organizational systems are not interrelated with the satisfaction, the problems will be bigger due to absenteeism, recklessness, turnover; which, consequently, would demand a greater care from the employer. From the company's point of view, deriving profits are presumed from the main idea that adjusting employees in their environment, and satisfying them, makes them stay and produce. The ER does not only represent mechanisms of functional valuation, but it is also a way to develop competences essential to the company. For the people, to adhere represents gains, such as chance of growth, work conditions, *status* and social wellness, and employability (Elovaino et al., 2000).

For all that, the decisions made in the ER sub processes can bring opportunities or risks, as any other; hence, the tenet that the support is indispensable for full satisfaction. For the promotion of complicity between parts, an alignment between leaders and subordinates is presumed, being the former the one to recognize and to value; and the latter, to arm themselves with interest and disposition (Bergamini, 2009). The inherent risks and possibilities, do not come rid of fears as to what is coming; however, an environment with transparent objectives to reach and favorable and open climate, concurs for people's adaptation and makes it possible for the individual to have

freedom to express ideas, add and to feel satisfied faced with opportunities from the experience of ER (Dutra, 2006; Bergamini, 2009).

Methodology

The qualitative approach was adopted in the research (Richadson, 1999; Gibbs, 2009). It is a descriptive field investigation (Lintelfrog, 2009; Andrade, 2006), whose considered universe (Vergara, 2007; Gil, 2002) is the employess of a mining company, located in Itabira/MG, who went through ER sub processes and has world-wide performance. A sample of five subjects was selected, using the intentional non-probabilistic criterion (Richardson, 2004; Markoni & Lakatos, 2009), by means of their typical representative characteristics. The data obtained from semi structuralized interviews were recorded and transcripted. They were also analyzed in documental research (Triviños, 1987; Gil, 2010) and submitted to content analysis (Vergara, 2007; Markoni & Lakatos, 2009).

Results

The interviews were carried out with three men and two women, occupants of positions in the administrative and operational sectors of the mine, which were codified as ER1, ER2, ER3, ER4 and ER5, randomly. Three of them possess technical formation and two possess higher education. The ER experience occurred in average company time of 14,4 years, with a wide range of 3 to 35 years. This suggests there is no clear discrimination from the organization as to the use of this criterion to expatriate. The process occurred at the average age of 36,6 years, observing here an amplitude of variation between 25 and 55 years. The single people surpasses the married ones, which is justified with arguments related to the lesser complexity in the movement and adaptation (Robbins, 2009). It is distinguished that, between the married ones, there is one case in which the husband followed the wife, condition that suggests alterations in the career path regarding gender. As for education, the qualification was only evidenced in three cases – where the process seems to have resulted in a rise in hierarchic *status*, especially in the ER2 case (Mechanic Operator - Supervisor).

Despite the fact that no definitive conclusion from these data can be made and that it is not possible to generalize, the intention, when pointing them out, was to configure a profile of the research subjects, conferring relevant information to the study of the phenomenon.

Identification of the Internal Movement Practices Present in the Organization and Evaluation of their Forms of Communication

Documental data were used (part of these available in the company's *site* and in the employees' service portal), as well as interviews to show the employees' perspective. The studied organization has some programs that systemize internal movement available in virtual documents of free access, Intranet and company's site, in which, as alternative, all those praised by literature are identified (Dutra, 2006). Although there is widespread communication and entirely free decision so that the employee can apply, in the ER it restricts to the sounding and previous indication of the immediate superior. As the interviewed individuals possess longer time in the organization, they said they had already been through other types of internal movement, besides ER; conditions that made development possible for them. The statement reproduced below is illustrative:

> […] here it is about changes of positions, city, country, when the employee remains in the same company, only changing the work reality, as in my case that I went through the process of

expatriation and soon later I came back […] still working for the same company […], but before I had been transferred of sector and position. (ER3).

They understand the expatriation process in a conception really close to that of Dutra (2006). In the ER case, the company adopts differentiated form of choice of the potential candidate, which is confirmed in ER2's statement fragment:

> There is no communication medium […], when it comes to change of country. […] the superiors have to know your work, your skill to deal with the possible events. From this observation, they identify if the person has the profile […] and makes the invitation […]. (ER2).

Therefore, the opportunity is given by some superior, in view of the complexity of the process, because the strategies of the local units and the cultures of destination are different, conditions in consonant with McCall Jr. and Hollenbeck (2003) and Dutra (2006). The decision, made by both the organization and the expatriated employee, implies in knowing and considering the behavior or habits and routine, the professional capacity, the personal and professional intentions or objectives, the intrinsic characteristics of personality, the emotions and other characteristics the person who will be moved possesses , as evidenced by Bergamini (2009).

As for the communication, Robbins (2009) completes that, when it is free of distortions, the messages are received closer to what was intended. In the perspective of the repatriated / expatriated ones, as displayed in the deposition to follow, the communication of information concerning the processes and opportunities are translated into meaningful organizational action, capable of stimulating or inhibiting interests.

> […] I consider it efficient, I think that it were divulged to all, it could not generate as much interest, because at first to move abroad generates astonishment, when you know the processes and the chances better, it starts to be interesting. […] but also, if it is interesting for the employee to moving abroad, they can find the supervisor and inform them. (ER3).

It was concluded that the adequacy of the communication methods is confirmed, being qualified as transparent and legitimate. The documental data evidence that the company, since it possesses a global performance, aims to develop abilities and stimulate talents. The individual invitation is main means, as it is evidenced, even though there is the stimulation to the free manifestation and initiative from the employee. In this direction, the data corroborate the premise that guaranteeing the understanding, from the adoption of clear concepts, confers credibility to the people management practices, according to Dutra (2006).

Characteristics and Perspective about the Individual Process of Expatriation and Repatriation

The insertion from the invitation modality stirred up questionings about the reasons for the acceptance in changing the country of work, more specifically for the destination, Mozambique. The complexity that involves the decision and the necessity to involve the family, besides knowing the destination before a definitive position, is evident. They were assured the chance to be introduced in the new culture gradually, counting on the support of the organization, as it is registered and ratified by ER2.

> […] I went with my her [wife] and we spent a week there. We were received by the people in charge of the company and presented to the place of housing and work, everything was very

> precarious, but I saw a chance and we decided […] we came back to Brazil, to later move, definitively. […] (ER2).

To count on the support, the necessary infrastructure and the support in the decision constitute the opportunity for the adaptation to be effective. In another experience from a single employee, new variables arise:

> […] invited to go, I was single, I wanted to face the world […] then I decided that I would go […] I did not have the chance to go before to see the place because there are different types of contracts, one where the person becomes an employee in Africa and the other one they continue being an employee in Brazil, but loaned to Africa. The advantage of the second type is that you can return to the same vacancy you left, and the first one […] can come back, but without guarantee of coming back to the same vacancy […] it is up to your fortune. (ER1).

In the two possibilities, distinct bonds with the organization are preserved and, in every way, it is already predicted how and in what conditions the return will take place. However, the type of contract reflects directly in the repatriation process. While in the second case conditions similar to the effective ones at the expatriation are assured, in the first one there are no guarantees and more risk.

In the case of ER5, a married woman, the negotiation involved the family members:

> […] I adored the idea, I talked with my husband, who is retired, and he also accepted, I saw […] the possibility to extend my knowledge and to defy my capacity. […] (ER5).

In the decision making are involved the variables connected to, above all, the business acts of the current bonds and others represented in the unfolding perspectives. The first motivation is in the opportunity of development and challenge, even though there is apprehension concerning the difficulties that can arise, which are only felt in a generic way. The two married subjects (ER2 and ER5) counted on their spouses' agreement until repatriation, which is essential support, especially because none of the couples has children. As the documents attest, the expatriation contracts can last six months and be extended or cancelled, which is coherent with Dutra's position (2006). Thus, it can be inferred, based on the indication of the data, that the organization keep the contract conditions, aspects generators of comfort and security to the involved ones, clear. Once the decision is negotiated and the rights are laid in the contract, the preparation procedures were the focus of elucidation and positions such as the following ones were obtained:

> The HR in Itabira collects passport, work card, it directs you and the people who will accompany you to a medical center to make exams and to take vaccines, later the HR in Rio De Janeiro explains about the situation of the country of the workstation, rights and duties and confirms if it really is your desire, explains where we will live, about the transport, the benefits […]. (ER5).

The descriptions of the procedures were equal and with the same level of details, what seems to suggest not only standardization, but also equal care in all the individual processes. Itabira answers for the bureaucratic and legal aspects, while Rio de Janeiro programs, prepares and assists in the coordinates relative to the destination country. It can be said that the accompaniment of this trajectory is a relevant factor for the conduction of the next stages (Milkovich & Boudreau, 2009). According to documental data, they all are assisted from the moment they depart to their return, offering attractive benefits as ER2 describes, content that is

repeated in the other depositions, with subtle alterations in type of housing (hotel, condominium unit, residence) or how often they could visit Brazil (three or six months):

> […] I received a significant pay rise, I had health insurance, all the expenses for the trip were paid for by the company, the transport was also supplied by them, I had access to an exclusive vehicle. As I went at the beginning of the installations of the company in Mozambique, they had not constructed the condominium yet, so […] I stayed in a hotel, but later I was transferred […].Every six months, my wife and I received tickets to visit the family in Brazil. (ER2).

The consequent benefits are considered by Elovainio et al. (2000) as attractive factors in the process of internal movement and the reports that the company guaranteed comfort to expatriated individuals in the settling in and permanence according to the local reality. Regarding following up the acculturation and the programs of psychosocial assistance available, one of the subjects clarifies:

> […] I didn't receive any kind of psychological treatment, only the HR contacted me, but, in my case, I think that it was not necessary, because I adapted fast. The supervisors always made mood research, questioning on the adaptation. (ER1).

There were follow-ups before and after the initial phase of decision-making and bureaucratic-legal steps. However, the assistance programs or the direct intervention to facilitate the acculturation is only set in motion in the presence of some disadaptation indicator. A third channel was the ombudsman office. Although Dutra (2006) considers the following up of the family and employees before, during the permanence and in the return essential, this treatment surpasses the simple monitoring and supply of information, extending to the need to evaluate people's reaction and adaptation psychologically. By means of the collected data, via documents, the mining company describes preparatory programs of acculturation and psychosocial assistance, which were not recognized directly by the interviewed employees. What it seems, the organization opts to monitor and attend in the bureaucratic, legal and information basic procedures, intervening, in a more ostensive way, in the cases where eminent risks of disadaptation can be observed.

The initial contract is of only six months and can be extended, which also contributes to avoid bigger and irreversible risks. The training, as preparatory practice, was also object of analysis. Such stage is one of the effective ways of socialization (Milkouvich & Boudreau, 2009). In this process, only the organizational incumbencies and tasks to be developed were acknowledged; i.e., the preparation phase related to the work in a new space was not considered. Still such phase is recognized as necessary as the confrontation of cultural and social reality of the country of destination involved civil conflicts in Mozambique, derived from the emancipation and independence of this nation in 1975, which spread until late XX century and still present consequences in the XXI century. Facing this reality and characteristics, the interviewees reported their impressions and experiences lived in the African continent as:

> When I arrived in Africa, I saw the beauty of the metropolitan cities, but when we went further in the beauty was gone (laughs). Everything is very different, the people look at you scared, they walk the streets bare-footed, and the feeding is very bad. […] (ER2).

Even though Brazil and Mozambique have common colonizer origins (Portuguese), the strangeness regarding the eating cultural habits are enumerated. Considerations regarding impacts, conflicts and individual singularities when forming teams were also itemized. ER3 highlights:

> I did not have problems with fight, conflicts, but you identify the difference among the Africans themselves, to make the work team; the managers have to redistribute and to study each person well, otherwise there is fight for sure (sighs), […] it is not easy, it moved me. […] if you have white skin, they call you *"boss"*, I was the only white person of the team […] I noticed this differentiation. (ER3).

As obvious as they may seem at first, when the differences are not disparate, they demanded adaptive efforts. McCall Jr. and Hollenbeck (2003) confirm that the change of country causes a cultural shock, even though there are similarities with the origin. The common colonizer inheritance was not capable to nullify differences, as can be exemplified with the feelings of frustration and dissatisfaction derived from the experiences related to the violence between the natives and the social conditions and poverty, not verbally expressed (sigh, voice tone, corporal expression etc.). However, Bergamini (2009), Robbins (2009) and McCall Jr. and Hollenbeck (2003) clarifies that the way to coexist with cultural differences depends on each individual. Among the researched ER, the intensity of the discomfort did not result in disadaptation.

According to documentary registers, the failure to adapt results in immediate return. However, the benefits offered (housing and transport) are only maintained for the employees that do not anticipate their return. In the return, the organization is in charge of reallocating the repatriated employee in the vacancy corresponding to their profile, in accordance with the contract type. All those interviewed informed they are familiar with this clause of the contract. Explicitly, on the adaptation and return, the positioning can be illustrated with the following declarations:

> […] I adapted with time […] I even miss that time. […] I bought food in Brazil and took it with me […]. I worked there for one year and the decision to come back was mine, I missed my country […] and I believed that I had taught what I knew and learned what I needed […] with the advantage that my six-month contract had expired. (ER5).

ER3, in turn, warrants that:

> […] I liked there very much, my wife found work in the region, but she didn't adapt to the workload. We traveled a lot, we visited many places, but it came a moment when she felt homesick […] I also wanted to come back, I was there for two years. (ER2).

The family influence and their adaptation are factor recurrently mentioned as relevant, as well as variables linked to the daily life in general and the work conditions. In all the studied cases, each subject organized their life in order to adapt. When identifying that they were no longer willing or interested in staying, they opted to the return, in compliance with the clauses firmed in contract. However, the ER management is subject to operational inefficiencies, as pointed out in the deposition reproduced below:

> […] I went as "hired Brazil" […] when I wanted to return, I did not have the obligation to contact the responsible [area for the process] […], for the contract gave me this right. […] when I contacted my supervisor, I had the surprise, my place had already been taken […], then, all the confusion started. I was *insane* in Africa. […]I returned to Brazil, without prognosis of a vacancy […], when I returned I was home for around one month until I got the place in Itabira. (ER1).

In other cases, however, in the other contract modality practiced by the company, the management of determined undesired occurrence resulted in satisfaction for the employee:

> Before […] I worked in the city of Mariana […] I went to work as "African employee", the company did not have the obligation to preserve the same vacancy […] then I had to analyze the chances so I could come back to the closest [to the previous condition] and only obtained that here in Itabira, but for me it was not a problem but a new challenge. (ER5).

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Thus, the process in the investigated company is not free of nonconformities, especially in the question of vacancy control and in interdependent management of expatriation and repatriation. For the ER, the attention in the repatriation did not happen in a similar way to that in expatriation:

> The process […] gave me a vast knowledge, but in the return, they did not provide the same attention I had when I went. […] when I went, they always called, […] in the return they only bought the tickets and supplied temporary housing and transport, cared to call me and check if I managed to readapt, because the contrary can happen. (ER5).

Amongst the procedures considered appropriate, the sending of a letter to know who to look for in the occasion of the return was highlighted. The tickets were delivered together with the address of the hotel, guaranteeing, thus, stay for those that they did not have residence. The name of the company responsible for the transport was also communicated. The interviewees informed that, upon one month of their return, they had an appointment at the company's health system. On the presence of some symptom or of any another unwanted occurrence after the return, the subjects declared that there was no other type of inquiry. They ratified, then, the detachment of the institution in this final process:

> […] When repatriating, I felt satisfied, but when I decided to come back I had problems […]regarding the contract and the vacancy […] Because of these misunderstandings, I was one month home, receiving without working […] as I had to initiate a new contract, I did not get my vacation to marry, I did not get promoted, for not being one year and a half in that position […] Then I felt very frustrated […]. (ER1).

It is understood, from Days (2003), that the displacement for locations distant form the origin space requires attention with health. The interviewees ER1 and ER5 warn, however, about recklessnesss in the phase of repatriation. As they certify, they witnessed cases where people came back to the country and, days later, fell ill in result of lack of follow-up and reevaluations. Such occurrences legitimize studies by McCall Jr and Hollenbeck (2003) and Milkovich and Boudreau (2009), in which it is understood that repatriation requires the same zeal and persistence spent in the expatriation process. Important nonconformities and a fragrant disparity between the cares with the expatriation and repatriation were observed, reflected in the communication, in the planning, the consideration of contractual aspects, aspects that may not have generated definitive dissatisfaction with the program, but did generate unnecessary mental exhaustion. In the passage described, vulnerable points that can be equated and better aligned to what is recommended in the literature were identified. As reported by the subjects interviewed, conditions devoid of improvements did not invalidate the process operationally or technically.

Asked to analyze the arising positive and/or negative consequences and their impact on gratification, it was perceived that ER allows the experience of unique and singular challenges related to the culture, the adaptation, the language and the social relations (Mccall Jr & Hollenbeck, 2003). In confessional tone, one of the interviewees guarantees:

> […]I never imagined that it could learn in such a way, I thought I was going to teach the people, this really happened, but […] I learned a lot […] in the end the result was better than expected. (ER5).

When dealing with teaching or learning with the partners abroad, ER5 presents the peculiar dilemma of objectives, common conflict, when one opts to move abroad. Obviously, this dichotomy empties out with the experience, since the relation of teach-learning happens with a "two-way street" logic.

ER3, in turn, draws attention for one relation form, facilitator to a point, which protected her, when she had to adjust to the different:

> the adaptation with feeding, transport was very difficult. […] after we moved to the condominium unit, living with other Brazilians […] things improved lot. (ER3).

ER3 reaffirms the importance of learning, but she evidences that the singular condition of the condominium reproduced, with security, social and cultural realities similar to those in Brazil. This seems to have generated comfort, despite suggesting a segregation state. Thus, two trends present in the interviewees' opinions were perceived. From them, it seems reasonable that, in order to adjust, the organizational subjects seek conditions more similar to the familiar ones and, up to a certain point, they live the segregation and not the full involvement with the native; nor do they adventure to expose themselves to what is different.

The displayed data are compatible with literature, as the author Robbins (2009). He shows that people develop knowledge and learn from the different experiences they have. New learnings and challenges can generate discomforts; but, in the dependency of how they are assimilated, they add. Another aspect explored in the research, supported by Robbins, Judge and Sobral (2013), is related to the positive or negative feelings regarding the characteristics that the people attribute to their experience of work and indications for improvement. Although they make suggestions for a more efficient communication, alterations in the process capable of assuring more wellness to the expatriated, such as the revision of working hours and schedule, more frequent visits to the native country and ample chance to visit the country of destination before the decision; in general, they considered to be satisfied with the experience, source of meaningful learning. Thus, the data corroborate the idea of that the experience was the source of satisfaction. The mentioned conditional expressions come from procedural impediments, at the moment they return to Brazil. Such considerations ratify the vulnerability of the ER process in question, as already evidenced at another moment in this analysis.

It is pointed out, still, that in the works of McCall Jr. and Hollenbeck (2003), the satisfaction of family members, during the experience, has consequences, up to certain obvious point, in the satisfaction and adaptation of the expatriated worker. To this intention, ER2 and ER5, the only married members in the studied group, were instigated to comment. The deposition was coincident, i.e., adaptation for the family members was easy as the company supplied the infrastructure for their adjustment in the country.

Therefore, it is perceived that the factors of infrastructure, benefits and possibility of personal and professional development are considered as positive and arising aspects, added from the perception by the ER and their family. The optimization of the process and the few indicated suggestions for improvement fit the scope of continuous improvement and the guarantee of adequacy to new realities (Bergamini, 2009; Robbins & Judge; Sobral, 2013).

Finally, the arising outcome of the ER experience, for some of the subjects, seems to lead them to repeat it, even though it appears to be more of a possibility, in case the invitation comes, than properly elaborated plans of life, as for ER4 and ER5:

> I would definitely go through the process again, only that, in that case, I would like to go to another country, to extend my knowledge in cultures. (ER4).

> If I had another chance to expatriate and my husband accepted, I would participate because I really liked it and it is always a challenge for me. (ER5).

In sum, it is evidenced that people felt, even amidst their respective particularities, family configurations and original contexts, in the internal movement, a chance to improve their professional and personal knowledge. For this intention, stimulated by such priority, the dissatisfactions are punctual, without greater impacts or repercussions harmful to the individual or the organization.

Final Considerations

The expatriation of people is the geographic movement abroad due the necessities of the company or of the employee and the repatriation is the reverse movement. To be satisfied with work relates to the experiences lived and to the conditions that are offered, which echoes in performance and results. Serving the specific objectives considered the guidelines and practices adopted by the investigated organization and the level of information, as well as the evaluation of the research subjects concerning those points, were initially identified. The research evidenced that the expatriated and repatriated know the practices adopted by the company and have an understanding aligned with that praised in literature.

Advancing a little further, we tried to characterize the individual process of movement. Despite the singular and subjective meanings, as well as the particularities, it was possible to evidence that the ER preserves identical phases such as communication, selection, training, adaptation, impact in the satisfaction and development of work. In the phases of selection and communication, the necessity of practices and cares that demand attention extended to the family, which is justified by need to adjust to drastic changes. As descriptors of the positive consequences of the individual experience, we have the chance of acquiring greater knowledge, with consequent impact in climbing the career ladder, besides the desire to offer to the family a better condition, modifying the social status of each individual involved. As dysfunctional conditions, the great expense of energy for the adaptive effort by means of the acculturation, and the experience time in the position demanded for the candidate to be able to apply for a new ER process, which is one year and half, were cited.

The return and constant follow-up in the sub processes were also evaluated negatively after the return; because, according to involved people, such stages are not made equivalent in all the procedures, becoming reasons for dissatisfaction among the employees. As for satisfaction, the interviewees considered themselves successful in the experiences lived in Mozambique. The reasons are related to the infrastructure the organization offered to the work team and to possibility for professional and personal development. On the other hand, as negative points, the organizational subjects indicated the communication process, the need for greater awareness between the areas and the employee, greater investment in feedback and follow-ups with the worker, when they return to their native country.

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PERFORMANCE EVALUATION OF PROFESSOR AT AN INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

Performance evaluation is a management tool that can be deployed in all organizations to assist in the development of people, whether subordinates or managers themselves. Thus, this study proposes a reflection on the performance evaluation in a Brazilian Institution of Higher Education. This research happened in Itabira, a city circumscribed in the southeast of the country. The data revealed peculiar characteristics of performance evaluation of the Professors of the Business course, the importance of this practice for the institution and the impact of the feedback of the results obtained. However, it is assumed that the performance evaluation is a process that is being structured, but is able to promote the professional and institutional growth.

Introduction

The context in which the organizations currently are, filled of transformation, with increasingly demanding customers, requires managers to position themselves in order to make them more competitive in the market. In ancient times the organizational efficiency was related uniquely to the performance of machinery and equipment. At the present time, the human being is seen as one of the determining factors for achieving good results. (Pontes, 2002).

In this sense, the attitude that have been adopted by managers in world-class companies aim, mainly, tools and strategies that seek the appropriate profile of staff. To keep qualified people that are aligned with organizational goals, these companies use tools to evaluate how employees, in their functions, can change the history of the organization and contribute to the purpose of it.

In conception of Pontes (2002), is in this scenario that arises the necessity of evaluate the people's performance, especially, to measure how they are involved with the organization. This process of measurement and performance evaluation can also be used as an auxiliary tool in the management process, (Moreira; Santos; Silveira, 2006), after all, measure performance is essential, because, which is not measured is not administered (Kaplan & Norton, 1997).

Thus, it is possible to claim that the performance evaluation applies to any company that wants to understand the performance of their employees and guide them to more aligned attitude with organizational goals. In an Institution of Higher Education, for example, evaluate the performance of professors can provide information that allows to know the characteristics their and check their contribution to the achievement of the central objective of an academic institution, which is to provide quality education for the training of its students.

According to the exposed, the present study aims to answer the following question: How is the performance evaluation process of the faculty of management course in an Institution of Higher Education of Itabira / MG? It was through this questioning that emerged the specific goals, which intended to identify the characteristics of the performance evaluation the professors, to

analyze how is transmitted the feedback of results and the importance of this practice for the institution.

The context of the institution that was evaluated and the peculiarities of the performance evaluation made it this relevant study because this practice is a mechanism that can help to identify possible discrepancies in the organizational context, to integrate people to the organization, train and build skills, and train and improve human performance.

Performance Evaluation

In conception of Leal and Bandeira (2009), performance evaluation is the basis for the assessment of a fact, an idea, a goal or a result, it guides the decision-making on any situation involving a choice. So, every human act is the result of an evaluation process that generates consequences in the unfolding of the done judgment.

For some authors, performance evaluation is recognized as an ordered way to appreciate the behavior of people due to their own actions, of the targets imposed on them and the results achieved (Chiavenato, 2010; Milkovich & Boudreau, 2009). It is a process that involves the creation of a technical mechanism to stimulate development in the organizational environment, providing a spontaneous, sincere and trusting relationship among people.

It is about a dynamic procedure that is introduced throughout all processes of management of public and private organizations, effectively, during implementation and control plans, to generate information for managers to make decisions and allow correction of deviations detected between the results achieved and the planned (Nascimento *et al,* 2007). Corroborating, the authors Carvalho and Nascimento (1997) increase that the performance evaluation is also a strategy to guide the workers to achieve the organization's goals through self-evaluation. In other words, the institution that establishes the performance evaluation as a management strategy can be benefited by the effects at the managers and also in their subordinates.

In that way, performance evaluation can ensure fulfillment of requirements of a good performance, improve the effectiveness of the objectives and definition of the targets , establish measurement standards for comparison, promote the monitoring of own performance levels through the feedback of information and induce attitudes of the members at the company. Furthermore, it allows to identify critical situations, but, that are susceptible to improvement. It may demonstrate the level of utilization of productive resources and indicate trends and forecasts of operations (Leal & Bandeira, 2009).

A regulated performance evaluation tool according to the organization's goals tends to decrease problems in its application (Lucena, 1995). Therefore, the performance evaluation process becomes important to the organization because it promotes employee performance in terms of organizational goals (Leal & Bandeira, 2009).

Lucena (1995), Chiavenato (2010) and Gil (2001) agree that the performance evaluation can also identify talent, evaluate and guide developed functions, improve performance and drive behavior change. As well as motivate and bring the employee to the job's position, it provides better human relationships in the workplace between superiors and subordinates. In human resource management, performance evaluation occupies considerable space, because, if used properly, can provide information to different people management subsystems. Moreover, it is able to influence the quality of services and the enhancement of human potential (Bergamini & Beraldo, 1988).

Performance Evaluation Methods

Performance evaluation methods used in world-class organizations are differentiated by their characteristics, mode of use, advantages and disadvantages. Above all, the choice of a more appropriate method, the combination of two or more types, or creating a new one, are subject to the organization's purpose or the needs of human resource professionals and their managers (Ayres & Lima, 2007).

Mainly, the most commonly used methods to evaluate the performance of people at the organizational level are: graphic scales, forced choice, field research, method of critical incidents, reports, 360-degree assessment and assessment by goals. The principal features of each of these methods were presented in TABLE 01 below:

TABLE 01: Main features of performance evaluation methods

Method	Concept
Graphic Scales	Graphics Scales are forms to evaluate the behavior and attitudes of the analysis of individuals depending on the degree of satisfaction that is assigned by the organization to each of the performance factors, which can be represented in a scaled range between what is unsatisfying and what is exceptional.
Forced Choice	It consists of a form that aims to describe aspects of employee behavior by blocks of positive and negative phrases to rank the level of involvement of the evaluated. Phrases are chosen through statistical procedures that take into account their applicability in the context of the company and should always be identified considering that longer applies and the least apply.
Field Research	It is an evaluation system based on standardized interviews held with the immediate management of the evaluated. This method requires a pilot interviews with experts or supervisors to collect data about the employees, complemented by observation of the conditions of the workplace, with the intention of finding intervening variables that can influence individual and collective performance.
Method of Critical Incidents	It is the record of the evaluator in relation to the critical behavior of the evaluated. It is used to verify that the actions taken by the analysis of the individuals who were aligned with the values, mission and goals of the company. It is a simple method that is based on extreme characteristics, negative or positive.
Reports	This method consists of verbal or written reports that are formalized by managers to evaluate the performance of their subordinates. Those are easy mechanisms to apply, but that stimulate subjectivism.
360-degree Assessment	The 360-degree assessment is focused on the development of competence of people through feedback of their colleagues, superiors, led, internal and external customers. This method enables the interaction of people around the evaluated in the performance evaluation process.
Assessment by Goals	It is a method that seeks the commitment of people in relation to organizational goals through a participatory process, motivator, which makes pleasant the working environment, communicative and productive. Allows the employee and his superior formulate,

| | together, the goals they want to achieve, taking into account the goals of each department and the strategic goal of the company. |

Prepared by the authors as the concepts of Ayres & Lima (2007); Carvalho & Nascimento (1997); Gil (2001); Martins *et al* (2010); Pontes (2002); Robbins (2009).

Critical to Performance Evaluation

As already mentioned, organizations can use several methods to evaluate the performance of its employees. A well-applied assessment that has characteristics that match the company's needs can bring benefits. However, there are some criticism to the evaluation process that indicate failures which can compromise the evaluation results and might induce incorrect decisions. According to this, the author Robbins (2009), interpreted the main positive and negative points that can influence the performance evaluation, regardless of the method adopted by the organization, as set out in TABLE 02.

TABLE 02

Strengths and weaknesses of the performance evaluation

Strengths	Weaknesses
It can measure the contribution of employees. Provides feedback to employees about the services provided by them. It allows the employee increase your personal performance. It promotes more valid and reliable judgment on the performance of employees. It process more democratic and less threatening. Checks employee participation through self-assessment. It mitigates political influences and increases the validity of the results. It detects errors in the development of the jobs.	It demotivates employees when there is not feedback about the evaluation performed. It uses political influence to benefit some employees. It use hidden processes with the purpose of defending the company from legal proceedings. It performs subjective performance evaluations, which compromise the reliability of the results. In most companies, there aren't periodic assessments to monitor progress in the task performance.

Prepared by the authors as the concepts of Robbins (2009, p. 417).

Other ideas suggest a list of factors that can negatively impact the results of a performance evaluation. These factors were recognized as: generalized and prejudiced impressions of the valuer; evil purposes outlined by the organization; mistaken perception of respondents; little involvement of top management of organizations in the process; unpreparedness of assessors and managers regarding the procedures and evaluation methods; and inefficiency in the management of human resources (Gil, 2001; Robbins, 2009; Zimpeck, 1992).

Institution of Higher Education

The Faculty of Administrative Sciences and Accounting of Itabira (Facci) is an institution of Higher Education, private and non-profit, based and territorial boundary at the municipality of Itabira, state of Minas Gerais. It is accredited by the Ministry of Education by decree of the day 12/30/1994, and maintained by the Community Foundation of Higher Education of Itabira (Funcesi). It has about 200 professors linked to courses of: Management, Systems Analysis and Development, Biomedicine, Nursing, Pharmacy, Physiotherapy, Logistics, Information Systems,

Environmental Engineering, Civil Engineering and Production Engineering. And At least 50 teachers teach in the course of administration.

Methodology

Scientific method used for this study was given by field research with the qualitative approach, kind descriptive, because, it wants to examine and describe the perceptions of the people in the place where the phenomenon occurs through the relationship between the performance assessment practices of professors and the context of the Education Institution to which they belong (Collis & Hussey, 2005; Jung, 2004; Vergara, 2013).

The universe of this research was consists of 381 institutions of Higher Education in Administration of the state of Minas Gerais. The non-probabilistic sampling criterion has chosen the Faculty of Administrative Sciences and Accounting of Itabira as sample, by accessibility because is closer of the researchers, and for typicality because it proposed that the people who were evaluated had bond of at least two years with the institution (Marconi & Lakatos, 2009). The respondents of this research were eight professors of the course of administration of Facci, an official responsible for performance evaluation of professors and the academic director of this institution.

Data collection was conducted through desk research and semi-structured interview. The desk research contributed to the understanding of specific situations and the semi-structured interview allowed us to explore the fact with open questions (Roesch, 1999; Marconi & Lakatos, 2009).

The data were examined using content analysis, in order to make them more clear and objective (Vergara, 2013). With the documentary research was possible to analyze the documents of the institutional assessment process and across the semi-structured interviews it analyzed the testimonies of the respondents, confronting them with the analytical categories that were recognized in the literature.

Discussion and Results

This chapter presents the data obtained by analyzing the Internal Assessment Project of the Facci and of semi-structured interviews that were held with the employees this institution, which have been identified as members of faculty, performance evaluation coordinator and academic director. All this people participate of the performance evaluation process at the Facci. Data exposed in this chapter allowed describing the characteristics of the evaluation of professors of the Administration's course, understanding how the result returns to the professor and the importance of this practice for the faculty.

In the specific context that institution, the performance evaluation it is a continuous improvement process, the results are used for institutional management and accountability to society. The Facci is concerned mainly with to the education cultural, ethics and politics of his students, with production of scientific knowledge and with the promotion of the advancement of technology. The institutional evaluation of the Facci is, therefore, a process that meets the Ordinance MEC n.° 2.051, of July 9, 2004.

On the testimony of the respondents, it was found that, since 2002, the performance assessment takes place every six months at the institution. However, in 2004, its process has been redesigned for to be integrated into the National System of Higher Education Assessment. From this date,

the professors' performance evaluation has functioned as one of the institutional evaluation mechanisms.

Currently, the Committee for Assessment (CPA) is responsible for preparing the questionnaires, apply them and make the data tabulation. This committee is made up of a coordinating assessments, representatives of the administrative staff, representative of professors and students, and representatives of civil society. According Pontes (2002), it is fully possible to assign the performance evaluation of responsibility to a committee made up of members from different areas of the organization, graduates and community.

The main performance evaluation goals, according to respondents, are: assist decision making for hiring and firing professors and detect opportunities and threats to guide professionals who need help and that can be improved. According to the information of the Internal Evaluation Project at the Facci, among these goals also include: the intention to support the planning and redirection of the actions of the institution, mediating the permanent increase of the institutional effectiveness and academic effectiveness and social, and the possibility of improving the quality of undergraduate education offered by the faculty. All these goals are related to those described by the authors Leal; Bandeira (2009), and Milkovich; Boudreau (2009).

As said the respondents, are the students, the academic coordinator and the director who evaluate the performance of the professor of the Facci's Administration Course. In the opinion of Bergamini (1999), is traditionally essential evaluate the performance of the people in the organization involving the manager and supervisor in the evaluation of their subordinates.

The results of this study also revealed that informal evaluation by the course coordinator and academic director becomes a counterpoint to the answers given by students in the questionnaires applied. According to respondents, the students do not receive important guidelines to do a performance evaluation and even training to answer the questionnaires. In this sense, Gil (2001) asserts that when deploying the performance evaluation, the ideal is to deliver specific training and do not train them only to filling in the forms.

It was also identified that students interfere in the performance evaluation results of the professors, for lack of commitment, or because they recognize this practice as a tool to punish the professor. Here the following excerpts of the interviews that confirm such an argument:

> Students do not have a training, a preparation to know how to evaluate. They evaluate a lot according to the moment (E09).

> The student, sometimes is very subjective. If the professor is very good with the class at the time, then it will be well rated, if you have had a problem, if you had just delivered a bad score, if you have had a conflict, will likely be evaluated. I think the students are not prepared to make a correct evaluation (E09).

> The only problem I still see is that assessments is the irresponsibility of the students who are going to do analogy with respect to the marks obtained in the course. (E02).

Faced with the facts, it is possible to say that the subjective attitude of the students could compromise the evaluation results. For the respondents, it is clear that some students make unfair trials because they are based on personal opinions and do not evaluate the actual performance of the professor within the classroom. In the opinion of Zimpeck (1992), performance assessment can be negative when the observation of the rated performance is influenced by generalized and prejudiced impressions, or when ignores other important factors of performance evaluated.

According to respondents, the professors also participate in the evaluation process. It is a self-evaluation that makes them understand what behaviors or attitudes may have influenced the result of the evaluation of theirs. This report follows the exposed theory by Daldegan, Oliveira and Lage (2009) that recognizes the self-assessment as an active agent and that can transforming the performance process.

According to the interviews and analysis of documents about to the Internal Assessment Project, it can be said that the criteria for Facci's performance evaluation involve the conduct of the professor in the classroom, such as: the use of technological equipment, the field of discipline, teaching methods, use of academic portal, coherence between the education plan and the contents worked in class, compliance with academic standards and professor attendance.

These criteria are divided into 13 performance factors that were determined by the institution and are covered in closed questions of a questionnaire which is available electronically to students evaluate professors. The evaluation method is graphic scales, that containing degree of variation from one to five, where one is the minimum score and five is the highest grade. The analysis is done by quantitative comparison techniques.

Regarding this data collection mechanism, it was possible to identify that the practices used are equivalent to what is expected of a performance evaluation by means of graphic scales. As the authors Ayres; Lima (2007), Gil (2001) and Chiavenato (2010), this method is the determining factors (behavior and attitudes) to be evaluated, where for each factor is assigned a grade, which will vary according to performance, from weak or unsatisfying to optimal performance or excellent.

The testimony of the respondents also brought information able to detail how the performance evaluation results are presented to professors. According to reports, the course director send results to the coordinator, which, subsequently, meets with the professor to talk about the strengths and weaknesses of the evaluation.

Thus, the feedback is recognized by the institution as a strategy that contributes, because, according to the respondents, the feedback can ensure that professors are aware of what has been reported. "It is important to review the work and set changes for performance improvement" (E01). Moreover, it allows the management of the institution make corrective or preventive actions for problems that are perceived, said the respondent.

Respondents believe also that the performance evaluation results can modify the behavior of the evaluated. But, for this, it is necessary that professors are able to get feedback and see possibilities for improvements. This fact was confirmed by respondents. The data are in agreement with Lucena (1995), which states that the performance evaluation is not only a creation of procedures, is the development of a spontaneous relationship and trust between the people within the organization, it is a change of behavior.

They also identified that the institution constantly conducts training and monitoring the development of professors. This practice, as said Pontes (2002), can help identify factors that are interfering with the performance results, not only technical, but also on the social issues and labor relations, in order to maintain the positive aspects and overcome or minimize the negative aspects. They can establish an action plan to overcome barriers and improve the quality and performance of the company.

Despite being aware of the benefits brought by the feedback, the respondents claimed that the delay in delivery of results is a negative performance evaluation, and what should be improved.

However, they evaluate the process as a tool to improve people, review the institutional procedures, identify opportunities and discover talents. It is, therefore, a tool that guides managers, professors and institution.

They still believe that the performance evaluation should not be the only tool used to make decisions, because, they said, to evaluate the professional performance of a particular employee has to take into account the trajectory of it within the institution and the context in which it is inserted.

Conclusion

Recent studies on the performance evaluation persiste at the organizational context as a tool to develop the companies through the human factor. In this sense, this research analyzed the peculiarities of the performance evaluation process of teachers of the course of administration of the Faculty of Administrative Sciences and Accounting Itabira.

The data collected and analyzed allow us to state that the Facci utilize formal and informal methods to measure the development of professors. The performance evaluation applied to students is the formal means and the observation of the coordinator about the daily activities and the own self-evaluation of professors represent the means informal.

Taking into consideration the amount of students that represent the Facci, the participation percentage theirs in the evaluation process of the professor is relatively low, which influenced strongly in the results. Moreover, the questionnaire applied to students virtually can be considered as a mechanism still evolving, because, it needs adjustments and guidelines that encourage confidence and maturity of the students, who largely still use this feature to punish professors. This attitude distorts the profile of the investigated professionals and injure the performance evaluation principles.

Instruct students on the importance of the procedures and benefits of the performance evaluation process of professors is suggestive, because, guided by new concepts in this regard, it can assist in the development of the organization, making it more competitive in the market. Professors, unlike the students, actively participate in this process through self-evaluation. It is at this point that professors reflect on their own behavior, and suggest, to themselves, which can be changed. Thus, they recognize the feedback of the institution as an opportunity for them to identify their difficulties and re-evaluate educational practices. This is one of the benefits that should continue in the institution, regardless, of the method adopted.

Finally, it was observed that the performance evaluation method used by Facci assists the coordination and direction of the institution generating information of the professor's performance. However, allows other negative factors compromise the purposes of the performance evaluation deployment.

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AN EXPLANATORY MODEL OF TEACHER ABSENTEEISM: ANALYSIS AND PROPOSITION

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to scale the influence of personal, political, economic, cultural, social and institutional factors about teacher absenteeism. A descriptive, quantitative and field research with 635 basic level teachers of Minas Gerais, was performed. Therefore, statistical tools were used to make the convergent validation, as the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), later using the Varimax to adjust the EFA. Then, to verify the correlation between the constructs, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed (CFA). Sequentially, it was found the reliability of the constructs using the Cronbach Alpha (CA) and Reliability (CR).Sequentially, to check the quality of the adjustment of Confirmatory Factor Analysis, the R^2 and the GoF were used to make the Structural Equation Modeling.

Introduction

Indifferently of the professional occupation exercised, the absence of work is a problem that interferes with the whole routine of an organization. According to Araújo (2012), the phenomenon causes reflections in the productivity, in the quality of service provided and can also be an indicator of the working conditions, quality of life and labor relations. Therefore, the absence of the employee in the workplace can cause serious damage to the institution. The disorganization of the activities, the drop in the quality of service, the limitations of performance, are only some of the consequences faced by managers.

The absenteeism term is used to designate the absence, failure or delay of professionals at work. Miller, Murnane and Willett (2008) believe that absenteeism rates and the effects of employee absences on productivity are topics of discussion and reflection in many institutions around the world.

For Couto (1987), the absenteeism is due to one or more causes, such as: working conditions, socio-cultural reality, factors related to personality and disease. Araújo (2012) agree that absenteeism as a result of these conditions, has manifested itself as a complex phenomenon, because of several factors that may causes them. It is a problem difficult to manage because there are countless situations that interfere with the decision of the employee to miss work.

The teacher absenteeism is an issue that has generated much social unrest in recent times. Silva, Pelozato and Costa. (2013) state that, in Brazil, the removal of teachers with voice problems only, generate a loss of approximately $100 million per year. Mestre and Ferreira (2011) add that this estimated value may be even higher if based on the estimate that 2% of teachers suffer from dysphonia. The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2010) shows that teacher absenteeism is a relatively serious problem in Brazil. It is noteworthy that 32% of teachers, teach in schools where principals claim that the absenteeism "disturbed very much or in any way" the school routine. Due to such a finding, arose the idea of identifying the influence of public policies, management style, remuneration, working conditions, stability, satisfaction and social factors in teacher absenteeism. In addition, proposed a model to measure the variables that influence absenteeism. On the exposed situation, the overall objective of the study is to propose

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a model to measure the influential variables of absenteeism. As a result, the question of the research problem arises: Which factors influence the teacher absenteeism?

Theoretical Framework

Absenteeism is a common form of professional inadequacy, dissatisfaction and risk of sickness. Ferreira, Griep, Fonseca and Rotenberg (2012) add that, besides being a complex phenomenon, it has several constructs that still suffer variations. Couto (1987) states that absenteeism is due to one or more causal factors, such as work, social, cultural, personality and disease factors.

Hilton, Sheridan, Clearly and Whiteford (2009), in a study with 54 264 employees who worked full time, investigated the relationship between absenteeism and psychological distress and concluded that, the greater the psychological distress index, the higher the absenteeism rate.

As for work satisfaction, Lima and Pedroni (2013) add that some absences are caused by medical reasons, diseases. If so, the satisfied employee can have a justified absence. However, dissatisfied employees does not plan necessarily miss work, but if they have to do it, they will. In contrast, Brant and Gomez (2005) show that "the employee may, due to the fear of unemployment, make inappropriate use of medical license", since, as a "sick person", he or she would have secured employment, thus ensuring the sense of safety at work. (p.2).

Traditionally, the absenteeism was always seen as an indicator of poor individual performance, as well as, a breach of an implied contract between employee and employer, says Smith (2011). In this sense, the professional, by signing a contract with the organization, also makes a psychological contract and, over time, he/she realizes that the expectations raised were not answered.

The satisfaction or lack of it can be one of the phenomenon influential. For Calgarotto and Pinheiro (2010), the absenteeism may be an indicative of employee dissatisfaction with his/her work, which can be articulated with an inadequacy to his/her job or even with aspects of the organizational culture. Lee and Eriksen (1990) indicate that the absenteeism is inversely proportional to work satisfaction, and the absence can be considered a way to get away from small undesirable situations.

As for the management style, very authoritarian, directive, biased, paternalistic or laissez-faire may influence the decision not to go to work. Silva and Marziale (2000) claim that leaders are often responsible for the increase or reduction of absenteeism indicator within sectors, because they are those who are directly linked to the employee and, in some way, interfere in the employee satisfaction with the position held.

Also the organizational policy is another factor that can determine the absence from work. Inflexible schedules that do not offer autonomy for employees to manage their own personal time needs may increase unplanned absences. Improper maintenance or lack of a maintenance program and monitoring of absences, the lack of a human resources valorization program, of professional valorization or retention of talents, are factors that can interfere with the increase in absenteeism. Ferreira *et al.* (2012) add that the solution of the problem depends on policies and internal control mechanisms and, in particular, of governmental actions.

As for teacher absenteeism, remuneration is another variable that should influence. Louzano, Rocha, Moriconi and Oliveira (2010) state that the initial salary of a teacher in the public sector, is even lower than that of other careers. For these authors, this low remuneration is added to the low social status of the career, which is an aggravating factor, because the profession fails in

attract talents to the area. Also Augusto (2012) states that the main factor cited by teachers as dissatisfaction motivator is salary, considered very low compared to that of other professionals with the same educational level. So, this factor can be one of the biggest reasons for teacher absenteeism.

For Hilton *et al.* (2009), absenteeism rates are the metrics that drive corporate policy for investment in health care for employees. Nishio and Baptista (2010) adds that the absenteeism causes need to be diagnosed for political control of the organization. Calgarotto and Pinheiro (2010) observed that in companies where there is a culture that facilitates the occurrence of absenteeism, employees who do not miss work, end up feeling discouraged and devalued in relation to those who miss, and begin to practice the same behavior.

Working conditions for Böckerman and Ilmakunnas (2006), also contribute to the absences, especially when interacting with inadequate salaries and perceived devaluation of the worker in the workplace. Along the same lines, Martinato, Severo, Marchand and Siqueira (2010) believe that the working environment itself can be the cause of illness and, consequently, of the professional removal. Therefore, workers tend to get sick when the working conditions are not favorable. Thus, poor working conditions, non-equivalent remuneration to the performed service, lack of a productivity compensation program, lack of stimulation, lack of professional growth outlook and sense of social devaluation of the profession, may also be considered problem aggravating.

Calgarotto and Pinheiro (2010) state that "there may be still an overload of employees at the time of the absentee task needs to be done" (p. 167), and others will have to cover this absence, while meeting the requirements of their own function. This situation can generate a new absentee who, fatigued by overloading, is absent as well, which can form a vicious circle.

Tauffer and Coltre (2007) add that people are influenced by intrinsic and extrinsic factors of work and by rewards and punishments practices performed by the organization. So, what it takes a worker to take the decision to miss work is something very internal and that often, is influenced by external factors of the organization.

In studies conducted by Ferreira *et al.* (2012), age was perceived as a generating factor of few days of absence. Also Lima (2012), Vahtera, Kivimaki and Pentti (2001), and Ferreira *et al.* (2012) highlight the positive relationship between age and the number of absences at work. They identified in their studies that young people tend to refrain more from work than older people. Thus, being older generates few days of absence, and being younger is a factor that contributes to the increase in absenteeism. These authors claim that women miss work more than men due to double shifts, professional and domestic.

Moreover, Umann, Guido, Leal and Freitas (2011) observed in his research with workers with a permanent bond that the higher the degree of complexity of work activities, the greater the prevalence of employee absence. The stability as Reis, La Rocca, Silveira, Bonilla and Martín (2003) shows the existence of relations between absenteeism and employment bond. These authors have shown that the chance of a worker with a permanent contract to depart temporarily from work, was higher than that presented by employees without a permanent bond, and the average of days of removal is higher between statutory employees. Supporting this idea, Tavares, Camelo and Karmirski (2009) state that the more stable is the teacher, in terms of career time and position, the greater the incentive to miss work.

Giomo, Freitas, Alves, Robazzi (2009) consider that there is a behavioral difference between statutory and temporary workers, the first being those who are most absent, perhaps because of the worry of the temporary employee about a possible resignation, considering the instability of employment. For Barboza and Soler (2003), high levels of sickness absenteeism may come from situations such as professional practice marked by frequently fragmented activities of tasks, rigid hierarchical structure for the fulfillment of routines, rules and regulations, insufficient qualitative and quantitative dimensioning of personnel.

Social factors such as imprisonment, financial problems and force majeure - such as strikes, popular manifestations, natural disasters and problems with transportation - are other possible causes of work absenteeism. Thiele and Ahlert (2008) claim that the behavior of teachers is influenced by a set of social factors and impact on the decision making to miss work. Thus, external factors such as violence, lack of recognition of the profession, the parents' attendance, conflicts with co-workers and students, and the lack of credibility of the profession, can interfere in the increasingly constant absence of the teacher.

Considering what has been exposed so far, it was made a formulation of hypotheses based on all theoretical background covered here. Sequentially, it was prepared the hypothetical model of the influence of the variables about teacher absenteeism, as Fig. 1, hereinafter.

Figure 1 – Hypothetical model
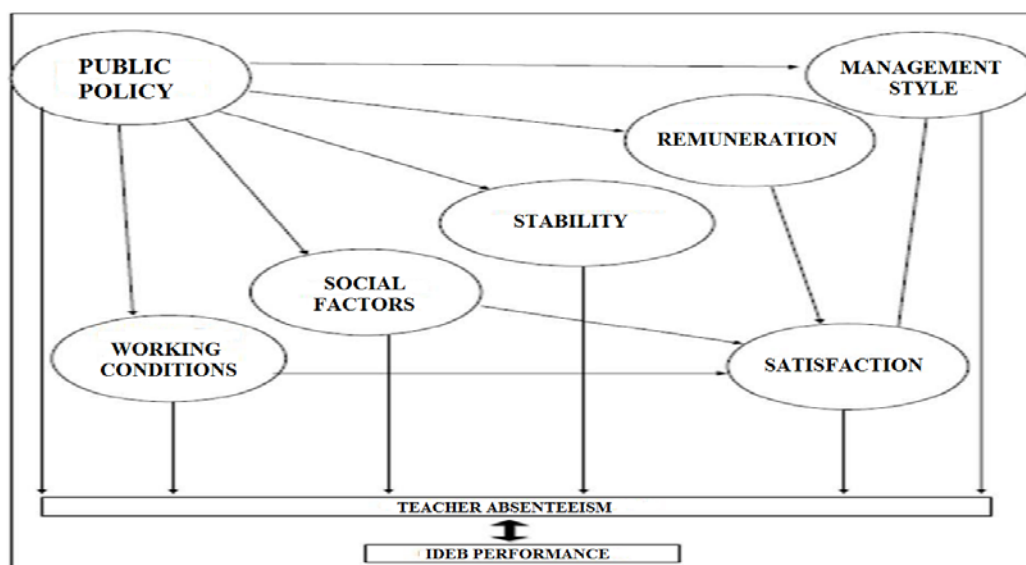
Source: Elaborated by the authors, based on Assunção and Oliveira (2009); Augusto (2012); Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, (2006); Cavalheiro and Tolfo (2011); Couto (1987); Ferreira e*t al.* (2012); Gasparini, Barreto and Assunção (2005); Guerreiro (2010); Hilton *et al* (2009); Lacombe and Heilborn (2003); Lapo and Bueno (2003); Lima (2012); Miller e*t al* (2008); Mooij and Narayan (2010); Martinato *et al* (2010), Reis e*t al* (2003); Silva and Marziale (2000); Tavares e*t al.* (2009)*;* Thiele and Ahlert (2008).

Despite all the considerations about the causes of absenteeism, this study addresses the absences arising from the resistance to institutional policies, remuneration, management style, dissatisfaction, working conditions, social factors and stability offered to employee.

Methodology

This research is classified as descriptive (Roesch, 2007), quantitative, explanatory, documentary, bibliographic (Vergara, 2009) and a field research.

Data collection was performed through an unidentified and structured questionnaire with closed questions. The sample was voluntarily composed and included 635 public teachers, working in 42 state schools, belonging to 12 municipalities of Minas Gerais. Thus, respondents evaluated statements that aimed the constructs measurements.

From the study, it is possible to suppose that absenteeism is influenced by public policy, stability, remuneration, satisfaction, social factors and working conditions. The aim was to measure the variables proposed in the hypothetical model. In view of the causal factors studied, it was decided, for study purposes, divide the voluntary absenteeism in type I (arising from internal situations of the institutions) and type II (arising from internal situations of the individual).

To exploratory data analysis, the dimensionality of the constructs was verified through an exploratory factor analysis. Bartlett's test was performed to verify the liberality for each construct and, through confirmatory factor analysis, it was possible to verify the correlation between variables and factors, communicability, reliability, shared variance of the construct, thus allowing better define the items of the form. To check the validity of the measurement theory, the convergent and discriminant validity from the Confirmatory Factor Analysis were evaluated.

After the validity tests of the measurement model, the modeling of structural equations was performed to verify the capacity of the measurement model to fit to the proposed theory. It was used the Satorra and Bentler (1994) method. The Spearman correlation matrix (Hollander & Wolfe, 1999) was also used to verify the correlation of variables. To check the adjustment quality, the R^2 and the GoF were used (Amato, Esposito & Tenenhaus, 2004).

Finally, to make the adjustment of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis and the Structural Equation Models, were used, respectively, *cfa*() and *sem*() functions of the Iavaan package (Rosseel, 2012), of the R software (version 3.0.2). Statistical tests validated the following results.

Results and Discussions

According to the results that can be viewed in Figure 2, it is a fact that, in relation to:

a) **The Voluntary Absenteeism Type I –** There are significant (p-value = 0.043) and positive (β = 0.145) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. Thus, the greater the agreement with items related to *Public Policy*, the greater will be the agreement with the items of *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and negative (β = -0.185) influences of the *Management Style* over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. Thus, the higher the agreement with items related to *Management Style*, the lesser will be the agreement with the items of *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. There are significant (p-value = 0.049) and negative (β = -0.090) influences of the *Working Demand* over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. Thus, the greater the agreement with items related to *Working Demand*, the lesser will be the agreement with the items of *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.573) influences of the *Social Factor* over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*. Thus, the higher the agreement with items related to *Social Factor*, the greater will be the agreement with the items of *Voluntary Absenteeism Type I*.

b) **The Voluntary Absenteeism Type II –** There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.211) influences of the *Working Demand* over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type II*. Thus, the greater the agreement with items related to *Working Demand*, the higher will be the agreement

with the items of *Voluntary Absenteeism Type II*. There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 1.021) influences of the *Social Factor* over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type II*. Thus, the higher the agreement with items related to *Social Factor*, the greater will be the agreement with the items of *Voluntary Absenteeism Type II*. There was no significant influence of *Public Policy* (0,485) *Management Style* (0.126), *Stability* (p-value = 0.209), *Remuneration* (p-value = 0.865) and *Working Conditions* (p-value = 0.316) over the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type II*. Together, all the cited indicators can explain 49.9% of the *Voluntary Absenteeism Type II* variability.

The best configuration of the factors that explain the absenteeism, was the configuration presented in Fig. 2.

Figure 2 - Representation of the redefined structural model
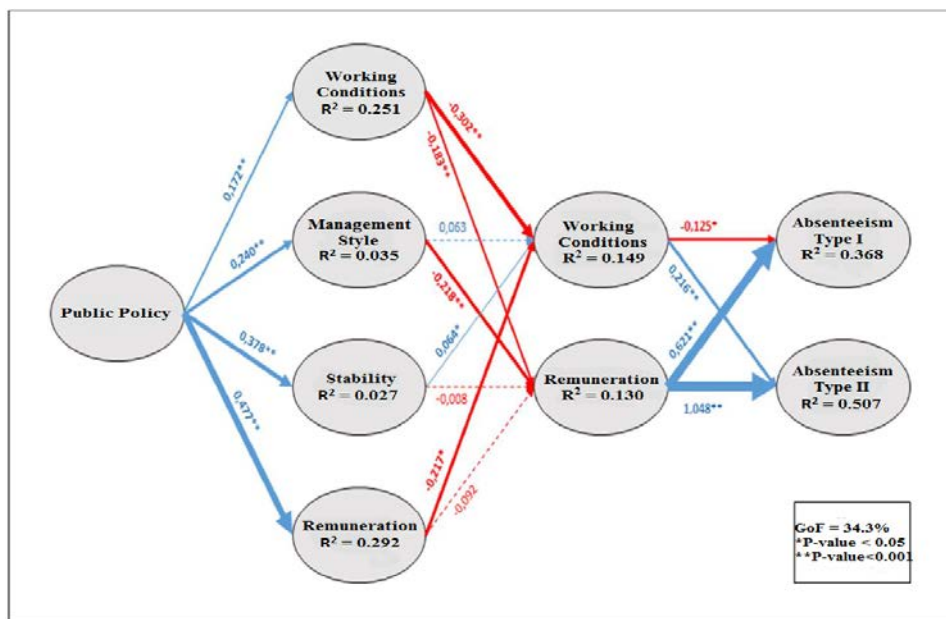
Source: Elaborated by the authors with research data.

c) The management style – There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.178) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Management Style*. Thus, the higher the *Public Policy* indicator, the greater will be the indicator of *Management Style*. It may be noted that, although significant, *Public Policy* can explain only 3.7% of the *Management Style* variability. Therefore, the results resemble the speech of Silva and Marziale (2000), when they say that the causes of teacher absenteeism can be attributed to a deficient management, not a foreseeing or humanistic management.

d) The stability – There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.239) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Stability*. Thus, the higher the *Public Policy* indicator, the greater will be the indicator of *Stability*. It may be noted that, although significant, *Public Policy* can explain only 2.6% of the *Stability* variability. This goes against the ideas of Giomo *et al.* (2009), Reis *et al.* (2003) and Tavares e*t al.* (2009), when they say that the more stable is the teacher, in terms of career and position held, the greater the incentives to miss work.

e) The remuneration – There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.383) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Remuneration*. Thus, the higher the *Public Policy* indicator, the greater will be the indicator of *Remuneration*. It may be noted that the *Public Policy* can explain 29.7% of the *Remuneration* variability.

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f) The working conditions – There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.482) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Working Conditions*. Thus, the higher the *Public Policy* indicator, the greater will be the indicator of *Working Conditions*. It may be noted that the *Public Policy* can explain 25.2% of the *Working Conditions* variability. Gasparini *et al.* (2005), Augusto (2012), Louzano *et al.* (2010) state that absenteeism is linked to working conditions, but teachers demonstrated that, no matter how bad are the working conditions and remuneration, these are not the decisive factors for the teacher to miss work. There is an influence, but the working conditions indicator is not the most significant influences over the absenteeism.

g) The work demand – There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and negative (β = -0.271) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Work Demand*. Thus, the higher the *Public Policy* indicator, the lesser will be the indicator of *Work Demand*. It may be noted that, although significant, *Public Policy* can explain only 8.2% of the *Work Demand* variability.

h) The social factor – There are significant (p-value = 0.000) and negative (β = -0.248) influences of the *Public Policy* over the *Social Factor*. This creates consistency between this research and what the authors Thiele and Arhlert (2008) say, when they stated that this variable interferes with the teacher's behavior. Thus, the higher the *Public Policy* indicator, the lesser will be the indicator of *Social Factor*. It may be noted that, although significant, *Public Policy* can explain only 8.6% of the *Social Factor* variability.

In summary, the above results confirm that the constructs management style, remuneration, working conditions, working demand, social factor, absenteeism type I and absenteeism type II, interfere in the teacher absenteeism.

The result of this study demystify the idea that the absent of the teacher is responsible for the low performance of students. Based on the results, it is assumed that, contrary to what the media reports, the teacher absenteeism is not the villain of the poor quality of public education; there are other constructs that have a greater share of blame than the studied phenomenon.

Conclusions

The obtained results allow us to state that the working demand and the social factors are the constructs of greater influence on the teacher absenteeism. The results enable inferences in the sense that what it takes the teacher to be absent, is not so much the authoritarian management style, the low salary, or the lack of growth prospect, but the lack of appreciation of the students and society, combined with terrible working conditions. It is concluded that these are variables that have greater influence over the issue.

The limitation of the research, were the questionnaires, whose statements about the items surveyed ranged in positive and negative sentences.

Because it is an investigation in countryside cities, it is suggested doing the same research in schools inserted in large urban centers to detect the share of influence of factors such as violence, distance and transportation, in teacher absenteeism. It can be also made surveys where is compared the absenteeism rates of private school teachers with absenteeism rates of teachers in public schools. Another point of the issue to be researched is the influence of stability, because it is assumed that the method was not able to verify and prove a reality that is verbalized. With the results presented here, it can be made more sophisticated hypothetical models that have a greater potential for explanation of the changes of influence over the teaching absenteeism.

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THE USE OF THE FREE EVOCATIONS IN THE ANALYSIS OF TURNOVER: A MAPPING OF THE SOCIAL THOUGHT

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Abstract

The proposal analyzes aspects of organizational dynamics, under the eyes of the Social Thought theories, while highlighting the importance of the Free Evocations as a technic able to apprehend shared perceptions of reality. Focusing on approaching the potential of the Free Evocations method, applied to a sample of 120 workers allocated in two groups according to the levels of turnover in their organizations. It intends to verify if the social representations of the work performed by those two groups, have structural similarities. The prototypical analysis derived from this technique permits an initial comprehension of context, allowing an analysis of socio-cognitive processes, where premises that involve work relations as well as the different levels of turnover on organizations will be diagramed.

Introduction

Work has always been present in human life and represents one of the central values in the constitution of our species. Zaneli, Silva and Soares (2010) affirm that individuals transform and are themselves transformed during the production process, work therefore, imposes moral, social and economic assimilations, shaping behavioral and lifestyle values. Since capitalism's structuration, work started to represent the means to produce consumer goods, being a necessary element for human survival. Socialization processes are, from birth, destined to work. Even the concept of human maturity is, many times, associated with an individual's insertion in the job market. Therefore, people look for, in remunerative work, their needs fulfillment and autonomy. Human beings live in society, which is constituted by a shared reality that can be interpreted using social representations, those are defined by Jodelet (2001, p. 36) as "a form of knowledge, socially elaborated and shared, which has a practical goal and acts in order to build a common reality to a social conjecture". According to Siqueira and Júnior (2014), the subject establishes bonds with its pairs and the environment around him. Social psychology has become a wide theoretical field for research on how social ties occur, with praise to the theories of social thought. Social thought reflects how people build a significant world in order to justify their actions in life. Based on the reflections of Moscovici, society is not only a political and economic system, but also a thinking one, referring to the notion that it's "a social interaction space where people wonder and seek to find answers for the questions that, in combination with others, present themselves" (Vala, 2013, p.572). We live in an environment of thoughts, which is endlessly built and rebuilt by communicative action and cognitive processes (Sá, 1996). Thus, social thought is situated in the public and collective imaginary, where collective beliefs, spread in the different groups present in society, express themselves. Vala (2013) considers that the social representations theory influences collective and individual thought by correlating cognitive and social processes.

Understanding work requires comprehending the meanings attributed to it, analyzing how groups and individuals relate and interrelate. Borges and Yamamoto (2004) point out that even if the work has singular attributions, any human work is related to the social context and is influenced by culture, and therefore is configured into an essential act, which establishes a

relationship between humankind and the environment around it. When talking about work, we are also talking about organizations, since those result from the interaction process between groups and individuals (Schein, 1982). It is understood that behind group behavioral patterns and languages there is a profound common meaning, shared and comprehended collectively (Bastos, Rodrigues, Moscon & Pinho, 2014). An organization's operation bases itself on the social knowledge disseminated by groups, in such a way that the work is organized from the consensual knowledge about it. Robbins (2002) highlights that when talking about behaviors, we are also talking about the concept of attitudes, since the latter are affirmations loaded with evaluations, expressing how an individual relates and feels.

People, in fact, feel, perceive and position themselves for work, diversifying the intensity of the relations they establish with their activities. Therefore, bonds developed in the work world are covered by attitude theories, which involve studies on work satisfaction and organizational commitment. Gondim and Siqueira (2013) highlight the role of emotions on the organizational environment when studying attitudes at work. Emotions influence the level of identification with activities, reflecting the degree of involvement and satisfaction that an individual has with work. The emotional character is also directly related to organizational commitment, configured by the affections invested in the organization. The constitution of established bonds with work and organizations includes social and economic aspects present in the current context in which the organizations are placed. Thus, affective states present in bonds with work and the organizations permeate organizational behaviors, mainly, those when leaving an organization.

The behaviors when leaving the organization are measured by the levels of personnel turnover on a given amount of time. According to Chiavenato (2011) turnover is characterized by the flow of people that moves an organization, be that with their influx or departure volumes. In this regard, there will usually be one person admitted by every person fired. Robbins (2002) considers healthy keeping a standard level of turnover. For Pontes (1996) 10% a year is considered an adequate turnover index. However, when this index is too high, it may be a symptom of some organizational aspect. A higher turnover index may cause losses to the organizational efficiency.

According to Dieese (2014), between the years of 2003 and 2012 in Brazil, there has been a significant increase in the global turnover index in the private market, moving from 52% to 64%. Brazilian services sector presented an average of 57% in this period. Turnover is considered a consequence of organizational variables that may be internal or external to work. The current economic system can be found amidst those external variables, it is ruled by a flexible model, branded by a rise in the short working contracts, which weakens the bonds with the work, shaking the commitment and dedication an individual has with work (Sennet, 1999). As internal variables, we have the organizational policies together with the physical and psychological conditions of work. Therefore, turnover is understood as a variable dependent on organizational behavior. Spector (2008) points a correlation between turnover and satisfaction at work, as well as one between the intention to leave the job and turnover, which according to the author is moderated by unemployment taxes, where satisfaction and intention are "turnover's precursors" (p.397)

Under the light of social representations theory, this study presents the free evocations method as an important tool in comprehending the social thought on the representations of work that permeate organizations.

The method, applied to a hundred and twenty (120) subjects allocated in two groups: the high turnover companies group (containing five companies and 60 workers) and the low turnover

companies group (containing five companies and 60 workers), intends to analyze content, both latent and present, in their memories, that influence how they conduct themselves at the workplace. Thus, it intends to verify if the way low turnover companies' workers think about their jobs has any similarity with the way of thinking of high turnover companies' workers. In other words, it intends to verify if the social representations of work in those two groups have structural similarities or are completely different representations.

Theoretical Framework

Sá (2007) presents the social representations theory, highlighting its study of the consensual thoughts that emerge in societies, of a psychosocial character. It is a theory that analyzes the resulting phenomenon of an everyday-life collectively built knowledge. Moscovici (2003), when studying the social representations, affirms that we're talking about human beings, and highlights that it is   not only about the study of behaviors, but also comprehending the individuals and their social relationships from the understanding of inter-group communication, stance taking, beliefs, representations and ideologies. He also notes that the representation studies come from questioning "what is a thinking society?" (p.44). Sá emphasizes how people and groups are far from being passive receptors in society. They communicate, elaborate life philosophies, share representations and take decisions. Moscovici affirms that "the happenings, the sciences and the ideologies only provide them with food for thought" (p.45).

The representations evolve with time, they aggregate a collective memory, in the means that "while those representations, shared by many, influence and penetrate the minds of everyone, they are not thought by them, to be precise, they are re-thought, re-cited and re-introduced" (p.37). With social interaction, individuals built explanations on objects that surround them and the world where they act. In that sense, the representations act as "process and product in an activity of appropriating the exterior reality to the thought as well as psychologically and socially elaborating this reality" (Jodelet, 2001, p.21). Sá (1993) notes that even though groups share beliefs and values disseminated in society, they may represent the same object in different ways. This depends on the level of information on the object each group has and on how this information is structured on the representation field.

When dealing with the structure of knowledge in a representation, the structural approach in social representations stands out, introducing the central nucleus theory. The structural approach is considered one of the main complementary theories to Moscovici's one and focuses on analyzing the cognitive elements that constitute and fortify a representation. Additionally, the use of this approach is justified by "making the social representation theory more heuristic to research and social practice" (Sá, p.173, 2007). According to Abric (2000), there is no reality separated from the individuals because they build and represent reality from their cognitive systems and values dependent on the historical context they live. Therefore, every representation can be seen as a "global and unitary vision of an object as well as of a subject" (p. 27-28). For re-structuring reality based on the norms' and values' system linked to an objects' objective characteristics, social representations have a functional view of the world which allows subjects to attribute meaning to their conducts, offering group reference systems and the adaptation of reality in favor of this world view.

Abric (2003) goes from the principle that a social representation is: "constituted of a particular socio-cognitive system, composed by two sub-systems: a central system (or central nucleus) and a peripheral system" (p.38). In this regard, the structural approach focuses on studying the representation as an unity, organized by nucleus that make reference to a central system which

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stabilizes the representation, made from cognitive elements linked to the group's story; and a peripheral system which shares group experiences and considers individual stories, having the adaptation of the social representation to certain social contexts as function.

Besides providing meaning to the representation, the central nucleus will be resilient against changes, since it is the constitutive element of representation, changes on it will cause the modification of the representation as a whole. In this regard, what distinguishes one representation from the other is the organization of the central nucleus. Even though two representations have similar contents, if the organization of the central nucleus is different. It means that we are talking about distinct representations. The theory recognizes the existence of elements that organize themselves around the nucleus; they are classified as peripheral elements. The peripheral system is considered more flexible being the most accessible part of any representation.

Therefore, it can be said that the social representation has a double system (central and peripheral), in which each part takes on a different function. It is from this dual acknowledgment that we may comprehend how a representation can be rigid and flexible at same time. Abric (2000) highlights the importance of understanding the elements of a representation, because from the relation between central and peripheral elements, the social representations update themselves and evolve. In this regard, the central nucleus constitutes the basis of a social representation, where the norms and collective memory of a group lie. (Sá, 1996)

Methodological Perspective

The application of Free Evocations is based on an integrated perspective, associating the methodology of Social Representations (Abric, 2003) to the fundamentals of Integrated Psychosocial Methodology (Ayres, 2012), that has the Psychological Contract as methodological orientation, facilitating effective participation of all social actors involved, seeking dialogue and communication. The use of Evocations has good indicators for establishing *rapport*, building with the participants a relationship of trust, focused on implicating them into the research (Oliveira, Marques, Gomes & Teixeira, 2005). Therefore, this project seeks to give voice to those individuals that act in the service sector of the market.

The free evocations technique, also called "free association" or "word associations test", refers to the mechanism of expressing ideas where individuals bring to light elements of their imaginations. It was of great esteem to the Clinical Psychology and Psychoanalysis, for evaluating a subject's psychic life aspects. In this regard, the use of free evocations on a social representations study is important to understand cognems that compose the social thought. Those (cognems) are elements that structure a social representation, positioned as central or peripheral. For that understanding, Walchelke (2009) recommends a prototypical analysis based on the free evocations. The prototypical analysis procedure, introduced by Vergès (1992), is classified as a procedure to work on the words evoked by the free evocations technique. This procedure registers the frequency and order of evoked words. Words that, when evoked, present high frequency and appear first in the order are the ones that "most likely constitute elements who form the nucleus" (p.103). In that sense the analysis is based on the principles of *Marbe*'s law, which considers that the most representative and important elements are those more accessible to conscience, being the ones remembered and evoked first. (Wachelke & Wolter, 2011). Additionally, the prototypical analysis allows a general panorama of the *corpus* allowing a better comprehension of ideas that circulate the studied object, verifying the level of social

sharing and highlighting the relationship between the studied population and the object. (Wolter & Wachelke, 2013)

Wachelke (2009) notes that the prototypical analysis alone is not enough to identify the central elements of a social representation. However, he recognizes its validity as an introductory method for the central nucleus identification when saying that "prototypical analysis delivers indications with raw words that often are not direct elements of a social representation, but concern a theme that would involve specific aspects"(p.103).

Therefore, the use of a prototypical analysis based in the free evocations technique is indicated on exploratory studies for apprehending shared perceptions of reality. The technique allows quick access to content present in the memory, in an objective and spontaneous way, by asking that individuals promptly answer to the presented expression. For the social thought theories, the method presents itself as a tool for studying cognems shared by social groups and that structure the social thought (Oliveira et al, 2005).

The Evocation and itsAnalysis

The groups that took part in the study correspond to workers from private organizations of the service sector in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo. The choice of companies was intentional, them being selected by their turnover index between the years of 2013 to 2015. They were allocated in groups of high turnover index and low turnover index (Taking in consideration the services sector medium presented by Dieese of 57%). It is asked that the subjects answer to the terms "work" and "satisfaction at work", then the first five answers evocated for each term are collected, being ordered in the way they were naturally mentioned. The frequency and order of each evocated term are calculated following the principles of *Zipf's* law, generating an organized *corpus*, spread in quadrants that indicate the normative, functional or imagetic character of the ideas. The terms located on the top left quadrant are the ones who appear with the most frequency and first in the order of evocation, probably being the central elements permeating the social thought.

Next there's the enumeration of rarity and diversity indexes of each *corpora* generated by the evocations to indicate the represented objects' level of idiosyncrasies or social sharing. Finally, the community level proposed by Wolter and Wachelke (2013) is calculated from the comparison of both *corpora* generated from the evocations of each inductive term. This index allows the analysis of common elements present in the *corpora*, indicating a possible homogeneity of the evocations even though they have different stimuli. The prototypical analysis allows the comprehension of context, permitting the construction of new data gathering instruments, as well as the development of collaborative diagnoses for interventions on the social field. Even though the indication of using posterior confirmatory techniques presents itself, the use of Evocations became a reference in studies that involve beliefs, sharing ideas and social groups' opinions.

In this regard, applying the evocations method allows verifying elements present in the workers' discourse when facing their work, understanding its affective and evaluative character. Thereby, the study analyzes if those cognems, which permeate the social representation of work from the two groups (the high turnover and the low turnover companies workers) indicate if either these groups share the same social representation of work or not.

Expected Results

Faced with the central position work occupies in contemporary life, studying work beliefs with the theories of social thought makes itself important, for allowing the expression of knowledge that guides individuals in their actions, impacting their behavior in the organizations, which permits "comprehending processes that intervene in the socio-cognitive adaptation of individuals to daily reality and to the characteristics of the social and ideological medium" (Abric, 200, p.35). Therefore, the study of consensual theories of work through the free evocations method allows systematizing premises that involve the levels of turnover in the organizations as well as amplifying the field of social research in that area.

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PERFORMANCE: LEADERSHIP STYLES

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to investigate the influence of Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Styles in the followers' performance. The sample was for convenience, made up of leaders and followers of 3 different companies and the survey was quantitative and explanatory. Three-hundred people participated of the survey. The data demonstrated that in the global sample, the Transformational leadership style, unlike Transactional and Laissez-Faire, exerted a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.320 [0.10; 0.53]) influence on Task and Context Performances. There was also a significant (p-value = 0.051) and positive (β = 0.144 [0.00; 0.33]) influence of the Transactional Leadership. In multi-group analysis, the results were different for each context studied.

Introduction

The dynamics of the contemporary market are based on the principles of the technological age that has dictated, in an accelerated manner, the new direction of the society and the business that it practices. This, according to Picarelli (2002), implies that the conquest of new opportunities, the increased competitiveness and the search for competitive advantages are essential actions for organizations that desire to remain and succeed in this global village format. To survive and compete effectively in this new environment, according to Kotter (2001) means "knowing how the leader interferes in the follower's performance, expanding or restricting potential, according to his/her leadership style" (p. 86).

To lead people with focus on results is another marketing requirement of the contemporary century. With regard to the management of people performance, Souza (2002) points out that "this business scenario requires approaches focused on results, i.e., market-oriented" (p. 19). The challenge is in the need to manage professional and organizational skills, aligning and integrating interests, in order to direct the efforts to achieve the organizational goals. Research involving the new approach of leadership has shown a positive link between leadership styles and job performance (Barling; Weber & Kelloway, 1996; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Frost, 1989, Rai & Sinha, 2000; Rickards; Chen & Moger, 2001; Sosik; Avolio; Kahai & Jung, 1998). Among the styles of the new leadership approach, the transformational style has been a prominent representative, at least in the last three decades. The development and performance of the follower are the target results of this leadership style (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

From the existing literature about the relationship between leadership and job performance and in order to check which leadership style (transformational, transactional or laissez-faire) relates more positively with the follower's performance, this research was proposed. The main question of the study was: among the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, which one (s) relate (s) more positively with the task and context performances of the follower?

The relevance to the Academy is based on the fact that it is preponderant to identify the Leadership Styles capable of influencing the performance, besides the fact that little researches have been dedicated to link the potential effects of certain leadership styles in the task and context performances of the follower. The findings in the literature about leadership, which recommended the Transformational Style, was not confirmed in the study of Dias & Borges (2015) with public managers that, instead, identified the Transactional style (connect reward with performance). Purvanova, Bono & Dziewczynki (2006) point out that several researchers, including Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer (1996), have argued that, even though the effects of

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transformational leadership on task performance are important, it is possible that the effects of transformational leadership on extra-role behaviors (those that go beyond the tasks formally described) can be even more significant.

Theoretical Framework

Glynn & Dejordy (2010) group the leadership studies in four theoretical perspectives: personality; behavioral; contingency and charismatic. According to Northouse (2013), the first trait theory boosted the leadership research. It was conceived in light of the psychological perspective, focusing on personality. The bases of the behavioral theory research were originated with the movement of human relations. The focus of this perspective is in the individual and not in the task. Berttocci (2009) points out that a key point of difference of this theory in relation to the trait theory is that the leadership is seen as a skill that can be studied, learned and developed.

The contingency theory argues that leadership is a matter of situational demands, in other words, situational factors determine who will emerge as a leader (Bass& Bass, 2008). The contingency theory assumes that different contexts call for different types of leadership. According to Lorsch (2010), the idea of a contingency theory of leadership is not new. In the 1960s, several scholars (Fiedler, Tannenbaum and Schmidt, Vroom and Yetton) researched and proposed this approach, arguing that the leadership style that would be most effective would depend on the situation. The studies directed to the situational leadership theory (SLT) developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, and the Fiedler contingency model (Least Preferred Co-Worker - LPC) are considered the most popular and important to the field (Mcshane & Glinow, 2013).

Compounding the ramifications of charismatic theories there is the new kind of leadership theories, versed as "transformational", "charismatic" and "visionary leadership"(Dvir et al., 2002). Mchshane & Glinow (2013) point out that the distinction between charismatic and transformational leadership has been a challenge. For the authors, many researchers use the two words as if they had the same meaning or consider the charismatic leadership a transformational leadership component. In contrast, other scholars suggest that charismatic leadership is the highest degree of transformational leadership. However, Mchshane & Glinow (2013) emphasize that the emerging view of the experts is that charisma is different from transformational leadership. This emerging line believes that charisma is a personal trait or a relational quality that provides reference power over followers, while transformational is a set of behaviors that people use to lead the change process.

The transformational leadership was first mentioned by Downton (1973) as different from transactional leadership. For Bass & Bass (2008), the leadership model that includes and extends the ideas about the new approach of leadership is the *Full-Range Leadership*. They consider three leadership styles: laissez-faire, transactional and transformational. This model was designed by studies performed between 1980 and 1985, and resulted in the multidimensional theory of transformational and transactional leaderships, developing a leadership styles verification instrument called *Multifactor Questionnaire Leadership*. This model was chosen to support this work in the leadership strand.

The scientific literature about performance produced over the last decades in the field of Organizational Psychology has given more emphasis to the evaluative dimension of performance (Campbell; Meccloy; Oppler & Sager, 1993; Sonnentag & Frese, 2002). As a result, the literature about the subject is quite fragmented with a multitude of proposals about specific aspects of performance evaluation (Bendassolli, 2012).

The performance from the multi-dimensional perspective, according to Bendassolli & Malvezzi (2013), is defined as a set of behaviors or actions guided by a purpose of transformation that provides value generation. For these authors conceptualize the theme is a challenge, being common harness it to results, efficiency and value, considering them performance synonyms. However, in light of studies of the mentioned authors, it is stated that, although subtle, there are

differences between them, namely: (1) performance are behaviors, actions oriented for the purpose of transforming reality; (2) result is the consequence of behaviors or actions; (3) efficiency is the evaluation of performance results based on certain standards or criteria; (4) productivity is the ratio between efficiency and the costs of the inputs used in the result generation process.

Dvir et al. (2002) state that, in general, there are evidences showing positive relationships between transformational leadership and performance, and these relationships are stronger than relations between transactional leadership and performance.

The theoretical model developed for this work included the constructs "leadership and performance". For leadership, the Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire styles of Bass & Avolio were considered (1990). For performance, task and context were analyzed (Bormam & Motowidlo, 1993).

Methodology

As for the approach, according to Collis and Hussey (2005), this research is characterized as quantitative and explanatory. The research population was composed by professionals working in enterprises of trade and service sectors in the metropolitan region of Belo Horizonte. For this research, it was decided to use a non-probability sampling, and the convenience sampling was the chosen method. The sample was consisted of leader and follower. They are professionals working in enterprises of trade and service sectors, identified here as companies A, B and C, respectively: representative association of the trade sector, call center service and a provider of software service. In all, 309 people were investigated, being 8 leaders and 101 followers in Company A, 8 leaders and 101 followers in company B and 13 leaders and 94 followers in company C.

To check the leadership styles, it was used the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* - MLQ - (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Each leadership style is measured through a set of variables described in Table 1.

Table 1 – Leadership Measurement Variables

Transformational Style	Transactional Style	Laissez-Faire Style
Charisma	Contingent Reward	Passive Management by Exception
Inspiring motivation	Active Management by Exception	Laissez-faire
Intellectual stimulation		
Individualized consideration		

Source: (Bass & Avolio, 1990)

Each strand of performance is measured through a set of variables described in Table 2.

Table 2 – Performance Measurement Variables

Task Performance	Context Performance
Deadline	Pro-Social Behavior
Quantity and Quality	Contextual Performance
Misalignment with the Leader	

Source: Adapted from Reis Neto et al. (2012)

For Structural Equation Modeling via PLS method, it was used plspm () function of the plspm package of the R software (version 3.0.3). The measurement and regression models were performed using the PLS (*Partial Least Square*) method. To check the quality of the model adjustment, it were used the R^2 and the GoF.

Results and Discussions

The survey was conducted with 309 respondents, distributed in 29 teams, from three different companies. Altogether, 29 leaders, 13 of the company A, 8 of the company B and 8 of the company C were evaluated. In Table 3, it is presented the profile of the overall sample and by companies.

Table 3 – Respondents characterization: general sample and by companies

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Variables		General		Company A		Company B		Company C	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Leadership	Followers	271	90,3%	90	91,8%	88	91,7%	93	87,7%
	Leaders	29	9,7%	8	8,2%	8	8,3%	13	12,3%
Gender	Female	176	58,7%	72	73,5%	71	74,0%	33	31,1%
	Male	124	41,3%	26	26,5%	25	26,0%	73	68,9%
	Married	109	36,3%	51	52,0%	26	27,1%	32	30,2%
Marital Status	Separated/Divorced	13	4,3%	5	5,1%	3	3,1%	5	4,7%
	Single	178	59,3%	42	42,9%	67	69,8%	69	65,1%
Children	No	194	64,7%	55	56,1%	62	64,6%	77	72,6%
	Yes	106	35,3%	43	43,9%	34	35,4%	29	27,4%
	High School	91	30,3%	11	11,2%	60	62,5%	20	18,9%
Education	Higher Education	121	40,3%	39	39,8%	32	33,3%	50	47,2%
	Post-graduation	88	29,3%	48	49,0%	4	4,2%	36	34,0%
Type of remuneration	Only fixed wage	240	80,0%	90	91,8%	70	72,9%	80	75,5%
	Payment for production	5	1,7%	5	5,1%	0	0,0%	0	0,0%
	Fixed wage + production	55	18,3%	3	3,1%	26	27,1%	26	24,5%
	Up to R$ 1.000,00	42	14,0%	0	0,0%	27	28,2%	15	14,2%
Income	Between 1.000,00 and R$ 3.000,00	135	45,0%	51	52,0%	68	70,8%	16	15,1%
	Above R$ 3.000,00	123	41,0%	47	48,0%	1	1,0%	75	70,7%
Time in current position	Less than 1 year	83	27,7%	14	14,3%	38	39,6%	31	29,2%
	Between 1 and 5 years	160	53,3%	57	58,2%	55	57,3%	48	45,3%
	Between 6 and 10 years	41	13,7%	16	16,3%	3	3,1%	22	20,8%
	Above 10 years	16	5,3%	11	11,2%	0	0,0%	5	4,7%
Age	Average (S.D.)	29,9	(9,1)	35,4	(10,5)	25,6	(6,1)	28,9	(7,2)

Source: Research data

In evaluating items of transformational leadership in the overall sample, it was noted that charisma had the highest average (76.6), while Intellectual Stimulation had the lowest (74.7), but there was no significant difference between them. When considering the samples by companies, it was observed that the Company A presented the lowest averages of "Charisma", "Motivational Inspiration", "Intellectual Stimulation" and "Individualized Consideration", while Company B had the highest averages, but there was no significant difference between companies (Table 4).

Table 4 - Presentation and description of the items of transformational leadership

Transformational Leadership	General		Company A		Company B		Company C	
	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%
Charisma	76,6	[74,2; 79,0]	73,9	[69,0; 78,4]	79,8	[75,2; 83,9]	76,2	[72,4; 79,5]
Motivational Inspiration	76,4	[73,5; 78,9]	73,6	[68,6; 78,5]	80,1	[75,0; 84,5]	75,7	[71,2; 80,3]
Intellectual Stimulation	74,7	[71,9; 77,1]	73,5	[68,6; 78,3]	77,4	[72,9; 81,6]	73,3	[69,0; 77,9]
Individualized Consid.	76,1	[73,5; 78,6]	73,8	[68,6; 78,3]	80,7	[76,2; 84,9]	74,2	[69,6; 77,7]

Source: Research data

In the assessment of the items of transactional leadership, in the global sample, it was realized that the item Contingent Reward had the highest average (67.9), while Active Management by Exception, had the lowest average (64.7), but there was no significant difference between them. When filtering the samples by companies, the Company B showed a Contingent Reward average significantly higher than the companies A and C. It is noteworthy that Company B also presented the average of Active Management by Exception higher than company A (Table 5).

Table 5 - Presentation and description of items of transactional leadership among the companies

Transactional Leadership	General		Company A		Company B		Company C	
	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%
Contingent Reward	67,9	[65,1; 70,7]	65,2	[60,4; 69,9]	75,0	[70,4; 79,7]	64,0	[59,5; 68,3]
Active	64,7	[61,9; 67,3]	57,5	[52,6; 62,6]	69,3	[64,3; 74,6]	67,1	[62,8; 70,9]

Management
by Exception

Source: Research data

For the laissez-faire leadership style, after analyzing the overall sample, the average of Passive Management by Exception (46.7) was significantly higher than the average of Laissez-faire (30.2). After collecting samples by companies, the Company A had the lowest average of Passive Management by Exception and Laissez-faire, and the average of Passive Management by Exception in company A was significantly smaller than in the companies B and C (Table 6).

Table 6 - Presentation and description of the items of laissez-faire style among the companies

Laissez-Faire Style	General		Company A		Company B		Company C	
	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%
Passive Management by Exception	46,7	[43,9; 49,5]	39,2	[35,4; 43,0]	53,6	[48,5; 58,6]	47,5	[43,3; 51,9]
Laissez-Faire	30,2	[27,7; 32,8]	26,6	[22,9; 31,0]	33,9	[29,5; 38,3]	30,3	[25,8; 35,3]

Source: Research data

The construct task performance in this work consists of three indicators: deadline, quantity / quality and misalignment with the leader. After analyzing the data, considering the global sample, it is emphasized that the average of the "Deadline" indicator was significantly higher than the "Quantity / Quality" indicator, and the "misalignment with the leader" indicator was the one that presented the lowest average of the three indicators. By isolating the samples, the companies B and C significantly presented a greater average in the "Quantity and Quality" indicator, compared to Company A.

When evaluating the confidence intervals of the Quantity and Quality and Misalignment with the Leader factors, it was noted that the weights were not significant and it was decided to exclude them from the measurement model. Thus, to the measurement of task the only valid factor was "Deadline" (Table 7).

Table 7 - Presentation and description of the items of task performance among the companies

Performance	General		Compnay A		Company B		Company C	
	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%
Deadline	75,7	[73,6; 78,1]	79,3	[75,8; 82,8]	72,3	[68,1; 76,7]	75,5	[71,6; 79,2]
Quantity/ Quality	51,8	[48,9; 54,9]	42,7	[37,1; 48,2]	54,9	[49,5; 60,5]	57,3	[52,7; 62,1]
Misalignment with the Leader	37,1	[34,9; 39,4]	35,5	[32,2; 38,7]	39,4	[34,2; 44,7]	36,5	[32,9; 40,0]

Source: Research data

Context performance was measured by two indicators: pro-social behavior and contextual performance. It is noted that, in the overall sample, the average of contextual performance was significantly higher than pro-social behavior. Comparing the samples of the companies, the Company A significantly presented a greater average of Contextual Performance compared to company B(Table 8).

Table 8 – Presentation and description of the items of context performance among the companies

Performance	General		Company A		Company B		Company C	
	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%	Mean	C.I.-95%
Pro-social Behavior	70,0	[68,3; 71,6]	71,9	[69,3; 74,4]	67,9	[64,9; 70,9]	70,0	[67,1; 72,6]
Contextual Performance	77,0	[75,0; 78,7]	81,7	[79,5; 83,7]	71,7	[67,4; 75,6]	77,4	[74,4; 80,1]

Source: Research data

Regarding the task performance, considering the global sample, it is important to point out that there was a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.320 [0.10; 0.53]) influence of the Transformational Leadership over the Task Performance. Thus, the higher the Transformational Leadership, the greater will be the Task Performance; there was also a significant (p-value =

0.051) and positive (β = 0.144 [0.00; 0.33]) influence of the Transactional Leadership. Thus, the higher the Transactional Leadership, the greater will be the Task Performance. The Laissez-Faire style did not significantly influence the Task Performance. Together, the three indicators mentioned above can explain 17.9% [9.5% - 29%] of the Task Performance variability.

To the "context" aspect of the performance, still considering the global sample, it is emphasized that there was a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.344 [0.11; 0.54]) influence of the Transformational Leadership over the Contextual Performance. Then, the higher the Transformational Leadership, the greater will be the Contextual Performance. A prominent point in the overall sample is that the Transactional and Laissez-Faire styles did not significantly influence the Context Performance. Together, the three indicators mentioned above can explain 18.8% [11.2% - 29.5%] of the Contextual Performance variability.

After analyzing the sample by company, in other words, the multi-group analysis, the relationship of the leadership style over the performance varied according to the surveyed universe. So, on task performance it was observed that in the companies A and C there was a significant influence of the transformational leadership over the task performance, and in the company B this has not happened. For transactional leadership the result was inversed. While in the company B there was a significant and positive influence over task performance, in the companies A and C this was not confirmed. Another relevant point of analysis is that in the companies A, B and C there was no significant influence of the Laissez-faire style over the task performance.

The results for context performance, considering the multi-group analysis, showed that in the companies A and C there was a significant influence of the transformational leadership. This was not seen in the company B. For transactional leadership in the company A there was a significant and positive influence. This result was not repeated in the companies B and C. The laissez-faire leadership, as well as the overall sample, did not influence the contextual performance (multi-group).

Of the three leadership styles, the laissez-faire style was the only one that, although in different contexts, equally presented the following result: there was no significant influence of the Laissez-faire Style over the task and context performances in the companies A, B and C.

An interesting environment to highlight is the company A. In it, besides the transformational style, the transactional style also influenced the context performance, unlike the companies B and C. This result is different of the overall sample result. The Company A is an entity representative of trade. Probably this fact helps to understand such result. The transactional style is based on exchange, then, it is assumed that the commercial culture rooted in such an institution has contributed to this result.

Another important point is the lack of influence of any leadership style in the context performance of Company B. Taking into account that the context performance is linked to the extra-role activities and contributes indirectly to the task performance, it was expected that the result was compatible with the overall sample, i.e., influenced by the transformational style. The professionals of the Company B, for the most part, have completed high school. This may be an indicative of difficulties in understanding the research instrument.

The research of the relationship between leadership and the task and context performances of the follower, in different contexts, revealed that the associations made by Rickards, Chen & Moger (2001); Sosik, Avolio, Kahai & Jung (1998)in the late nineties about the positive relationship between leadership, especially the transformational style, and performance, whether of task or context, still make sense. This is because the leadership is still considered one of the key driving forces to improve the people's performance (Zhu; Chew & Spangler, 2005).

It is worth noting that, according to Purvanova, Bono & Dzieweczynski (2006), several researchers, including Podsakoff, Mackenzie & Bommer (1996) have argued that, although the

effects of the transformational leadership on task performance are important, the effects of the transformational leadership on extra-role behaviors could be even more significant. A prominent point of this research is based on the fact of studying, in addition to task performance, the effects of the leadership styles on the context performance of the follower. What these authors argued was confirmed in this study, since there was, in the overall sample and in companies A and C, a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.344 [0.11; 0.54]) influence of the transformational leadership over the contextual performance. Thus, the higher the Transformational Leadership, the greater will be the Contextual Performance.

Final Considerations

This research aimed to investigate the influence of certain leadership styles in the follower's performance. For Performance polarity, the Task and Context aspects were considered.

The data demonstrated that in the global sample, the Transformational leadership style, unlike Transactional and Laissez-Faire, exerted a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.320 [0.10; 0.53]) influence on Task and Context Performances. There was also a significant (p-value = 0.051) and positive (β = 0.144 [0.00; 0.33]) influence of the Transactional Leadership. In multi-group analysis, the results were different for each context studied, however, to the laissez-faire style the result remained the same of the overall sample.

Regarding the structural model, it is noted that it presented a GoF of 38.7%, indicating a reasonable adjustment of the model. An item to be mentioned is the task indicators. Of the three indicators, only "Deadline" was considered relevant to measure task performance. Quantity / Quality and Misalignment with the Leader were not considered relevant indicators for such variable. This result allows us to suggest new studies able to recommend efficient new indicators to measure this variable. If productivity and misalignment with the manager do not measure task, what, in addition to "Deadline", can measure it effectively?

Another limiting factor of the research is the number of sample for multi-group analysis. The overall sample consisted of 300 people distributed between the three companies surveyed. For multi-groups analysis, it is suggested that it should be made with superior samples, ensuring a greater credibility of the achieved results.

The relevance to the Academy is based on the fact that it is preponderant to identify the Leadership Styles capable of influencing the performance, besides the fact that little researches have been dedicated to link the potential effects of certain leadership styles in the task and context performances of the follower. Added to this, there is the fact that this research is another contribution of empirical studies, at national level, that relates the two topics - Leadership and Performance, considering for the latter, the dimensions of task and context of the performance.

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INFLUENCE OF PAY PERFORMANCE, PAYROLL, SALES FORCE COMPENSATION, MOTIVATION, IDENTIFICATION AND SPIFFS IN PERFORMANCE SALES STAFF

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to understand why and how vendors of large format printers get involved on the sale of equipment and if the (monetary) compensation of the sales force directs and allows the focus intended by manufacturers. The methodological strategy used was the quantitative and descriptive. Forty-three printer sellers participated of the study. In convergent validity, the construct identification showed the highest weight (0.433), followed by remuneration (0.367), facilitators (0.153), asset specificity (0.1490), conflicts (0.139) and control systems (0.060). The biggest influence on the sales effort refers to the organizational identification and remuneration. Accounting for 27% of the weight, or nearly one third, the construct Remuneration positively influences the sales efforts, consolidating H5.

Introduction

In globalized trade, without geographical limits for purchases, the business competitiveness challenges traditional evaluation criteria for the competitive advantages due to customer maturity and consumer awareness, stricter environmental laws, visibility and no geographic limitation provided by the Internet and e-commerce, discussion groups and social networks.

In the sales area, a company's success is partly due to its capacity to energize its members into supporting their brands (Hughes and Ahearne, 2010). Another equally important factor is the guidance behind the salesperson's extrinsic motivations. The comprehension of the factors which directly guide the motivation of the sales team and how these vary in different contexts is essential for managers and researchers of this area (Verbeke et al., 2011). Hughes and Ahearne (2010) explored a less formal mechanism of influence which is potentially available to both the manufacturer as well as the retailer in their attempts to gain the salesperson's fidelity: and that is identification.

The criteria commonly used to obtain business advantages that can result in experiences valued by the customer and that meet their needs and expectations are met every day in a different way and in a niche by some manufacturer, vendor or reseller channel, and then quickly copied by others. Customers buy for different reasons and different clients became aware and engage with a product in different ways. Understanding these differences is the daily challenge of the seller to achieve success in competitiveness (Slywotzky,1996; Davenport 2001,p.3; Dutra,2008; Hughes & Ahearne,2010) .

From these observations, this article attempted to respond the following research query: What is the influence of identification, payroll, control systems, facilitators of the sales process, conflicts and differentiation on products/services on sales staffs' motivation? The inclusion of such a large number of factors justified by the observation in the field which was studied and extensive literature on the area, which has identified several elements with substantial weight, but until this date no work which combines these elements in a single study was identified. Here were considered intrinsic motivation (explained by the construct identification) and extrinsic motivation (explained by other constructs).

Literature Review

According to Steers, Mowday and Shapiro (2004), motivation is a derivative of the Latin word movere, meaning movement. Its importance in the workplace is captured by the equation introduced by Maier (1955): job performance = ability x motivation. This equation succinctly explains why the subject of motivation is a cornerstone in the fields of human resource management (Latham, 2012). The explanation for why a person in a given situation selects one response over another or makes a given response with a great energization or frequency is the concept of motivation, according to Oettingen and Gollwitzer (2010).

According to the expectancy theory of Vroom (1964), motivation arises from the simultaneous realization that more effort will lead to better performance (instrumentality), that the best performance will lead to reward (expectancy) and that this reward has attractiveness (valence). Therefore, there is no reason to believe that work is the same means to an end to different individuals. People differ in their desires and distastes. For that reason, simple generalizations over why one works or doesn't work are without sense.

The performance from the multi-dimensional perspective, according to Bendassolli & Malvezzi (2013), is defined as a set of behaviors or actions guided by a purpose of transformation that provides value generation. For these authors conceptualize the theme is a challenge, being common harness it to results, efficiency and value, considering them performance synonyms. However, in light of studies of the mentioned authors, it is stated that, although subtle, there are differences between them, namely: (1) performance are behaviors, actions oriented for the purpose of transforming reality; (2) result is the consequence of behaviors or actions; (3) efficiency is the evaluation of performance results based on certain standards or criteria; (4) productivity is the ratio between efficiency and the costs of the inputs used in the result generation process.

Barbosa (1996) defines performance as a socially legitimate mechanism that enables the society, in general, to evaluate, differentiate, prioritize and reward people. Thus, the author considers the performance as a more individual than social mechanism. Chaguri (2000) says that the performance is "[...] a set of professional and personal activities that allow the realization of a work, or a set of tasks within parameters or criteria previously established by the company, or tacitly defined in time".

Hughes & Ahearne (2010) describe that some authors suggest that the identification based on work is among the strongest and most penetrating social identities, due to the amount of time that a common person spends in a work environment and because of the importance of the work for their livelihood and well-being. When an individual identifies himself/herself with an organization, his/her perceptions about the members of this organization are incorporated into his/her overall self-concept. Thus, the organizational identification can be conceptualized as the perception of unity or belonging in relation to the organization.

Cooper & Thatcher (2010) suggest encouraging the identification as a facet of the organization. Hughes & Ahearne (2010) point out that the organizational identification generates greater effort, higher performance, greater job satisfaction, lower employee turnover, as well as it strengthen cooperation and the organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, these authors define the behaviors of extra effort as proactive behaviors by employees and behaviors that are outside the scope of the job description, but that adds to the viability and vitality of the company, generating profits.

According to Cooper et al. (2010), the organizations should direct the intentions and behaviors of the employees seeking organizational identification, due to one of these six reasons: self-development, self-consistency, personalized belonging to a small group or positive interpersonal

relationships, depersonalized belonging to a larger community or organization, self-expansion and reducing uncertainty.

Therefore, the organizational identification represents the cognitive link between the definitions of the organization and the definitions of oneself. It follows that there is a greater connection between the organizational goals and the goals of the employee when the organizational identification is high. Personal goals have a strong motivating effect on behavior. The organizational identification should moderate the impact of the distribution control systems in the relative effort applied by the individual on behalf of the organizational entity (Hughes & Ahearne, 2010).

It is emphasized that to leverage a high level of organizational identity, the employers must hire and retain employees whose values are similar to the values of the organization. The companies want to retain the employees with best performance (Deconinck, 2011).

Wieseke et al. (2012), describe that the competitive intensity promotes the identification, both at work and staff and at organizational levels.

In the search for performance, there are many variables that can influence the employee, but this depends on the labor context and Zoltners et al (2006) provide five key decisions to direct the effectiveness of the sales force aiming performance, and they are: Sales, profits and market share results; Customer results; Activities of the sales force; Sellers; Targeting of the effectiveness of the sales force. The modern forms of variable remuneration, euphemism for remuneration dependent of performance, have developed rapidly in the business world because they are forms that adapt to the production system with the minimum amount of capital. When the employee shares results, he or she tends to be a professional much more responsible in performing his/her tasks. This values the employee and integrates him/her in the organizational life and development through a relationship in which everyone can win. The Spiff is a prize with a value previously established for the sale of a particular product for a period of time. Unlike a sales competition, which can only reward a number of sellers ordered from the first to fifth place for example, the Spiff awards by product.

Methodology

The methodological strategy used was the quantitative technique, as to the purposes was descriptive (Gil, 1999). The survey was conducted in a company whose business refers to the sale of printers. It was applied the structured questionnaire and the items was assessed on a linear scale of -5 to 5, and it was assumed that averages above 0 indicate influence of the item in the sales effort.

The hypothetical model (Figure 1) was based on the 8 hypotheses presented below:

H1 - Higher levels of brand identification: (a) the results of sales efforts increase regardless of whether the management and control systems of the distribution channel are aligned with the brand and; (b) reinforce favorable impact of aligning of the management and control systems of the distribution channel on the sales effort, as they soften a negative effect of low alignment of the management and control systems of the distribution channel on the sales effort.

H2 - Higher levels of seller identification strengthen the sales effort when the alignment of the management and control systems of the distribution channel is high, but weaken the sales effort when the alignment of the management and control systems of the distribution channel is low.

H3 - Higher sales effort results in increased sales performance.

H4 - This hypothesis was divided into two parts, "a" and "b", to meet two strands.

H4a - The first strand: the client closes the purchase at sales point. Because of the relationship, the facilities and the switching cost, it is justified the need for *showroom*, trained and certified vendors, strong brand and geographic location.

H4b - the second strand: the asset specificity cause conflicts because of the investment, maintenance and expenses to the distributor. The customer is not forced to buy of the local distributor.

H5 - The identification is associated to the demonstration of the seller of extra efforts behaviors of sales.

The H5 hypothesis of Hughes & Ahearne (2010) was adapted for the remuneration strategies, directing the extra efforts behaviors by the sales force.

H6 - Extra effort or extra-roles behaviors have a positive influence on sales performance.

The basis of the questions in the questionnaire refers to the works of the authors Hughes & Ahearne (2010); Zoltners et al. (2006); Neves Fava (1999); Porter (1980); Coughlan et al. (2002); Stern et al. (1996) and Rosembloon et al. (1999).

Figure 1 – Hypothetical model
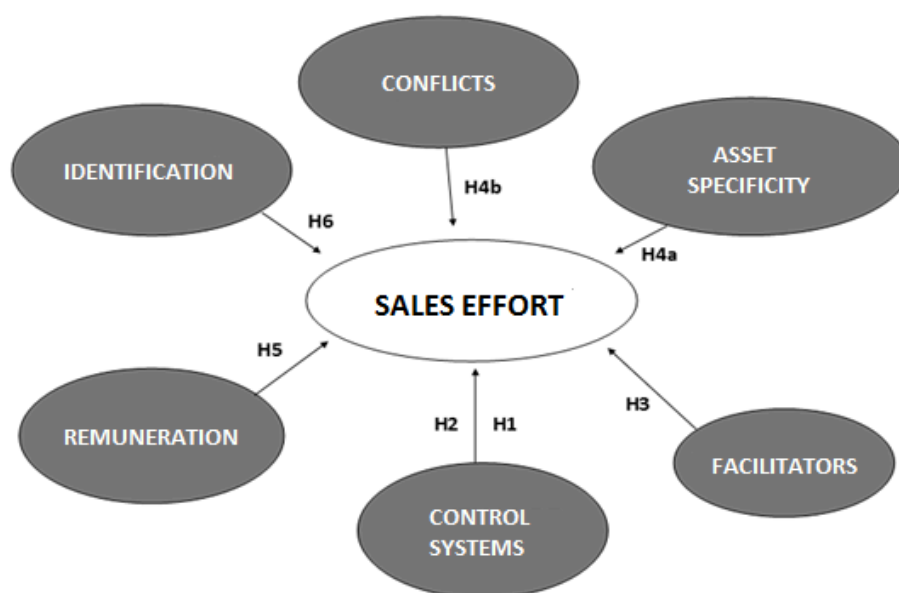
Source: Data from the authors

Considering the hypotheses of Hughes & Ahearne (2010), adapted and inserted in the context of provision and sale of wide format printers, control systems and remuneration strategies, it was proposed the following hypothetical model to confirm the adapted hypotheses (Figure 2):

Figure 2 – Proposed hypothetical model II
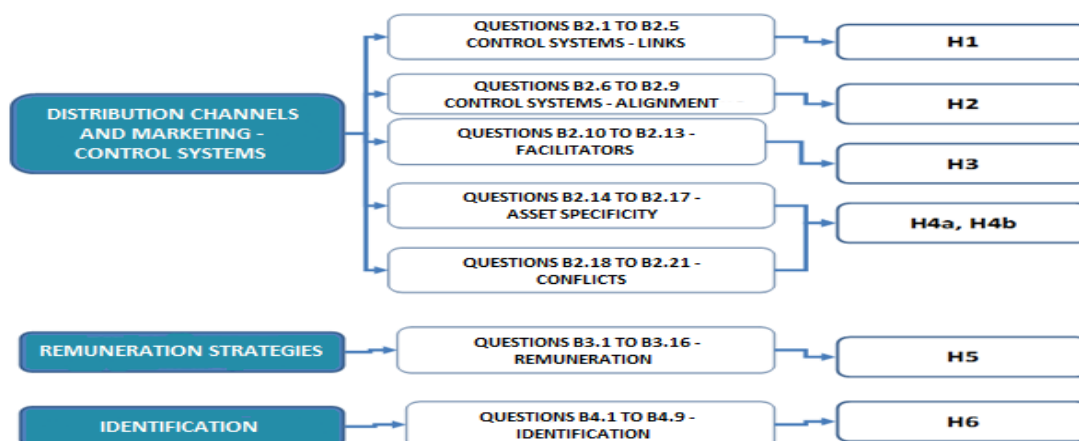
Source: Data from the authors

For Figure 1 it was used the Smart PLS 2.0 M3 software, which was better applied to the study, constructs and sample size. The validation of the model was performed through structural equation modeling by Partial Least Squares (PLS) method and it was also applied the Linear Structural Relationships method (LISREL) (Chin, 1998) for exploratory studies.

Results and Discussions

Forty-three printer sellers participated of the study, being a representative sample in the context of the study. In convergent validity, the construct identification showed the highest weight (0.433), followed by remuneration (0.367), facilitators (0.153), asset specificity (0.1490), conflicts (0.139) and control systems (0.060). The biggest influence on the sales effort refers to the organizational identification and remuneration.

The same happens to the constructs organizational identification and remuneration. The organizations are every day more diversified and it is crucial that the organizational identification is encouraged and managed (Cooper et al., 2010).

In Table 1, the item conflicts has a negative average (-1.1), indicating that the items that comprise this construct do not stimulate the sales effort. It is also observed that the asset specificity has the highest average (4.3), considering that the majority of respondents are in the Southeast region and that most of trade fairs and demonstrations take place in this region. However, the most weight was in the construct sales effort - is related to the construct identification (weight equal to 0.433). The control system is the construct with less impact of influence in the sales efforts.

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics – Evaluated constructs

Item	95% confidence interval for the average			Standard deviation	Weight
	Inferior limit	Average	Superior limit		
Conflicts	-1,8	-1,1	-0,4	2,3	0,139
Asset specificity	4,1	4,3	4,5	0,7	0,149
Facilitators	3,7	4,0	4,4	1,1	0,153
Identification	3,2	3,5	3,9	1,2	0,433
Remuneration	2,6	3,2	3,7	1,7	0,357
Control systems	1,3	1,9	2,5	1,7	0,060
Sales effort	3,3	3,6	4,0	1,0	

Source: Elaborated by the authors

The figure 3 shows the model resulting in the SmartPLS. The construct with more weight was the construct identification, followed by the construct remuneration. Both items are presented as the most influential in the sales effort.

Figure 3 – Adjusted model
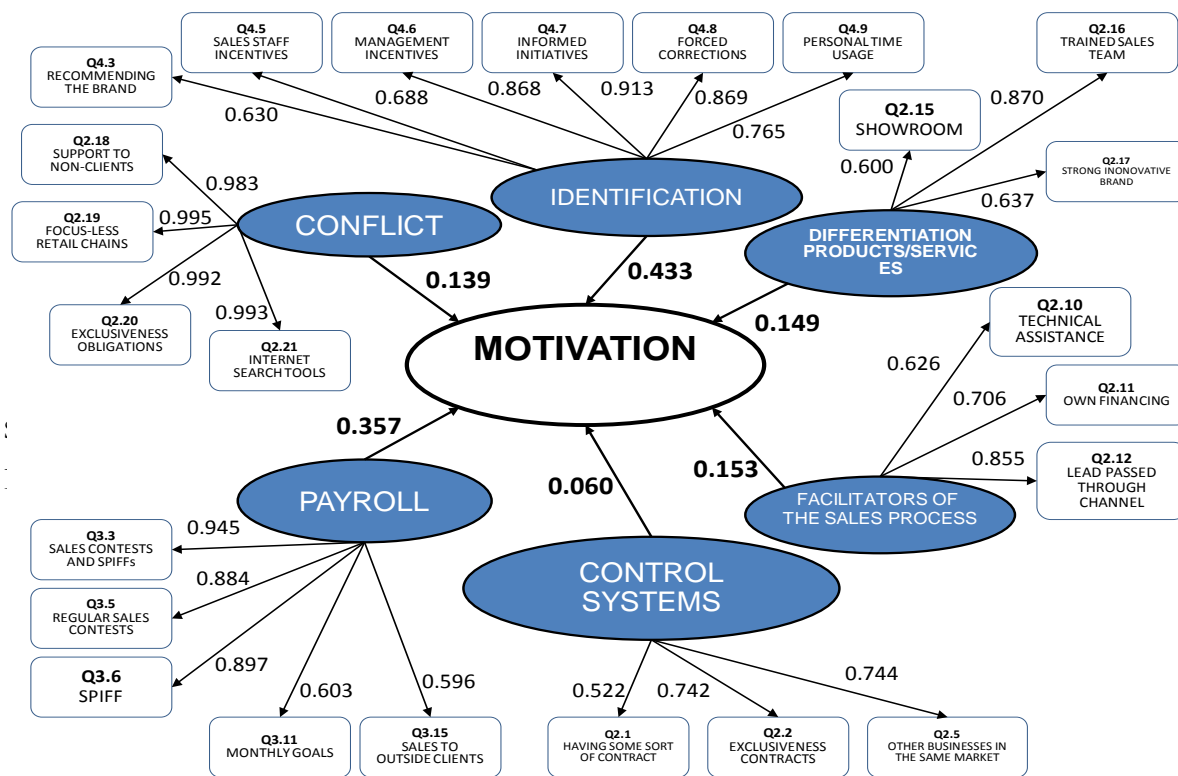
| Remuneration | 0,64 | 0,90 | 0,85 |
| Control Systems | 0,46 | 0,71 | 0,49 |

Source: Elaborated by the authors

The results of Table 3 attest to the existence of discriminant validity for all constructs.

Table 3 - Cross Loads of latent variables

	Conflicts	Asset Specificity	Facilitators	Identification	Remuneration	Control Systems
Conflicts	0,99					
Asset Specificity	0,19	0,71				
Facilitators	0,13	0,70	0,73			
Identification	0,11	0,56	0,60	0,80		
Remuneration	0,10	0,56	0,55	0,77	0,80	
Control Systems	0,15	0,27	0,06	0,28	0,33	0,68

Source: Elaborated by the authors

All constructs had the reliability evaluation surpassed in the required parameters. As described by Hughes & Ahearne (2010), the relationship between the general variable performance of sales is a function not only of the sales performance, but also of the alignment of the management and control systems of the distribution channel. The construct management and control systems of the distribution channel turned out to be of low disagreement in the construct items, consolidating H1, and it revealed accession of the seller to the control systems, training and certifications, and links with the brand or manufacturer.

With the lowest impact on sales efforts, the construct management and control systems of the distribution channel revealed high disagreement with respect to the item management and

control system, putting H2 as an hypothesis of lower weight which does not influence the sales efforts, and may even discourage them, in part, because the low commercial life cycle of the printers competes with the installed base which has an average life cycle greater than six years. Lower margins are compensated by higher volumes, causing an acceleration of the technologies developments. Due to the launching of lines each year, the ink and parts supplies are incompatible with the installed base and the printers in line. The inventory in the channel, because of the number of lines of printers on the market, removes working capital resources and the possibility of investments.

The construct "facilitator" had the third largest weight statistically. The items technical assistance, funding, transfer of leads and stock of printers for immediate delivery, reinforce the sales work, facilitate the customer's life in need of support and exchange of pieces, accelerate the sale with own funding, accelerate the sale with information of interested customers and finalize delivering fast with stock for immediate delivery, consolidating H3 and confirming the positive influence in generating sales efforts.

The construct "asset specificity" had one of the lowest levels of disagreement and in relation to the *showrooming* expression and the content on the Internet to search the customer's attention and to offer price, Li, Charlene & Bernoff (2009) mention that there is evidence that the sophisticated consumption is less susceptible to the traditional advertising and, more and more, the purchase decisions are made at the point of sale. For this reason, there are companies in the channel who defend the investment in printers for demonstration and showroom with ready applications, some even defending the regular implementation of application courses and "hands-on".

Thus, this construct positively influence sales efforts, consolidating H4a. Li et al. (2009) also point out that, in business to business markets, the supplier is now facing a customer more demanding and less easily persuaded by marketing. One consequence of this change is the gradual decline of brand loyalty in many markets. Fidelity has been replaced by preference. In this sense, the client seeks the awareness and the *showrooming* in a local distributor. Then, he or she search for prices on the internet. There are bargain of prices in unfocused distributors, such as chain stores, at the same time of the exclusivity obligation to the local distributor. These experiences do not generate sales efforts.

The construct "conflicts" to H4b has a negative average on statistics, not stimulating or negatively influencing sales efforts. For the local distributor is demotivating, for a chain of stores only brings profit and increase in the average ticket, causing it to gain a new "ready" customer, and, for the manufacturer, it's just a sale. In the context of the Damasio (2010) hypothesis, there are somatic markers for the sellers that can harm the building of lasting relationships with customers and even with the employer. If the seller realizes that the distributor has no power to change the repeated loss of sales scenario, he or she is discouraged and may wish to leave the company.

The items of the construct Remuneration have the second largest weight in generating sales efforts. Accounting for 27% of the weight, or nearly one third, the construct Remuneration positively influences the sales efforts, consolidating H5.

The items of the construct Identification have the greatest weight in the analysis to generate sales efforts. Representing more than a third of the weight, the identification with the organization energizes the seller to extra behaviors and extra sales efforts. As previously mentioned the remuneration is fundamental but is not the only way to drive the vendor. When the seller identify himself/herself with the organization, he or she develops actions outside office hours, such as trips, demonstrations and other attitudes that are necessary for sale, not measuring efforts, consolidating H6.

Back to TOC

The marketing channels seek to reach the sellers directly, contradicting their contractors, in the form of awards and Spiff's, identified clothing, computer equipment for telework and sales contests with prizes in travel, with or without training in factories and abroad.

These actions are aimed directly to the identification with the organization, reducing the time that the seller dedicates to other brands or equipment and even directing the technical knowledge. With the decentralization of knowledge, the capillarity of distributors and customers dilutes the risk decreasing the strength of large groups, forcing the competitiveness and the performance in all areas and, finally, gaining a satisfied customer.

Considerations

The proposed model was statistically confirmed with the set of studied constructs, which were: management and control systems of the distribution channel, facilitators, asset specificity, conflicts, remuneration and identification. The hypotheses H1, H3, H4a, H5 and H6 were confirmed and the hypotheses H2 and H4b have not been confirmed.

The proposed model confirm that the organizational identification influences on individual and organizational performance (Deconinck, 2011). The study had a limitation due to the size of the sample. It is suggested to investigate which constructs would have greater influence in generating sales efforts and facilitators.

Considering the empirical data obtained in the making of this research, it was established through exploratory study that the Identification construct contains the greatest weight in explaining sales staff's Motivation and payroll being the runner-up, also possesses a significant impact in the process. The chosen instrument for this research was created through an adaptation of the Hughes & Ahearne (2010) e and theoretical meta-analysis milestone of Verbeke et al. (2011), presenting a model which illustrates motivation records of salespeople working with the sale of large format printers, as shown in Fig.3.

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THE MANAGER'S ATTITUDE IN FACE OF THE PERCEPTION OF UNWANTED PERFORMANCE IN SUBORDINATES

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to identify the attitudes that managers adopt in face of the perception of subordinates with low performance at the intellectual, affective and psychomotor dimensions. The research approach was quantitative and as for the purpose was descriptive and explanatory. Hypothesis (N=9) were raised and was applied a questionnaire in 451 managers. The H2 for emotional intelligence, the H4 and H9 for attitude and emotional intelligence were confirmed. In the joint analysis, considering the affective dimension, it was observed that the managers take the attitude to ignore, nullify and neutralize or insist, coach and develop in relation to the subordinate with poor performance, but does not adopt the attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit.

Introduction

According to Rocha (2002), the work world has required of professionals constant improvement and the use of many skills that the individuals not always possess or don't know in what degree they possess it. Therefore, the perception of other people with whom the employees relate in their daily routine, among them their managers, becomes essential for the individual improvement and the team result.

Gramigna (2007) reinforces the importance of people management exemplifying that the organizations that are on the podium today have as competitive advantage the attention directed to the human matter of the organization. In this situation, no longer exists the employee loyalty to the company and thus, if such loyalty is focused only on technologies, the loss of the top talents will be an inevitable reflect. In general, the company must develop effective and integrated work and management processes, maintaining the proper ratio in the human and machines investment.

The aim of the study was to identify the attitudes that managers adopt in face of the perception of subordinates with low performance at the intellectual, affective and psychomotor dimensions.

Theoretical Framework

Gianotti (2008) brings this question seeking to demonstrate that the employee is the source and the thermometer to measure how effective is being the management performed about him/her. The best source of information for the creation of strategies that meet the team and keep it motivated and enthusiastic is the team itself. There are no positive results if the company's goals are not linked to the needs of their employees. Each individual, in turn, has his/her own style, preferences, values and ways of thinking and acting, and the managers must then adapt themselves to these characteristics and peculiarities.

The learning generated with shared experiences feeds the hope for changes and for individual development of the limitations (Yalom, 1995). Complementing this reasoning, Gaulejac (2007) points out that companies currently suffer with the measurement disease, also known as *quantofrenia*, where performance is used to define whether the worker should receive

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opportunities or be excluded. Those individuals who adhere to the model and fit in the company desires remain, the others, in turn, are disconnected. In the second alternative usually are framed the professionals who do not have a good performance according to the perception of their manager, and this performance can be tied to the limitation of some of the dimensions that compose the competence.

In empirical researches it is not always demonstrated the influence that the individual competencies have on organizational development. For Brandão, Andrade and Guimarães (2012), this happens because the results of this relationship are not consistent enough. The professionals' attributes are relevant to the company, but they are not sufficient for the company to be developed and reach the expected goals, becoming necessary that all corporate spheres work simultaneously (Abbad, Pilati & Freitas, 2006).

So that the manager can contribute to the mobilization of these skills or understand what dimensions the employee needs to develop to obtain a better performance, he/she needs first to understand that these dimensions exist and to know their characteristics. The cognitive dimension of the competence is related to the knowledge. This knowledge can be developed by the training directed to the employee and by his/her constant development. It represents the knowledge not only of the available resources, but how they can be integrated into their professional activity (Le Boterf, 2003). In addition to this standard concept of "knowledge", the contemporary corporate characteristics made the individual still has the need to "know how to learn" which, according to Le Boterf (2003), means the knowledge gained from experiences.

The Emotional Intelligence is a relatively new theme and has the intention to expand the traditional concept of intelligence, adding to it, aspects related to emotions and feelings. In this line of reasoning, the emotional intelligence represents the ability of human beings to deal with their emotional universe intelligently and consistently with their personal and professional goals (Woyciekoski & Hutz, 2009 Gonzaga & Monteiro, 2011).

Finally, the development of psychomotor skills may be accomplished through the learning process that, according to Pozo (2002), represents a strong change in the individual's behavior able to modify their future actions and choices. Sonnentag, Niessen & Ohly (2004) add that the objective learning process promotes changes in the cognitive, psychomotor and attitudinal domains. This evolution can contribute to the current activities of the individual or for the development of skills needed in future tasks (Freitas & Brandão, 2006).

Methodology

The research approach was quantitative (Collis & Hussey, 2005) and as for the purpose was descriptive and explanatory (Vergara, 2006).

H1 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on the cognitive dimension, managers ignore, nullify and neutralize the employee.

H2 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on the cognitive dimension, managers insist, coach and develop the employee.

H3 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on the cognitive dimension, managers give up, dismiss and transfer the employee.

H4 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on the affective dimension, managers ignore, nullify and neutralize the employee.

H5 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on the affective dimension, managers insist, coach and develop the employee.

H6 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on the affective dimension, managers give up, dismiss and transfer the employee.

H7 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on psychomotor dimension, managers ignore, nullify and neutralize the employee.

H8 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on psychomotor dimension, managers insist, coach and develop the employee.

H9 - Faced with the perception of poor performance on psychomotor dimension, managers give up, dismiss and transfer the employee.

The sample was calculated using the Pasquali (2010) model, resulting in 451 respondents for each category (manager x subordinate). The participants were managers who had a team equal to or greater than five employees and subordinates. According to the author, this method is more linked to the positivist system. The following market branches were addressed: construction, commercial shops and service provision.

The instrument used for data collection was a questionnaire with 7 variables to characterize the interviewed, 6 variables to characterize the subordinate and 34 questions about the object of study, divided into 6 constructs ("Cognitive Dimension", "Affective Dimension ", "Psychomotor Dimension", "Attitudes to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize", "Attitudes to Insist, Coach and Develop" and " Attitudes to Dismiss, Transfer and Discredit").

It was performed the descriptive statistics of the socio-demographic variables. The data processing process was composed for: missing data and outliers analysis, normality verification and linearity of data, characterization of respondents and subordinates, descriptive analysis of the constructs' variables, exploratory factor analysis, structural equation modeling (PLS) measurement model (outer model), structural model (inner model) and multi-group analyses.

Results and Discussions

The study participants were 451 respondents, 62.5% male, 64.7% married; 51.0% of the respondents had only high school, 60.4% of the respondents hold the current position for over three years. For 51.9% of the respondents the received remuneration consists of a fixed amount plus a variable part; 44.6% of the respondents were from public and joint enterprises. Of the respondents, 51.2% were responsible for the admission of the poor performance person into his/her team. And the median age for respondents was 41.0 with an interquartile interval from 33.0 to 50.0.

The **Q6** item "It is necessary to give the same orientation more than once so that the person understands " had a higher average compared to the other items of the Cognitive Dimension construct; the **Q11** item "The individual presents relationship difficulties with co-workers" had a lower average compared to the other items of the Affective Dimension construct; the **Q13** item "The individual has limitations in the face of unforeseen events" presented a lower average compared to the other items of the Psychomotor Dimension construct; the **Q18** item "I gave to this individual the same treatment that I dispense to the rest of the team" had a higher average compared to the other items of the construct Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize; the **Q27** item "I sought guidance on HR about how to act" had a lower average compared to the other items of the construct Insist, Coach and Develop; the **Q32** item "I dismissed (or I will dismiss) the

individual of the organization" had a higher average compared to the other items of the construct Dismiss, Transfer and Discredit; the items **Q9**, **Q14**, **Q20**, **Q23**, **Q33** and **Q34** were significantly higher in "Public and Mixed companies" compared to the "Construction and Service Provision Private Companies", while **Q18** and **Q32** were significantly higher in "Construction and Service Provision Private Companies" compared the "Public and Mixed companies".

The validity and quality of the constructs supporting the creation of latent variables since that 8 items (**Q13**, **Q18**, **Q19**, **Q20**, **Q27**, **Q28**, **Q33**, **Q35**) were excluded, 1 of the PD construct, 3 of the INN construct, 2 of the ICD construct and 2 of the DTD construct.

It is noteworthy that all factor loadings showed values above 0.50, except the Q34-Inv item. In Table 1 are presented the analysis of convergent validity, discriminant validity, dimensionality and reliability of the constructs.

Table 1 - Measurement Model Validation – Initial

Constructs	Items	CA	DG	1ª av	2ª av	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
1 Cognitive Dimension	5	0,79	0,86	2,74	0,83	0,54					
2 Affective Dimension	5	0,74	0,83	2,47	0,82	0,49	0,20				
3 Psychomotor Dimension	4	0,77	0,85	2,37	0,62	0,59	0,17	0,09			
4 Attitude to ignore, nullify and neutralize	4	0,73	0,83	2,24	0,92	0,55	0,01	0,02	0,01		
5 Attitude to insist, coach and develop	5	0,75	0,83	2,52	0,92	0,49	0,02	0,04	0,00	0,00	
6 Attitude to dismiss	3	0,70	0,84	1,90	0,77	0,52	0,01	0,01	0,05	0,00	0,00

Source: Research data

It is noteworthy that all constructs had their reliability demonstrated by presenting CA and DG indices above 0.60.

As the construct attitude to dismiss presented the Q34-Inv item with a factor loadings lower than 0.50 in the measurement model, it was decided to exclude this item.

In Table 2 is presented the structural model which considers as endogenous variables (dependents) the constructs "Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize", "Insist, Coach and Develop" and "Dismiss, Transfer and Discredit".

Table 2 - Structural Model

Dependents	Independents	B	C.I - 95%	S.E.(β)	P-value	R²
Attitude to ignore, nullify and neutralize	CD	0,038	[-0,07; 0,15]	0,055	0,491	
	AD	0,126	[0,05; 0,27]	0,053	0,017	2,71%
	PD	0,039	[-0,09; 0,14]	0,052	0,449	
Attitude to insist, coach and develop	CD	0,059	[-0,04; 0,20]	0,055	0,284	
	AD	0,173	[0,08; 0,29]	0,052	0,001	4,12%
	PD	-0,008	[-0,15; 0,11]	0,052	0,875	
Attitude to dismiss	CD	0,040	[-0,09; 0,16]	0,055	0,472	
	AD	-0,024	[-0,14; 0,07]	0,052	0,652	4,51%
	PD	0,200	[0,10; 0,30]	0,051	0,000	

*Bootstrap validation; GoF = 14.46%

Source: Research data

Therefore, regarding the **Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize**, it was noted that there is a significant (p-value = 0.017) and positive (β = 0.126 [0.05; 0.27]) influence of the affective dimension on the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize. Thus, the greater the affection, more frequent it is the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize. The cognitive and psychomotor dimensions did not influence the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize.

Together, the three indicators mentioned above can explain 2.71% of the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize variability.

Regarding the **Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop**, it was noted that there is a significant (p-value = 0.001) and positive (β = 0.173 [0.08, 0.29]) influence of the affective dimension on the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop. Thus, the greater the affection, more frequent it is the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop. The cognitive and psychomotor dimensions did not significantly influence the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop. The three dimensions (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) can explain 4.12% of the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop variability.

Regarding the **Attitude to Dismiss, Transfer and Discredit**, it was noted that that there is a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.200 [0.10, 0.30]) influence of the psychomotor dimension on the Attitude to Dismiss, Transfer and Discredit. Thus, the higher the values for this dimension, more frequent will be the attitude to dismiss. The cognitive and affective dimensions did not significantly influence the attitude to dismiss. The three dimensions (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) were able to explain 4.51% of the attitude to dismiss variability.

The Table 3 shows the relationships between the cognitive, affective and psychomotor dimensions with the attitudes in each group.

Table 3: Comparison of the structural model among respondents from public and mixed companies, private commercial companies and construction and service provision private companies.

Dep.	Indep.	Public and Mixed Comp.				Priv. Commercial Comp.				Const. e Serv. Prov. Priv. Comp.			
		β	C.I - 95%	P-value	R²	B	C.I - 95%	P-value	R²	β	C.I - 95%	P-value	R²
INN	CD	0,137	[-0,21; 0,32]	0,135		0,008	[-0,18; 0,21]	0,920		-0,005	[-0,22; 0,28]	0,967	
	AD	0,063	[-0,33; 0,32]	0,474	10,30%	0,060	[-0,19; 0,24]	0,444	1,87%	0,390	[0,14; 0,55]	0,000	13,93%
	PD	0,223	[-0,02; 0,42]	0,011		0,101	[-0,21; 0,24]	0,198		-0,058	[-0,37; 0,21]	0,568	
ICD	CD	0,098	[-0,30; 0,33]	0,301		0,029	[-0,18; 0,24]	0,724		0,220	[-0,24; 0,47]	0,062	
	AD	0,103	[-0,31; 0,42]	0,260	3,64%	0,236	[0,09; 0,39]	0,002	7,16%	0,146	[-0,27; 0,38]	0,187	8,54%
	PD	0,056	[-0,25; 0,29]	0,535		0,044	[-0,20; 0,23]	0,562		-0,098	[-0,34; 0,19]	0,347	
Dism.	CD	0,040	[-0,34; 0,25]	0,672		0,022	[-0,19; 0,19]	0,791		0,056	[-0,21; 0,29]	0,636	
	AD	0,054	[-0,33; 0,38]	0,551	5,38%	0,046	[-0,15; 0,23]	0,558	4,94%	0,005	[-0,24; 0,21]	0,962	7,24%
	PD	0,197	[-0,25; 0,33]	0,029		0,193	[0,04; 0,34]	0,013		0,237	[0,02; 0,43]	0,026	
GOF		0,177				0,162				0,231			

Source: Research data

The data in table 3 show the Affective Dimension positively influencing the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize for construction and service provision private companies, unlike the respondents from public and mixed companies that present a positive influence of the Psychomotor Dimension on the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize.

The Affective Dimension also positively influences the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop for private commercial companies, and the Psychomotor Dimension, in turn, positively influences the Attitude to Dismiss among respondents of all types of companies. The Figure 1

and Figure 2 illustrate the model for the group of public and mixed companies and the group of private commercial companies, respectively. The Figure 3 illustrates the construction and service provision private companies.

Figure 1 - Structural model for respondents from public and mixed companies.

GoF = 0,177
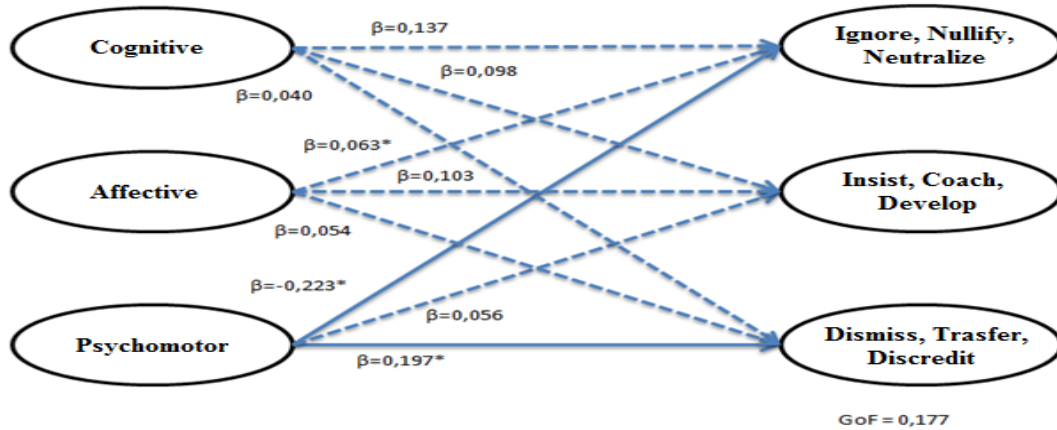
Source: Research data

Figure 2 - Structural Model for respondents from private commercial companies.

GoF = 0,162
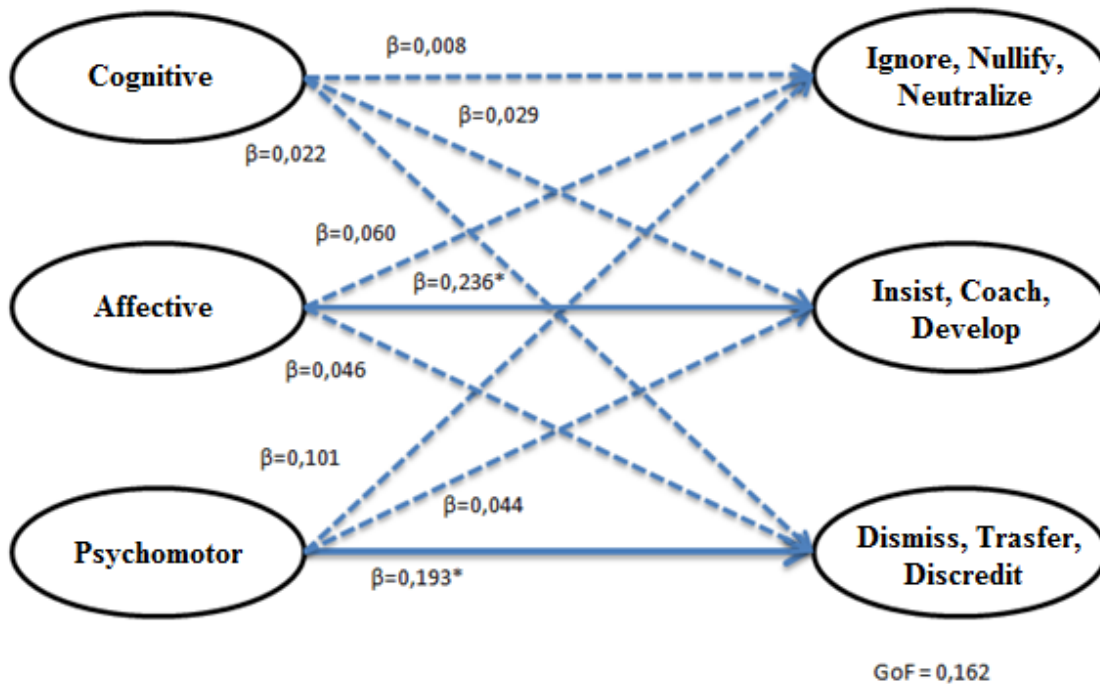
Source: Research data

Figure 3 - Illustration of the structural model for respondents from construction and service provision private companies.
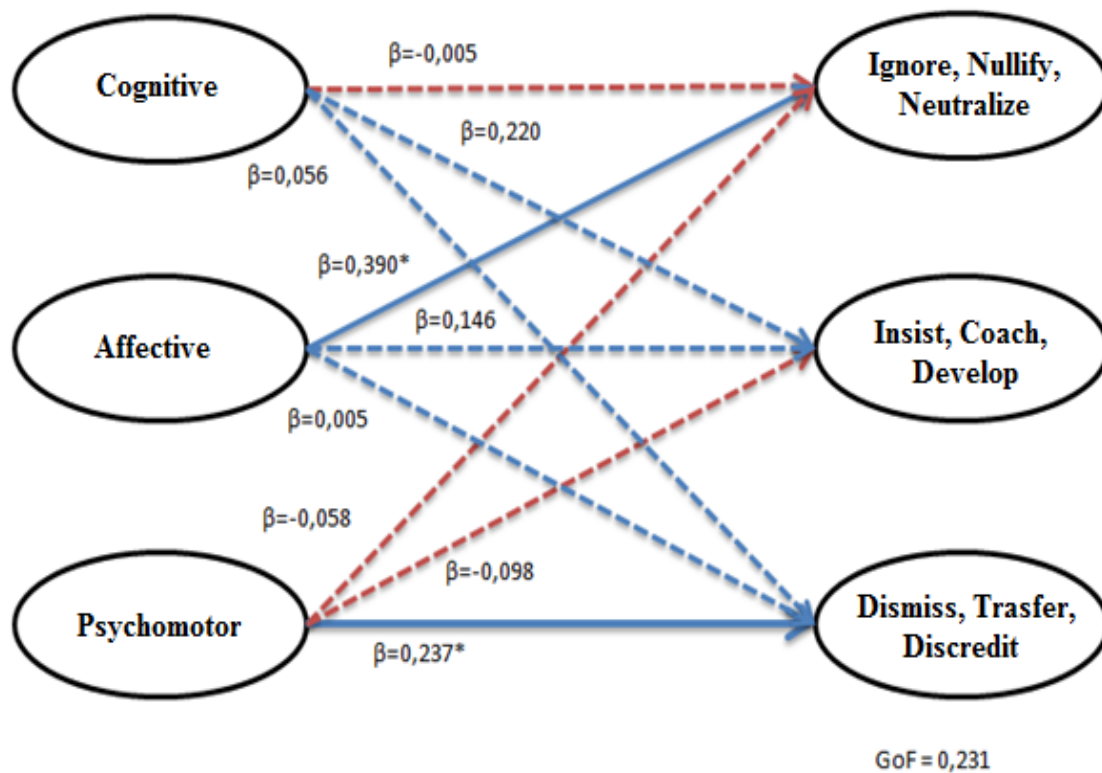
Source: Research data

Therefore, regarding the **Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize**, there is a significant (p-value = 0.017) and positive (β = 0.126 [0.05; 0.27]) influence from the Affective Dimension. Thus, the greater the limitation of emotional intelligence, more frequent it is the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize. The cognitive and psychomotor dimensions did not significantly influence the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize. Together, the three indicators mentioned above can explain 2.71% of the Attitude to Ignore, Nullify and Neutralize variability.

Regarding the **Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop**, there is a significant (p-value = 0.001) and positive (β = 0.173 [0.08, 0.29]) influence from the Affective Dimension. Thus, the greater the limitation of emotional intelligence, more frequent it is the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop. The cognitive and psychomotor dimensions did not significantly influence the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop and three dimensions (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) can explain 4.12% of the Attitude to Insist, Coach and Develop variability.

Regarding the **Attitude to Dismiss, Transfer and Discredit**, there is a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.200 [0.10, 0.30]) influence from the Psychomotor Dimension. Thus, the higher the values for this dimension, more frequent will be the Attitude to Dismiss. The cognitive and affective dimensions did not significantly influence the Attitude to Dismiss and the three dimensions (cognitive, affective and psychomotor) can explain 4.51% of the Attitude to Dismiss' variability.

The H2 for emotional intelligence, the H4 and H9 for attitude and emotional intelligence were confirmed and there were no other hypotheses confirmed. In the joint analysis, considering the affective dimension, it was observed that the managers take the attitude to ignore, nullify and neutralize or to insist, coach and develop in relation to the underperforming subordinate, but does not adopt the attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit. It is understood with all this information that when the subordinate has a limitation of emotional intelligence and

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consequently poor performance in this dimension, the manager is tolerant, demonstrating that this is not the most serious difficulty that the employee may have. It is seen in this context another possibility of understanding which corresponds to the manager's profile that in face of a subordinate with limitation in the affective dimension, chooses to dismiss, and the manager's profile that chooses to ignore. Because this is not part of the focus of the research, there was no further development in this reflection, but it is a possibility for further studies.

With regard to cognitive and psychomotor dimensions, it was not possible to identify influence on attitudes to ignore, nullify and neutralize and to insist, coach and develop. On the other hand, it was possible to confirm a strong relationship between the low performance in psychomotor dimension with the management attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit. This demonstrates that the lower the technical and/or practical ability of the employee, the higher will be the intolerance of the manager, being the dismissal, the transfer and the discredit, measures adopted as a solution to the problem. The cognitive and affective dimensions, in turn, showed no connection with the attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit. This shows that there is a greater tolerance of the managers when the employee's difficulty is demonstrated in these two areas.

This is justified by the different profile of both the manager and the subordinate in each segment and also by the culture of the organizations. The organizations, in turn, can directly influence the course of action of the employees of all levels. It was identified, for example, that in the public and mixed companies group it was not notice accession to the attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit because culturally, these practices are not adopted and the level of bureaucracy is high.

For construction and service provision private companies, if the individual has low performance linked to the affective dimension, the manager tends to adopt the attitude to ignore, nullify and neutralize. Unlike the respondents from public and mixed companies that provoke in the manager this group of attitude when the performance is not good in the psychomotor dimension. In the private commercial companies segment, when the employee needs development in the affective dimension, the management attitude is to insist, coach and develop. The only fact common to all types of companies is that, in face of a subordinate that has his/her poor performance linked to the psychomotor dimension, the manager dismisses, transfers or discredits.

End Considerations

The study sought to identify the attitudes of managers in face of the perception of a subordinate with low performance on cognitive (intellectual), affective (emotional intelligence) and psychomotor (technical and / or practical abilities) dimensions.

The H2 for emotional intelligence, the H4 and H9 for attitude and emotional intelligence were confirmed and there were no other hypotheses confirmed. In the joint analysis, considering the affective dimension, it was observed that the managers take the attitude to ignore, nullify and neutralize or insist, coach and develop in relation to the subordinate with poor performance, but does not adopt the attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit. It is possible to conclude that the proposed model is more suited to the group of construction and service provision private companies.

With regard to cognitive and psychomotor dimensions, it was not possible to identify influence on the attitudes to ignore, nullify and neutralize and to insist, coach and develop. On the other hand, it was possible to confirm a strong relationship between the low performance in psychomotor dimension with the management attitude to dismiss, transfer and discredit.

Contributions

Managers: to seek to identify in the underperforming subordinate which dimension is predominant to facilitate the decision-making. In the public sphere it is difficult to dismiss, transfer and discredit, however, they can invest in training and development.

Academia: It is possible to add some other construct to the analysis and to achieve other results than those achieved with this approach. The study also confirms the wealth of concepts and possibilities of the theme chosen for the study and provides the opportunity to devise new projects that deepen the understanding of the subject and contribute even more to the practitioners and scholars in the field. The proposition of a model was confirmed contributing to the academia.

Implications: the topic is relevant for people working in the Human Resources area, managers, leaders and entrepreneurs, acting inside a competitive economic and marketing time, and in constant demand for professionals who are able to occupy several positions in Brazilian companies.

Limitations: The model was applied only in Brazil and in specific companies and it lacks replication with other professionals and areas.

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PART – 4
ORGANIZATION AND EMPLOYEE

SOCIAL NETWORK AND PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT: AN EXPLORATORY SURVEY

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Abstract

The objective of this research is to understand how intraorganizational social network can influence the level of person-organization fit (P-O Fit) in some Brazilian service companies. The person-organization fit refers to the congruence between individual and organizational values. To test the hypothesis, we surveyed 116 employees of small and medium companies in the Brazilian service sector. The results of the PLS analysis indicate that the degree of the relationship between employees influences the level of P-O Fit. The results also suggest that closeness and betweenness do not affect person-organization fit. To practitioners this study offers empirical data, which may help them understanding the role of social environment on employees' adjustment.

Introduction

The person-organization fit refers to the congruence between individual and organizational values (Youngs, Pogodzinski, Grogan, & Perrone, 2015). This adjustment has been researched in the organizational psychology field due to its importance for individual and organizational outcomes. Individuals are attracted and stay at the organization not only for financial reasons, but also for the opportunity to develop activities that meet important intrinsic values. As these values are satisfied, a positive psychological link between employees and the organization is created, generating desirable results, such as performance and commitment. When it happens, one can say that there is a fit between individual and organizational values. Some researchers suggests that socialization plays an important role in individual-organization fit, because through socialization is that the values and culture of the organization are reported (Cable & Parson, 2001).

Social networks developed within organizations are social constructions, which are under continuous change, as they represent the actions of its members (Nohria, 1992). Therefore, social networks directly impact workers and, consequently, the way companies operate (Nelson, 2001; Nohria, 1992). Social networks also plays an important role on both conflict resolution (Nelson, 1989) and transmission of knowledge (Argote, McEvily, & Reagans, 2003), affecting the way companies create strategic opportunities (Tsai, 2001). The analysis of social networks seeks to identify direct or indirect links on a limited group of individuals, as well as understand the implications of these links (Steiner, 2006; Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Social networks can be identified by the patterns of communication and relationships among individuals. Some characteristics of social networks, such as relationship degree, closeness between actors, and intermediation may influence the level of adequacy between individuals and organizations. Therefore, the objective of this research is to understand how intraorganizational

social networks can influence the level of person-organization fit (P-O Fit) in some Brazilian service companies.

Although several factors have been identified as predictor of the adaptation between individual and organizational values, few Brazilian studies explored the role of social networks within companies. Therefore, the results of this study can help understanding the dynamics of social networks within organizations, relating them to the person-organization fit. The results may also support managers and entrepreneurs with empirical data to improve the adequacy between individual and organizational values by developing new strategies and internal practices. Finally, this study adds to the literature by relating social networks to P-O Fit in a Brazilian context.

Theory Development

The social network analysis describes the patterns of relations that connect individuals, which allows researchers to establish the flow of communication and relationships that emerge between actors (Zenk, Stadtfeld, & Windhager, 2010). According to Moynihan and Pandey (2007) the closer is the relationship between individuals the greater is the possibility of joint action on the creation of new ideas, continuous learning, and achievement of organizational goals. Close relationships are formed by intense contact, such as strong ties between individuals, which require reciprocity, trust, and emotional involvement (Ahuja, 2000; Mark Granovetter, 1983).

As investigating organizational relationships and unethical behavior, Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs (1998) find that individuals with similar values and attitudes tend to develop close relationships inside the companies. The authors add that when organizational members agree and share standards of conduct, strong patterns of relationships emerge. These patterns can be positive or negative, depending on the system of values of the employees, as well as the organization. In accordance, Nelson (1989) examine the relationship between social networks and conflict. He concludes that low conflict is characterized by large number of strong ties, measured as frequent contact. The author emphasizes that the existence of strong contacts within the organization can also lead to negative aspects, such as favoritism or even corruption.

Using the approach of social networks, Lin (2007) evidences that the development of trust between organizational members creates an appropriate environment to knowledge sharing. Similarly, using the social network approach, Borges (2013) finds that strong relationships between information technology professionals play a key role in tacit knowledge sharing. The intensity of relationships is closely related to the level of trust among the members of the social network.

By analyzing the social networks, Cross, Prusak, and Parker (2002) state that the concept of centrality is essential to understand how relationships facilitate or impede access to organizational resources. The centrality measure was one of the first measures studied by social networking analysts (Johnson, 2011). The concept of centrality differs of the centralizing idea. Scott (2012) explains that the centrality occurs when a point is locally central, so the worker has a large number of connections with others in their immediate environment.

To indicate the level of centrality in the social network, the degree of centrality, as well as the closeness, and betweenness measures are used. Proximity or degree of centrality is defined as the distance each individual has in relation to other members in the network. In practice, the proximity refers to facility that an individual has to get to another individual within the network. The closeness indicates how connected individuals are within the network in relation to their communication activity. Finally, intermediation or betweenness measures how an individual

connects other individuals within the network by analyzing the strategic position in terms of controlling communication. Therefore, individuals who have high centrality measures can be better tailored to the organization.

Summing up, it is expected that employees who have a greater number of contacts with different coworkers within the organization, tend to be more adjusted to the organizational values than those who present scarce number of contacts. Whereas employees have their values recognized in the everyday organizational practice, they feel more motivated and more prepared to perform their job (Latham & Pinder, 2005). The P-O Fit is, for these reasons, considered a relevant factor to keep business' competitiveness, being directly related to employees' commitment and motivation leading to better organizational outcomes (Gregory, Albritton, & Osmonbekov, 2010; Sekiguchi, 2007; Youngs et al., 2015).

Moynihan and Pandey (2007), for example, examine from the perspective of social networks, the relationship between P-O fit and intention to leave the company. The authors conclude that employees who have higher P-O fit are more committed to the organization in a long-term. The internalization of organizational values is also positively related to social behavior (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Employees with high P-O fit tend to have an active social behavior in the organization, creating psychological links that may hamper the intention to leave the organization.

Therefore, employees who are well adjusted to organizational values tend to present a greater amount of contact with their coworkers. These employees are likely to develop a closer relationship with other employees. Finally, it is expected that employees who has an intermediary position in the network acting as a communication bridge between their coworkers, assume this position because they are better adjusted to organizational values. The main hypothesis of this research is that the degree of centrality, closeness, and betweenness developed within companies will affect the level of person-organization fit. Hence, the hypotheses are:

H1 – The social network degree of centrality is positively related to person-organization fit.

H2 – The social network level of closeness is positively related to person-organization fit.

H3 – The social network level of betweenness is positively related to person-organization fit.

Methodology

To test the hypothesis of this research, we surveyed 116 employees of small and medium companies in the Brazilian service sector. The companies offer services in engineering, education, sales, law, accounting, construction, among others. These companies are generally characterized by blue collar workers with high technical knowledge. The employees of these companies, due to the nature of the task, supposedly interact intensively since teams are frequently formed around specific projects.

A standardized questionnaire was applied based on the instrument developed by O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) to assess person-organization fit. Previous research reports high reliability and validity of the instrument with an average reliability of 0.76 (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). The questions that assess the characteristics of social networks were also drawn from the existing literature. The items are a combination of the work of Granovetter (1973), Nelson (1989), and Lin (2007). Borges (2013) used this instrument and found a reliability index of 0.94 (Cronbach's alpha) and an average extracted variance of 81% for social network variable.

We employed a partial least squares (PLS) analysis to assess the measurement and structural models. The characteristics of social networks, that is, the frequency and intensity of contacts, such as centrality, were obtained from the Software UCINET 6268 for Windows, developed by Borgatti, Everett, and Freeman (2002). Specific characteristics of centrality, such as degree of centrality, closeness, and betwenness were also assessed.

Data Analysis

To assess the internal consistency of the measurement model, we analyzed the loading, explained variance, and Cronbach's alpha values for each variable. The constructs, as well as their respective variables, reached factor loadings greater than ± 0.50, which is considered a threshold to obtain the practical significance (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Convergent validity also exceeded the required minimum of 0.50 or 50%, showing that the indicators of each variable share a great proportion of variance with each other. Finally, Cronbach's alpha values for each construct exceeded the 0.85 value, indicating high internal consistency.

Figure 1 shows the results of the PLS analysis with standardized path coefficients values and standard deviation in parentheses.
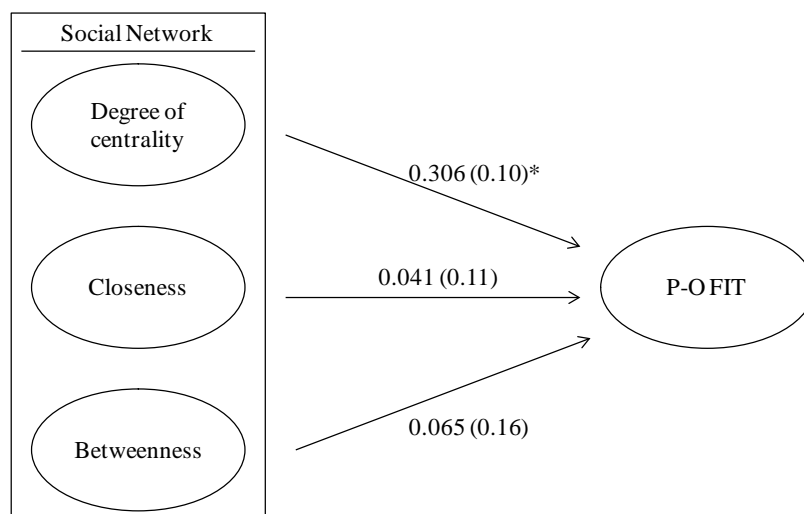
Note: N = 116, *p < 0,01

Figure 1 – Results of the path analysis

The result indicates that the degree of the relationship between employees in the organization positively influences the adequacy of individual and organizational values (person-organization fit), thereby confirming the first hypothesis ($\lambda = 0.306$, t (115) = 2.99, p <0.01). However, the second and third hypotheses have not been confirmed, suggesting that the level of adequacy between individual values and organizational values does not depend on the proximity of the employees (closeness), $\lambda = 0.041$, t (115) = 0.35, p = 0.73, and does not depend on the degree of interference between individuals (betweenness), $\lambda = 0.065$, t (115) = 0.42, p = 0.67.

Finally, in addition to the estimated coefficients on the path analysis, it is important to identify how well the proposed model predicts the tested data. The indication of how well the data fits the model is the explained variance of the dependent variable person-organization fit based on the independent variables—degree of centrality, closeness, and betweenness. In this case, the result suggests that 11.5% of the variation of person-organization fit depends exclusively on your degree of centrality in the social network formed within the organization ($R^2 = 0.115$, p <0.05).

Thereby, obtaining evidence to support the assumption that centrality plays an important role in the person-organization fit.

Discussion and conclusions

The analysis of social networks evidences both the formal relationships and existing informal relationships in the organizational environment (Johnson, 2011). The characteristics of social networks related to the degree of centrality, closeness, and betwenness may reveal patterns of cooperation between employees, exchange of information, knowledge sharing, and culture among coworkers (Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Walker, 2013). Thereby, the way a social network is formed inside the organization shows how well employees and newcomers are interacting, giving hints of their level of adjustment to the organizational environment (P-O Fit).

The results of the PLS analysis indicate that the degree of the relationship between employees influences the level of P-O Fit. In other words, employees who interact with each other are more likely to be adjusted or adapted to the organizational values. On the other hand, an employee who avoids contacting co-workers and prefers to work alone may not be well adjusted, leading to low levels of P-O fit. The results also suggest that closeness and betweenness do not affect person-organization fit.

The failure to confirm the relationship between closeness and person-organization fit may be explained by the fact that most of the researched companies are small business from the service sector. This means that the employees are already sharing a great physical proximity in their work environment, facilitating the contact between them. The same reasoning can be applied to the lack of significance in the relationship between person-organization fit and betweenness. The small number of employees in the researched organizations diminishes the importance of mediators and intermediation between coworkers, therefore reducing the influence of betweenness in the adequacy between individual and organizational values (P-O fit).

In accordance to Brass, Butterfield, and Skaggs (1998), who found that employees have similar values as they develop close relationships with their coworkers, the results of this study provide significant evidence that social relationships and worker's adjustment to the organization's values are related. The researched companies indicate that the degree of relationship between employees can enhance the level of adequacy between individual and organizational values. The exchange of opportunities, the level of cooperation, and the flow of communication inside the organization may explain the role of social network on employees' fit. In addition, Nelson (1989) points out that positive relationships developed inside the organization are important sources of innovation and cooperation, these kind of relationships also reduces the incidence of conflicts.

The main limitation of this study is the small sample size. Future research can broaden this survey by assessing a larger number of service companies' employees. Future research can also extend this study to other sectors or even compare industries. This study is also limited by the variables and the methods chosen. SEM should be employed in a large sample to confirm the results.

This research contributes to the literature by relating intraorganizational social network to person-organization fit, thereby addressing Mizruchi (2006) recommendations. The author argues that a prominent path in the social network research is investigating the environment in which culture is transmitted. This research adds to the Brazilian literature by offering an intraorganizational perspective to the social network research, which is dominated by interorganizational perspective and also by virtual network approach. This research supports

practitioners with empirical data, which may help them understanding the role of social environment on employees' adjustment. Finally, we recognize that this research is an initial attempt to comprehend how the structure and characteristics of social networks developed inside the organization affect the fit between individual and organizational values.

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THE INFLUENCES OF ORGANIZATIONAL AUTONOMY ON JOB PERFORMANCE: A THEORETICAL MODEL

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Abstract

Through an exploratory and quantitative research, this paper built a theoretical model to explain the causal mechanism that links the organizational autonomy and job performance. The model integrates the contextual factors that promote the autonomy in the organizations and the effects of this autonomy on performance. It was administrated a structured questionnaire with 70 statements on nine industrial and service organizations, covering eight constructs: autonomy, performance, motivation, commitment, self-efficacy, individualism, autonomy supportive style of managers, balance autonomy and control. Findings supported the propositions that autonomy affects job performance through activation of motivation and commitment da strengthens the self-efficacy and the effective use of autonomy is related to organizational processes design and leaderships behavior.

Introduction

Performance at work is a subject largely researched and studied in management literature from several perspectives as conceptualization, determinant factors, evaluation and measurement methods (Bendassolli, 2012; Campbell, 1990; Motowidlo *et al.*, 1997; Schiell & Morissete, 2000; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Once job performance as a behavioral construct that can affects positive or negatively the organization effectiveness (Motowidlo *et al.*,1997), from managers and leaders point of view, it is relevant to understand how this phenomenon process and how they can enhance the employee's performance in their work context.

One of main organizational topics under the manager's discretion refers to decision making on processes decentralization, power delegation and autonomy to subordinates (Child, 2012; Hampton, 1990; Robbins *et al.*, 2010; Schermerhorn *et al.*, 1999; Senge, 1990). More importantly, empirical researches and theoretical studies have demonstrated significant association between autonomy and performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Langfred & Moye, 2004; Spector, 1986). The basic premise is that autonomy represents a motivation factor to individuals, affects their behavior and leads them to perform their jobs in an effective way (Langfred & Moye, 2004). Model of Hackman & Oldham (1976) establishes that high autonomy job has motivational aspects once requires own efforts, initiative and decision making by individuals. Deci & Ryan (2000) postulated that autonomy is one of three basic and universal human needs, if fully satisfied, results in well being and better performance of individuals.

Other studies have demonstrated that autonomy is positively associated to performance through by other mechanisms like organizational learning, self-efficacy, job involvement, commitment, low absenteeism and turn-over (Child, 2012; Galletta *et al.,*2011; Gellatly & Irving, 2001; Jungert, 2012; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1997; Saragih, 2011; Spector,1986). On the other hand, further studies suggests that autonomy is also associated to negative work factors as individualism, cognitive distraction, job overload, negative outcomes when individual has not ability to exercise control and conflicts between autonomy and control (Huestegge & Koch, 2009; Koestener & Losier, 1996; Langfred, 2000; Langfred, 2008; Langfred & Moye, 2004; Spector, 1986; Wielenga-Meijer e*t al.*, 2011). Despite this ambiguity of the relationship between autonomy and

performance, organizations have largely used the autonomy not only as motivation factor, but for improve organization efficiency (Senge, 1990; The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2009).

Giving these controversial findings about the relation between autonomy and performance, through an exploratory and quantitative research, this article aim to build a theoretical model that can explain how autonomy influences the individual performance by activation of four constructs reported on relevant literature: motivation, commitment, individualism and self-efficacy. Particularly important for organizations and contribution to academic knowledge, once there is a gap in literature, this study includes in the same model the contextual factors that influence the autonomy perception to the employees.

Autonomy

From organizational perspective, specific meanings of autonomy have been introduced in the literature. Hackman & Oldham (1976) assume autonomy as degree of freedom that workers have to manage their job planning or execution. Deci & Ryan (2000) proposed that autonomy is one basic and universal need of individuals to experience their choice and act according to their values and interest. Express autonomy as empowerment, participation, power delegation or decentralization is a controversial matter even there may be some similarity among these constructs (DuBrin, 2003; Gilbert & Sutherland, 2013; Hampton, 1990; Langfred & Moye, 2004; Schermerhorn *et al.,* 1999; Spector, 1986). For McShane & Glinow (2013) autonomy can be approached in two dimensions: individual and organizational. Firstly, autonomy is a psychological state represented by four dimensions: self-determination, meaning, competence and impact in the organization. Secondly, autonomy is related to contextual factors, emerging the concept of autonomy supportive climate which is characterized by low hierarchy control, meaningful tasks, information accessibility, tolerance to errors, leadership relying on subordinates, opportunity of choice and incentive to survey and investigation (Gilbert & Sutherland, 2013; Liu *et al.*, 2010).

Autonomy and motivation

Studies of Hackman & Oldham (1976), Schwartz (1992) and Deci & Ryan (2000) are references to explain relationship between autonomy and motivation. Hackman & Oldham (1976) propose that motivation at work depends on 5 dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. Moreover, the mathematical formula of their model recognizes the higher significance of autonomy and feedback on motivation (Sisodia & Das, 2013). Findings of Schwartz's empirical research about human values, proposed the self-direction (independence of thought and action) as one of ten basic human values. Values are not only related to human necessities, but also represents targets and intentions to do something, therefore have motivational aspects (Tamayo & Paschoal, 2003). Under fundamentals of SDT, Deci & Ryan (2000) postulated that if individuals are fully satisfied of the three basic and inherent psychological needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness), they become internally motivated, be more able to internalize external targets and objectives, resulting in well being and optimal development. Above considerations leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis H3: The use of autonomy increases the motivation at work.

Hypothesis H7: Motivation affects positively the job performance.

Autonomy and commitment

Model of Meyer & Allen (1991) defines commitment as a psychological state which main practical implication is the employee decision to keep the employment relation. In their model, commitment has three components: desire (affective commitment), need (continuance commitment) and obligation (normative commitment) to continue in the organization. Meyer & Allen (1991) suggest that components are not refers to types of commitment, they are not mutually exclusive so that an employee may experience the three forms simultaneously in different levels. Researches have demonstrated positive relationship between autonomy, commitment and performance, assuming that autonomy activates the individual commitment that lead to a better performance (Froese & Xiao, 2012; Galletta *et al.,* 2011; Sisodia & Das, 2013; Spector, 1986). The studies also pointed out some limitations on the relationship between commitment and other work-related behaviors and the significance of commitment to organization outcomes. Meyer & Allen (1991) argument that intention to continue in organization is important, but not a sufficient condition for organizational effectiveness. Mowday (1999) reflects that organizational commitment can decreased, once organizations are unable to give same loyalty they want from employees (Baruch, 1998). Above considerations leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis H4: The use of autonomy increases work commitment.

Hypothesis H8: Commitment affects positively the job performance.

Autonomy and individualism

Researchers have recognized existing controversial positions on conceptualization of autonomy. Under SDT framework, for example, Chirkov *et al.* (2003) recognize disputes about autonomy as basic human need and no differentiation of autonomy from individualism, independence or separateness. Ryan (1993) confirms the misconstruction the meaning of autonomy as resistance to external influences and proposes that autonomy behavior as a result from a reflexive evaluation of outside inputs. Koestner & Losier (1996) propose to distinguish autonomy in two conceptions: reactive and reflective. Reactive autonomy refers to resistance to external influences, acting independently of others and other behaviors related to individualistic personality. On other hand, reflective autonomy are related to take decision by evaluating of outside influences in a reflexive way, considering own interests and needs. In their proposition, these two conceptions doesn't mean two different forms, once reactive and reflective autonomy are related to each other and have distinct integration at each social and affective daily experience. Assuming autonomy under conceptualization of reactive autonomy, the following hypotheses are expected:

Hypothesis H5: The use of autonomy increases individualistic behavior.

Hypothesis H9: Individualism affects negatively the job performance.

Autonomy and self-efficacy

According to social-cognitive theory of Bandurra (2008), self-efficacy is defined as individual perception or own judge of the ability to task organize, perform and get outcomes. Accordingly, except by relevant skills and knowledge, the actual ability of people is more influenced by the perception of their work outcomes than the ability they really have. Langfred & Moye (2004), based on Bandurra's framework, suggest that individual self-efficacy moderates the relationship between job autonomy and motivation at work. Employees feel motivated when they have autonomy, if they believe on having necessary skills to perform the work. Empirical researches have also demonstrated positive relationship between autonomy, self-efficacy and work

performance (Saragih, 2011; Sousa *et al.*, 2012). In this framework, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis H6: The use of autonomy increases employee's self-efficacy.

Hypothesis H10: Individuals with high perception of self-efficacy present high job performance.

Autonomy and contextual factors

Based on the relevant literature, it was assumed as relevant contextual factors the autonomy supportive style of managers and balance autonomy and control in the organization.

Autonomy in organizations has been reported as directly related to managers and leaders. Senge (1990) arguments that handling autonomy and control is a challenge to managers once they commonly do their jobs under top-down style and leadership is related to power and benefits. Child (2012) confirms that conflict between autonomy and control is associated to the difficult of managers on handle power delegation to subordinates. However, studies have approached the important role of managers on autonomy application as motivating factor to employees. Empirical research of Jungert (2012) shows that support for autonomy is related to motivation and affects positively the employee's outcomes (Hardré & Reeve, 2009; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Deci *et al.*, 1989; Reeve, 2006).

Relationship between autonomy and control in organizations has also been treated as degree of formalization and tension between flexibility and control. Langfred & Moye (2004) establish that exercising autonomy in high formalization organizations may represents violation of rules, resulting in formal sanctions and punishments. Hage & Aiken (1969) suggest that high formalization is associated to low morale and people effectiveness, incompatibility to innovation, less necessity of training and qualification. For Fry & Slocum (1984), high formalization affects negatively the employee's ability to deal with changes and complexity. Moreover, tension related to adoption of flexibility or control was reported in The Economist Intelligence Unit (2009) based on survey of 277 executives of several businesses areas. According to its findings, 68% of participants said that their companies have adopted centralization in the search for efficiency, 57% admitted that their organizations have granted more autonomy to operating units for decision making and 42% confirmed that their organization is pursuing autonomy and control to take advantages of both.

Despite this controversial issues, study of Gilbert & Sutherland (2013) concluded about possibility to create a positive environment with high level of autonomy and control. They suggest the categorization of influence factors in three groups: organizational, managerial and employees. Organizational factors refer to organization culture, operating environment, size and others; managerial factors refer to personality, maturity and leadership style; employee's factors refer to personality, maturity, ability to learn and hierarchy level and functions. Those findings have similarity to Child (2012), who proposed that effectiveness of the organizational learning process is related to a suitable combination between autonomy and control, as he calls "controlled autonomy". Under the above considerations, the following hypotheses are expected:

Hypothesis 1: The autonomy supportive style of managers affects positively the employee's perception of autonomy.

Hypothesis 2: The appropriate balance between autonomy and control in the organization affects positively the employee's perception of autonomy.

Performance and Theoretical Model

Approaching of performance follows the conceptualization of task and contextual performance proposed by Motowidlo *et al.* (1997). Contextual performance refers to employee contribution to organization environment like cooperation with others, follow organizational rules, pursuit organizational objectives with effort and enthusiasm. The abbreviate form of relationships and associations between related constructs is shown in Figure 1. A plus sign (+) indicates a positive influence and a minus sign (-) indicates a negative influence.

FIGURE 1 – THEORETICAL MODEL
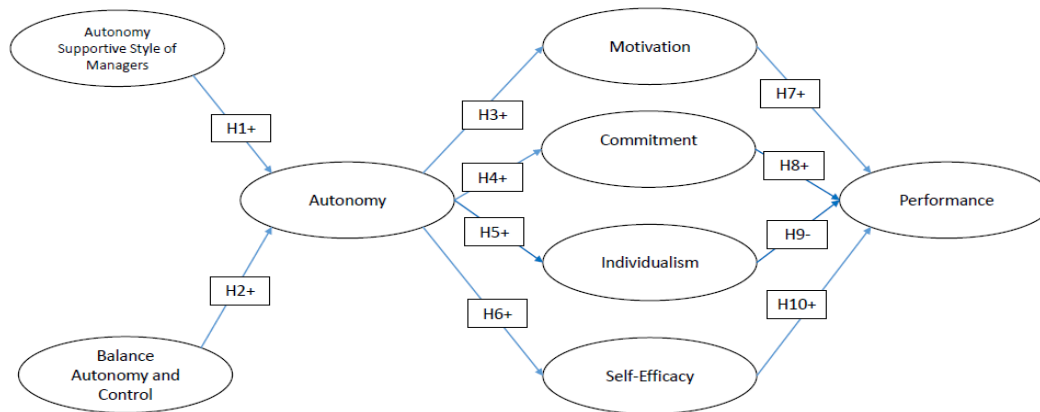
Research Methodology

The participants were 282 Brazilian employees of nine industries and service companies located in an industrial area of southeast of Brazil, adopting convenience sampling method (Hair *et al.* 2009). A structured questionnaire with three questions about respondent's characterization and seventy items (statements) related to the ten surveyed constructs was administrated. A 10-point adapted Likert scale was used, ranging from completely disagree (1) to completely agree (10). The questionnaires, originally in Portuguese language, were personally submitted to each respondent and under their voluntary participation. Confidentiality was ensured to respondents and organizations. The scales were obtained from previous surveys and theoretical studies cited in the literature revision. The questionnaire and example items are listed in the Appendix of this article.

First data analysis refers to validity of filled questionnaires and existing outliers (univariates and muiltivariates). EFA techniques were used to evaluate the quality and validity of each item of the constructs and discard no significant items for the true meaning of variables, and also to measure the second-order latent variable Commitment. The sampling adequacy was evaluated through Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin – KMO measure, discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) was examined the under criteria of Average Extracted Variance – AEV, reliability through Cronbach's Alpha – CA (Cronbach, 1951) and Composite Reliability – CC (Chin, 1998) and confirmation of unidimensionality by using the method Acceleration Factor – AF (Raiche *et al.,* 2013). The assessment of measuring and structural model used the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) by using the approaching of Partial Least Square – PLS (Monecke & Leisch, 2012). Evaluation of structural model fit used R^2 and GoF indexes (Vinzi *et al.*, 2010).

Results

Among 282 respondents, 8 questionnaires (2,8%) were discarded due to more than 10% of invalid responses, remaining 19.180 data for the multivariate analysis (MVA). Among remain data, 300 items (1,56%) were treated as average score of the respective variable (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

The outliers analysis found 0,198% classified as univariate and 0,7% as multivariate ones, which were not discard considering the sampling characteristics and to avoid limitation of multivariate analysis (Hair *et al.*, 2009). Respondent characteristics regarding school level were distributed as follows: high school (46%), university (44%) and fundamental (10%). About hierarchy position, 23% of participants are managers and for type of job, 40% of participants work in industrial area, 31% in administration staffs and human resources and 29% in other working areas. It was not observed any relevant influence of school level and hierarchy on the survey results.

The analysis shown in Table 1 demonstrates that all constructs presents acceptable parameters of reliability (CA>0,70 and CR>0,70), unidimensionality, convergent validation (AEV>0,40) and discriminant validation (Max SV < AVE), suggesting that it could be a good fit model .

Table 1 – Validation of Measuring Model

Constructs	Items	CA[1]	CR[2]	Dim[3]	AEV[4]	Max (SV)[5]
Balance Autonomy and Control	4	0,77	0,86	1	0,60	0,32
Autonomy Supportive Style of Managers	7	0,94	0,95	1	0,72	0,32
Autonomy	7	0,85	0,89	1	0,52	0,28
Motivation	7	0,92	0,94	1	0,68	0,43
Commitment (2nd order)	3	0,51	0,76	1	0,48	0,36
Individualism	5	0,71	0,81	1	0,45	0,08
Self-Efficacy	4	0,71	0,82	1	0,53	0,32
Performance	5	0,78	0,85	1	0,53	0,43

[1] Cronbach's Alpha, [2] Composite Reliability, [3] Dimensionality, [4] Average Extracted Variance, [5] Shared Variance

The research framework resulted in the final structural model shown in Figure 2. The model presented GoF index of 37,16%, assuming a satisfactory fit of data. The bootstrap confidence interval is according to p-value found, assuming the results are valid. A summary of the results hypothesis testing are presented in Table 3.

Figure 2 – Structural Model
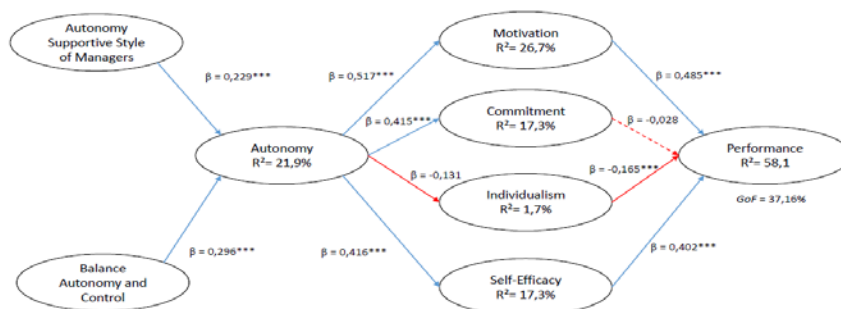
Table 3 – Summary of testing of hypothesis

Hypothesis		Result
H1	Autonomy Supportive Style of Managers affects positively Autonomy	Supported ***
H2	Balance Autonomy and Control affects positively Autonomy	Supported ***
H3	Autonomy affects positively Motivation	Supported ***
H4	Autonomy affects positively Commitment	Supported ***
H5	Autonomy affects positively Individualism	Not supported
H6	Autonomy affects positively Self-Efficacy	Supported ***
H7	Motivation affects positively Motivation	Supported ***
H8	Commitment affects positively Performance	Not supported
H9	Individualism affects negatively Performance	Supported ***
H10	Self-Efficacy affects positively Performance	Supported ***

(***) Significant to 1% level ; (**) Significant to 5% level; (*) Significant to 10% level.

Source: Author (2015)

Once Individualism showed insignificant contribution to the proposed model, a new model was proposed by discarding it (Figure 3). As GoF index of new model is 40,65%, it can assumed the better fit comparing to previous model. Bootstrap confidence interval remain in accordance with value-p found, assuming the validity of results.

Figure 3 – Structural Model without Individualism
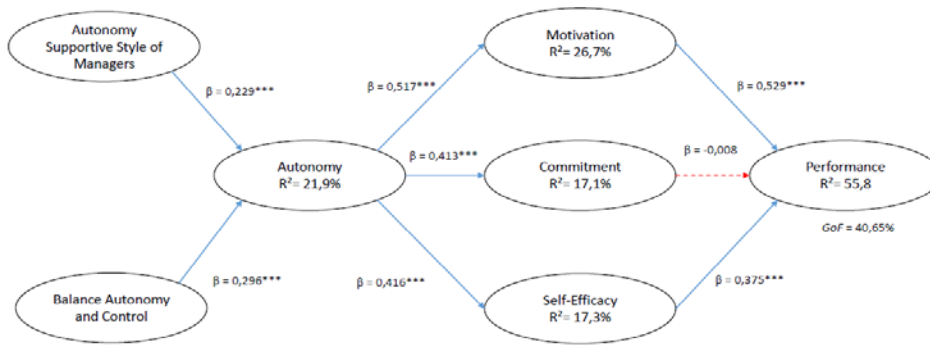
Discussion

Lack of support of hypothesis H5 was early considered when found controversial positions on relationship between autonomy and individualism. Once individualism reflected the conceptualization of reactive autonomy of Koestner & Mosier (1996), refusing of hypothesis H5 may be supported on fundamentals of SDT as autonomy associated to reflexive attitude and consideration to external opinion and influences (Deci & Vansteenkiste, 2004; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Further researches are necessary to confirm this.

About refusing hypothesis H8, studies of Meyer & Allen (1991) admitted uncertainty about the association between commitment and work-related behaviors other than turn-over. Moreover, the low significance on relation between commitment and performance may be addressed to the external factors that threat the employment relation like economic crisis situation. Once Brazilian companies, at the time of this research, have faced an economic recession framework (negative GNP and unemployment rate growth), it was supported the Baruch's reflection (1998) of commitment of employees became weak if the organizations don't commit to employees.

Management and academic implications

Practical implications were revealed in this research. During administration of questionnaires, for example, some managers demonstrated they are not familiar to the classic relation autonomy/motivation/performance, reinforcing the idea that organizations have used autonomy more to improve work efficiency than motivation factor (The Economist Intelligence Unit, 2009). Practical implication also refers to autonomy application is significantly related to organizational processes (Fry & Slocum, 1984; Hage & Aiken, 1969) and leadership behaviors (Hardré & Reeve, 2009). Thus, it may be not requires major changes in organization or investments, it means short time for implementation, representing an opportunity to improve the organization processes and enhance its outcomes.

From academic point of view, timing of this research represented a particular issue for empirical field surveys. Firstly, in an economic recession framework, special conditions of confidentiality shall be ensured in order voluntary participation of employees. Even this cares, due to organization internal tension, some managers may refuse to participate even they have some interest. Secondly, even economic recession framework represents a serious social and economic problem to society, from the strictly academic viewpoint, this represents an unique opportunity to investigate, test and confirm existing or new hypothetical models and theories, once many of them may have been constructed in economic stability frameworks.

Limitations of the study and future research

Besides limitations to sampling extent and geographic issues, this study also could not approach multi-group analysis, allowing comparison between different organizations or different department in same organization. Relevant limitations can be also considered for different autonomy perception employees of different hierarchy level (Sisodia & Das, 2013) and organization type of business. For future researches, significant contribution to academic knowledge and better comprehension of this phenomenon can be achieved by studies comparing autonomy in different organizations (egg. private and public, service and industries) and through studies of autonomy in association with other critical issues for organization as entrepreneurship (Hit *et al.*, 2003; Lumpkin *et al.*, 2009), creativity (Chang *et al.,* 2012), organization alignment and adaptability (Thongpapanl *et al.*, 2012).

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TO BE OR NOT TO BE A CREATIVE EMPLOYEE AT THE WORKPLACE? - HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTICES AND CREATIVITY MANAGEMENT

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to assess creativity as a workplace`s critical competence, strategically mediated by Human Resources Practices (HRP). In order that two different perspectives were observed and compared: the organization and the employee's perceptions. The organizational perspective is represented by a company case selected from the *Great Place to Work* of Portugal ranking; and, for employees, questionnaires were applied to Portuguese workers (n=253). Regarding the company's data, the HRP promote creativity by implementing strategically consistent strategies. However considering the employee's perspective a new problem becomes evident. Although creativity is seen as necessary, not all practices are in accordance. So, creativity lives in a paradox, providing a challenge for organizational values and for the Human Resources Management policies.

Keywords: Creativity; Human Resources Practices (HRP); Creative Skills (CS); Great Place to Work (GPW).

Introduction

Until recently creativity at workplace has attracted the attention of organizational researchers. For those creativity has been considered one of the key factors in civilizations development with high impact on multiple sectors of activity (Hennessey & Amabile, 2010). Despite that, creativity is not an exclusive element that allows the organizational innovation`s triggering (Mumford *et al*., 2011). For Shalley and Zhou (2008) innovation is more than creativity, it is related to the application and implementation of generated results. Considering the current pressures to innovate, as a critical an survival factor of organizations, the role of Human Resources Practices (HRP) in the creativity emergence at workplace was the research problem of present work. Thus, the driver goal was to understand the relationship between creativity and HRP by identifying organizational and employee's perspectives.

Background

Creative Skills (CS)

Creativity is a complex concept. It is hard to describe it with a simple definition. Over the past decades several authors tried to contribute with insights in order to achieve an unifying concept. According to Amabile *et al*. (2005), creativity is understand as a process of generating new and useful ideas or a way to solve daily problems. Extending this idea, it is important to emphasis that creativity is more than solving problems, it´s a complex process that involves creating something new and useful, which can be an idea, product, service or a procedure that increases value *(*Woodman *et al.,* 1993*)*. For Csikszentmihalyi (1999), it is essential to understand creativity as a social process in which individuals work together towards a common goal. Considering this

vision, creativity requires resilience capacity and acceptance of risk, being important for individuals to have the capability to accept criticism (Lubart & Sternberg (1995); Sternberg, 2006). In present paper, all this outputs are combined; and it is here suggest that creativity is seen as a complex social process that results from the interaction among individuals in order to achieve a mutual goal. Creativity is much more than an individual process of generating ideas. So, it is characterized by the interrelation of several organizational dimensions. Since creativity lies in problem solving and generating new ideas, this can be understood as a critical tool for dealing with change and for the development of organizations in competitive business environments. In this scenario organizations must develop organizational strategies to the creative skills (CS) increment of their employees.

The skills definition at organizational context is related to the set of qualities, behaviors, individual characteristics, motivations and experiences of an employee, which can be observed on the job, and having expression in the performance of a particular function (McClelland, 1973; Mitrani *et al.*, 1993; Parry, 1998). Therefore, creativity at workplace, i.e., creativity applied to serve the organization objectives, should be considered as CS. Some research on workplace creativity (e.g. Piteira 2013a; Piteira 2013b) are trying to develop a creativity competence model, based on the intersection of three dimensions, namely: i) abilities; attitudes, behaviors; ii) motivation; iii) guidance for novelty and excellence. It is shown on Figure 1.

Figure 1- Dimensions of creative skills

Source: Piteira (2013b)

The presented dimensions include the different areas involved on the creative process and should be properly considered on the definition of HRP. For this reason, the management of CS and creativity stimulation largely depend on how the organization manages its human capital, by the human resources practices. In addition, it allowing the organizational development and giving a greater ability to change adaptation.

Human Resources Management Practices

According to Garavan and McGuire (2001) the organizations have longer need to promote activities for their human resources` development. This takes place via the improvement of the employee's skills, as well as the new challenges in people management arise. The development of employee's skills are in a straight line to the HRP, which have a strong influence on the acquisition, recognition and development of CS; and, consequently it is related to the organizational innovation. Typically HRM practices converge into five core areas: recruitment; training; performance appraisal; career management; and reward system. Several authors have studied the relationship of those practices with organizational innovation. A summary of this issue is presented in table 1.

Table 1- HRM core areas and its implications for innovation.

HRM core areas	Implications for innovation	Authors
Recruitment	Includes the acquisition of human capital, either by internal or external means. New employees must have a set of abilities, skills, knowledge, motivations and experiences that generate CS that will later be used as resources to innovation.	Roberts (1988); Scarborough (2003); Chen & Huang (2009).
Training	The development of human resources in the organization are the main source of competitive advantage. Train and development for innovation requires that the organization triggers development processes of the CS of employees, as well as organizational skills that will provide a positive organizational climate for innovation.	Shipton *et al.* (2005); Shipton *et al.* (2006).
Performance Appraisal	Its ultimate purpose is to expose improvement areas of employees. Seeks to understand the existing gaps between what the organization expects and the actual performance of its employees. One of the most common practices to improve innovation is the introduction of performance appraisal objectives related to CS development.	Leede & Looise (2005); Shipton *et al.* (2006); Chen e Huang (2009).
Career Management	It's an attempt to retain the employees with high levels of productivity and satisfaction. Introducing objectives associated with innovation to achieve the career plans is one of the most common techniques used because it keeps employees motivated.	Delery & Doty (1996); McMeekin & Coombs (1999); Scarborough (2003).
Reward System	There is a close relationship between reward management and motivation of employees. Establish a fair and transparent policy of rewards valuing the creative contributions is presented as the main means of promoting innovation through reward system.	Shipton *et al.* (2006); Camelo-Ordaz *et al.* (2008); Chen & Huang (2009).

Adapted from Becker & Matthews (2008:13); Raytcheva & Hermel (2010:232), cit in Piteira (2013b).

Research Model

From the above theoretical framework the study propositions have emerged in order to have a better comprehension between HRP and creativity management. Thus the propositions corpus that guided present work were:

P1: Recruitment-Recruitment practices have great impact on organizational innovation, through the acquisition of the employees with creative skills (Scarborough, 2003; Chen & Huang, 2009).

P2: Training- Training contributes to organizational innovation, through the development of creative skills of the company employees (Shipton *et al.*, 2006; Piteira, 2013b).

P3: Performance Appraisal- Performance appraisal is one of the most important mechanisms for creative development. The establishment of performance evaluation`s instruments oriented to the creative skills is the key to the innovation progress (Delery & Doty, 1996; Shipton *et al.*, 2006).

P4: Career Management- Career management practices, focusing on creative skills goals, act as motivation mechanisms for employees; and resulting from the need of this goals achievement into the career progression. This stimulates the development of creative skills (Delery & Doty, 1996; Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2005; Greenhaus *et al.*, 2010; Piteira, 2013b).

P5: Reward System- Reward system has a strong motivational potential among employees. Managing rewards based on creative skills may influence positively the development of the organization's innovation performance (Chen & Huang, 2009; Cunha *et al.*, 2010; Foss *et al.*, 2011). Figure 2 gives the research design by the study propositions` links.
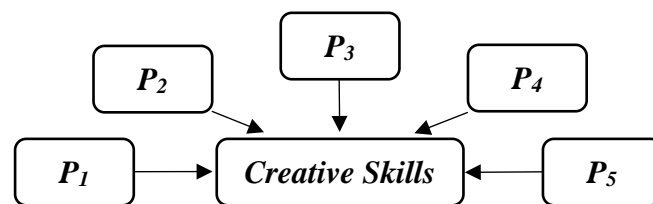
Figure 2- Propositions` Research Design.

Methodology

Considering creativity as a complex phenomenon the qualitative methodology was adopted and case study approach applied. This research design enabled to ensure a descriptive and comprehensive analysis. As some authors note (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Creswell, 2007; Flick, 2009) it is possible a deeper understanding and a closer proximity with the real world. Thereby, it is recommended as the best strategy for studying complex phenomena. In this spirit, data gathering included two techniques: semi structured interviews and a survey.

On one hand, to understand the connections between organization perspective of creativity and HRP the technique of semi-structured interviews was used. Beyond of a depth data insights (Flick, 2009), it was possible to interact directly with the employees (Fontana & Frey, 2005), which have privileged information and influence in the acquisition, recognition and development of CS. Despite the associated flexibility of this research tool it was necessary to cross this information with other sources (company documents and mass media information) to ensure a better data validity and to minimize the inherent subjectivity (Yin, 1994; Berg, 2001; Vergara, 2006). The analysis and interpretation of the data was carried out through content analysis grids according to the recommendations of Bardin (2007), and using the MaxQda software.

On the other hand, to understand employee's perspective questionnaires as data collection instrument were used. Just as in the semi-structured interviews the questionnaire construction was based on the categories and dimensions developed by the research model, and by the set of study propositions. The application of this instrument was due to the ability to cover a larger number of respondents than in the interviews (Almeida & Pinto, 1995), using a simplified data analysis. The questionnaire was online administered. It is structured into two sections: firstly, demographic characteristics were surveyed; and secondly a 42 Likert Scale questions was posed. All the collected data was processed using the software IBM SPSS Statistics 20 and Microsoft Office Excel.

The organizational perspective was analyzed choosing the *Great Place to Work* ranking in Portugal. From this set an IT company (SISCOG-Sistemas Cognitivos) was selected for the case study. The IT industry was selected because it has taken a large presence in the last few years on the Portuguese ranking. In addition to the document analysis, mass media articles and some direct observations in the company were carried out. A set of five interviews took place. The interviewees were the middle managers, responsible for the following departments: Innovation, Quality, Project, Product, and Organizational Development (n=5). As they are considered the main departments related to creativity and innovation processes, these interviews enabled a broader view of the organization and a better comprehension of the research problem

Regarding the employee's perspective on creativity and its relations with HRP, the central goal was to collect data from a diverse sample that would ensure an overall picture of employees in Portugal. A total of 253 questionnaires (n=253) were collected with a wide range of demographic issues (gender, age, educational background, sector of activities).

Results

The results have put two perspectives in confrontation relating HRP with creativity. Thereby the comparison between the perception of the organization and employees was possible. As first output, current work gives a creativity definition at workplace. According data, creativity for Portuguese employees' means *creating new things, having the possibility of new ideas and think differently, being original and imaginative; as well as having freedom to solve problems.* In the organization perspective*, creativity is more than having ideas. It is the innovation genesis, by the new ways of doing things. It is related to the ability of being critical and of challenging the status quo.* Besides that, the corporate culture has a significant role*: creativity is strongly enhanced when done in group and all members accepted it as a functional and organizational requirement.* These findings are similar to the literature review about creativity, since creativity was described as a key factor for innovation (Shalley & Zhou, 2008). The collected data also suggests creativity as a problem solving process and the generation of useful ideas (Woodman *et al.*, 1993; Amabile *et al.,* 2005).

Crossing the data from employees´ perspective with the case study it was also possible to define the key attributes of the CS in work context. The findings advance a definition of CS in workplace and a set of categories is pinpointed. Therefore a creativity skill can be defined as the *ability to look at problems in many different ways, thinking outside the box, being curious, proactive, autonomous, having initiative and passion for work;* as well as *developing analysis capabilities, in an open mind spirit.* Example of creative skills` categories are: *ability questioning critically, not be afraid of making mistakes, perseverance, decision making autonomy, have a critical thought, self-development and teamwork capabilities.*

In the analysis that underlines the role of HRP with creativity, and examining closely the study propositions, a mismatch between the two perspectives has emerged.

P1: Recruitment- According to the collected data in SISCOG, the recruitment processes are *very important because through them it is possible to attract human capital with CS, by which a great fit with organizational work design takes place.* According to Chen and Huang (2009), hiring employees with specific skills can enhance organizational innovation by creating a climate of knowledge sharing and collaboration. From the employees´ perspective a slight tendency to agree that CS are valued when they came to the organization (40.8%) was evidenced. From the remaining 59.2%, some employees affirmed that CS are not valorized when they start working at their organizations (31.6%), and 27.6% neither agree/disagree (or have no opinion on the issue).

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P2: Training- Training on creativity is very important to the sustainability and development of a technology company (Shipton *et al.*, 2005), both in terms of product development and organizational processes. Likewise it is an factor highly valued in SISCOG. The employees` data reveal that approximately half of them have training in creativity and the other half had not. However, 71.5% of the respondents affirmed that would like to have more training in this matter. This fact shows that the Portuguese organizations must do more investment on CS training.

P3: Performance Appraisal- For SISCOG middle level leaders have a great responsibility on performance appraisal: *it can be an important element to enhance innovation by the development of CS*. Creativity is so important for the organization that is *one of the central elements of performance appraisal*. Thus, there is a performance appraisal system oriented to goals/targets related to creativity which enhances the organizational culture for innovation (Shipton *et al.,* 2006). The collected data from employees' perspective shows divided opinions. Nearly half of respondents said that their performance appraisal includes objectives related to creativity and the other half refers that it is not included.

P4: Career Management- According to SISCOG department leaders the *career management system promotes the motivation of its employees in the creative dimension* because it is directly related with career mobility and progression (Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2005; Greenhaus *et al.,* 2010). From employees` perspective it is possible to affirm that CS are an essential aspect for de career development. 74.3% agreed that CS have a strong impact on mobility and in career ascending.

P5: Reward System- Trough the case study analysis results reveal that *reward system has some influence on the development of CS once it can work as a motivating factor for employees*, as well as the literature (Cunha *et al.*, 2010; Foss *et al.*, 2011). The employees' data shows a tendency to affirm that the organization doesn't give due credit for their creative contributions (46.2%). Some employees (24.1%) have argued that reward system recognize the value of their creative contributions. The remaining respondents (29.7%) neither agree/disagree (or have no opinion). It is possible to state that if organization rewarded in better way the creative performances as soon as their employees have a further involvement in this area. On this topic a mismatch between those argue that rewarding should be a good practice for creativity management has emerged. Therefore, the following table (Table 2) presents the main results on the impact of HRM practices in creativity guidance, as well as CS for the organizational innovation strategy. The propositions statement and the HRP operationalization are resumed in table 2.

Table 2- Research results summary. Organizational Perspective Vs Employees Perspective.

Dimensions	Organizational Perspective	Employees Perspective
Definition of Creativity		
Creativity	It's the innovation genesis. More than having ideas. Create new ways of doing things. The ability to be critical and questioning how things happen. It´s enhanced when done in group.	It is a critical dimension of innovation: by creating new things, having ideas and thinking differently, being original and imaginative, having freedom to solve problems.
Human Resources Management Practices		
P₁ Recruitment	**Proposition empirically confirmed** despite the difficulty of identifying CS. It is operationalized by categories, such as: personality tests; CV analysis and interviews, in order to uncover personal characteristics such as autonomy, proactivity, openness.	Slight tendency to agree that CS are valued when they become organization members.
P₂ Training	**Proposition partially confirmed by data.** Trainings in CS are administered only to leaders and	There was no pronounced trends on the fact that employees receive (or not)

	managers of the organization. Then they transfer the training insights for lower positions; Skills of employees are developed through mailing lists; brainstorming; peers programing.	training in creativity. Most would like to have more training in this matter.
P₃ **Performance Appraisal**	**Proposition empirically confirmed**. According the "competency dictionary" of SISCOG performance appraisal creativity is one of the evaluated behavioral skills. Other related skills are analytical aptitude and design; self-development; initiative.	Divided opinions: nearly half of respondents said that their performance appraisal includes objectives related to creativity.
P₄ **Career Management**	**Proposition empirically confirmed** although is not much formalized process. Career progression is measured by higher responsibility of employees. This greater responsibility may depend on the acquisition and application of CS.	Unmistakable tendency to consider CS as a fundamental aspect and with high influence in career progression.
P₅ **Reward System**	**Proposition partially confirmed by data** Adopting the example of "SISCOG´s ideas awards" (the winner receives a monetary reward for having the best idea). Reward System isn´t perceived as the main motivating factor. The positive social climate of SISCOG, the sense of belonging and recognition are also relevant.	Tendency to admit that the organization doesn't give due credit for the creative contributions of employees. Tendency to say that if the organization rewarded better creative performances it would take employees to invest more in this matter.

Adapted from Amaral (2015).

Conclusion

According data previously reported a set of contributions could be listed. From a theoretical perspective, the results introduce a definition of workplace creativity, relying on practical-based theory, and strengthening some literature of creativity area. In addition, by crossing the data between the employees and organization perspectives it is possible to affirm that creativity is associated with the ability to innovate, to have ideas and create new things, being imaginative and looking for solutions to problems. An inventory of characteristics and skills associated with creative people is also emerged throughout this study. These include proactivity; initiative; work management; ability to questioning things; autonomy; decision taking capacity; analysis capabilities; self-development; open-mindedness; not afraid of making mistakes; and teamwork. Regarding the methodological issues, this study intents to contribute with a tool for the evaluation of creative skills by HRP.

Finally, current findings bring to light the relationship of HRM practices in the acquisition, recognition and development of creative skills, and consequently organizational innovation. Through the case study we presented some good practices of HRM for creativity (recruitment, training, performance appraisal, career management, and reward system) which can be applied by organizations, in order to develop creative environments. Present research also suggests that Portuguese HRP not always enrich the creative skills of employees and do not contribute to the creative climates emergence. This fact reveals that there is a lot of work to do in this area for Portuguese organizations. However it is necessary to develop more studies in this field, using different approaches and methodologies, and comparing different industries with innovative companies.

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DIFFERENTIATING PERSONAL AND WORK VALUES AND THE VALUE-ACTION GAP IN TURKEY

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Abstract

This study investigated value priorities and value-action gap in personal and work contexts. One thousand twenty nine Turkish employees voluntarily completed a survey developed by the researchers. They ranked the relative importance of presented values, selected the most challenging personal and work values, evaluated the underlying reasons of the value-action gap, and rated their managers' level of value-action consistency. While family, fairness and trust emerged as the most important personal and wok values, fun seeking/hedonism and belief/religion were the least preferred in our sample. The most challenging value was fairness. Personal and organizational challenges were best explained by the need for achievement and getting ahead. Managerial value-action gap was predicted by the year of working experience in current organization.

Introduction

Values are the indicators of worth that differ in importance. The value priorities of individuals or cultural groups are considerably different from each other, and the relative importance of one's values affects their attitudes and behaviors (e.g., Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz, 2012). Schwartz (1992, 1996) states that the priority simultaneously given to competing values, rather than a single value, determines how values are reflected in real life. Behaviors are especially triggered by resolving value conflicts when the actions to pursuit one value compete with the actions to be undertaken for another (e.g., Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz, 1994; Devos, Spini, & Schwartz, 2002). Redcliff and Benton (1994) earlier mentioned that human values could sometimes be contradictory with regard to the seriousness of environmental problems.

Values are expressed through attitudes. However, there is a dynamic relationship between one's attitudes and behaviors. According to the ABC model of attitudes which is developed upon Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory and Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (1991), the structure of every attitude is affective, behavioral and cognitive but the rational or cognitive need to hold attitudes and behaviors in harmony sometimes contradicts with the irrational and affective needs of human nature.

The gap between attitudes and behaviors is referred as the value-action gap in Blake's (1999) model. Although Blake uses the term for the lack of taking action against environmental problems, he highlights the fact that knowledge does not change behavior, and humans are unable to systematically reflect their knowledge in the way they live their lives. The irrationality in human decision making is later described as being "predictably irrational" by Dan Ariely (2008), the professor of psychology and behavioral economics at Duke University, to investigate the systematic mistakes humans repeatedly make. However, irrationality does not explain the gap on its own. Other than individual concerns, the relationship between attitudes and behaviors can also be restricted by external social or institutional factors. Blake (1999) categorizes the reasons underlying the value-action gap into three dimensions: individuality, practicality and responsibility. He calls them barriers to action. Individuality refers to the constraints deriving from one's mindset, personal characteristics, needs and desires (e.g., laziness). In contrast, practicality relates to the social and institutional restrictions such as lack of time or money. The

barrier of responsibility represents the unwillingness to take responsibility or the perceived lack of power to change the situation. While responsibility has mutual relationships with individuality and practicality, the mentioned two barriers are also directly connected with each other.

As a global pioneer studying human values in work and societal settings, Richard Barrett (1998) notifies that the group strength is determined by the individual commitment of each member and the long-term business success requires an organization "to become a living independent entity that reflects the collective values of all employees" (pp. 3). Values of an organization act as an open declaration of behavioral expectations from all employees, including managers (Baltaş, 2013). Barrett (2006) draws a parallel between the flocking of birds and the organizational behavior driven by values. When flocking, every bird move in total harmony like a single organism. For this reason, the tradeoffs among important personal and work values and resulting behavioral inconsistencies distort the group harmony in an organization.

Earlier local or cross-cultural studies on value priorities were rather applicable to specific groups or occupations in Turkey, such as optimistic vs. pessimistic university students, nurses, school teachers, male vs. female students, women bank managers or parents, with rather smaller sample sizes (e.g., Cileli & Tezer, 1998; Ersoy & Altun, 1998; Schwartz & Sagie, 2000; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Burke, Koyuncu, & Fiksenbaum, 2007; Kuş, Merey, & Karatekin, 2014). Therefore, our first objective was generalizing the study results from a large sample population. Our second objective was investigating the value-action gap with a focus on the two barriers of individuality and practicality in Blake's (1999) model, and dealing with the term out of its environmental context. We finally focused on the managerial value-action gap perceived by the employees, which has been critical for value-driven leadership. The present paper has important practical implications for managing culture in organizations.

Method

Participants

One thousand twenty nine employees (582 male, 447 female) aged 19-61 years (M=31,00, SD=7,375) volunteered to participate in the study. Their education level ranged from high school to doctoral degree. The sectors of the organizations they worked in were highly diversified, including IT, audit, energy, finance, service, pharmacy, construction, retail, transportation, manufacture etc. They were assigned to different soft skills training seminars delivered by Baltaş Knowledgehouse. Informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Materials

We developed and utilized from Baltaş Values Survey. The survey included twelve demographic questions (age, gender, marital status, the number of children, the city lived in for the longest period, the level of education, graduated department, the city currently worked in, job, sector, the years of working experience, the years of experience in current organization).

The survey questions respectively explored the relative importance of values, as well as the value-action gap in personal and work contexts. Participants first read 15 values (fairness, family, achievement, scientific curiosity, honesty, teamwork, trust, belief/religion, work-life balance, quality, fun seeking/hedonism, customer satisfaction, commercial awareness, benevolence/altruism, innovation) and then ranked them both for the importance in their personal lives and in the organizations they currently worked in. As earlier noted, behaviors are guided by multiple important values (e.g., Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz, 1994; Devos, Spini, & Schwartz, 2002). Therefore, our participants were allowed to assign the same number to the values they perceived as equally important.

Selection of value items. We first compared the value items driven from previous cultural data (Kuzulugil, 2010; Barrett Values Centre, 2014) with those of a standardized psychological inventory (Hogan Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory) describing the drivers

of human behavior in relation to work performance (Hogan & Hogan, 1996). Table 1 presents the comparison of values among the three measures.

Table 1

Comparison of Kuzulugil's Turkish Value Scale*, Cultural Transformation Tool (CTT)** Items from Consolidated Turkish Data and Hogan Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI)***

| Kuzulugil's Turkish Value Scale* | CTT** Items from Consolidated Turkish Data | | | MVPI*** |
	Personal Values	Current Culture Values	Desired Culture Values	
Achievement (1)	Achievement (1)	Achievement (1)	Balance (home/work)	Aesthetics
Benevolence (2)	Continuous learning	Bureaucracy (L)	Continuous improvement	Affiliation
Conformity	Fairness (5)	Caution (L)	Customer satisfaction (8)	Altruistic (2)
Funseeking (3)	Family	Cost reduction (L)	Employee fulfilment	Commerce
Fatalism	Friendship	Customer satisfaction (8)	Employee recognition	Hedonism (3)
Universalism (4)	Honesty	Employee health	Fairness (5)	Power
	Open communication (6)	Environmental awareness	Information sharing	Recognition
	Patience	Hierarchy (L)	Innovation (4)	Science
	Respect	Innovation (4)	Long-term perspective	Security
	Responsibility	Organizational growth	Open communication (6)	Tradition
	Trust (7)	Profit	Teamwork (9)	
		Quality	Trust (7)	
		Short-term focus (L)		
		Teamwork (9)		

*The Turkish Value Scale (Kuzulugil, 2010) originates from Schwartz's (1992) values inventory. It measures both universal and local values adopted by the Turkish employees. The data for scale development drives from 400 valid individual answers.

**Cultural Transformation Tool (CTT) is a psychometric instrument which reveals the value map of an organizational culture. In an online CTT survey, employees select the values that they identify with themselves, they believe their current work culture possesses and their desired work culture should possess (Retrieved from https://www.valuescentre.com/our-products/cultural-transformation-tools/description-assessment-process). The determined values are then divided into subgroups such as positive, potentially limiting, individual, relationship, organizational or societal. Since Baltaş Group is the certified business partner of CTT, the instrument is available in Turkish. The consolidated cultural data in Turkey involves the assessments conducted between 2009 and 2013. We excluded "potentially limiting values" which reflect the negative attitude inhibiting personal or organizational growth (Retrieved from https://www.valuescentre.com/mapping-values/values).

***The Motives, Values, Preferences Inventory (MVPI) measures "personality from the inside – the core goals, values, drivers, and interest" while identifying the motivation and engagement factors driving an employee's organizational fit and work performance (Retrieved from http://intl.hoganassessments.com/assessments/motives,-values,-preferences-inventory-(mvpi)/). It has been standardized by Baltaş Group including reliability and validity analyses and a norm study for Turkish adult population.

Items assigned with the same number represent values from the same cluster. The definition of "universalism" in the Turkish Value Scale comprises creative thinking. Therefore, it is evaluated together with the value of "innovation".

(L) describes potentially limiting values excluded from the decision process.

Based on the commonalities and differences, we identified fifteen values which we categorized into five "personal only" (family, scientific curiosity (science), fatalism, fun seeking/hedonism, benevolence/altruism) five "work only" (teamwork, work-life balance, quality, customer satisfaction, commercial awareness (commerce)) and five "shared" values (fairness, achievement, honesty, trust, innovation) that fit in with both categories. We then finalized the selection

process in a focus group discussion including forty training and assessment professionals who have been working in the consultancy sector on average for more than ten years. After the group discussion, we excluded the value of "fatalism" and replaced it with "belief/religion", since the latter embraces unconditional acceptance and predestination suggested by fatalism and it is more relevant to Turkey's current societal issues.

Following the value ranking process, the participants were asked to consider their top five values and to select the most challenging value for which they struggled to pursuit in their personal lives. It was operationalized as follows: "To pursuit values in (daily) life, one should feel confident that their behaviors are consistent with their values, and each decision should be identified with a value rather than an excuse sentence that begins with but". After the value selection, participants were asked to evaluate the reasons of their struggle. They were presented with four alternatives:

1) I feel attracted by the likeable, pleasing and gratifying option,
2) I focus on my future tangible gains and losses,
3) I incline to the fast and easy solution in times of pressure,
4) I am dominated by my need for achievement and getting ahead.

Likewise the value ranking, it was allowed to assign the same number to the options perceived as equally important. Participants repeated the selection process regarding the most challenging value in their organizations. They were presented with a slightly different explanation: "To pursuit values in an organization, one should feel confident that employees' and managers' ways of doing business are consistent with the organization's values, and each work decision should be identified with a value rather than an excuse sentence that begins with but". They then evaluated the reasons of their organization's struggle in a similar fashion. This time, the earlier four alternatives were adapted to the work context:

1) Departments incline to the options supporting their own interests,
2) Profitability and potential losses are the main concerns,
3) The fast and easy solutions are put forward in times of pressure,
4) It is being acted with the need for achievement and getting ahead.

The four reasons of personal and organizational struggle correspond to Blake's (1999) two barriers to action, which are individuality and practicality. While individuality refers to one's personal manner of thinking, feeling and behaving, practicality covers the external constraints against one's individual concerns. For both contexts, the first and forth reasons are linked to individuality, and the second and third reasons illustrate the barrier of practicality. Our focus of interest excludes Blake's third barrier; responsibility, which describes the lack of control in one's choice of action.

In the final question, participants determined the level of consistency between their managers' values and behaviors. In the following sections, we will refer to this variable by managerial value-action gap. The response alternatives were ordered on a Likert scale, such that 1 indicated the definite conflict and discrepancy, whereas 5 representing the definite consistency and a strictly straightforward managerial attitude.

Procedure

Participants attended two-days training seminars in groups of 12 to 40 people. In times of break or before starting a new session, the training professionals kindly asked them to complete a short paper and pencil survey for research purposes. Under their supervision, participants completed Baltaş Values Survey in 10 minutes. The survey was administered on the second training day in order to increase participants' commitment, therefore reliability.

<div align="center">Results</div>

The Value Priorities

To introduce the most and least important values, Figure 1 displays how participants' first and fifteenth rank order differ between personal and work contexts. Each bar represents the percentage of participants who ranked the relevant value by 1 or 15.

Figure 1

Percentages of the First and Fifteenth Ranks across Personal and Work Contexts
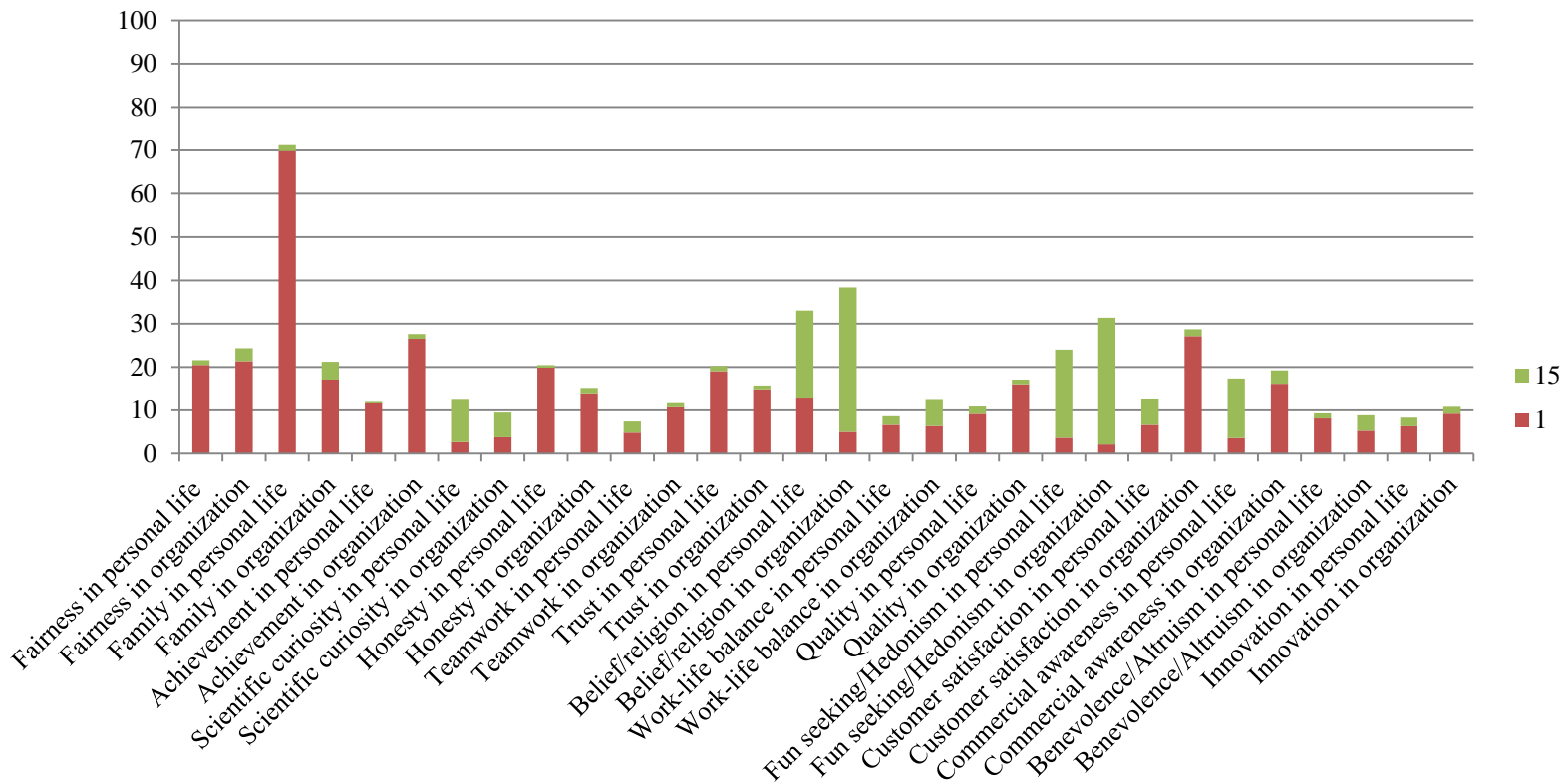
In the first rank order, family (69,85 %), fairness (20,49 %) and trust (19,04 %) emerged as the most important personal values. In contrast, fun seeking/hedonism (20,37 %) and belief/religion (20,33 %) were ranked in the fifteenth order and perceived as the least important. The most important work values in the first rank order were customer satisfaction (27,15 %), achievement (26,53 %), fairness (21,36 %), family (17,10 %), commercial awareness (16,15 %), quality (16,02 %), trust (14,84 %) and honesty (13,70%). Similar to the outcomes for personal values, participants perceived belief/religion (33,33 %) and fun seeking/hedonism (29,28 %) as the least important values in their organizations, and ranked them in the fifteenth order.

The Value-Action Gap

We investigated the value-action gap by analyzing the most challenging personal and work values that the participants selected among their top five rankings. We omitted participants who had not ranked the fifteen values in the earlier stage or then failed to make a proper value selection based on their prior ranking. Participants indicated that fairness (34,80 %), work-life balance (17,60 %) and trust (13,00 %) were the most challenging personal values. They further claimed that "the need for achievement and getting ahead" (32,11 %, 1st rank order) and "inclining to the fast and easy solutions in times of pressure" (24,63 %, 1st rank order) were the two outstanding reasons that best explained their personal challenge.

The most challenging values in organizations emerged as fairness (25,64 %), customer satisfaction (14,59 %) and teamwork (9,23%). Participants thought that the relevant value-action gap mainly derived from two reasons: "inclining to the options supporting departmental

interests" (41,39 %, 1st rank order) and "the need for achievement and getting ahead" (32,12 %, 1st rank order).

We were also interested in the overall explanatory strength of the causal alternatives regardless of the selected values. While "the need for achievement and getting ahead" (1st rank order; 31,26 % for personal, 31,00 % for work) was considered as the most explanatory reason behind the challenges, "inclining to the fast and easy solutions in times of pressure" (4th rank order, 29,23 % for personal, 35,09 % for work) was regarded as the least appealing alternative.

Demographics and Managerial Value-Action Gap

Forty nine percent of employees rated their managers by 4, thinking that they were not strictly straightforward, but their values were mostly consistent with their behaviors. We conducted nonparametric tests to compare the demographic variables with the perceived level of consistency between managers' values and behaviors. Since the main variable of interest had a ranked order and we had a sample size large enough to make conclusions with a better estimate of the population parameter, the use of non-parametric methods was preferred. Specifically, we reported Spearman's rank correlation coefficient for the variables of age, the number of children, the years of work experience and the years of experience in current organization. Mann-Whitney's U was calculated for gender and marital status, as well as for post-hoc analyses. We investigated the remaining variables using the Kruskal Wallis test. The main statistics were significant except the city lived in for the longest period and the city currently worked in. Table 2 presents the summary of our findings.

Table 2 *Demographics and The Perceived Level of Consistency between Managers' Values and Behaviors*

Demographics	N(%)	M(x; y)	r_s	df	U	H	p
Perceived Level of Value-Action Consistency for Managers							
Age	909 (88,34)		-.234				**.000****
Gender	919 (89,31)				116.704,00		**.001****
Male vs. female		(3,31; 3,55)					
Marital status	907 (88,14)				77.773,50		**.000****
Single vs. married		(3,65; 3,17)					
The number of children	733 (71,23)		-.129				**.000****
The city lived in for the longest period	881 (85,62)			7		10,967	.140
The level of education*	872 (84,74)			4		18,819	**.001****
University vs. vocational		(3,39; 3,72)			32.765,00		**.000****
University vs. master's degree		(3,39; 3,26)			32.233,50		.141
Vocational vs. master's degree		(3,72; 3,26)			7.534,00		**.000****
Graduated department**	850 (82,60)			2		13,793	**.001****
Equally weighted vs. computational		(3,45; 3,22)			34.438,00		**.003****
Equally weighted vs. social		(3,45; 3,62)			6.909,00		.251
Computational vs. social		(3,22; 3,62)			6.330,00		**.003****
The city currently worked in	901 (87,56)			7		11,584	.072
Job/Position***	895 (86,98)			4		30,056	**.000****
Employee vs. 4th level		(3,55; 3,12)			55.783,00		**.000****

executive

Employee vs. 3rd level executive		(3,55; 3,41)	15.784,00	.188
4th level vs. 3rd level executive		(3,41; 3,12)	6.142,00	.076
Sector****	892 (86,69)	10	75,031	**.000****
Transportation vs. manufacture		(3,79; 3,17)	41.377,00	**.000****
Transportation vs. finance		(3,79; 3,30)	11.135,00	**.001****
Manufacture vs. finance		(3,17; 3,30)	14.062,00	.220
The years of work experience	854 (82,99)	-.152		**.000****
The years of experience in current organization	743 (72,21)	-.214		**.000****

**significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Percentages in parentheses refer to the ratio with regard to the total number of participants (N=1029).

Note*. University (N=525), vocational school (N=152) and master's degree (N=133) graduates dominated our sample. We therefore conducted our post-hoc analyses for the three subgroups.

Note**.We coded graduated department in terms of the faculty of origin. Therefore, we focused on the type of faculty graduated from the university. Three subgroups emerged as equally weighted (Turkish-Maths, N=271), computational (N=294) and social sciences (N=56).

Note***. Four positions emerged for job/position categorization: Employee (N=592, representative, assistant specialist, specialist etc.) 4th level executive (N=242, assistant manager, chief, supervisor etc.), 3rd level executive (N=59, mid-level executive, manager, group manager etc.), 2nd level executive (N=1, deputy mayor) and 1st level executive (N=1, general manager). We included employee, 4th and 3rd executives in post-hoc analyses.

Note****.The sectors were highly diversified including IT (N=9), audit (N=13), energy (N=18), finance (N=84), service (N=13), pharmacy (N=15), construction (N=24), retail (N=3), transportation (N=336), manufacture (N=364) and other (N=13). Transportation, manufacture and finance dominated our sample. We therefore conducted our post-hoc analyses for the three subgroups.

We were also concerned with the simultaneous effects of our demographic variables. Therefore, an ordinal regression was conducted. The final model was confirmed to predict the managerial value-action gap by the significant chi-square statistic with a p value of .003. Moreover, the fit was good (p=.624 for Pearson), in the sense that the model fitted the observed data well. However, the pseudo R-Square values (.124 for Cox and Snell, .134 for Nagelkerke, and .051 for McFadden) revealed that our demographic variables could only explain a small amount of variation in managerial value-action gap. When we further created a decision tree model by the growing method of CHAID, the years in current organization showed up to be the best and only predictor variable that reached significance, $\chi^2(1,N=743)=118.238, p= .000$.

Discussion

This study reveals four main findings. First, individuals prefer working in organizations that give priority to their personal values. Family, fairness and trust were identified as the most important values both in participants' personal lives and in the organizations they worked in. Second, the most important value is also the most challenging. Fairness was prioritized in both personal and work life, as it was also mentioned as the most challenging personal and work value. Third, success might matter more than coherence. The need for achievement and getting ahead best explained personal and organizational value-action gap. Finally, the decision on managerial value-action gap is a quite subjective concept. Employees' perception about their managers was most influenced by the length of time they worked in their organizations. It appears that long time employees tended to think their managers were not much strictly straightforward. An explanation might be that these employees had more negative, as well as positive experiences than their less senior counterparts and their negative experiences dominated their decisions. The quantity of personal and work values ranked in the first order sheds light on another aspect of the relationship between the two contexts. Participants were more selective in their personal values and they restricted their decisions by three alternatives (family, fairness, trust). However,

they were more inclusive when reflecting on the values dominating their organizational culture, and they perceived eight out of fifteen values as the most important (customer satisfaction, achievement, fairness, family, commercial awareness, quality, trust, honesty). In addition to family, fairness and trust, participants' most important work values included achievement and honesty that also applies to the personal context. Apart from confirming the overlap between personal and organizational needs, this finding supports Wrzesniewski, Dutton, and Gebebe's (2003) model of interpersonal sense-making: the meaning of work relies on both internal and external sources, and not only the organizational context, but also employees' personal values and preferences affect the worth of their work contexts.

Participants evaluated fun seeking/hedonism and belief/religion as the least important personal and work values. Therefore, neither self-serving nor religious tendencies appear to motivate our sample. This finding partly supports earlier cross-cultural research: Turkey is a collectivistic society (e.g., Kağıtçıbaşı, 1994). However, hedonism is positively correlated with individualism (horizontal and vertical) in the Turkish sample (Çukur, Guzman, & Carlo, 2004). Çukur et al.'s study (2004) also reveals that religiosity is positively related to collectivism (horizontal and vertical), as well as to vertical individualism for Turkey. Vertical individualism and religiosity are both correlated with power and religiosity is also related to security in Çukur et al.'s (2004) sample. Two defining terms of security are known to be safety and the stability of society (Schwartz, 1992, 1994). Although Turkish culture is largely traditional and conservative in nature, the apprehension of absolute power and the dominant religious attitude in politics have been strongly affecting individuals' life styles, sense of safety and societal stability. Therefore, we believe that religiosity has rather been perceived in a negative manner in our sample.

The biggest ranking gap occurred for commercial awareness (ranked 14th in personal life, ranked 1st in organization), customer satisfaction (ranked 13th in personal life, ranked 1st in organization), teamwork (ranked 11th in personal life, ranked 3rd in organization) and work-life balance (ranked 5th in personal life, ranked 12st in organization). This partly confirms our earlier categorization. Commercial awareness, customer satisfaction and teamwork were treated as important work values, but work-life balance was regarded more important in personal life context. Participants mentioned work-life balance among the most challenging personal values as well. These two findings indicate that Turkish employees are more concerned about the effect of work on their private lives rather than the interference of their private needs with the work life. Indeed, earlier research illustrates a similar picture: work-family conflict matters more than family-work conflict among Turkish employees (e.g., Erdamar & Demirel, 2014; Erkmen & Esen, 2014).

Fairness was the only most challenging value shared by both contexts. While Turkish employees described work-life balance and trust as also personally challenging, they considered that their organizations had hard time to take actions regarding customer satisfaction and teamwork, as well. It is interesting that the need for achievement and getting ahead was consistently the most preferred reason for explaining personal and organizational challenges. As a feminine society, Turkish culture is not motivated by achievement and competition is not much valued (Retrieved from https://geert-hofstede.com/turkey.html). This might explain our participants' perspective for explaining the value-action gap with these undesired motives. Inclining to fast and easy solutions in times of pressure lost its explanatory strength for organizational challenges, especially regarding teamwork. None of the participants (100 % of participants ranking either in the 3rd or 4th order) reported that short-term problem solving was the primary reason restraining their organizations from developing teamwork.

Present study integrates the distinct findings of previous research through a large data set and prospective results offer new insights to managers and human resource professionals. Organizations should realize that employees think their personal values are part of the work

culture. It should also be noted that giving life to a value is not the same with giving priority to it. When organizations announce their values on the wall, they do not monitor whether they are genuinely adopted. Our first suggestion will be linking values to the process of decision making. Secondly, annual or quarterly meetings should address success stories solved in the guidance of values, as well as failures experienced in the absence of value-action consistency. Finally, managers should get to know their senior employees better to develop the work culture and to display effective leadership. There is a price to pay for pursuing values. However, in the long run, management by values ensures trust and reputation.

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IS SCHOOL A SERIAL KILLER OR IS CREATIVITY A REDEMPTION ANGEL?: THE CASE OF CREATIVITY AT PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract

The goal of the present work was to discuss the students` perceptions of creativity in public higher education. Applying the four P's of creativity framework (Rhodes, 1961; Runco, 2004, 2007a and b; Kozbelt et al., 2010) a survey has been developed. The sample (n=130) is composed by two groups of students: graduation (n=100) and master (n=30); and two schools of higher education are compared. Following the case study design, the preliminary findings strengthen a creativity paradox of education: creativity is positively perceived as a critical requirement to higher education but conditions for its occurrence are still in progress. Avenues for further research will be presented and discussed.

Key-words: Creative school; Creative potential and performance; Higher education.

Introduction

Regarding the European strategic documents related to higher education, creativity is always a mentioned issue. See for example the *Lisbon Declaration - Europe's Universities beyond 2010: Diversity with a common purpose.* This one argues the need to develop strong universities for Europe, producing *an institutional milieu favorable to creativity, knowledge creation and* innovation (European University Association - EUA -, 2007a). On the extent of these policies the European Commission in *EUROPE 2020 - Flagship Initiative* also stresses the development of an economy based on knowledge and innovation, undergoing by the quality of education. Another relevant European reference is the *Smart People for Smart Growth* (EUA, 2011). This document defends that Europe's universities play an essential role in the innovation chain, through their research and teaching activities and *promoting openness and capitalizing on Europe's creative potential.* In this scenery the project developed by EUA (2007b) is also notorious, focusing on the advancement of the European knowledge society by identifying good practices and providing higher education institutions and their external stakeholders with operational recommendations on how to foster creativity. As Gaspar and Mabic (2015) notes, regarding this report, the creative mix of individual talents and experiences among students and staff must be strive, and researchers from different disciplines and diverse learning experiences will likely result in conditions favourable to the creativity of the higher education community. The above mentioned documents and projects just identify general recommendations for fostering creativity at higher education institutions, but not provide any analysis of eventual obstacles and limitations that could arose from the implementation of those recommendations. After those assumptions the present research imposes itself. Pinpoint the state of creativity in Portuguese public higher education by its major actors - the students, is the research goal that has driven the current work. It was carried out by the question: *What are the critical determinants on the creativity`s state of the art for the Portuguese polytechnic in higher education?*

Theoretical Frame and Model of Analysis

Creativity contains a prolixity of concepts, models and categories. It is a hard task to define and to find a single approach to serve the research goals. As some authors argue (e.g. Kozbelt et al., 2010), not all creativity theories are alike when considering the panoply of perspectives on creativity. The complexity of the creativity concept involves a multitude of definitions, conceptualizations, domains, disciplines that bear on its study, empirical methods and levels of analysis, as well as research orientations (Kozbelt et al., 2010). Considering this limitation, the current work adopts the Four P's of Creativity (Rhodes, 1961; Runco, 2004) in which creativity is defended in terms of the aspect emphasized: process, product, person (or personality), and pressing (pressures, place). Recently versions of this framework (e.g. Runco, 2007a and b) have extended it to six P's, adding persuasion (Simonton, 1990) and potential (Runco, 2004). The summary of this framework is presented in table 1.

Table 1: From the 4 to the Six P's of Creativity

P's of Creativity	Description	Creativity approaches	References
Process	Aims to understand the nature of the mental mechanisms that occur when a person is engaged in creative thinking or creative activity.	Cognitive theories and divergent thinking; the components of creative thought.	Mace & Ward (2002); Simonton (1984); Wallas (1926); Ward, Smith, & Finke (1999); Mumford, Baughman, Maher, Costanza & Supinski (1997); Mumford, Mobley, Uhhnan, Reiter, Palmon, & Doares (1991)
Product	The most objective creativity approach, focusing the works of art, inventions, publications, musical compositions, and so on. Products can usually be counted, allowing a considerable quantitative objectivity, and they are often available for viewing or judging.	Psychometric theories'. *e.g.* Torrance Test of creative thinking.	Torrance (1965) Guilford (1968)
Person	Creativity is focused on the creative person (or personality). Several traits cut across domains; these include intrinsic motivation, wide interests, openness to experience, and autonomy. Nowadays personality is usually viewed as one influence on creative behavior, rather than a complete explanation.	Personality traces Theories; Intrinsic motivation approach *e.g.* The three components model (Amablie, 1983)	Barron (1995); Helson (1972); Feist & Barron, (2003); Amabile (1983)
Press	Creativity depends on the setting or climate in which an individual resides. Creativity tends to flourish when there are opportunities for exploration and independent work, and when originality is supported and valued. This can explained the individual differences: there are individual differences in terms of preferred environments, but again also general tendencies.	The cultural studies of creativity; The creative cities. Work Environment Inventory (WEI): (Amabile & Gryskiewicz, 1989)	Amabile (1989, 1990); Witt & Boerkem (1989); Florida (2005)
Persuasion	Creativity is pointed as a persuasion skill: creative people change the way others think, so they must then be persuasive to be recognized as creative.	The social perspective (Amabile, 1990), the attributional theory of creativity (Kasof, 1995), and Csikszentmihalyi's systems model (1988).	Amabile (1990); Kasof, (1995); Csikszentmihalyi (1988); Runco & Richards (1998)
Potential vs. performance	An hierarchical framework capturing the earlier alliterative scheme, allowing research on everyday creativity and the creative potentials of individuals who may have most of what it takes but require educational opportunities or other	Theories of creative performance; creative potentials; creative behavior.	Runco (2007)

support before they can perform in a creative
fashion.

Source: Adapted from Kozbelt *et al.* (2010:24-25)

In addition to this categorization an hierarchy has been systematized by Runco (2007a). The 4 P´s framework was divided by creative performance and creative potential as the two overarching categories for creativity research and theory. Table 2 shows this perspective.

Table 2: Hierarchical framework for the study of creativity

Creative Potential	Creative Performance
Person: Personality traits and characteristics	**Products**: Ideas, patents, inventions, and publications
Process: Cognition	**Persuasion**: Historical reputation, Systems, (individual-field-domain), Social attributions
Press: Distal (evolution, culture); Immediate (places, setting, environment)	**Interactions** (state X trait; person X environment)

Source: Runco (2007a)

According to the above model, the current research was driven by a set of propositions. The first group is focuses on the creative potential assumptions, and the second one is based on the creative performance premisses.

1. The creative potential in higher education is promoted by:

1.1. Getting (hiring and atracting) creative actors, such as teachers, students and other academic agents to the creativity generation (Kozbelt et al. 2010: Runco, 2007a and b; Feist & Barron, 2003; Amabile,1983).

1.2. Developing processes for creativity emergence, using creativity methods and tecnhiques (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Mace & Ward 2002; Simonton, 1984).

1.3. Pressing to be creative, building a creativity-oriented culture, and having places to the creativity triggering **(**Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Florida, 2005; Amabile & Gryskiewicz, 1989).

2. Creative performance in higher education is extended by:

2.1. Promoting new products development (e.g. differentiated training offer; new projects of applied knowledge; scientific outputs, such as patents, publications, competition ideas); and covering creativity in the curriculum, programs and assessment of the courses (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Torrance, 1965; Guilford (1968)**.**

2.2. Differentiating (and compensating) teachers and students by their comunication (and persuasion ability) for being a creative person, whereby it keeps the reputation of being a creative school (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Runco & Richards;1998; Amabile, 1990)

2.3. Establishing strong social interactions between teachers, students and the other actors of academic community, in order to strengthen a true creative climate. (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007a and b)

Based on this proposition *corpus* and on the adopting framework, table 3 presents the research design.

Table 3: Research design (propositions and research questions)

P's of Creativity	Propositions	Research questions (Survey)	
Person	**1.1.** Getting (hiring and atracting) creative actors, such as teachers, students and other academic agents to the creativity generation (Kozbelt et al. 2010: Runco, 2007a and b; Feist & Barron, 2003; Amabile,1983).	What do you mean by creativity? What distinguishes a creative student? What features distinguish a creative teacher?	Creative Potentia

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Process	**1.2.** Developing processes for creativity emergence, using creativity methods and tecnhiques (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Mace & Ward 2002; Simonton, 1984).	What is the role of creativity in students learning? How can school promote the creativity? What kind of methos, technique and activities are used in the knowledgre creation? And in classroom as teaching metods?
Press	**1.3.** Pressing to be creative, building a culture of creativity-oriented, and having places to the creativity triggering (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Florida, 2005; Amabile & Gryskiewicz, 1989).	What are the best circumstances that lead to students creativity in the learning context? What differentiates a school of higher education as creative? What are the main obstacles to students´ creativity in school? Does your school support or supress creativity?
Products	**2.1.** Promoting new products development (e.g. differentiated training offer, new projects of applyied knowledge, scientific outputs, such as patents, publications, ideas competitions); and covering creativity in the curriculum, programs and assessment of the courses (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Torrance, 1965; Guilford (1968).	Is your school a creative organization? What kind of creative products have been developed in your school? Is creativity covered by the syllabus of your course at your school? And by the assessment methods?
Persuasion	**2.2.** Differentiating (and compensating) teachers and students by their comunication (and persuasion ability) of being creative person, whereby it keeps the reputation of being a creative school (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007; Runco & Richards;1998; Amabile, 1990)	Is creativity recognized and rewarded at your school? Creativity is a differentiation factor? In your school are people concerned in convincing that they are creative? How does your school manage the reputation of being different?
Person interactions	**2.3.** Establishing strong social interactions between teachers, students and the others actors of academic community, in sense to strengthen a true creative climate. (Kozbelt et al. 2010 Runco, 2007a and b)	Is creativity promoted by the students interactions? The relationships between teachers and students promote students creativity? Do the social relations established between students and other academic groups (students associations, pedagogical counsel...) help to the emergence of the students` creativity ? Do the interactions between teachers trigger school creativity?

*(right side spanning column: **Creative Performance**)*

Method and Empirical Context

A qualitative methodology has driven the present work and the case study approach was the chosen design. As some authors noted these methodological choices allow flexibility to articulate other methods and techniques, and help to confirm the validity of procedures, via use of several sources in parallel (Stake, 1994; Yin, 1994). In the gathering data process a survey was developed and students were questioned in the classroom. Questionnaires were given back in envelopes without any identification of the respondents, so that anonymity and confidentiality were assured, ensuring better quality answers and truthfulness. The survey was developed based on the theoretical framework given above (see table 3) and composed by open questions. Since data are of qualitative nature the content analysis was applied, following a deductive and inferential process based on suggestions of Bardin (1977). Inference is an intermediary procedure allowing the passage of an explicit and controlled way by a description (enumeration of text characteristics) to the interpretation (the meaning given to the text features). The data sources (or evidence sources, as defined by Yin, 1994) under analysis followed some criteria (according to Bardin, 1977): i) completeness; ii) representativeness; iii) homogeneity; and iv) relevance. The coding process started by identifying: i) the unit of registration (UR) - the unit of meaning to be consolidated, i.e., the content to be considered as the basic unit; ii) the unit of context (UC) - the understanding unit to codify the unit of registration, i.e. in order to understand the exact meaning of registration unit. This was based on the intention to make a co-occurrence analysis, which implies that the UC has a significant dimension; and iii) the rule of enumeration - the counting method of UR. The UR chosen was the presence/absence of category and the number of times that it appeared in the UC (its frequency). In addition, the relative frequency was also calculated: i.e. the number of times that a category appeared in the UC in relation to the total number of all categories in the same UC. The outputs of content analysis were: categorical and co-occurrence matrices and graphs of relative frequencies. The frequency matrices were created, which allowed a quantitative association with the absolute and the relative frequency of each category. In addition to the frequency and sources of triangulation matrices, graphs were generated, showing the relative frequencies and the categories presence for each UC. This helped to visualize the categories highlighted in the cases, isolating the critical determinants for each case study. This graph analysis was carried out by categories in each dimension and context units (information sources), allowing the intersection of several co-occurrence in the content analysis. In addition, software MAXQDA (version 12.1.0) was used to help in data categorization and reduction.

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The present work is part of a broader project on Portuguese creativity studies, and the cases being selected by convenience. The presented studies are pilot cases of this project, serving to test and refine the model of analysis. The selected higher education was the public polytechnic because of their particular model of education, more practical-oriented and focusing on areas of specific knowledge. In addition, by having schools of smaller size, the participants access was facilitated. Two schools of two different polytechnics were selected, and two levels of education (graduation and master degrees) were compared. The empirical scenario is reported in table 4.

Table 4: Empirical field

School	Scientific area of the course	Education level	Number of participants	Date of data collection
Case 1 Leonardo Davinci*	Management 1	Master	19	2015-2016
	Management 2	Master	11	2014-2015
	International Business/Management	Graduation	26	2015-2016
Case 2 Socrates*	Management	Graduation	44	2014-2015
	Marketing	Graduation	23	2013-2014
	Public administration	Graduation	7	2013-2014

*The real names of the schools have been changed to maintain anonymity and protect the confidentiality of participants.

Findings

The cases reported in the present work belong to public higher education. Briefly, the Portuguese public sector is described as bureaucratic, with many legal constraints disallowing either autonomy as local decisions, aging staff and very hierarchized. The following data confirms this diagnosis. The first results` output is advanced by a creativity definition of higher education. Based on the students` perception creativity is strongly related with innovation. In their own words creativity is the ability to generate new ideas, in diversity and making the difference. Students associate it to an individual skill, by using imagination and originality, *thinking out of the box*. This assumes one should be free to invent, applying critical thinking, spontaneously to a new experiences process, systematically contributing to the efficiency and efectiveness of the school, in an adding value strategy, with new and useful ideas. Graph 1 presents the creativity definition for higher education, in the students` perception, based on the relative frequencies and on the categorical analysis of data.

Graph 1: Creativity definition
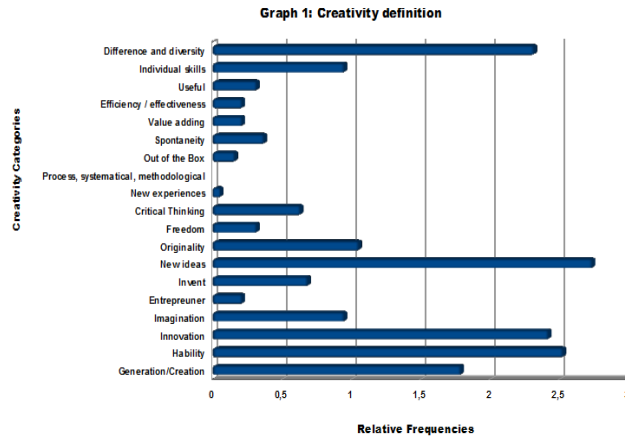
Examining the role of higher education on the students´ creative potential, the first P of creativity is discussed: as a starting point, creativity is focused on the creative person. How students and creative teachers are perceived was the the first preposition core. Creative students are featured by having innovative behaviors, being hard workers and showing strongly commited with new knowledge. They have fast and logic reasoning, and refined critical thinking. Curiosity, free spirit, spontaneity, thinking and doing differently are the other associated features.
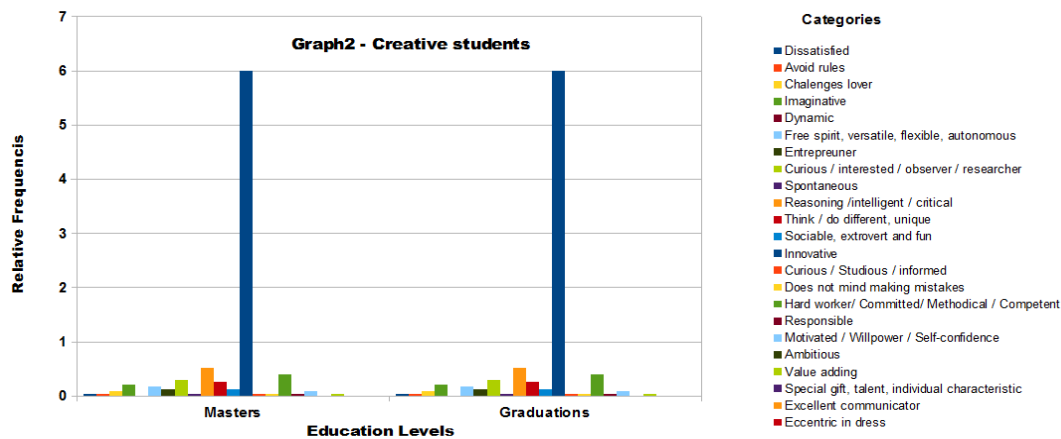
Graph 2 presents the categories related to this topic, comparing the students` perceptions by education levels. No differences occur between these groups. In addition, creative teachers (Graph 3) are student-oriented. Master and graduation students agree that creative teachers engage their students on the learning ativities, adjusting their new teaching methods and programs to their needs. Likewise thinking differently and having imagination are both referred as traits of a creative teacher. He has an attitude towards innovation practices, he is a motivated person and motivate his students, sociable, fun and having sense of humor, provocative, rigorous, constantly updated, intelligent and an excellent communicator are the other categories for a creative teacher.

Graph 3: Creative teacher
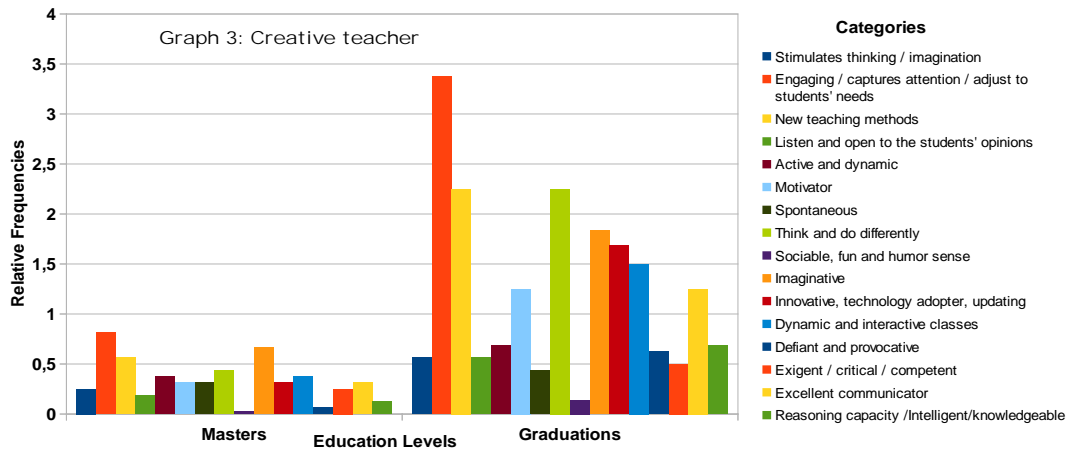
When the creative process is discussed, normaly it is related to identifying the kind of methods and techniques that are used to develop the cognitive skills for creating new things. The secon P, the process of creation is advanced by a set of categories. Both groups (graduation and master students) claim for creativity conditions, such as more practical classes and more extracurricular activities. This kind of activities are referenced significantly, and they are: workshops, conferences, seminars, training programs. Moreover a practical instruction is required, with pedagogical games, cases` discussions and new methodologies that challenge students to develop critical and divergent thinking. Creating challenges means to develop orientation to problems solving, intellectual stimulation, development of critical thinking, a current affairs analysis. Graph 4 presents the conditions required to be a creative student, in creative process related issues.

Graph 4
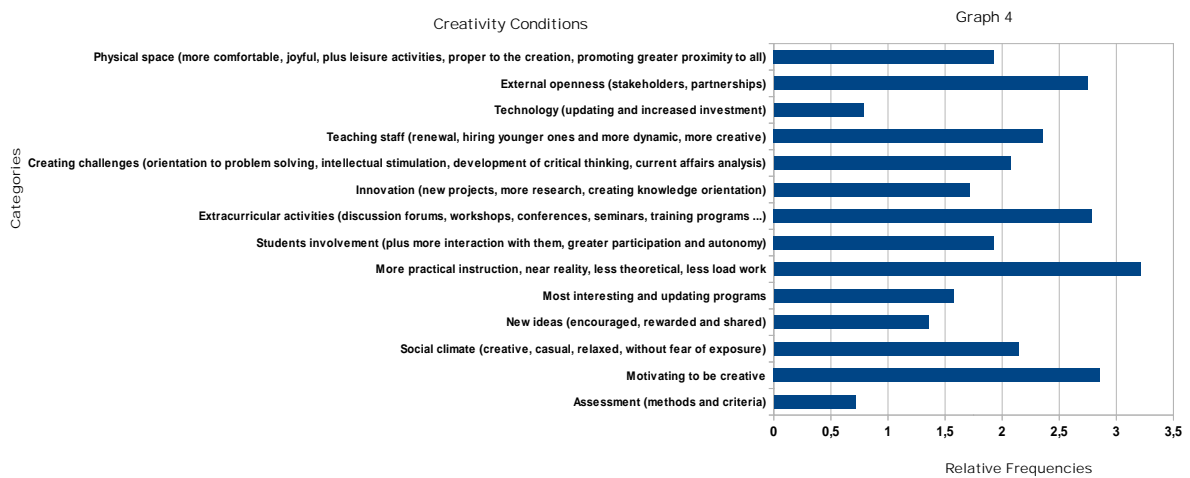
Pressing to be creative (the third P) emerged from the categories of higher educations schools` climate. Externally, society is pressing schools to be innovative. Thus, they must provoke creativity on their community. This can happen by creating conditions for that, building creative and innovative climates: i) casual, relaxed, without fear of exposure; ii) new projects, more research, creation and application of new knowledge; iii) external openness (find new stakeholders and partnerships); and, iv) resetting the physical space (more comfortable, joyful, plus leisure activities, proper to the creation, promoting greater proximity to all). See again graph 4, where these issues are also stressed.

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Observing the data of the second group`s propositions, and the role of higher education in the promotion of creative performance, students defend that teachers with creative skills are crucial. One problem for an uncreative school is the teachers role. When asked if their school is creative, mostly said no, with a relative frequency of 0,65; a small part of the participants said yes (0,18), and 0,17 has no perception (NP). Graph 5 presents these data. The given reasons for not being a creative school put all together the P´s of creative performance: Courses curricula and assessment, recognition and reward, communication conditions, and social interactions. Graph 6 describes the categories set related to these issues. The categories underline the product dimension, which is mentioned as the expected innovation`s output on the strategy for these schools. Research, publication and projects of applied knowledge is yet a developing field. The persuasion is another critical point. Despite schools being recognized in their expertise areas, they must maintain its reputation, ensuring excellence, and attracting new students. In these terms schools strategy is to be recognized as creative, influencing the

Graph 5 — Is your school creative?

Graph 6 — Is your school creative? No, because...
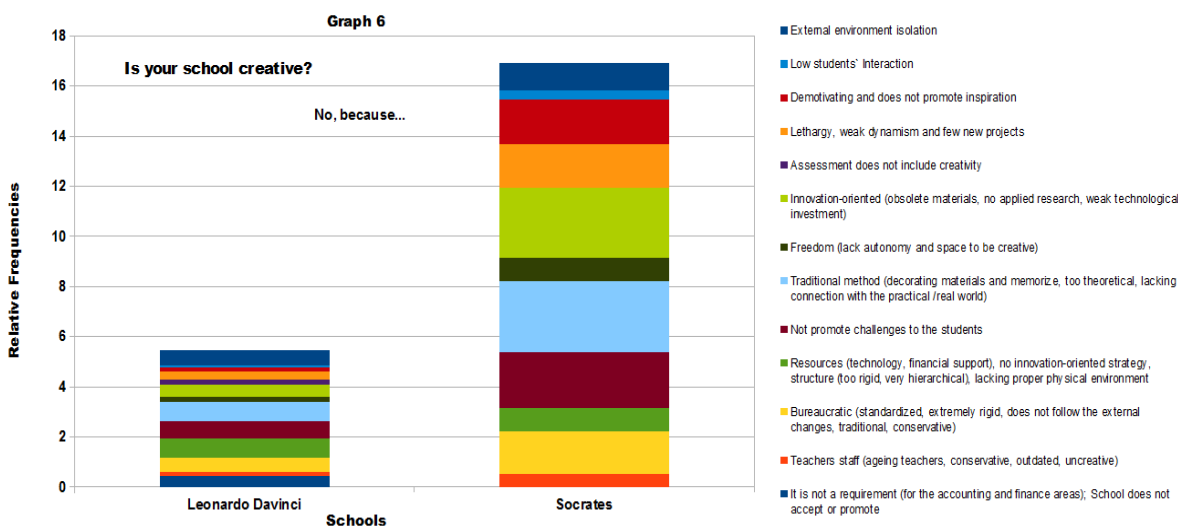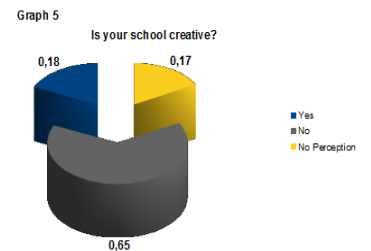
external environment with their generation of useful novelties. The social interactions must be increased, because it is critical to the collective process of ideas generation and to the new projects implementation. Graphs 7 and 8 provide the state of the art in these schools about the presence of creativity in curricula and assessment forms (graph7); and the perception of school interactions for creativity progress and performance. As it is possible to observe, creativiy is covered either by the curricula nor by the assessment methods. Regardless students interaction is mentioned as insufficient, it is the one that prevails as stronger in comparison with others interactions.

Graph 7 — Creativity on curricula and assessment?

Graph 8 — Students and teachers interactions
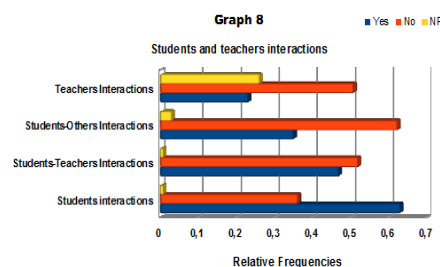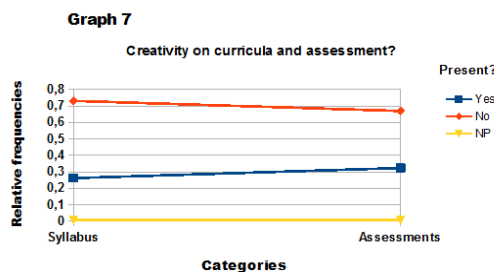
In terms of discussion of the results table 5 is here presented, linking the theoretical frame to the empirical field and pinpointing the propositions statement.

Table 5: Discussion of the results - Statement of propositions in the comparing literature

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Study Proposition`s Statement: Accepted/Rejected	Literature Assumptions	Empirical evidences
1. The creative potential in higher education is promoted by		
P1. Creative people **Accepted:** Literature is confirmed	There are some key core features associated with creativity: e.g. originality, independence, intrinsic motivation, curiosity, humor, attraction to complexity, open mind (Runco, 2007; Farley, 1986; Feist, 1999)	At higher education some traits of creative students and teachers were picked up, such as: motivational agents, fun and sense of humor, curiosity, free spirit, passionate about challenges.
P2. Creative process **Accepted:** Literature is confirmed	There is a broad approach to the creative process, (e.g stage, components models) and constructs like problem solving and divergent thinking have emerged; but the common idea is that process generates creative products or behavior (Runco, 2007)	Issues such as critical thinking and imagination stimulation, thinking differently, originality, challenges and facing new problems, not having afraid of making mistakes and taking risk, new methods of work, were the identified catgories.
P2. Creativity pressing **Accepted:** Literature is confirmed	The pressures descriptions that influence creativity, the environmental pressure. Issues such as physical surroundings, dynamism and freedom, workspaces, innovation conditions (Runco, 2007; Danko & Tolbert, 2003; Csikszentmihalyi 1988).	A lot of evidences were pointed out by the conditions to creativity emergence, namely: architecture of schools, creativity spaces, technology updating knowledge, students freedom, dynamic classes and innovattion climate.
2. Creative performance in higher education is extended by:		
P5. Creative Products **Partially accepted:** Literature is partially confirmed	Usually for theories of creativity there must be a product (Rogers, 1959, Runco 2007), such as inventions, patents, publications which is the most objective indicator to evaluate the creative performance.	Students´ perceptions posted creativity in relation to invention, difference and diversity, efficiency and effectiveness and added value. Creativity for those participants is the generation of new things, but didn´t refer what kind of things. A small group has referred new projects as a real need of schools.
P5. Creativity Persuasion **Partially accepted:** Literature is partially confirmed	Related to the creativity impact. Creative people change the way others think by their special style and communication skills. Persuasion means also building an historical reputation. Theories of social atributions are a used framework on this matter (Runco 2007a and b) .	Students perceptions are not precise in this dimension. However, communication skills of creative teachers as students motivation; and the schools reputation in their expertise area were referred.
P6. Person interactions **Partially accepted:** Literature is partially confirmed	Some research has demonstrated that school atmospheres can support or undermine creative potential (e.g. Dudek, Strobel, & Runco,1993). Issues as socialization levels, interpersonnal effects, student encouragement, interdisciplinary approaches to content, and open and accepting teaching styles have a positive influence on creative performance (Fleith, 2000; Yeh, 2004). Interdisciplinary discovery and integration may lead to creative leaps in knowledge (Root-Bernstein, 1989).	Although there`s a lot of work to do in this field, students interaction is a positive point in these schools: it is seen as very critical in the creativity requirements, by endorsing the role of social environment in the creativity reinforcement. Also teaching styles and interdisciplinarity in terms of new extracurricular activities is a strong requirement.

The leftmost column spans: **Creative Potential** (propositions P1, P2, P2) and **Creative Performance** (propositions P5, P5, P6).

Summarizing a response attempt to *what are the critical determinants on the creativity`s state of the art for the Portuguese polytechnic in higher education,* two dimensions have emerged: i) using productively their creative potencial; and, ii) fomenting their creative performance. Hence finding the balance between both is still a long way to go. In the schools studied there is effectively creative potential expecting to be developed, and turned into creative performance. According to the results, in these cases the creativity seeds are released but the conditions to germinate them are still missing.

Conclusion

Do schools kill creativity? TED speaker, Sir Ken Robinson (2009), provoked his audience arguing that we've been educated to become good workers, rather than creative thinkers. Likewise, Seth

Godin (2003) claims since we started going to school we've learned that attracting attention is often bad - it leads us to the school director's office and not to Harvard. The literature has discussed the school impact on the development of the individuals` creative potential (Fleith, 2000). However, the studies relating to creativity and education are not always consistent, displaying different conclusions. Nevertheless, the relevance of creativity in higher education is an unquestioned issue. Therefore, what should be the effective role of schools on the creative potential and performance development of their students? Is it a serial killer of creativity or a redemption angel?

A set of paradoxes emerge when these problems are discussed. Some studies have been clear arguing that school atmospheres can support or undermine creative potential (e.g. Dudek, Strobel & Runco 1993). Schools must pay attention to the hard task of creativity management: having creative people is not enough; if the other P´s are not consistent, creativity may be condemned. Based on the adopted hierarchical framework (Runco, 2007), the balance between the dimensions of creative potencial and performance is critical. The creativity impact, i.e., the creative performance can only succeed if the creative potential is guaranteed.

The present study emphasizes this paradox. The participants` perceptions corroborate the relevance of 6 P´s for their school to be considered as creative. However, the reality is adverse. More than half of the participants said that their school is not considered as such. There is a gap between how itt should be and the practice. However, some efforts for leveraging creativity have been made, such as keeping reputation on its expertise areas, extracurricular activities and learning encouragement. Nevertheless, there is a long way to go. According to the above research scenario more studies on creativity are required. Further studies must go deeper on the 6 P´s indicators, complementing and stressing the presented creativity model. Comparing public toprivate higher education could maybe bring a new vision for current creativity problems.

Public education has its specific contingencies. It has been tenuously referenced in above cases as bureaucratic, too hierarchical, standardized, extremely rigid, conservative, and uncreative. The discussion of creativity the paradox, - it is necessary but repressed -, is one of this study implications. A road map to implement a creativity strategy in higher education is advanced. It is based on the theorethical framework, that balancing creative potential with creative performance indicators; and, based on participants` perceptions. Assuming the two cases as empirical evidences, creativity in public education in Portugal is advanced and the related state of the art confined. Lastly, as an effort for enhancing the complex knowledge of creativity studies, a creativity definition for higher education was generated and operationalized. The current work also contributes to the progress of this complex area of knowledge.

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Acknowledgments

PART 5
PERSPECTIVES – CHANGES OVER TIME

DEVOLUTION OR DECENTRALIZATION OF HUMAN RESOURCES FUNCTIONS IN TIME AND COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

The objective of the present study was to assess the role of HRM (Human Resource Management) which is - either solely or in cooperation with the management- responsible for the following areas in an organisation: wages and benefits, education and development, staff recruitment, industrial relations and the harmonisation of labour needs. The devolution/decentralisation of the HRM is indicating how much of the primary responsibility for individual policies is passed on to the line managers. Established research suggests that devolution can have a negative impact on the effectiveness of the implementation of the HR function within the organization. In our study, the aim was to compare the level of devolution of HRM function in Slovene organizations in a time perspective, namely for the year 2001 and 2015. In the year 2001 the sample included 205 organizations and 218 organizations in the year 2015. We calculated the total index of devolution of human resource management and for each area of HRM separately to assess the determinants that influence the changes between two periods of time. Our results suggest that the main changes are in the field of industrial relations.

Introduction

In the present article we will deal with the process of decentralisation of HRM function in Slovenian organizations in a time perspective. The process of decentralization or the devolution of HR function means an actual transfer of tasks from the HR department to the line managers within the organization. For us to better understand this process, we would have to carry out a discussion about the different forms of employment systems, which are in use by the companies and organizations and which in majority determine the process of devolution. The employment systems in the organization are the result of the management decision about how much will the company rely either on the internal or external labour market while managing its employees.

The decision for either internal or external labour market is in an organization in majority defined by different factors, such as: the company's profitability, the competitive position of the company in the industry, the situation of the economy (recession or recovery) etc. Hereinafter we will firstly look into, how in theory (especially in the management discipline) the decision about which labour market will the organisation use is understood, what are the consequences and what all this means for the process of devolution of the HR function in the organization. Then we shall draw attention to the empirical data and look into how the process of devolution has progressed in Slovenian organizations in the last 15 years, since it was first measured in Slovenia. We will be interested in particular in the individual dimensions of this process and the determinants that have a big role in this process.

Internalized and externalized labour market

Companies are as a productive function (classical economy theory) always also a management structure with its own internal labour market. With the help of the internal labour market, the companies are promoting greater efforts of employees and therefore are exact in dispensing with

the ratio of reword to promotion opportunity for the employees and by doing so are creating an increase in labour demand through non-price means.

The internal labour market by its structure, width and formalization varies a lot from organization to organization. Kaufman (2010a) believes that a discipline, which examines the industrial relations (IR), has to accept this variability. That is why he designed a concept of an employment system (Osterman 1987, Begin 1991, Mardsen, 1999), which is more organizational than the Dunlop (1958) concept of the industrial relations system. The employment system (ES) is a configuration of structures, policies , programs and practices, which the company adopts to gain, dismiss, develop, motivate, coordinate and manage the the labour output in a way to best achieve the organisational goals (Kaufman 2010a:95). The assumption of IR is that the interactive diversity of the external environment of the company and their internal structure and organizational characteristics, goals and strategies are leading the owners/managers to shape a certain number of configurations of employment systems (ES) or "HRM architectures" (Lepak and Snell, 1999).

A company has to decide to gain the cooperation of the employees either with the help of the controlling techniques (like timing, the conveyor belt) or through the techniques and practices of HPWP (High Performance Work Place) and with high rate of commitment (participation and an appropriate rate of the pay and benefits). From this calculation then derives the decision of which ES the company is going to employ.

Some (smaller) companies discover that they gain the most profit by using the "simplest" ES, mostly from the informal HRM programs and from the great exposure of the employees to the external labour market. Other companies (foremost manufacturing) maximize their profit by "factory" ES, that has a strongly controlled behaviour through a high level of division of labour and specialization of tasks and functions, the method of the conveyor belt, high standards of HRM systemisations of workplaces, with a high rate of recruitment and dismissal of employees. The third kind of companies (for example high-tech companies) are using the "commitment" ES that maximises profits through achieving high levels of efficiency, organizational learning and civic behaviour of employees, through a great deal of autonomy and self-regulation, a wide range of opportunities for training and development, workplace security and mutual reward and pay (mutual-gains pay).

However this is also a decision of value about what kind of relations will the management build on in the organisation: ES approach to the companies which is focused on the HRM modes, includes not only the interests of the owners and consumers but also wider social interests and especially employee interests and social/humanistic goals, like equity, protection of basic human rights, the provision of elemental democratic procedures at work (participation, representation, fair process and "voice") and an opportunity for a person's self-progress and self-actualisation at work.

On the other side the "external ES" is considered as a "low road" ES, with a high rate of turnover, little training and lack of commitment. Huselid (1995) claims that an application of developed HRM (HPWP and a good internal consistency of these practices) leads to positive effects in all companies.

Developed HRM implicate well-made strategies and policies of HRM, which work on a double plan: on an organizational efficiency as well as individual needs of employees (Boxal, 2014). This kind of value orientation is directed more into sustainable use and implementation of HR, which will balance the demand for profit as well as the use of human capacity in a way that would take employees into account, their wellbeing and self-realization in the long run. Therefor it would be

necessary to subtly coordinate between flexibility and safety, effort and reward, work and personal life. To achieve this coordination, it would be sound to use human capacity in organization and provide consistent use of HR practises throughout the entire organization.

Developed HRM implicate well-made strategies and policies of HRM, which are soundly implemented throughout organizational structure (Boxal, 2014). The line managers should help to achieve this and they in great part in organisations implement HRM policies. Of course it is very much dependent of them how they will understand the needs of the employees and if they would have the proper support from the HR experts and strategic decision makers for implementing HR policies. From here there is a great focus on the devolution or transfer of HR tasks on to line managers.

Devolution or decentralisation of HR function

Devolution or decentralization of HR function talks about how much is the base responsibility of HR politics in the company transferred to the line managers. The base motive for this process is seen by Budhwar & Sparrow (1997) in the following:

1. Increased employee motivation
2. Greater supervision from the management, as the immediate leaders are in a constant contact with the employees
3. Preparation of future leaders
4. Decrease of the labour costs

Perry & Kulik (2008) say that this is a global and increasing trend. But Larsen & Brewster (2003) are noting that even though the devolution strategy is in a rise, it is still a modest trend.

Hall & Torrington (1998) are noting that devolution leads to a broad spectre of consequences for the line managers as well as the HR experts and the organization as a whole in terms of being able to shape and manage homogenous and coordinated HR policies throughout the whole organization. The risks for the organizations are:

1. HR policies are left to the line managers, that have not received proper training on this field (Hall & Torrington, 1998).
2. The success of the organization is dependent on the realization HRM policies on a micro level (Becker & Huselid, 1998).
3. Implementation on this level is because of lack of time often inadequate (Renwick, 2003).
4. Employees do not receive proper treatment on various areas.
5. HR policies and programs are not implemented consistently throughout the entire organization.
6. There is not enough attention devoted to HR aspects.

All the points of view mentioned above, that have been established by researchers are indicative of the fact that devolution could have negative effects on the success of HR functions in an organization (Bond & Wise, 2003)

Perry & Kullik (2008) have come to an interesting conclusion while researching personnel specialists about whether their organizations introduced devolution in the last five years and if the HR function is a success in the organization. Personnel specialists have evaluated that the management of human resources was more successful in those organizations where the role of the line managers in HR areas was more active (higher level of devolution). But we have to add that this was so only when the line managers had the support with these activities from the personnel specialists in when they received the proper training on the field. Perry & Kullik

(2008) have come to a conclusion that if the line managers had support with these activities from personnel specialists, they were able to carry out the HR activities quite successfully. They divided the organizations on those that were implementing devolution and those that have not. The support of the HR experts was, surprisingly, more critical for the success within the organizations that have not been implementing devolution.

HRM is in general either independent or in cooperation with management responsible foremost for these areas in the organization: wages and benefits, training and development, recruitment, IR, coordinating of workforce needs. Looking at the data for Slovenia for 2015 and 2001, we can say that although the proportion of independent decision-making of experts and heads of HR, compared to 2001, are falling it is evident that in all these areas experts and heads of HR are more involved with line management rather than independently performing tasks.

Management operates independently or assumes primary responsibility particularly in the area pay and benefits (28.2%), while HR experts and management in the area of IR (43.2%).

If we look at how the devolution has progressed in the last 15 years in Slovenian organizations it is best that we look at every area of HR activities separately by years of collecting data, namely for the years 2001 and 2015.

Table 1: Devolution of HRM in Slovenian organizations for every area of HR activity 2001
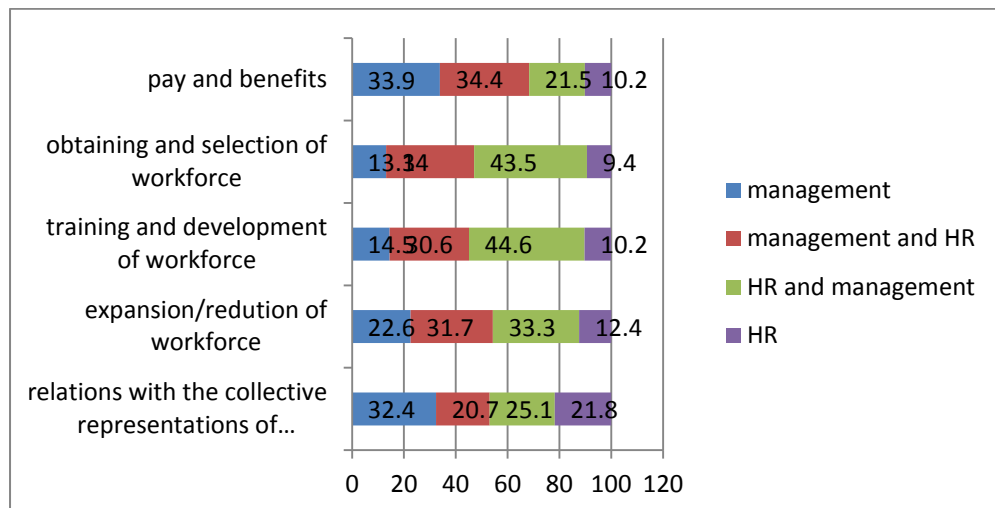
Table 2: Devolution of HRM in Slovenian organizations for every area of HR activity 2015
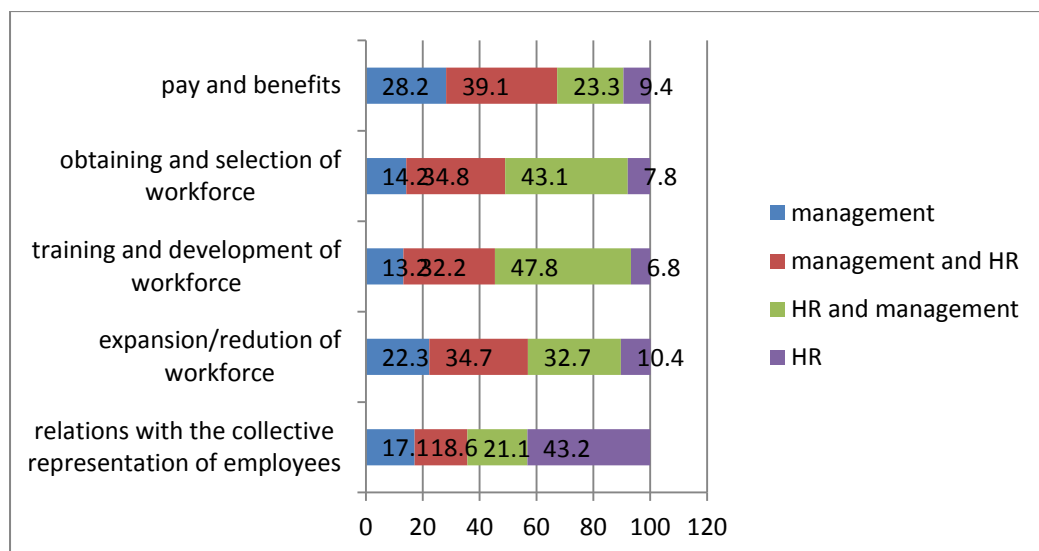
a) In deciding about pay and benefits the line managers are still in large responsible, which means that here we see the highest level of devolution.
b) In obtaining and selecting workforce we can establish that through the years the ratio in responsibilities between HR and management has not significantly changed in Slovenian organizations. This field has been represented roughly the same with both groups (HR and line management). We could be speaking of a partnership of a sort here, which is one of the goals in the process of devolution.
c) On the field of training and development we can also establish, that through the years the relationship in the responsibility between HR and management has not significantly changed in Slovenian organizations. This area has roughly the same representation from both groups (HR and management, but slightly leaning towards HR). This is naturally understandable as the HR crates training plans and implements the activities as well as evaluates the progress of the employees in this area. We could also talk about a *partnership between both groups,* as mentioned, one of the goals in the process of devolution.
d) The line managers are mostly are responsible in the area of workforce growth or reduction. About 22,3% line managers decide this in Slovenian organizations and only in 10,4% the HR decides.
e) In the area of industrial relations however the changes are pretty large. The role of HR has doubled whereas the role of the line managers has halved in 15 years in Slovenian organizations. What is the main reason for this is hard to assess. We would have to look into additional analysis to establish the most important factors that have brought these changes about in this amount of time. The role of HR within the area of relations with the union representatives of employees can be varied. It depends on how much the union representatives of employees are present within the organization. If they are present then HR function enters in relations with them, where HR mostly represents the interests of the organization or employer. Where these representations do not exist, HR has a role in representing the employee in the relation to employer and to negotiate in their name with the strategic management. This double function of HR function is often overlooked. With the newly developed organizations and companies it sometimes happens that they are without union representatives or trade unions. In these organizations HR can be the representative of the interests of the employees in relation to strategic management.

To better understand the process of change in Slovenian organizations in the last 15 years in the area of devolution of industrial relations we first have to focus on the theoretical views of the

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relationship between HRM and IR and from these views then look on these changes and give an evaluation.

Employment relations: Conflict or/and co-existence between IR and HRM?

Inclusion of HRM practices inside regulation framework of IR has always been problematic and dependent of how we view the relations that the organizations establish with the trade unions. It is also dependent of the reality of IR with which the personnel specialists are faced with when they are trying to implement HRM practices, so that the organizations and companies can achieve their strategic goals. For better understanding of these relations we will first focus on companies where the collective negotiations are dominating and where the syndicate activities are a part of everyday work management and work relations.

Employment relations by definition contain HRM as well as IR.

According to Stone (2002: 13-14): "HRM as a theoretical model involves the recruitment, development, remuneration, motivation and maintenance of an organisation's workforce. Its functional activities are integrated, proactive and strategically orientated to the achievement of business objectives, and they include the organisational practices of human resource planning, job analysis and job design, recruitment and selection, training and career development, performance appraisal and management, compensation and benefits, health and safety and evaluation."

'Industrial relations' as a theoretical model involves the rules governing workplace relations and the institutions established to govern and enforce these rules. These 'rules' are represented in the terms and conditions of work set out collectively and individually agreed labour contracts and common law contracts, as well as grievance procedures, dispute settlement processes, statutory regulations, codes of conduct, industrial law, and similar. Their formulation is reached through practices such as negotiation, conciliation, arbitration, collective bargaining, individual bargaining, and their governance and enforcement are mediated through 'institutions' such as trade unions, employer associations, industrial tribunals, state-sponsored regulatory bodies and the civil courts. Its various orientations and activities are predicated on collectivist and pluralist assumptions, and these assumptions accept the possibility of inherent conflict in workplace relations (Gospel & Palmer, 1993).

These different practices, rules and institutions included in these two definitions fall on the area which we can understand as "employment relations".

IR are substantiated on an assumption that there is always a possibility of a potential conflict between competing groups of employees, therefore the rules and institutions are needed for regulation of these conflicts. HRM on the other side is based on an assumption that conflicts are not necessarily an inherit part of work relations and therefore the rules and institutions are not needed.

An organization can choose between different approaches in relations with trade unions. Fells (2003) divides them in four approaches:

1. The first one predicts the managing of relations with trade unions as extenal, with the relations through outside exchange, this means with employer association and other representatives and thus enables inclusion of the company in negotiations. The advantage of this approach is in that the management can rely on the outside expertise, which is inexpensive, especially for smaller organizations. It also provides organizations with a means of resisting the trade unions demands with relaying on the industrial standards and collective decisions made by negotiations. The shortcoming of this approach by Fells (2003) is that

every answer will be less appropriate for an individual organization and that it might not mean a solution of the industrial conflict in the organization. This approach is mostly realised in a system of centralised collective negotiations, where the pay and the work conditions are determined with collective negotiations from the outside. In this kind of system it is hard to predict a co-existence between HRM and IR within the organization.

2. The second approach includes the managing with trade unions *internally through a specialized department (HRM)*. In this case the organization through HRM department negotiates directly with the syndicate and the agenda of negotiations is more specifically defined and clear in terms of conditions of the company. The main advantage of this approach according to Fells (2003) is in that it allows for the formation of quality relations between management and the syndicate providing results of negotiations which are consistent for the whole organization. It allows the organization to approach the managing of relations with the trade unions in a proactive and not in a reactive way. The biggest deficiency this approach according to Fells (2003) is that it accelerates the influence of the trade unions in the process of decision-making in the organization which can lead to emphasizing more making peace with the trade unions than achieving business goals. This process is consistent with a system of negotiation relations on the company level. But because it is focused on the level of the company, the co-existence of HRM and IR, according to Fells (2003), is possible through limitations of expectations from the side of the trade unions.

3. The third approach according to Fells (2003) is the inclusion of the trade unions *internally through cooperating with the line managers*. In this case the line managers are mainly responsible for industrial relations and are in direct negotiations with the trade unions and are providing a presence and continuation in industrial bodies and associations. With this the line managers can resort to the advice from the specialized departments (HRM) or the outside employers associations, but the main responsibility for the results and the outcomes of the negotiations is on the side of the line managers. Because of the vicinity of the line managers to the problems of the industrial relations the main benefit is the early and fast problem solving in IR. It also promotes a higher rate of communication and cooperation between line management and employees and thus allows solving of problems before they may lead to conflict. The biggest flaw of this approach is that it marginalises the trade unions on the workplace. It also relies strongly on the competences of the line managers, that they are able to solve problems of industrial relations, trade unions relations and industrial representatives. As with the last approach this one is consistent with collective negotiations on the company level. The co-existence between HRM and IR is possible through limitations of expectations from the side of the trade unions.

4. The fourth approach includes managing relations with the trade unions either external through employers associations or internally through line managers or specialized department (HRM), but in this case the *goal is not to coordinate with the trade unions and solve problems in relation to industrial relations but the goal is eliminating both (trade unions and solving IR) from the company.* To this end they are trying to persuade the employees not to join the trade unions in a way that line managers directly manage the employees individually in an exclusive way. This also connects to prevention of access to the trade unions in the workplace and contradicting the employees demands. The main advantage and disadvantage of this approach according to Fells (2003) is that there is a great responsibility on the side of line managers and that the company as a whole relies on their competence regarding IR, syndicate relations and external representatives in collective negotiations. This approach is centred on a company, like with

the last two approaches, but here the company wishes to restrict the part of the trade unions and rules that regulate workplace relations deliberately.

The main element of these four approaches could be summarised in a conclusion that the central collective negotiation is more consistent with the workings of IR and the individual negotiation is more consistent with HRM, but none of them is capable of supporting a real co-existence of practices of HRM and IR. According to Fells (2003) the collective negotiation on the company level is exactly the one that allows this co-existence, because it allows good coordination of interests of HRM and negotiation agenda of the trade unions. This way they are ensuring the possibility that the HRM practices affect the workplace relations in a way that they contribute to the strategic goals of the company. They also allow the trade unions to adjust their demands to the interests of the employees in the individual company and professional groups of their members and also insure the well-being of their members and protect them from unforeseen actions of management.

Our findings about devolution and the transfer of HRM practices onto the line managers that in the area of IR in Slovenian organizations are showing that we are moving away from bigger role for line managers and are nearing giving a bigger role to HRM departments in IR. According to Fells (2003) it is more like the second approach that includes managing the trade unions *internally through a specialized department (HRM).* This means more formalization in the organization and more formal ways of communicating with the employees and cooperation with their representatives rather than leaving this responsibility to the line managers.

Questions being raised are: Does this mean the acceptance of the pluralist conception of IR from the part of HRM and abandonment of utanitaristic logic of HRM, is too early to conclude. This move certainly makes progress in this direction possible.

Factors affecting rate of devolution in Slovenian organizations

For the needs of our analysis we have calculated a *devolution index,* which we got by adding up the value for the variable: *who in our organization is in large responsible for the following areas:* pays and benefits; recruitment and selecting the workforce; training and development; relations with employees, trade unions, workers council; expansion/reduction of workforce?

The variable had the following values:

1- In our organization personnel specialists are mostly responsible (the lowest level of devolution)
2- In our organization the personnel specialists and line managers are mostly responsible
3- In our organization the line managers and the personnel specialists are mostly responsible
4- In our organisation the line managers are mostly responsible (the highest level of devolution)

Below there is a list of independent variables, which we used in our analysis as factors affecting the level of devolution. What the variables amount to is:

1. Flex 1 Numerical Flexibility _ Temporary – temporary work
2. Flex 2 Numerical Flexibility _ Fixed – limited time work
3. HR_strat the presence of HR strategy
4. LOr - size Natural logaritem organization size – the size of an organization
5. HR_size – the size of the HR department within the organization
6. Age of organization

7. Ind_sec P primary, Secondary (primary and secondary sector)

   Ind_sec T Service (service sector)

   Ind_sec U (industrial sector).

   We have calculated the regression analysis namely for a total index of devolution and the area of IR namely for the years of 2001 and 2015:

- pays and benefits
- recruitment and selecting of the workforce
- training and development
- expansion/reduction of workforce
- relations with employees, trade unions, workers council

   Here we will show the results of a regressive analysis for a total index of devolution and for the area of industrial relations, because here is where the biggest change has happened for the duration of 15 years.

   The analysis shows that the factors that affected the overall process (index) of the devolution in 2015 have been:

- Numerical flexibility (negative), which means (more numerical flexibility, less devolution)
- HR strategy (negative), which means (more written HR strategies, less devolution)
- The size of the organization (negative), which means (bigger organization, less devolution)
- The age of the organization (positive), which means (the higher the age of the organization the higher the devolution)
- Sector (negative) which means less devolution in secondary and service sector.

Table 3: Standardise Coefficients that determines the Devolution Index of HRM and IR (Industrial Relations) in Slovenian organizations for the year 2001 and 2015

| | devol Devolution HRM Index | | | | devol Devolution of Industrial Relations | | | |
| | 2001 Devolution Index | | 2015 Devolution Index | | 2001 Industrial Relations | | 2015 Industrial Relations | |
	Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Standardized Coefficients	Sig.	Standardized Coefficients	Sig.
Flex 1 Numerical Flexibility _ Temporary	-,042	,630	-,103	,052	-,071	,389	-,059	,264
Flex 2 Numerical Flexibility _ Fixed	-,049	,566	-,059	,282	-,228	,005	-,059	,276
HR_strat	-,108	,217	-,278	,000	-,018	,826	-,208	,000
LOr - organization size	,049	,688	-,172	,015	,210	,061	-,255	,000
HR_size	-,017	,892	-,012	,854	-,109	,338	,026	,698
Age	-,034	,711	,134	,014	-,114	,175	,145	,008
Ind_sec P primary, Secondary	-,217	,033	-,097	,077	-,337	,000	-,139	,011
Ind_secT Service	-,140	,158	-,074	,185	-,155	,094	-,124	,025

a) Dependent Variable: devol Devolution HRM Index
b) Dependent Variable: Devolution - Industrial relations

Why is HRM taking over industrial relations in 2015?
The results of the analysis show substantial changes regarding the levels of devolution of industrial relations. In the year 2001 we had the highest level of devolution in this area (compared to the other countries in our sample) (Mesner and Štebe, 2004), now in the year 2015 the responsibility has heavily shifted to the personnel specialists.
If we look at the results of the regression for the devolution of the industrial relations we see that in 2015 it has been affected by:
- HR strategy (negative), which means (more written HR strategies, less devolution)
- The size of the organization (negative), which means (bigger organization, less devolution)
- The age of the organization (positive), which means (the higher the age of the organization the higher the devolution)
Therefore, put differently, taking the role of industrial relations from the part of personnel specialists is important that the organizations have a written HR strategy, that they are big and that they are younger.
What does that mean? More strategic HRM, more worries from the personnel specialists for industrial relations.
Does this also mean changing the unitaristic concept of HRM and acceptance of a pluralistic logic of HRM is, like stated previously, too early to tell. This move certainly makes progress in this direction possible.
In relation to 2001 the model of influence on the levels of devolution were significant even then (even though the model of regressive influences for the whole index of devolution in 2001 was not significant), the influences on devolution of industrial relations were:
- Numerical flexibility (negative), which means (more numerical flexibility, less devolution)
- The size of the organization (negative), which means (bigger organization, less devolution)
- Sector which means less devolution in secondary sector.
-

Conclusion

 In the present article we wanted to find out what kind of changes happened in the process of devolution in Slovenian organizations in the last 15 years. We analysed the levels of devolution in individual areas managing HR tasks, as well as the changes throughout the time. We have concluded that some areas of HR tasks have stayed fairly stable, that the roles of different groups have not significantly changed in the last 15 years.

In the area of *recruitment the workforce* and *training* we can conclude that through the years the ratio in responsibilities between personnel specialists and managers has not significantly changed in Slovenian organizations.

In the area of *deciding about pay* the line managers have still the biggest responsibility, which means that here is where the highest level of devolution has occurred.

The *reduction of workforce* is also still manly decided by the managers. About 22,3% of them are still the decision makers in Slovenian organizations and the personnel specialist only in 10,4% of the cases. This decision has been in all 15 years mostly in the hands of the line managers not the personnel specialists.

The analysis of the factors that effect on the process of change in the levels of devolution has shown, that it is manly effected by the following factors : numerical flexibility (negatively, which means bigger numerical flexibility, lesser devolution), HR strategy (negatively, which also means, more written HR strategies means lesser devolution). Here you can still see the duplicity of the role of personnel specialists in the process of devolution, as we have concluded in the analysis 15 years ago. Does the presence of written HR strategies means that the personnel specialists want a role in the process of doing tasks and decision making keep for themselves and do not want them delegated to the line management, we cannot say through our analysis. All we can say is that a possibility for this exists.

The size of the organization also affects negatively, which means that the bigger the organization the less devolution there is. For Slovenian organizations this kind of influence could be explained by the process of shaping the functional structure of the organization. As with the growth the organization is develops its formal structure, where new units are formed, departments and the HR department in general (historically speaking) is one of the last in the development of the functional structure of the organization.

HR specialists come into the fore by mainly in the field of IR, particularly in bigger and younger organizations with written HR strategy predominantly in the industrial sector, where trade unions play an important role.

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WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP IN AFRICA AND LATIN AMERICA/THE CARIBBEAN

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Abstract

This theoretical paper begins with an overview of the gendered workplace around the world. It then discusses the situation for women in the workplace in Africa and Latin America/the Caribbean. This review of the literature on gender in these regions serves as the basis for recommendations regarding avenues of research.

Overview of the Gendered Workplace

Punnett (2016) said that gender in the workplace around the world remains an important focus and a relevant area for research today. In an attempt to gain a better understanding of the area, she posed the question, "How are women faring globally?" and in response noted both negatives and positives. On the negative side, she argued that women continue to face many challenges in the world of work, including stereotypes and biases which make it difficult for them to succeed. On the positive side, women are making major inroads both at the macro level and the micro level. Overall, she was hopeful that the world will achieve a more gender equal workplace in time.

The message regarding women, everywhere around the globe is mixed, but women are faring better today than in the past. It is the reality that women have not yet achieved equity in the workplace and that work is influenced by gender. Women around the world have achieved much and there are examples of women who have served successfully at the highest levels, in spite of continuing gender biases. Gender equality is increasing in most parts of the world (Hausmann, Tyson & Zahidi, 2012) as women are better educated, healthier today and they are participating in the workforce in increasing numbers. Economic equality lags behind education and health, and in the political arena, women have made relatively little progress.

One measure that is often used to judge the advancement of women in the workplace is their rise to executive levels and corporate boards. Several measures show that women are still a very small minority at these upper levels. A survey by the Pew Research Center (2015) in the US indicates that only approximately 5% of CEOs for Fortune 500 companies are women. The survey also shows that while the public feel that women are equally qualified as men, barriers persist for women in the corporate world. Legislation regarding to top levels has had some success in improving the workplace for women. Various organizations and specific companies have introduced and developed and introduced policies to make the workplace more women and family-friendly. Nevertheless, around the world, women are seen primarily as wives and mothers, and are expected to put family ahead of work and a career. It also seems that in the workplace in most countries, male characteristics are seen as being managerial and women are expected to be supportive rather than decision makers. These attitudes are gradually changing, with evidence that women make good managers and that including women at the top has a positive impact on the bottom line. As more women move into middle and upper levels, this positive image should

be reinforced. In the future, women entering the workforce should have more role models and mentors to help them succeed.

The understanding women in leadership in Africa and Latin America/the Caribbean is limited. The objective of this theoretical paper is to discuss the role of women in leadership in these regions so that we can gain a better understanding of the realities for women in leadership positions in these countries. Our findings provide the basis for developing research projects focusing on women in Africa and Latin America/the Caribbean.

Gender and Leadership in Africa and Latin America/the Caribbean

In the following discussion, we provide a review of the information on women in leadership in Africa and Latin America/the Caribbean.

Africa: The role of women in leadership in Africa is an important aspect of doing business. As with many other aspects of doing business, this role varies, sometimes dramatically from country to country and region to region. Overall, women's workforce participation is relatively high in Africa (Chen, 2008) but it ranges from about 40% in countries such as Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi and Uganda to 80% or more in countries such as Burkina Faso, Burundi, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea and Sierra Leone. North Africa, in contrast to the rest of Africa, has a low participation rate of about 20% (Chen, 2008). While workforce participation is relatively high in some countries, the same is not true of women in leadership roles. According to the International Labor Organization (2013), women are disproportionally found in informal employment (which includes no contracts, hired and paid on an hourly or daily basis, no benefits, and so on) where they are paid less than men. According to the UN, more than 80% of women workers are in vulnerable jobs (which includes informal employment, where the job can disappear at any moment, and where workers can be asked to undertake dangerous tasks) in sub-Saharan Africa. Sub-Saharan Africa, along with South Asia has the highest rate of informal employment in the world. In contrast, South Africa has high rates of unemployment but also a high rate of formal employment. North Africa also has high levels of formal employment.

One place where women hold leadership roles is as entrepreneurs. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor's (2014) *Women's Report* found that entrepreneurial activity among women had increased by seven percent across 61 economies worldwide in just two years. Women entrepreneurs had also narrowed the gender gap by six percent since 2012 and were adding to economic growth through entrepreneurship. This is the case in Africa, where sometimes, because of a lack of opportunities in traditional employment, women become entrepreneurs. Africa has a higher rate of women entrepreneurs than any other region of the world, according to the African Development Bank. Compared to other regions of the world, sub-Saharan Africa has the highest number of female entrepreneurs (Ventures Africa, 2015). In Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda and Zambia, women were as likely as men or more likely to be entrepreneurs. In spite of the growth and success of women entrepreneurs in Africa, they face financial constraints, and the African Development Bank has developed programs to provide support for them.

There has been a strong move across the African continent recently to enact legislation aimed at gender equality (Our Africa, 2015), and this should improve the situation for women in leadership roles (Nkomo & Ngambi, 2013). Rwanda and Tanzania both have created constitutional requirements for government to include a certain number of women, and this is reflected in the high number of women in Rwanda's 2011 parliament (Rwanda was the only country where women outnumbered men in government). Even where there are no quotas, African governments are beginning to include more women. The election of Ellen Johnson

Sirleaf (2006-current) in Liberia and Joyce Banda in Malawi (2012-2014), as Executive Presidents of their respective countries, is a sign of gender changes occurring in Africa, as women become leaders. These changes bode well for the role of women in the workplace as well. As a whole African countries have demonstrated commitment to promoting gender equality and empowerment (UN Women, 2015), with almost all countries ratifying the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and more than half ratifying the African Union's Protocol on the Rights of Women in Africa. These changes suggest that more women will be entering the workforce throughout Africa, and that managers will find that these women want more from the workplace, and want the opportunity to advance and become managers and leaders themselves. Local African managers may find these changes challenge their stereotypical perceptions of women, but they may also find that there are benefits to having women's ideas in the workplace, and having women as leaders with men as subordinates. This will undoubtedly be difficult for some men, and will call for changes in their attitudes, which companies will need to support. Foreign managers working in Africa, who come from countries where gender equality is more of a reality (for example, the Nordic countries) may be surprised at the continuing inequality in Africa, but they can also be assured that African women are seeking equality and will react positively to efforts to promote equality. Foreign women who go to Africa as managers and leaders need to be prepared for the different environment and be ready for subordinates to perhaps question their ability to lead. Support systems need to be in place to help deal with this reality.

Latin America/the Caribbean. The Gender Gap Index (World Economic Forum, 2012) found that the Latin America and Caribbean region had closed 69% of its overall gender gap. The region performed well on the educational attainment and health and survival sub-indices, and was ranked second, after North America ranking in first place. In terms of education, women in the region generally outperform males in terms of enrollment; for example, at the University of the West Indies, women account for some 80% of undergraduate and graduate students. Thirteen countries in the region have fully closed the gender gaps in the health and survival sub-index, and four have fully closed gaps in educational attainment. On the economic participation and opportunity sub-index, the region was in the fourth place. The region performed well in terms of numbers of legislators, and senior officials and managers, with ten out of the twenty best performers globally from Latin America and the Caribbean. The region ranked ahead of Sub-Saharan Africa, North America and the Middle East and North Africa on the political empowerment sub-index, with a score of .18. Nicaragua coming in 9th place led the way in Latin America and the Caribbean in the category of political empowerment and was the only country from the region to hold a place in the top 10 of the global rankings. The World Bank (2013a, b) says that labor force participation among women increased dramatically over recent years, nevertheless, the participation rate for women is about 60% versus 80% for men (World Bank 2013b). The gender wage gap remains high, and women work in traditional sectors, such as services, domestic services and not in the high tech, construction or skilled fields. There is a persistent wage gap, particularly in Chile, Brazil, Mexico and Peru, where male professionals can earn up to a quarter more than their female counterparts. In terms of women on boards, Latin America does not do well. According to a report by Corporate Women Directors International, Latin America has 5.6 % women, higher than only the Middle East and Africa at 4.6 % and lower than the Asia-Pacific region at 7.1% (CWBI, 2013). Mexico and Brazil were higher at 5.8% and 5.1% respectively. On the other hand, Chile was lower at 2.8%. According to Leutert (2012), women in Latin America are employed disproportionately in less productive sectors. Men also far outnumber women in corporate leadership positions across industries, and

like most of the world, studies report that Latin America's women are often paid significantly less than men for the same labor. Even when Latin American women make it to the top of their field, 61% report some form of discrimination at work. Leutert (2012) also notes that one can expect more Latin American women to enter the workplace, and that this will increase the need to juggle work, family, and other responsibilities. Punnett et al.'s (2006) study of successful women in Latin America and the Caribbean highlighted the importance of family support for these women. Interestingly, in some interviews, women noted that household help is relatively inexpensive and it helps in dealing with work-family challenges. A McKinsey survey (2013) says that gender diversity is gaining ground in Latin America, even though women in the region are still greatly underrepresented in top management. Interestingly, women are more likely than men to say they want to advance their careers. These are among the findings from a McKinsey survey on workplace diversity, which asked executives across Latin America what their companies are doing to attract and retain female employees, why there are few women at their companies' highest levels, and which barriers keep women from reaching the top. Leutert (2012) concluded that despite the challenges Latin American women face, women in the workforce, and especially women in leadership positions, are good for Latin America – for its families, for its businesses, and for its future. She noted that women's income had had an even greater effect on the lowest rungs of the socioeconomic ladder, reducing the severity of poverty more than twice as effectively as men's earnings.

Discussion

These findings indicate that the role of women differs from country to country in Africa. Similarly, the role of women varies across Latin America, and in various Caribbean countries. While women's workforce participation is relatively high in Africa, it ranges from 20% to 80%, depending on the country. Although female participation in the Caribbean is at an all-time high, women are being prevented to reaching their leadership potential due to child-rearing and care-taking responsibilities. Interestingly, we found that many African women turn to entrepreneurial activities for income.

The Gender Gap Index Report (World Economic Forum, 2014) says that some of the most compelling findings regarding the benefits of gender equality come from companies. Companies that include more women at the top levels of leadership tend to outperform those that don't. The report argues that, "with a growing female talent pool coming out of schools and universities, and with more consumer power in the hands of women, companies who fail to recruit and retain women—and ensure they have a pathway to leadership positions—undermine their long-term competitiveness" (p.v). There is an underlying belief, which is supported by this Gender Gap contention, that it will be better for humanity and the world as a whole if women are treated equally, at home and at work. This is true in Africa as it is elsewhere.

The contributions that women can make in the workplace is particularly relevant to the situation in African and Latin American/Caribbean countries. Most of these countries have been relatively poor, and unstable governments and conflict, as well as health problems have been a concerns in these regions.

Research Suggestions

Overall, one can conclude that women in Africa and Latin America/the Caribbean hold lower level positions and are paid less than men, and thus are less involved in strategic decision making. Some issues that affect women are: work-family balance (managing full-time work and a household). The traditional view of women as primarily home-makers and mothers/wives that

makes it difficult for them to participate equally and meaningfully. Successful working women note the importance of support from their spouses and families in achieving success. These all continue to be relevant areas for research, particularly in terms of how these factors can be managed effectively. There are factors at play – legislatively and societally – which should eventually lead to a more gender-balanced world of work and thus more involvement of women at all levels, including in strategic decision making. The interesting research question is how this change will affect decision-making. If strategic decisions change because of changes in gender representation, this will undoubtedly affect many aspects of organizations. Such changes would provide researchers with fertile ground for examining a myriad of gender and organizational relationships. A particular area of interest is whether and how the "think manager, think male" stereotype may change in response to demographic changes in the workplace. Positive outcomes may include more responsible and compassionate decision-making, for example, improving the organization without compromising the environment and other stakeholders. There is a substantial body of research on gender and equality in the workplace, nevertheless, there is room for much more. The initiatives in many places to make the workplace more equitable and to increase women's participation at all levels provide a fertile area for research.

Many of these initiatives provide, in effect, a field experiment that should allow researchers to pinpoint the impact of interventions, and to make causal statements about their impact. According to Brooks and Brooks (1997), most people prefer men to act like men and women to act like women. Society has certain expectations, and men and women are viewed more favorably when they conform to stereotypical roles than when they deviate from them. So, women are expected to act like women, but male characteristics are associated with success in the business world. If a woman manager acts like a good manager (i.e., a male manager), this is seen as negative from a personal point of view; if she acts like herself (i.e., feminine), this is seen as negative from a management point of view. Research on how successful women overcome this "catch 22" can provide valuable guidance for women managers and professionals. Research along the lines of Punnett et al. (2006) can help to determine the different factors influencing stereotypes and overcoming the stereotypes.

Our review suggests that women in leadership in Africa and Latin America/Caribbean have the potential to play a key role in the political and business milieu. Given the African origins of much of Latin America/the Caribbean, it is interesting to discuss women in leadership in these regions. Given the high degree of participation of women in entrepreneurial activities as a necessity, there may be important implications for developing entrepreneurial programs. There are many ideas about the factors that contribute to women continuing to face challenges in the workplace; future research could explore how and why these factors are changing. Future research could also continue to explore what works to improve gender equality in the workplace

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RELATIONS BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS SUCCESSFUL CAREER, CAREER AND SATISFACTION WITH COMMITMENT TO CAREER

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Abstract

This study presents new career concepts, characterized by a more personal perspective, such as subjective success, satisfaction and commitment with career, in addition to the traditional concept of success in the career. Adopts a quantitative approach using structural equation modeling for create two models and test their assumptions, for the professional category of higher education teaching in Brazil, (n=384). Results indicate that career satisfaction influences the commitment and career satisfaction and career commitment positively influence the subjective success and that career satisfaction influences the perception of objective success. The contribution is the proposal of a model that relates satisfaction with career, career commitment and perception of success in the career, grounded in theory as an exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

Introduction

One of the significant impacts of the global scenario has been the weakening of what was once considered a stable system and relatively linear planning and employee career development: a system driven by the organization and not the individual. Some changes such as demographic and cultural led people change their behavior and their attitudes towards career (Sullivan & Baruch, 2009). The entry of women into the labor market, the rise of new family structures, increased life expectancy and the consequent extension of working life, greater emphasis on the balance between personal and professional life, new careers internet like the bloggers, among other changes, boosted recognition of the importance of other dimensions of life in the careers of people like, for example, satisfaction, success and commitment (Chanlat, 1995; Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2000). There is a greater expectation for careers to provide activities that have greater meaning and reflect life purposes of individuals who wish to contribute to a better world (Wrzesniewski, 2002). According to Hall (2002), career has moved to be managed by the individual and not by the organization itself. The post-industrialization brought greater emphasis on individual freedom, and this emancipatory process makes people less inclined to accept authority and dogmatic truths and causes them to prioritize freedom of their choices in all areas of life (Inglehart & Welzel, 2005). According to Hall and Chandler (2005) and Hall and Mirvis (1995), due to changes in the career context, individuals have not trusted in the direction of their organizations to improve their careers. They have realized the self-management of their own careers. It seems plausible, therefore, that the results of success, satisfaction and career commitment may be related. It´s in this proposal to analyze the results of success, satisfaction and career commitment and indicate later a model that relates them is what this study fits.

Careers

Kilimnik and Visentin (2014) show that the concept of career developed an evolutionary line towards greater expansion based on the work of several authors (Arthur, Hall & Lawrence (1989), Ballout (2009), Baruch (2003), Baruch (2004), Blau (1985), Briscoe, Hall & Demuth et al. (2006), Briscoe Hall & Mayhofer (2011), Defillippi & Arthur (1994), Duberley, Cohen & Mallon

(2006), Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk. (2009), Grote & Hall (2013), Gunz & Peirpel (2007), Hall (1996) & Inkson (2004), among others).

It is observed, thus, that studies on career, initially focused on the career plans of companies, begin to thoroughly approach the changes that resulted in the concepts of self-directed careers, borderless and multidirectional.

More recently, it is noticeable that other issues begin to arouse the interest of scholars and researchers, such as balance between personal life and career, images and career metaphors, creativity and ultimately career transitions, which are becoming increasingly frequent. There is also the tendency of studies to consider the influence of reference groups and the context in career decisions, and also to consider, in addition to work-family models, including multidimensional measures against career.

In this study, it was decided to adopt the following concept of career: "[...] a pattern of roles taken together with the time of the individual's subjective career experience, [in order to treat career as] the sequence evolution of a person's work experiences over time"(Arthur, Hall & Lawrence, 1989).

Construct Analysis

The concept of commitment to career evolved from focusing solely in the interest of the career choices and has lately been characterized by the development of personal career goals, identification and participation on these goals. One that shows high career commitment will persist in achieving their career goals, despite the potential barriers and misfortunes that can draw near. Thus, career commitment relates to the degree to which people feel anchored in a career (Fu & Chen, 2015). For Carson and Bedeian (1994), commitment consists on the motivation that someone has to work in their chosen vocation.

Now the definition of a successful career often referred to in contemporary literature is "[...] the experience to achieve the goals that are personally significant to the individual, rather than those set by parents, colleagues, organization or society" (Mirvis & Hall, 1994.). According to this definition, workers of all kinds have careers and can be seen as successful in one way or another. Scholars agree that success in the career has both an objective side, as a subjective side (Judge et al., 1995 and Seibert & Kraimer, 2001).

According to Costa (2010) career success - objective side - refers to aspects of successful career that are tangible and can be observed by others. Examples of the objective side of success in career are salary, number of promotions and functional level. The subjective dimension of a successful career – subjective side - refers to abstract or intangible markers, such as personal and social recognition.

Gosnell (2000) see the career satisfaction as the degree to which people are happy with their careers. Fu (2010) defined career satisfaction as the general level of happiness experienced through his career choice. Costa (2010) points out that the concept of job satisfaction falls within the scope of social psychology, defined as a set of positive or negative feelings that the individual expressed in relation to their work. That results from the comparison between expected of a given situation and what you could get it. Moreover, satisfaction is directly related to an important role that the fulfillment of professional expectations represents in the Individual's life. Career satisfaction can be considered as a state of contentment that individuals have deriveted from the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of their career, including pay, progression and development opportunities (Greenhaus, Parasuraman & Wormley, 1990).

Methodology

In the present study, we sought to implement the technique of structural equation modeling to study the various possible associations between the variables considered simultaneously. Due to the chosen research method, a single data collection instrument was developed, a questionnaire entitled "Values and Attitudes towards teaching career" closed questions and the Likert scale. After the instrument has been fully answered, each item can be analyzed separately or, in some cases, the answers can be summed to create a score for each group of items. Questions 01 to 12 were divided into aspects of Career Commitment based on the scale of Carson and Bedeian (1994). Questions 13-60 distributed into aspects of career success, based on the scale of Costa (2010) and finally, questions 61-65 distributed into aspects of the Career Satisfaction, based on the scale of Greenhaus; Parasuman and Wormley (1990). Once prepared, the questionnaire was submitted to a pretest. Ten people from the shared management of the Centro Universitário de Desenvolvimento do Centro Oeste - unidesc - located in the city of Luziania (Goiás) answered survey questions and made comments about understanding the difficulty of answering some questions, the length and layout of the instrument. At that time, it was possible to estimate the average used time to answer all the quiz - about twelve (12) minutes -; the inaccuracies were corrected and the questionnaire improved. Subsequently, the instrument was launched in SurveyMonkey platform, which is a global supplier of survey solutions for the Web. The sample used was non-probabilistic. The research population was composed by teachers of higher education institutions in Brazil. After the insertion of the instrument in the SurveyMonkey platform was open a collector of replies through invitation via email to 3,255 (three thousand two hundred fifty-five) institutions of higher education teachers throughout the country. This sample was achieved in institutional sites and professional contacts of the researcher, which features a convenience sample. As the population surveyed was 3,255 respondents was waiting for a sample of 384 respondents. SurveyMonkey collector was open to receive the responses from 05/08/2015 until 02/09/2015. Of the total of 3,255 emails sent there was obtained feedback from 349 respondents, about 10% of the total population, very close to the expected value of 384 respondents.

Table 1 was set up to facilitate the understanding of the relationship between the objectives, assumptions and methodology used in the survey - Model 1, since, according to the theoretical framework, we chose to test two models.

Table 1: Correspondence between the objectives and assumptions of Model 1

Objectives	Hypotheses Model 1	
Relate career commitment with Subjective career success with checking possible intersections between these constructs	H1a	The career commitment has a positive influence on the subjective success
Relate career satisfaction and career commitment, checking possible intersections between these constructs	H2a	The career satisfaction has a positive influence on the career commitment
Relate subjective success with career satisfaction, checking possible intersections between these constructs	H3a	The career satisfaction has a positive influence on the success objective
Relate commitment to career with successful career goal with checking possible intersections between these constructs	H4a	The career commitment has a positive influence on the success objective

Source: elaborated by the authors

According to the conceptual model 1 (Figure 1), the career satisfaction influences the career commitment which, in turn, influences the perception of success objective and subjective perception of success. The career satisfaction directly influences, also, the perception of subjective success.

Figure 1 - Conceptual Model 1
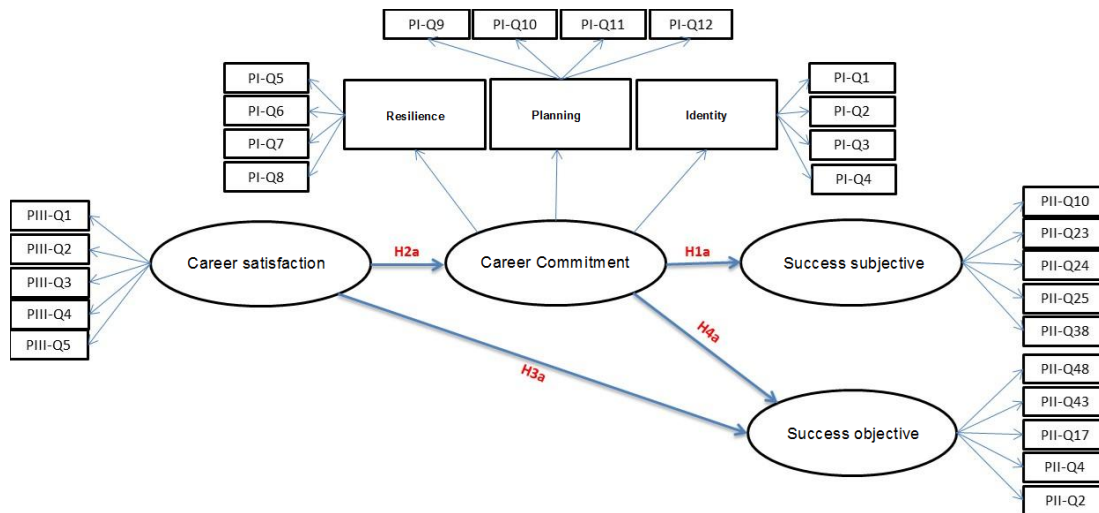
Source: elaborated by the authors

Table 2 was set up to facilitate the understanding of the relationship between the objectives, hypotheses and methodology used in the survey - Model 2, since, according to the theoretical framework, we chose to test two models.

Table 2 - Correspondence between the objectives and assumptions of Model 2

Objectives	Hypotheses Model 1
Relate career satisfaction with Subjective career success with checking possible intersections between these constructs	H1b - The career satisfaction has a positive influence on the subjective success
Relate career commitment with Subjective career success with checking possible intersections between these constructs	H2b - The career commitment has a positive influence on the subjective success
Relate career commitment with successful career goal checking possible intersections between these constructs	H3b - The career commitment has a positive influence on the success objective
Relate career satisfaction with successful career objective with checking possible intersections between these constructs	H4b - The career satisfaction has a positive influence on the success objective
Relate career satisfaction with commitment career with checking possible intersections between these constructs	H5b - The career satisfaction has a positive influence on the career commitment

Source: elaborated by the authors

According to the conceptual model 2 (Figure 2), career satisfaction has a positive influence on the subjective success and the success goal. The career satisfaction directly influences also the career commitment which, in turn, has a positive influence on the subjective success.

The structural equation model is divided into two parts: the measurement model and structural model. To check the quality of the adjustments, we used the R2 and GoF (Tenehaus el al, 2004). R2 represents, on a scale of 0% to 100%, as much as independents constructors explain the dependents, and, the nearest to 100% the better. Now GoF is a geometric mean of average of AVEs of the constructs and the average model R^2 and also varies from 0% to 100%. Still there is no cutting values in literature to consider an adjustment as good or bad, but it is known that the higher the value, the better the fit. Accordingly, the best fit for the model 2 has been detected.

Figure 2. Conceptual Model 02
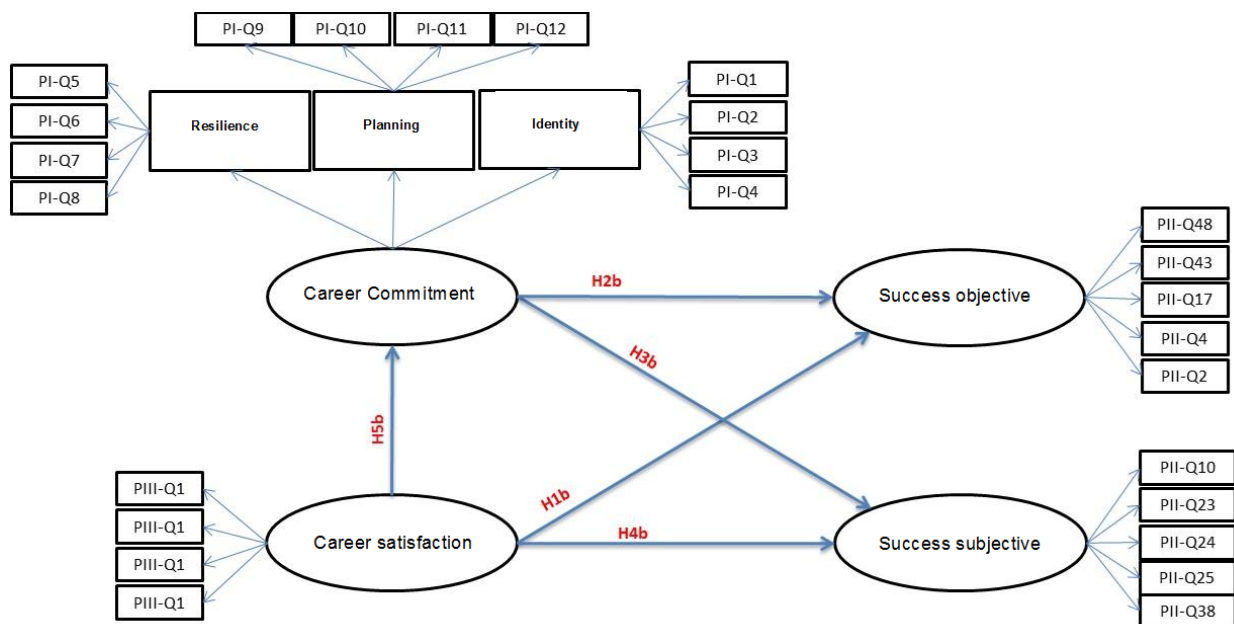
Source - elaborated by the authors.

To compare the rates estimated by structural model with the characteristic variables used were Mann-Whitney tests and Kruskal-Wallis (Hollander & Wolfe, 2013). For structural equation modeling via PLS method was used function plspm (Partial Least Squares – Path Modeling) plspm Package R software (version 3.2.2).

Results

In possession of 349 answered questionnaires, proceeded with the closing of the collector and subsequent export of data to Excel file type arrays. These were submitted to the critical data process, meaning, of the total of 349 respondents, 11 individuals exhibit more than 10% missing data in variables used in multivariate models, therefore these individuals were excluded from analysis. Among the remaining 338 individuals and 27 variables used in multivariate models, there were 70 (0.77%) lost data in 9126 and in such cases, we opted for the imputation by the average of the variable (Hair et al., 2009).

The highest percentage of respondents were male (54.7%). Most individuals are married (66.0%). Most of the individuals are of public institution (81.6%).76.1% of individuals have average income above R $ 7,000. 62.7% of individuals are between 31 and 50 years of age. 77.3% of individuals have doctorate or post-doctorate. 26.4% of individuals have up to five years of teaching and 24.9% have over 20 years of teaching. 45.9% of individuals have a higher workload to 40 hours weekly. 22.6% of individuals have another source of income. 44.7% of individuals have some administrative activities.

Table 1 and Figure 1 shows the results for the model that considers as endogenous variables (dependents) the constructs career commitment " *"Subjective success" and "success objectives." It may be highlighted that:*

1) In relation to career commitment: there is significant influence (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β=0,559 [0,50; 0,64]) the career satisfaction over the career commitment. Thus, the higher the career satisfaction, the greater the commitment to career. The indicator above could explain 31.2% of the commitment of the variability with the career.

2) Regarding success goal: a significant influence (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β=0,643 [0,54; 0,73]) and positive the career satisfaction over the success goal. Thus, the higher the career satisfaction, the greater the objective success. There was no significant influence (p = 0.154) of career commitment on the success goal. Both indicators above were able to explain 46.7% of the variability of success objective; in regard to subjective success: there is significant influence (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.396 [0.27; 0.51]) the career satisfaction over the subjective success. Thus, the higher the career satisfaction, the higher the subjective success. There is significant influence (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.249 [0.13; 0.37]) of career commitment on subjective success. Thus, the higher the career commitment, the greater the subjective success. Both indicators above were able to explain 32.9% of the variability of subjective success.

Note also that the model presented a GoF of 43.7%. That is, this is a model that showed the best results. Confidence intervals via bootstrap agree with the results via p-value indicating a validation of the results presented.

Table 1: Structural Model 2

Dependents	Independents	β	I.C - 95%	E.P.(β)	Value-p	R²
Career Commitment	Career satisfaction	0,559	[0,50; 0,64]	0,045	0,000	31,2%
Success objective	Career satisfaction	0,643	[0,54; 0,73]	0,048	0,000	46,7%
	Comp. with career	0,069	[-0,04; 0,17]	0,048	0,154	
Success subjective	Career satisfaction	0,396	[0,27; 0,51]	0,054	0,000	32,9%
	Career Commitment	0,249	[0,13; 0,37]	0,054	0,000	

Validation of Bootstrap; GoF=43,7%.
Source: Research data.

Figure 1 - Illustration of the structural model 2
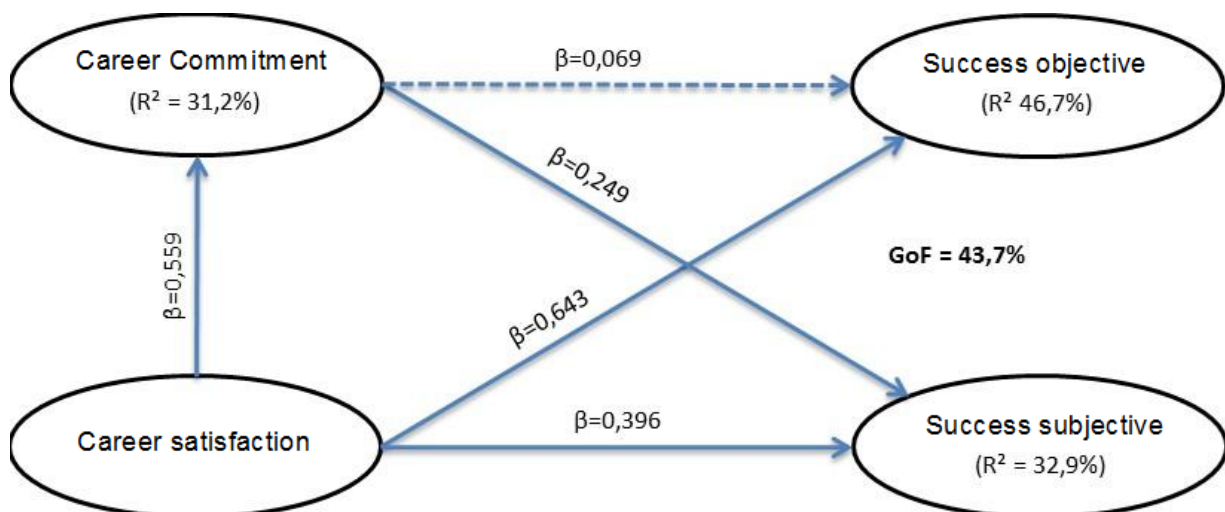
Source: Research data.

Below, hypotheses and their results are presented. Hipótesis the H1, H2, H4 and H5 were verified corroborating Kong, Cheung and Song studies (2012), Poon (2004), Ballout (2009), Aryee and Tan (1992), Aryee and Debrah (1993). The only hypothesis not confirmed is that the career commitment exerts positive influence on the success objective.

Table 2 - Hypotheses of the structural model 2

Hypotheses		Results
H1b	The career satisfaction has a positive influence over the subjective success	Confirmed
H2b	The career commitment has a positive influence over the subjective success	Confirmed
H3b	The career commitment has a positive influence on the success objective	Not confirmed
H4b	The career satisfaction has a positive influence on the success objective	Confirmed
H5b	The career satisfaction has a positive influence over the career commitment	Confirmed

Source: Research data.

Conclusion

This study developed a conceptual model for understanding the interrelationships between commitment constructs with career, career satisfaction and career success. The results reinforce the findings of other authors, especially those that supported hypotheses of this research: Kong, Cheung and Song (2012), Poon (2004); Ballout (2009) and Aryee and Tan (1992); Aryee and Debrah (1993) which culminated with the proposition of a robust model that relates the constructs career satisfaction, career commitment and perception of success (subjective and objective) in career.

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PERFORMANCE: INFLUENCE OF COMMUNICATION, ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION AND CONFIDENCE

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Abstract

The aim of the study was to develop and validate a model to identify the influence of communication, organizational identification and confidence about the performance of organizations. The research was descriptive and quantitative in a soft drink Industry, Brazil. Hypothesis (N=9) were raised and was applied a questionnaire in 310 employees, according to the constructs: Internal Communication, Trust in the Co-worker, Trust in the Manager, Organizational Identity and Performance. The hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H5, H6, H7, H8 and H9, were confirmed. The higher the organizational identification, the greater will be the trust in the manager and the performance. The proposed model confirm that the organizational identification influences on individual performance, and hence on organizational performance.

Introduction

The relationship between human capital and the organizations and how this human capital is formed based on these relations, is grounded on the epistemology that deals with the Social Identity and the Organizational Identification (Ashforth; Harrison & Cosley, 2008).

The discussion has as theoretical background the assumptions of the Social Identity Theory and the works that discuss the process of identification with organizations such as in Ashforth & Mael (1989); Pratt (1998); Dukerick & Harquail (1994); Ashforth, Harrison & Corley (2008), and organizational support (Zagenczyk; Gibney; Few & Scott, 2011) to generate performance. Following these assumptions, the organizational identification is seen as one of the possible forms of social identification and, depending on the intensity, are configured in identification and non-identification, as well as the ambivalent identification and neutral identification (Marra, Fonseca & Marques, 2014). According to Hughes & Ahearne (2010), the organizational identification is formed by the set of representations that its members formulate about the meaning of this organization, in a social context.

Therefore, the expected results of organizational identification, lead to organizational performance which is directly linked to individual performance through commitment and is not directly related to turnover (DeConinck, 2011).

The focus of this study was to propose a model to describe the organizational identification and understand the interrelated constructs, justifying this research.

Theoretical Framework

The social identification according to Ashforth & Mael (1989), Tajfel & Turner (1985) is based on the formation of self-esteem and self-definition by providing that the individual develop a sense of belonging to certain social groups. They reinforce that this "psychological grouping" in which various individuals perceive themselves as belonging to a same social class and self-define themselves as members of that particular group, begins with the individual comparing himself/herself to other members of society and realizing himself/herself as distinctive and unique. After comparison, the same individual begins to evaluate positively or negatively, the

various social groups. Through these comparisons and evaluations, he/she defines the others and himself/herself, starting to perceive himself/herself and the others as having or not the same characteristics inherent to that selected group (Tajfel &Turner, 1985).

Several researchers as Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Pratt, 1998; Dutton, Dukerich, Harquail, 1994 & Ashford et al., 2008, emphasize that members make several types of comparisons of "identity" and that these comparisons affect their attitudes and behavior towards the organization. The greater the coherence presented with this comparative process, the higher the identification level of the individual.

The completion of the comparison process according to Foreman & Whetten (2002), can be achieved through the evaluation of the individual about the beliefs and the dominant values in the organization based on his/her own self-definition (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) or comparing the perceptions of the members themselves of what is the dominant identity of the organization where they work, with what they preferred it to be (fictitious).

Now, according to Pratt (1998), the identification process is linked to four aspects: psychological security (identification serves as a means of imitation that the individuals use to solve their own emotional contradictions), affiliation (the need that people have of belonging a group, avoiding isolation), self-worth (the individual tries to imitate the behavior of others individuals that, in his/her opinion, are important to his/her aggrandizement, generating a positive self-concept) and meaning (the individual seeks for referenced values that can bring a reason for his/her life, incorporating them to his/her attitudes).

Wieske, Kraus, Ahearne & Miquelon (2012) argue that people tend to identify themselves with groups that they perceive as different and attractive, and that members of these groups help improving self-esteem. DeConinck (2011) corroborates with Wieseke et al. (2012), when he says that, in organizational contexts, the identification motivates people to adopt desired behaviors such as organizational commitment and greater performance.

Hughes &Ahearne (2010) describe that some authors suggest that the identification based on work is among the strongest and most penetrating social identities, due to the amount of time that a common person spends in a work environment and because of the importance of the work for their livelihood and well-being. When an individual identifies himself/herself with an organization, his/her perceptions about the members of this organization are incorporated into his/her overall self-concept. Thus, the organizational identification can be conceptualized as the perception of unity or belonging in relation to the organization.

Cooper & Thatcher (2010) suggest encouraging the identification as a facet of the organization. Hughes & Ahearne (2010) point out that the organizational identification generates greater effort, higher performance, greater job satisfaction, lower employee turnover, as well as it strengthen cooperation and the organizational citizenship behaviors. Thus, these authors define the behaviors of extra effort as proactive behaviors by employees and behaviors that are outside the scope of the job description, but that adds to the viability and vitality of the company, generating profits.

Pratt (1998) states that the identification is the level of congruence between perceptions, expectations and needs of individuals and that the higher the level of congruence, the greater the extent to which the individuals identify themselves (Marra et al., 2014). Some researchers like Dukerich et al., 1998; Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004, named these various dimensions as: *over-identification* (the individuals place their work in the foreground in their lives and most of their

attitudes and thoughts revolve around their work, unlinking their individual identity, and this may lead to a lack of critical sense in relation to actions and organizational policies, compromising creativity, besides the breach of the psychological contract due to retirement or resignation, causing suffering and illness to the individual), *non-identification, ambivalent or conflicting identification* (the individual can identify himself/herself with certain values or attributes of the organization perceived by him/her as positive, as well as he/she cannot identify himself/herself with others values and attributes, seen as negative) and *neutral or apathetic identification* (the individual in a self-protection procedure, does not make a linked identity to the organization and may develop, in a certain time, a different culture inside him/her, starting to identify himself/herself with that particular group (Dukerich et al, 1998; Kreiner &Ashforth, 2004).

In non-identification, the individual assumes an entirely different behavior of the organization, i.e., he or she does not have the same values and principles defended by senior management. He/she knows how to separate his/her values of the organization values', understanding the differences between what he/she is and what he/she is not. There may be aggressive feelings of resistance to what is proposed by top management (Dukerich et al., 1998). Zagenczyk et al. (2011) corroborate Dukerich et al., (1998) describing the "non-identification" term as the sentimental condition of an employee in relation to himself/herself or his/her self-definition, corresponding beliefs and values that are in direct opposition to what he or she realize of the organization.

The "non-identification" and identification are not opposite ends of a continuum, because the fact that an employee does not identify himself/herself with the organization, it does not mean that he or she separates himself/herself cognitively and stands in direct opposition to it. The employee can take disinterested attitudes toward an organization by which he/she does not identify himself/herself or "non-identify".

According to Cooper et al. (2010), the organizations should direct the intentions and behaviors of the employees seeking organizational identification, due to one of these six reasons: self-development, self-consistency, personalized belonging to a small group or positive interpersonal relationships, depersonalized belonging to a larger community or organization, self-expansion and reducing uncertainty.

Therefore, the organizational identification represents the cognitive link between the definitions of the organization and the definitions of oneself. It follows that there is a greater connection between the organizational goals and the goals of the employee when the organizational identification is high. Personal goals have a strong motivating effect on behavior. The organizational identification should moderate the impact of the distribution control systems in the relative effort applied by the individual on behalf of the organizational entity (Hughes & Ahearne, 2010).

It is emphasized that to leverage a high level of organizational identity, the employers must hire and retain employees whose values are similar to the values of the organization. The companies want to retain the employees with best performance (Deconinck, 2011).

Wieseke et al. (2012), describe that the competitive intensity promotes the identification, both at work and staff and at organizational levels.

Methodology

The methodological strategy used was the quantitative technique , as to the purposes was descriptive (Gil, 1999). Was applied a questionnaire structured in linear scale of 1 to 10,

organized in groups of issues according to the constructs: Internal Communication, Trust in the Co-worker, Trust in the Manager, Organizational Identity and Performance. The participants were the factory, administrative and transportation staff.

The hypothetical model I (Figure 1) was based on the 9 hypotheses presented below:

H1: The Internal Communication affects significantly and positively the Organizational Identification.

H2: The Internal Communication affects significantly and positively the Trust in the Co-workers.

H3: The Internal Communication affects significantly and positively the Trust in the Manager.

H4: The Internal Communication affects significantly and positively the Performance.

H5: The Organizational Identification affects significantly and positively the Trust in the Co-workers.

H6: The Organizational Identification affects significantly and positively the Trust in the manager.

H7: The Organizational Identification affects significantly and positively the Performance.

H8: The Trust in the Co-workers affects significantly and positively the Performance.

H9: The Trust in the Manager affects significantly and positively the Performance.

Figure 1 – Hypothetical model
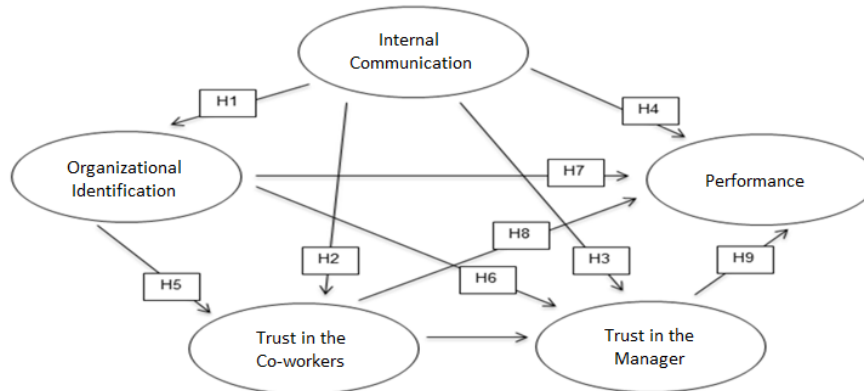
Source: Data from the authors

For the statistical analysis as shown in Figure 1, the R software (version 3.0.2) was used and it was applied the exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, dimensionality, reliability, validity and structured equations methods. The 86 (0.86%) missing data cases, totaling 9,920 items, were used for multivariate analysis.

Results and Discussions

Three hundred and ten employees in the soft drinks factory in Brazil participated. Table 1 shows the reliability, the convergent validity and the quality of the constructs.

Table 1 - Reliability, convergent validity and dimensionality of the constructs

Constructs	Items	AVE	AC	DG	KMO	Dim
Internal communication	7	0,52	0,84	0,84	0,84	1
Trust in the co-workers	6	0,54	0,82	0,82	0,79	1
Trust in the manager	6	0,62	0,87	0,86	0,80	1
Performance	6	0,63	0,88	0,87	0,88	1
Organization identification	5	0,65	0,87	0,85	0,83	1

Source Elaborated by the authors.

Table 2 shows the average and the 95% confidence interval for the constructs items in general and stratified by the groups, Factory, Transportation and ADM.

Table 2 - Average and 95% confidence interval for the items of the constructs

Constructs	Items	General Average 95% CI	Factory Average 95% CI	Transportation and Administrative Average 95% CI
Internal communication	CI1	4,10 [3,81; 4,40]	4,56 [4,15; 4,99]	3,66 [3,25; 4,07]
	CI2	3,97 [3,69; 4,26]	4,36 [3,93; 4,78]	3,60 [3,21; 3,98]
	CI3	5,60 [5,27; 5,91]	5,56 [5,11; 5,98]	5,64 [5,09; 6,09]
	CI4	4,28 [3,97; 4,60]	4,73 [4,30; 5,15]	3,86 [3,44; 4,29]
	CI5	4,74 [4,39; 5,07]	5,03 [4,58; 5,44]	4,45 [3,99; 4,96]
	CI6	4,76 [4,44; 5,07]	5,31 [4,90; 5,73]	4,23 [3,80; 4,69]
	CI7	5,77 [5,42; 6,11]	6,12 [5,69; 6,55]	5,44 [4,92; 5,99]
Trust in the co-workers	CCT1	7,08 [6,78; 7,37]	7,01 [6,64; 7,41]	7,15 [6,69; 7,57]
	CCT2	6,84 [6,50; 7,15]	6,69 [6,27; 7,11]	6,98 [6,52; 7,41]
	CCT3	6,57 [6,26; 6,84]	6,46 [6,03; 6,87]	6,67 [6,23; 7,13]
	CCT4	6,34 [6,03; 6,68]	6,60 [6,15; 7,02]	6,09 [5,61; 6,57]
	CCT5	4,17 [3,85; 4,50]	4,34 [3,87; 4,81]	4,01 [3,56; 4,49]
	CCT6	6,57 [6,23; 6,92]	6,19 [5,73; 6,69]	6,93 [6,45; 7,40]
	CCT7	5,51 [5,17; 5,87]	5,34 [4,81; 5,87]	5,67 [5,16; 6,15]
Trust in the manager	CG1	6,79 [6,43; 7,17]	7,44 [7,03; 7,85]	6,17 [5,62; 6,70]
	CG2	6,95 [6,63; 7,27]	7,52 [7,15; 7,93]	6,40 [5,88; 6,91]
	CG3	6,60 [6,26; 6,90]	7,17 [6,76; 7,58]	6,06 [5,59; 6,52]
	CG4	6,66 [6,32; 6,98]	6,93 [6,50; 7,36]	6,40 [5,87; 6,87]
	CG5	3,38 [3,05; 3,69]	3,58 [3,13; 4,06]	3,18 [2,77; 3,62]
	CG6	6,64 [6,28; 6,98]	6,62 [6,19; 7,04]	6,65 [6,14; 7,16]
	CG7	6,21 [5,87; 6,55]	6,31 [5,86; 6,78]	6,12 [5,60; 6,66]
Performance	DE1	8,03 [7,72; 8,31]	7,85 [7,44; 8,23]	8,20 [7,76; 8,59]
	DE2	6,79 [6,45; 7,10]	6,68 [6,25; 7,08]	6,91 [6,41; 7,34]
	DE3	7,33 [7,04; 7,61]	7,13 [6,78; 7,50]	7,52 [7,06; 7,98]
	DE4	7,81 [7,52; 8,10]	8,04 [7,66; 8,40]	7,59 [7,15; 7,98]
	DE5	8,06 [7,78; 8,32]	7,86 [7,48; 8,22]	8,25 [7,86; 8,62]
	DE6	6,67 [6,35; 7,00]	6,70 [6,31; 7,12]	6,65 [6,13; 7,19]
Organization identification	IO1	6,09 [5,72; 6,41]	6,60 [6,13; 7,07]	5,60 [5,13; 6,08]
	IO2	5,70 [5,36; 6,03]	6,23 [5,78; 6,70]	5,20 [4,73; 5,69]
	IO3	6,326 [5,94; 6,57]	6,39 [5,94; 6,81]	6,13 [5,65; 6,56]
	IO4	7,55 [7,26; 7,85]	7,32 [6,93; 7,70]	7,77 [7,35; 8,16]
	IO5	5,85 [5,51; 6,19]	6,06 [5,63; 6,51]	5,65 [5,16; 6,13]

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

It is noticed in Table 2 that the construct Internal Communication, in general, for CI3 and CI7 items, showed highest averages that the other items. The construct Trust in the Co-worker, in general, for CCT1 item, had the highest average compared to other items, while the CCT5 item, had the lowest average. The construct Trust in the Manager, in general, for CG2 item, had the highest average, while the CG5 item had the smallest average. The construct Performance, in general, for DE5 and DE1 items, had the highest averages, while the lowest average was for DE6 item. In the construct Organizational Identification, in general, the highest average was for IO4 item and the lowest average was for IO2 item.

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In Table 3, it can be seen the average and the 95% confidence interval for the averages of the constructs Internal Communication, Trust in the Co-workers, Trust in the Manager, Performance and Organizational Identification, overall and stratified by the groups Factory, Transportation and ADM.

Table 3 - Average and 95% confidence interval for the average of the constructs

	General		Factory		Transportation and Administrative	
Constructs	Average	95% CI	Average	95% CI	Average	95% CI
Internal communication	4,746	[4,52; 4,97]	5,096	[4,82; 5,38]	4,413	[4,07; 4,74]
Trust in the co-workers	6,152	[5,93; 6,38]	6,089	[5,76; 6,44]	6,212	[5,90; 6,53]
Trust in the manager	6,174	[5,93; 6,41]	6,512	[6,21; 6,78]	5,854	[5,51; 6,22]
Performance	7,449	[7,21; 7,69]	7,376	[7,05; 7,69]	7,518	[7,14; 7,85]
Organizational identification	6,289	[6,02; 6,53]	6,521	[6,13; 6,87]	6,069	[5,70; 6,40]

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

The construct Performance showed the highest average and the Internal Communication Group presented the lowest average, and in the groups Factory, Transportation and ADM, the scenario was similar.

Through the structural equation method it was identified that: the higher the internal communication, the organizational identification tends to be higher (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.564 [0.50, 0.63]); the trust in the co-workers also tends to be higher (p-value = 0.005) and positive (β = 0.161 [0.05, 0.28]); and the performance tends to be lower (p-value = 0.008) and negative (β = -0.139 [-0.23, -0.05]). The higher the organizational identification, the trust in the co-workers tends to be higher (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.461 [0.35, 0.59]); the trust in the manager tends to be higher (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.496 [0.39; 0.58]); and the performance also tends to be higher (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.476 [0.39, 0.58]).

The analysis of convergent validity, discriminant validity, dimensionality and reliability of the constructs was carried out in Table 4.

Table 4 - Validation of the measurement model

Constructs	Items	A.C.	D.G.	Dim	AVE	1	2	3	4	5
Internal communication	7	0,85	0,88	1	0,52	1				
Organizational identification	5	0,87	0,90	1	0,65	0,32	1			
Trust in the co-workers	6	0,83	0,88	1	0,54	0,18	0,31	1		
Trust in the manager	6	0,87	0,91	1	0,62	0,33	0,44	0,27	1	
Performance	6	0,88	0,91	1	0,63	0,12	0,43	0,30	0,30	1

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

For the model that considers Organizational Identification as endogenous (dependent) variable, it was obtained a significant (p-value = 0.000) and positive (β = 0.564 [0.50, 0.63]) influence of the Internal Communication on the Organizational Identification. The variable mentioned above was able to explain 31.8% of the Organizational Identification variability. The above results allow the confirmation of the hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H5, H6, H7, H8 and H9, that the related constructs affect each other significantly and positively. However, considering the H4 hypothesis, the study confirmed that there is a significant and opposing influence of the Internal Communication on Performance. Thus, the Internal Communication does not support the Performance. The GoF model was 49.01%, indicating a good fit of the model.

The structural model that best represents the studied relations can be seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2 – Structural model illustration
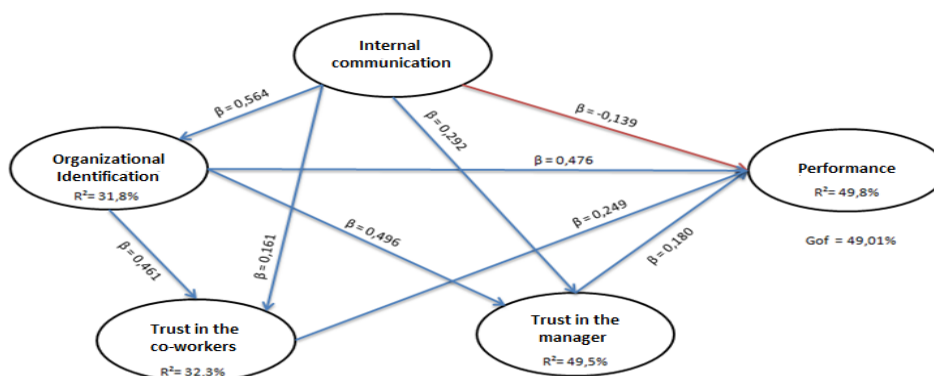
Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Table 5 presents the direct and indirect effects. Thus, it can be seen that, although the direct effect of the communication on performance is contrary (- 0.139), the indirect effect was positive (0.476), generating a positive overall effect of 0.337.

Table 5 - Analysis of direct and indirect effects

Relationships			Effects
	Direct	Indirect	Total
Internal communication - > Organizational identification	0.564	0.000	0.564
Internal communication - > Trust in the co-workers	0.161	0.260	0.422
Internal communication - > Trust in the manager	0.292	0.280	0.572
Internal communication - > Performance	-0.139	0.476	0.337
Organizational identification - > Trust in the co-workers	0.461	0.000	0.461
Organizational identification - > Trust in the manager	0.496	0.000	0.496
Organizational identification - > Performance	0.476	0.204	0.680
Trust in the co-workers - > Performance	0.249	0.000	0.249
Trust in the manager - > Performance	0.180	0.000	0.180

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Therefore, it can be seen that, followed by the Organizational Identification, with a total effect of 0.680 on Performance, the Internal Communication was the second variable that had the most influence on Performance, with a total effect of 0.337. The Trust in the Co-workers and the Trust in the Manager presented, respectively, the total effects of 0.249 and 0.180 on Performance.

In Table 6, the confidence intervals for R^2 overlap themselves, which indicates that the model fits equally and reasonably well to both groups. The GoF had considerably satisfactory values for both groups.

Table 6 - Quality Comparison of the adjustments for the adjusted models by group

Endogenous	Factory		Transportation and ADM	
	R^2	95% C.I.	R^2	95% C.I.
Organizational identification	26.5%	[16%; 40%]	37.8%	[28%; 49%]
Trust in the co-workers	34.3%	[21%; 49%]	34.7%	[18%; 47%]
Trust in the manager	44.7%	[33%; 59%]	55.4%	[47%; 65%]
Performance	61.7%	[52%; 72%]	43.7%	[31%; 58%]
GoF		50.03%		49.80%

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

The Table 7 presents the direct effects and the indirect effects per group. When the direct effect of the communication on the performance was negative, the indirect effect was positive, generating a positive overall effect. Therefore, the Organizational Identification had the highest total effect on Performance and the Internal Communication was the second variable that most influenced the Performance.

Table 7 - Analysis of direct and indirect effects

Relationships	Factory Effects			Transportation and ADM Effects		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Internal communication - > Organizational identification	0.515	0	0.515	0.615	0	0.62
Internal communication - > Trust in the co-workers	0.111	0.268	0.379	0.269	0.236	0.51
Internal communication - > Trust in the manager	0.145	0.3	0.445	0.366	0.284	0.65
Internal communication - > Performance	-0.108	0.451	0.343	-0.113	0.495	0.38
Organizational identification - > Trust in the co-workers	0.52	0	0.52	0.384	0	0.38
Organizational identification - > Trust in the manager	0.583	0	0.583	0.461	0	0.46
Organizational identification - > Performance	0.509	0.253	0.762	0.428	0.171	0.6
Trust in the co-workers - > Performance	0.206	0	0.206	0.256	0	0.26

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

In Model it was found that the higher the internal communication, the lower the performance, but, the higher the organizational identification, trust in the co-workers and trust in the manager variables, the greater the performance. The findings demonstrate that the organizational identification influences a greater confidence in the managers and co-workers, and the higher the internal communication, the greater the trust in the co-workers. The model no supports the studies of Ashforth &Mael (1989) and Tajfel & Turner (1985), where the good communication transmits clear messages, which makes people work productively and harmoniously, without misunderstandings and misinterpretations. It creates a climate of trust and credibility as people in a team start to accept other members as they really are, and this strengthens the social identity, but no performance.

There were no significant differences when comparing the structural model in the Factory, in the transportation and administrative sectors, but it can be noted that in the Factory group, the Organizational Identification had an influence on the Trust in the Co-workers and the Trust in the Manager greater than the Internal Communication.

Final Considerations

The structural model I allowed to analyze and confirm the hypotheses H1, H2, H3, H5, H6, H7, H8 and H9, that claim that the related constructs influenced significantly and positively the dependent variable, i.e.: The higher the Internal Communication, the greater will be the Organizational Identification. The higher the Internal Communication, the greater will be the Trust in the Co-workers. The higher the Organizational Identification, the greater will be the Trust in the Co-workers. The higher the Organizational Identification, the greater will be the Trust in the Manager. The higher the Internal Communication, the lower will be the Performance. The higher the Organizational Identification, the greater will be the Performance.

The higher the Trust in the Co-workers, the greater will be the Performance. The higher the Trust in the Manager, the greater will be the Performance.

In Hypothesis H4, the study confirmed that there is a significant and contrary influence of the Internal Communication on Performance. Thus, the Internal Communication does not support the Performance. Although the direct effect on Performance is contrary (-0.139), the indirect effect was positive (0.476), generating a total effect of 0.337.

As previous explanation, the measuring instrument meets the purpose of this study presenting one-dimensionality, high reliability indicators and convergent and discriminant validity. The model showed a good fit and validity to the presented results and equal weights assigned to the items of the constructs between the groups, indicating that the way to understand and measure the constructs did not vary by group. It was necessary to remove only one question for questionnaire adjustment. Thus, the data from this study support the conclusion that the measuring instrument was suitable for application in the transportation and administrative sectors of the Factory.

Throughout the whole literature and the results obtained by this research, it is propose the following suggestions for future researches: to apply the studies about the direct relationship of communication on performance, because it is necessary to better understand the reasons why the communication negatively affects the performance; to test this model in other types of organization; and to include other constructs for the study of the presented model.

The study had a limitation due to the size of the sample. It is suggested to investigate which constructs would have greater influence in generating sales efforts and facilitators.

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THE INFLUENCE OF CULTURAL CAPITAL AND SOCIAL CAPITAL ON MANAGEMENT PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

This study investigated the influence of cultural capital and social capital in the managers` performance. It was performed a cross-sectional survey with 180 managers of a capital goods multinational company based in Brazil. It was used an adapted scale from statements proposed by Pishghadam, Noghani, Zabihi (2011) to assess the cultural and social capitals of the leaders. For the performance self-evaluation, it was used a scale based on the task aspect, according to Borman and Motowidlo (1997). For the Performance in Leadership, it was used a scale that can be related to concepts based on the hierarchical taxonomy developed by Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002). The measurement model reached the validation criteria. Limitations will be discussed.

Introduction

In the information age, the organizations have experienced continuous transformations in all its subsystems, derived from a complexity of operations and processes increasingly interconnected and larger. All of these changes characterize the race for modernization that aims to increase the organizational performance and, thus, to ensure the competitive advantage of the organization. Considered as intangible assets in organizations, "people" are valued in a different way today, where the workforce is now recognized as something beyond of a simple resource or, more specifically, as something that generates a high value in terms of results for organizations. Along with this, in order to nurture and develop this new and valuable resource, the leadership becomes a central role within organizations.

Much has been discussed and studied about the subject, and usually, the most frequently asked questions are about the abilities and skills that a leader needs, and also regarding to how to prepare a good leader. Seijts (2013, p. 2) characterizes the importance of the relationship between leadership and the learning process, as follows: "All the leaders I met were distinguished by being passionate and dedicated in a process of continuous learning". At the same time, many studies have been conducted relating the various types of human behaviors with the cultural and social capitals. One of the main authors, who produced several studies about the process of social differentiation of the individuals not only by the economic capital, but through the access of each person to the cultural and social capital, was Pierre Bourdieu (Strehlau, 2007).

Another study of great importance and that deserves to be mentioned due to the similarity of the topic with this research is the work of Moran (2005), which aimed to investigate the influence of the social capital in managerial performance. It is in the expansion possibilities of the knowledge concerning the cultural capital, the social capital and the performance, that this research was inserted. Thus, the central question of this research was: Is there influence of the cultural capital and social capital in management performance?

Theoretical Framework

The capitals

The studies and concepts produced by the French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu and the American sociologist James Colleman stood out by analyzing the behavior of social classes. The two

sociologists used the economic term "capital" in their works, and according to Bonamino, Alves and Franco (2010, p. 488.), "Bourdieu and Colleman introduced the concept of capital in the social analysis to refer not only to its economical form, but also its cultural and social form". The first studies in the social sciences field linking the capitals to other factors, aimed to relate all forms of capital with school performance. Thereby,

> The problem that leads Bourdieu and Coleman to an expanded conception of the capital concept rests basically on empirical evidences which points out the limitations of the economic capital concept to fully explain the relationship between socio-economic origin and educational outcomes, taking these sociologists to consider other forms of capital, such as social and cultural capitals, that contribute and interact directly with the economic capital to strengthen this relationship. (Bonamino, Alves & Franco, 2010, p. 488).

It is important to note that the two sociologists make a great connection of the economic capital and the family origin. Thus, they address the social selectivity arising from family heritages. In this sense, individuals who have a family origin endowed with greater resources, in different ways, are naturally already in a favorable social position, allowing greater access to other "capitals". For Burt (1992), where the competition is imperfect the capital is less mobile and plays a more complex role in the social structure that he calls "competitive arena". Thus, in these environments, there are financial, social and legal impediments that hinder the mobility of people between the social positions. Still, it is important to note that Bourdieu studies, mostly, were represented by a social reproduction, so that his theory considers the dynamics of the social mobility. According to Strehlau (2007), the social structure changes may occur through the culture and the culture may be used as a vehicle for social mobility.

In general, it is important to note how the cultural capital influences the way of life and taste of the individuals, directly influencing the relationships and, in the case of this study, specifically influencing the individual's relationship with the work. Thereby, the cultural capital is deeply attached to the habits, tastes, and cultural practices of an individual. According to Jeannotte (2003), the educational sociology field had a great concern in investigate and document the personal benefits derived from investments in cultural capital. The Picture 1 presents the key concepts of cultural capital found in the literature. Nevertheless, among the definitions, it is important to consider the scope of the term in all its aspects.

Picture 1 – Cultural capital concepts

Cultural capital concepts	Authors
The cultural capital is defined by the provision of the taste or consumption of specific cultural forms that define certain people as a member of different classes.	Bourdieu (2007)
The cultural capital of a particular person is classified as high or low. The taste of those with high cultural capital is farther from the need.	Holt (1998)
The cultural capital is defined by the tastes guided by prestige, objects or styles validated by cultural authority centers, which maintain and spread patterns of social behavior and serve the community by clarifying and periodically reviewing the cultural currency.	Mohr e Di Maggio (1985)

Source: Research data

Considering the perspective derived from the social sciences, it can be said that the main representatives, responsible for defining and disseminating the social capital were Pierre Bourdieu (2007), James Coleman (1988) and Robert Putnam (1995). For Bourdieu (1996), the social capital is a set of current or potential resources connected to the possession of a durable network of relationships more or less institutionalized of mutual knowledge. In a simpler way, it can be understood as the resources of a person that make it possible for his or her to relate to others or participate in certain social groups. Therefore, Bourdieu defines that the volume of

social capital possessed by a given person depends on the size of his/her network of relationships.

The important continuity in the use and production of knowledge about the social capital occurred with James Coleman after the 1980s. For Coleman (1988), the social capital is defined by its function and is constituted as a specific type of resource, available to a particular social actor. So, it is not a single entity, but a variety of different entities with two elements in common: they all consist of some aspects of the social structures and facilitate certain actions of the actors, whether people or corporate actors (organizations). From studies about the decline of the social capital in American society, Putnam (1995) defines it as the characteristics of social organizations (social networks, norms and social trust) that facilitate the coordination and cooperation for mutual benefits. In the work of Tondolo, Tondolo and Bitencourt (2013) are presented the main existing concepts in the literature about social capital, according to Picture 2.

Picture 2 – Social capital concepts

Social capital concepts	Authors
Social capital is the aggregate of the current or potential resource that is assembled to possession of a durable relationships network more or less institutionalized of mutual knowledge or identification.	Bourdieu (1986)
Social capital is a variety of entities with two elements in common, which consist of some aspect of social structures and facilitate evident actions of actors (individuals or corporations) with the structure.	Coleman (1988)
Social capital is like friends, colleagues and, more generally, direct contacts from whom you receive opportunities to use your human and financial capital.	Burt (1992)
Social capitals are features of social life – contact networks, norms and trust – that enable participants to act together more effectively to pursue common goals.	Putnam (1995)
Social capital is the sum of the real and potential resources involved, available and derived from the network of relationships of the individual or social unit.	Nahapiet e Ghoshal (1998)
Social capital is the sharing of norms and values that promote social cooperation, instantiated in real social relations.	Fukuyama (2002)

Source: Tondolo; Tondolo; Bittencourt, 2013, p.99.

Leadership

Regarded as one of the intangible assets of the organizations, along with trademarks, patents and innovation, the human capital has been gaining increasing attention inside the companies. It is within this context, i.e., in order to manage, guide and influence people, that the role of leadership becomes central, aiming that they always achieve satisfactory results.

For Bergamini (1994), the term "leadership" is being investigated for at least 200 years in English language. Considering the different approaches, it is possible to highlight some steps that have characterized the process of evolution of the leadership studies: the first is the leadership explained by the personality traits; the second comes from the fifties, where there was a concern about the styles or behaviors of leadership; the third stage is characterized by the trend that considered the organizational environment to try to explain the behavior of the leader and the followers, called situational leadership; the fourth and final stage is related to the inspirational theories of the last decades, including the visionary, charismatic and transformational leadership.

For Goleman, as cited in Calvosa, Correia and Moura (2005), the leadership is characterized by the act of influencing people in order to make them engage voluntarily in a group goal. For the influence happen and the results be satisfactory, the leader needs to be prepared and in constant development to monitor the needs of the organization and the people around him/her.

People leadership

According to Fischer and Albuquerque (2011), the performance of a company depends on the ability of its employees to learn new skills, to have new behaviors and new working relationships. Thus, a leader cannot succeed in an organization if his/her cannot rely on people. In order to expand the concepts of leadership in the behavioral perspective, it is important to highlight the work of Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002), in which the authors propose a hierarchical taxonomy to structure into categories the behaviors of leadership. This taxonomy proposes three types of behaviors categories that are critical to the effective understanding of the leadership phenomenon. The first is the task-oriented behavior. The second is the relationship-oriented behavior, closely linked to the people leadership. The third and last is the change-oriented behavior. The relationship-oriented behaviors are:

- **It supports and encourages:** this behavior is related to show consideration and concern for the people involved. The leadership based on support helps to build and maintain interpersonal relationships.

- **It develops:** it is characterized by "coaching" and is closely linked to the development of skills and confidence.

- **It recognizes:** it refers to give merit and show appreciation for others as a consequence of a good performance achieved, as major contributions to the organization.

- **It consults the followers:** the key factor of this behavior is to engage the followers in important decision making processes.

- **It gives "empowerment" to the followers:** it is characterized by empowering and delegating, which means to give greater power in important decision makings.

Change Leadership

With an environment external to the organizations increasingly unstable, greater changes in a short time are increasingly common. Even so, according to Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002), only recently have researchers begun to take an interest in the initiative of the change-oriented leadership and for implementing change in organizations. Considering change-oriented behaviors according to the hierarchical taxonomy developed by Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002), it is possible to identify four of them, which are:

- **It monitors the external environment:** this behavior is related to monitor the external environment, identifying opportunities for the organization. The leaders should be aware to a wide range of information.

- **It proposes innovative strategies or new views:** it is characterized by the idea that a new vision effectively influences the commitment of a subordinate regarding a strategy or change.

- **It encourages the innovative thinking:** it refers to escape of the comfort zone and challenge people to question their ways of working in order to improve them and be always innovating.

- **It takes risks to promote the necessary changes:** it refers to the fact that the process of promoting big changes is always associated with some sort of risk.

Performance

It is important to differentiate organizational performance of the individual performance. The first is basically measured through operational efficiency and organizational performance indicators that are consequently achieved with the contribution of the individual's performance. Considering the perspective of the organizational individual performance, i.e., the individual's performance within organizations, "The performance can be recognized as the concrete and objective manifestation, of what the employee is able to do. It is something that can be defined, monitored and measured" (Lucena, 1992, p. 29).

According to an approach based on the characterization of the meaning of performance, in the United States, a country considered to be immersed in a context of greater equality and legal security, Barbosa (1996) defines performance as a socially legitimate mechanism that enables the society, in general, to evaluate, differentiate, prioritize and reward people. Thus, the author considers the performance as a more individual than social mechanism. In the performance model characterized by Borman & Motowidlo (1997), as a multidimensional concept, the task performance is considered a competence wherewith the individual performs the activities that are formally recognized as part of his/her work. In this sense, the performance is related to the direct contribution of the individual in the task.

Methodology

Research characterization

As for the approach, this research is characterized as quantitative. According to Appolinário (2009), the quantitative research seeks to measure predetermined variables, in order to verify and explain its influence on other variables. The search is centered on mathematical information; it does not worry about the exceptions, but rather with the generalizations. As for the nature, is characterized as descriptive which, according to Vergara (2003), exhibits characteristics of a given population or phenomenon. It can be said that the way the data were collected is characterized by a cross-sectional survey. The field of study was conducted with people active in management positions at a multinational company, in other words, all employees who have some staff under their responsibility. Thereby, the universe was composed of 329 persons exercising their functions in different regions of the country where the company operates. The sample had a total of 180 respondents.

Research instruments

In order to assess the cultural and social capitals of the leaders, it was used an adapted scale of the affirmatives proposed by Pishghadam, Noghani and Zabihi (2011). The adaptation of the scale proved to be necessary because the authors used many statements related to the family history of the individual. Thus, as the dealings of this study has an emancipatory sense with respect to the cultural and social capitals, the importance is given to the individual's current time and not based on family history. The factors Social Competence (Personal), Social Competence (Professional), Social Solidarity (External) and Social Solidarity (Internal) aimed to measure the social capital. And the factors represented by Literature, Cultural Competence (Multiple) and Cultural Competence (Linguistics) aimed to measure the cultural capital. To measure the self-evaluation of performance, it was used a scale based on the task aspect that, according to Borman and Motowidlo (1997), refers to the proficiency (skill or mastery) that an individual performs the activities that are formally recognized as part of his/her work.

To analyze the construct Leadership Performance, it was used a scale that the company uses to evaluate managers. The scale is based on factors related to the theory of styles or the leadership

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behaviors that can be related to the concepts grounded on the hierarchical taxonomy developed by Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002). Thus, the scale assesses the managers' performance from two behavioral dimensions. The first dimension is the People Leadership and the second, the Change Leadership. Thereby, the first dimension addresses leader behaviors that directly influence others. The second dimension also discusses behaviors that influence people, but oriented to change. All statements of each of the dimensions are evaluated according to a scale composed by the results "low, medium and high". The following steps for the processing of data were performed: preliminary analysis, including missing data, outliers and statistical assumptions; dimensionality analysis, through exploratory factor analysis; analysis of the instrument quality, using the structural equation modeling through PLS (Partial Least Square) or AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures), including convergent, discriminant and nomological validity.

Results

The survey was conducted with a total of 180 respondents with a questionnaire with 64 variables divided into 10 first order constructs - Social Competence (Personal), Social Competence (Professional), Social Solidarity (External), Social Solidarity (Internal), Literature, Multiple Cultural Competence, Linguistics Cultural Competence, Performance Self-Evaluation, Change Leadership and People Leadership - and two second-order constructs - Social Capital and Cultural Capital. The Table 3 shows the results of the measurement model.

Table 1 – Structural model

Endogenous	Exogenous	β	S.E.(β)[1]	C.I. - 95%[2]	P-value	R²
Cultural Capital	Social Capital	0,60	0,06	[0,48; 0,70]	0,000	36,10%
Change Leadership	Social Capital	0,19	0,09	[-0,03; 0,36]	0,048	2,56%
	Cultural Capital	-0,05	0,09	[-0,25; 0,17]	0,593	
People Leadership	Social Capital	0,09	0,09	[-0,10; 0,25]	0,332	1,76%
	Cultural Capital	0,06	0,09	[-0,17; 0,23]	0,545	
Performance Self-evaluation	Social Capital	0,54	0,07	[0,39; 0,71]	0,000	39,73%
	Cultural Capital	0,07	0,07	[-0,05; 0,20]	0,316	
	Change Leadership	0,12	0,06	[-0,08; 0,24]	0,063	
	People Leadership	0,08	0,06	[-0,01; 0,15]	0,220	

[1] Standard Error; [2] Bootstrap Validation; GoF = 33.23%

Source: Research data

Discussion

Considering the measurement model, the constructs Social Capital, Cultural Capital, Change Leadership, People Leadership and Performance Self-evaluation reached the validation criteria, so that they present one-dimensionality, reliability indicators, and convergent and discriminant validity. According to the objective of the research, this shows that the instrument is suitable and sensitive to evaluate the influence of the social and cultural capitals on management performance. Regarding the constructs relationship, the structural model allowed to analyze and confirm hypotheses that the higher the Social Capital, the greater will be the Cultural Capital and that the higher the Social Capital, the greater will be the Performance Self-evaluation at the 1% level of significance.

The hypothesis that the higher the Social Capital, the greater will be the Change Leadership was confirmed by the structural model at 5% significance level. Regarding the hypothesis that the

higher the Change Leadership, the greater will be the Performance Self-evaluation, the structural model allowed to analyze and confirm, at the 10% level of significance. The results found, explaining the increase of the Cultural Capital variable through the Social Capital, is consistent with the Bourdieu theories, concerning the possibility of capital conversions, where people have the continuous possibility of converting a kind of capital in another. It is important to know that the Social Capital alone can explain 36.10% of the Cultural Capital.

So, the increase of the Performance self-evaluation variable through the Social Capital corroborates the part of the study produced by Moran (2005) which noted the impacts of the Social Capital dimension related to the configuration, called structural, on performance (guided by the execution of routine tasks). Thus, there is a connection between the two studies, because the questions used in this work to form the Performance Self-evaluation construct also were based on performance oriented for the tasks and work routines. Thereby, once again were confirmed the influences of the Social Capital on management performance.

The results also may be related to the other part of the study produced by Moran (2005), which noted the impacts of the Social Capital dimension related to the quality of social relations, called relational, on performance (guided by the implementation of innovative tasks). Therewith, there is a connection between the two studies because the questions used in this work to form the Change Leadership construct, also were based on performance oriented by actions that value the change, such as the fight for discontinuity. Thereby, it was confirmed that the higher the managers' Social Capital, the greater will be the management performance in leadership.

Likewise, it was found that the higher the change-oriented management performance, the greater will be the managers' Performance Self-evaluation. It is important to highlight that the constructs People Leadership, Change Leadership, Cultural Capital and Social Capital are able to explain 39.73% of the Performance Self-evaluation, and the Social Capital and the Change Leadership, explained significantly. Considering that the positive effects of the constructs People Leadership, Change Leadership and Cultural Capital were low, it can be said that the Social Capital alone can explain, in a relevant way, the Performance Self-evaluation.

The results suggest that it is interesting to aggregate the Social Capital in future researches that use instruments and traditional methods of performance. The self-evaluation made by the managers meet the evaluations made by their immediate superiors, measuring their performance in change leadership. In this sense, the importance of the increase of the employees Social Capital in the researched company, show itself as a means to achieve better results in the performance in change leadership and the performance self-evaluation that, consequently, will be able to bring good results of development for the company, in general. These results are in line with the concept of social capital produced by Fukuyama (2002), where the social capital is the sharing of norms and values that promote social cooperation, instantiated in social relations. Thus, it is possible to realize a great connection between social cooperation and performance in change leadership. A limiting factor of the research was the 180 respondents' sample. A larger sample will possibly increase the significance and will reach more relevant results that could enrich this work.

The scale developed to measure the social capital and the cultural capital was a scale adapted from the affirmatives proposed by Pishghadam, Noghani and Zabihi (2011). It is important to note that the adjustment had an emancipatory bias of the concepts of social and cultural capitals, thus corroborating the study produced by Di Maggio (1982), which suggests that the cultural capital is less strongly related to the family history, in other words, the experience in childhood

and the family history can only partially determine the cultural capital "baggage" of a person. In this sense, most of the questions focused on the family history were removed and questions related to the perception of the person at the moment were included in the scale. Thus, it is suggested that this scale be used in future studies, in order to check other influences of the social and cultural capitals on issues related to the organizational behavior in general.

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BRAZILIAN SCIENTIFIC PRODUCTION ON HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC SECTOR: WHAT HAS BEEN WRITTEN ABOUT IT?[3]

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Abstract

The objective was to analyze the scientific production published in Brazilian events and scientific journals about Human Resource Management in public sector. The meta-study method with the management of scientific production were used, whose data were treated by the technique of content analysis of categorical type. The results showed that Human Resource Management in public sector has been a subject that is still rarely addressed strategically, despite its increased relevance in the last 25 years with Brazilian government programs and management guided in managerialism and results. In conclusion, it was observed from the scientific production analyzed that this subject has many opportunities for future studies.

Introduction

In order to replace the rigid and hierarchical hierarchy of the nineteenth century, the actions and commitments of the governments were guided to the constitution of more flexible organs, decentralized and sensitive to the demands of the public (Nunberg, 1998). Due to these changes, it is the necessary to consider a greater attention of public service in relation to the people management.

In this perspective, Di Pietro (2006) defines the public service as the material activities which the "law assigns to the State so that it exerts it either directly or through their delegates, with the objective of satisfying concretely the collective needs, under legal regime total or partially public" (pp. 90). It is observed that, since the first years of the decade of 1980, it is observed to develop throughout the world a global wave of reforms of the public sector. This event indicates concern of rulers of making the State more efficient and managerial, based on flexibility and the quest for a new public administration (Nunberg, 1998).

In view of this context, it is observed that with the advent of administrative reforms in the public sector, the management of people has become a factor to be more discussed and developed. Studies on the theme have been targeted in developed countries and it is believed in this research that the countries of the southern hemisphere, such as those of South America, especially in the case of Brazil, have scientific productions relevant to understand their practices in terms of people management in the public service.

In this way, the overall objective of this work is to analyze the scientific production on people management in the public service. The research focus will be the existing scientific production in

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events and journals in the area of Public Administration in Brazil, through the methodological strategy called meta-study. Capelle, Brito Melo and Vasconcelos (2006) affirm that the meta-studies aiming at making reflection and critical analysis of the articles published in journals and congresses. It has as main benefit from the global design method (mirror) of knowledge area in question (Hunt, 1997; Caldas, Tonelli & Lacombe, 2002).

People management in the public service

The People Management emerges from the understanding that any organization depends on the human performance for its success. According to Albuquerque and Leite (2009), it is necessary to understand the emergence in people management, by means of questions such as cognition, interiority, pleasure, emotion, loving relationships and family, cultures, innovation and power. The use of the expression "human resources" dating back to ancient times with scientific technical connotation. So, we decided in this work by using the term "people management".

In summary, in the vision of Bergue (2007) the "general goal of people management in organizations is composed of three fundamental actions: promote the supply, the maintenance and development of people" (pp. 379). That is, the practices in people management concern the allocation of the individuals in the work environment and the creation of working conditions favorable to maintain and enhance the collaborators performance. In public administration, these processes are performed with specific procedures which make them different in relation to the administration of private organizations. In a way that the public and private scope do not differ only in their purpose, but also in the process of how the practices are socially constructed.

It is important to note that recruitment should be performed in a central unit and should also be a permanent activity, being intensified on occasions when there are job vacancies. It is basically an information system, where the organization publishes and offers to the market of HR employment opportunities that it is intended to fill in. Regarding the internal research; there is a verification of the needs of the organization in relation to the needs of people. In this way, the two important aspects that should have a lot of attention in external research are: the segmentation of the market of people management and the location of the sources of recruitment (Araújo, 2006; Lacombe, 2005).

The recruitment of people in public service is performed by means of a succession of complex administrative acts that extend from the verifying of the actual need of the administration, ending up with the approval of the subscriptions to the contest, in the case of filling of effective positions or public jobs (Meirelles, 1991; Mello, 2005; Bergue, 2007). In this sense, the phases of recruitment in the public administration traverse the phases of identification of the actual need of people, analysis of legal existence of the position, elaboration and publication of public notice of the contest, application process and, finally, the approvals of the applications. Each phase of this must be designed efficiently as laid down by the rules governing the superior body which govern them. But in some of the times, this process in public administration does not occur in an efficient manner in which the admittance process does not recruit appropriate people to exercise the functions of the position desired.

The process of selection of people is part of the process of provision of personnel and it occurs soon after the recruitment process. This phase is to solve two types of issues: (a) the appropriateness of man for the position and; (b) the efficiency and effectiveness of man in the position. In this way, it is understood that the selection aims at finding, among the candidates recruited, those most suitable for the position available, with the aim of maintaining or increasing the effectiveness of the organization (Araújo, 2006).

In the public administration, the fundamental instrument of selection of people is the Examinations public contest or titles, as recommended by the article. 37, paragraph II of the Constitution of the Republic, which establishes the equitable possibility for citizens who have conditions to meet the requirements of the vacancy and approval by criteria exclusively meritocratic (Brasil, 1988). In addition, as regards the maintenance and assessment of individual performance in the public sector, it is important to highlight the thought of Pacheco (2013), saying that a performance evaluation and control of the results in the public service are measures still incipient in Brazil. However, they serve to systematically evaluate the actuation of the public server and continually improve the offers to citizens.

In this regard, it is observed that the process of adding people in public and private organization are distinct assets. First, because the focus in which activities are carried out of each organization is different, since in private organization administration aims to increase the wealth of its shareholders and otherwise, in the public organization the goal is to meet in egalitarian its users. Second because in the public organization there is a political decision-making feature. The public agent in some actions may not be able to decouple from the political side to accomplish their tasks.

Methodological procedures

The methodological procedures of this research had as guiding the technical basis of meta-study that according to Rich, Mackenzie, Podsakoff and Johson (1999) is a technique widely used rigorously and accepted, which aims to accumulate results of several studies to reach at a more accurate representation of their relationship in the population, than that provided by the estimators of studies considered individually. The search is the bibliographic type; exploratory-descriptive level, that aims at the quantitative and qualitative understanding of scientific production.

Due to the need to delimit the scope of the search, we opted for the selection of the articles published in journals of Public Administration classified by classificatory system *WebQualis* of Coordination for the Improvement of Higher Level -or Education- Personnel(CAPES), as well as be available for access in the Magazine online portal. The National Association of Research and Graduate Studies in Administration (ANPAD) was the basis for the selection of articles in events. These data bases were used, since they are references in scientific collection in national and international academic environment. A total of 28 magazines and 5 events served to data collection, which were collected until the year 2013. Being that in some magazines access was not allowed and in others were not found any article related to the object of study. The selected events are: 3Es, EnANPAD, EnAPG, EnEO and EnGPR.

For the data analysis, the technique of content analysis of the material was adopted, described by Vergara (2006), as a technique for the treatment of data that aims to identify what is issued in respect of a given theme, which makes it convergent to the objectives of this research, whose phases of content analysis are organized chronologically in:

The pre-analysis step. Elaboration of criteria for identification, reading and selection of articles in the event ANPAD were used keywords in the search system of the site of the ANPAD, searching for the following expressions: "human resources", "people management", "recruitment", "selection", "training", "development", "People assessment". For pre-selection of articles in journals   searches were made in all editions of annals available online page of each magazine, seeking the articles that contained the following expressions in the title: "human resources", "people management", "recruitment", "selection", "training", "development",

"evaluation", "skills", "training" and "Empowerment". Thus, it was selected 123 articles related to the theme.

The terms used to search for articles in events and journals, were sought also in Spanish language. Thus 179 national and international articles on the theme were found, which were carefully analyzed. The introduction, the summaries and conclusions of each one of the 179 articles were read, in order to find some topic related to the object of study. We came to the conclusion that 34 articles found in the set did not identify with the area of public Administration and/or People Management, remaining then, 145.

In a more profound analysis of these 145 articles, it was found that only 74 articles indicated contributions to the studies and people management practices in the public service. To select those articles that contributed and those who did not contribute to the searched subject, it was sought in each article the expressions "contributes" and "completed" (the term "completed" was used to enlarge the options of words associated with "conclusion").

For the exploration phase, characterized by the complete reading of articles, remained 74 articles. In the phase of the treatment of the results, it was done an analysis of all articles, seeking to achieve the objective proposed by this research. The categorization criteria adopted in this research were: a) publication year; b) institution of 1st author; c) Condition of institution; d) country, and) approach; f) methodological profile; g) specific affairs (People Management processes); h) magazine/event; (i) type of public organization; (j) the federative unit of public organization studied; h) methodological procedures (techniques for data collection and analysis).

The approach to the articles were classified between qualitative, quantitative, quality/quantity. For the classification of the articles about the methodological framework used profile, were classified from the subcategories: (a) theoretical articles -works which did not arise from empirical tests and which refer to theoretical reflexions and conceptual constructions b) empirical - whose concentration consists in the observation and analysis of the data; c) theoretical-empirical - studies that use a theoretical framework to guide the explanation of the observed reality.

Data presentation and analysis

In Temporal universe of 74 articles that deal on the theme, it was observed that these are between the years 1986 to 2013, in an analysis percentage, indicates a relevant growth from 2010 of scientific production, according to data from the Graph 1.

Graph 1. Distribution of articles by publication year.
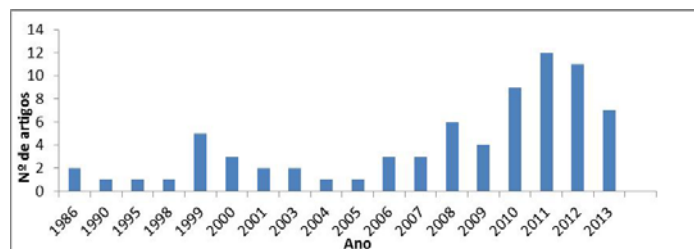
Source: Own elaboration.

In relation to the countries of the institutions, Brazil was the country with the largest number of publications, in a total of 61 articles, which corresponds to approximately 83% of the total of articles found. Out of these articles, the State of São Paulo concentrates not only the largest scientific production on people management in the public sector, but is also a reference of scientific production in other areas of People Management. In international articles, the

concentration of the scientific production is located in the city of Caracas/Venezuela where there were a total of 6 articles found, which corresponds to approximately 8% of the total number of articles.

From the point of view of methodological profile, it was observed the predominance of articles classified as theoretical-empirical, representing 59% of the scientific production analyzed. Showing that in studies on the theme, there is a predominance of search of relationship between practice and theory. The theoretical studies covering around 29% and the empirical are concentrated in 12% of the studied articles.

In the classification of the articles in relation to specific subjects treated in each one, it was used the people management processes systematized didactically by Chiavenato (2009) in: **Attracting, applying, developing, evaluating and rewarding**, to classify them according to the subject. This allowed to organize the Table 1, with the least strategic processes in people management, and Table 2 with the most strategic processes.

Table 1: Distribution of articles and main contributions, by the personnel management process of shorter strategy.

GP processes in public service.	Quantity		Main contributions		
	Number of articles	%	Place	Number of articles by kind of organization	In which contributes
1. Attracting	3	4%	Health Care Center	3	Contributes for the absorption of people to the Single Health System (SUS).
2. Applying	14	19%	Health Care Center	2	Contributes to the public policies for the management of quality in work, Career Plan, positions and salaries in SUS.
			University	1	Contributes to the management of people by powers in federal universities.
			Post Offices	1	Contributes to the understanding of human resources policies in relation to the commitment of the public officer.
			IFES	3	Contributes to the formation of public managers aligned to the IFES; and for understanding of the competence management in the IFES
			Baking Institution	3	Contributes to understanding of careers in the public and private sector in Brazil; for competence at work and in organizations; and for life quality at work.
			public organizations in general	4	Contributes to the competence management for career plans in public organizations.
3. Evaluating	17	23%	Ministry of Planning and budgets; IFES; University; Military Police; the State Public Ministry;	3	Contributes to the development of methodologies to assess the assistential work; to the efficiency of training programs in public administration; for the enhancement of the practices of assessment in the public sector; for the understanding of the performance evaluation and its results to the management of human resources in public institutions;

			Judiciary Court	2	Contributes to the development of a tool for the organization diagnosis; for studies of people management.
			Baking Institution	5	Contributes to the skills development and for evaluation of programs for improvement at work; for evaluation of individual performance in organizations.
			Public organizations in general	7	Contributes to the improvement of the practices of assessment in the public sector; for theory on the evaluation of Individual Performance in public organizations.
TOTAL	34	46%			

Source: Research result.

It is noted that the increase in scientific production from 2010 is generated mainly by the increase in publications of articles that deal on the practice of "Evaluating people". The publications on the theme have increased in the last years due to the increased need for control in public organizations, which is the basis of the administrative reform.

Table 2. Distribution of articles and main contributions, by the management process of people with greater strategy.

GP processes in public service.	Quantity		Main contributions		
	Number of articles	%	Place	Number of articles by kind of organization	In which contributes
1 Developing	23	32%	The INPS; Ministry of planning and budgets; public-law entity; Hospital; School; Federal Court of Accounts; City hall.	1	Contributes to the formation of professionals in health; for organizational learning in the public sector; for the training process and human development policies at work; to improving training in the public sector.
			Baking Institution	6	Contributes to methods of assessment of people management practices in organizations; for the process in work training; for the development of competences.
			Secretariats of State	6	Contributes to the understanding of the role of people management in organizational learning; for the development of people in the public sector; for the discussion of factors that influence the processes of learning of individuals in organizations.
			Public organizations in general	10	Contributes to understanding of the organizational culture in public organizations; to dissemination of knowledge management; for the development and training of people; for public policies of people management.
2. Reward	7	9%	University	2	Contributes to the practice of competence management in public and private organizations.
			IBGE	1	Contributes generating reflections on

					how the HR policies meet the expectations of the public servers.
			Public organizations in general	1	Contributes to improving the system of remuneration in the public sector.
3. Integrated	10	13%	IFES	2	Contributes to the alignment of the strategic planning with the management of Human Resources
			Hospital	3	Contributes to the administration of human resources in the public sector and to the understanding of the HR policies in the health sector.
			Public organizations in general	5	Contributes to the improvement of policies for the management of people to achieve the organization goals; to the understanding of changes in the policies of people management; for the policies and practices of existing human resources for the specialists in public policies and governmental management; contributes to the understanding of satisfaction of civil servants in relation the policies and practices of human resources in relation to the management shock, in Minas Gerais.
TOTAL	40	54%			

Source: Research result.

 *are those articles that deal with the processes of people management in an integrated way, i.e. all the people management processes.

The articles that deal with the processes of integrated way, a total of 10 articles, are those in which the people management processes were not treated in isolation from each other, but dealt on all the above processes. These were applied mainly in public institutions of health, education and public organizations in a general way. The magazines and events that had the greatest number of articles on the theme are found in Table 3. And the types of public organizations where the largest numbers of articles were found are presented in Table 4.

Table 3. Distribution according to scientific event.

Magazine	Number of articles	Event	Number of articles
National	-	EnANPAD	17
Public Administration Magazine	8	EnGPR	4
Public health notebooks.	7	EnAPG	3
Public Service Magazine	6	EnEO	1
International	-	3ES	0

Source: Research result.

Table 4. Distribution of articles by type of public organization.

Number of articles	Type of public organization
26	Public Organizations in general*
14	Baking Institution
12	Education Organizations (universities; IFES; Schools) Health Organizations (Hospital, Health Care Centers)
9	Health Organizations (Hospital,

	Health Care Centers)
13	Other kinds of Public Organizations.

Source: Research result.

* Are those articles that did not deal with a type of specific public organization, but rather with a public organization in a general way.

It is noted that according to the Table 3 that there is a greater concentration of articles in national journals and in the events is the EnANPAD, with greater number of publications in the area. Observing the Table 4, it is noted a large concentration of works on people management in the public service in banking institutions, education and health organizations.

In the face of information obtained by articles analyzed, it was found that the most used method was the documentary research, present in 22% of the articles. It is evident therefore that 22% of the work on the theme studied departing from materials are still not analyzed and without analytical treatment. Then it is the use of questionnaires and interviews, both present in 20% of the articles. Being possible to notice that there is a lack of the use of other methods, such as for example, the sociometry tests, social and ethnography scales. It shows that there is a predominance of traditional methods, and a low use of other methods of data collection.

Most of the articles that have used the documentary research as a method of data collection, used the "Analysis of Content" to analyze the data obtained at work. Already those articles which have not used the method of Content Analysis", but employed documentary research in the phase of data collection, had the data analysis method the interpretation of the author through the document analysis. The articles that have embraced the questionnaires and interviews to collect the data, used statistics for the analysis of the same.

Conclusions

It was found that the theme of people management in the public service is a recent field in the academic environment that features a large growth from 2010, which may be associated with the movement in favor of the professionalization of Public Administration in Brazil, with the creation of the legislation that governs the competence management and incentives to training in public service that began to be implemented in the framework of the federal government after the year 2006.

In discussions about the methodological profile, it was observed that the scientific production is still concentrated in theoretical-empirical method and seeks to accomplish a deepening of the issues studied by means of a qualitative approach. The methodological procedures for data collection which had highlights in articles researched were the document research, questionnaires and interviews, which represent a significant predominance of traditional methods.

This research contributes to understanding of what has been written in the scientific community about the management of people in public service, showing what institutions publish more often on the theme; the methods and approaches of researches employed; how the people management processes are treated in articles; which magazines and events publish more often on the theme; what types of public organizations that are dealt with in articles; and the methodological procedures for data collection and analysis. In the light of the contents examined it is possible to conclude the technicist character associated to the management of people in public service. It was also observed by means of analyzes that people have not been treated in a strategic way or valued in addition to the notion instrumental in the public sector.

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LEADERSHIP: A LINK BETWEEN PROBLEM CONTEXT AND A BENEFICIAL SOLUTION

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Abstract

Literature suggests that the context for leadership decision-making has travelled through four stages according to Snowden and Boone; simple, complicated, complex and chaotic: and five similar stages according to Ireland et al. Today's context is considered turbulent, often without clear cause-effect relationships, full of unknowns, involving many interconnected decisions, frequently made under intense time pressure and high tension. Yet responses are necessary. Our paper considers how inevitable changes in leader behaviours have not only highlighted how context and behaviour are intertwined, they also indicate that any response is inevitably connected to its outcome and this is equally relevant. Only if the outcome is subsequently successful will the leader's good intentions be applauded, copied and learned as the "best" fit in these circumstances.

Introduction

The field of leadership has certainly changed dramatically in recent times (Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey 2007). Traditional leadership theory has been pronounced old hat and irrelevant by many (Lichtenstein & Plowman 2009). Thus McKelvey (2010) asserts that the old view that leadership, deriving from the field of psychology, is basically doing what the leader wants done is stuck in the past; "Bluntly put, there is much more to good leadership than what is offered by psychologists" (p 5). Many authors have recently asserted that the complex world of the present and the future needs something different in terms of our understanding of leadership; for example, Hazy and Uhl-Bien (2015) and O'Reilly et al. (2015); but there is little agreement on what this might be. Keene (2000), for example, has asserted that our present world offers unprecedented challenges for leadership and that the sheer pace and scale of change and the increasing unpredictability of how to manage it together contribute to the need for an altogether different approach to assessing leadership competencies in terms of both what competencies are needed and how they should be exercised.

Yet restructuring the world is not new. For example, the industrial revolution demanded that leaders had to think quite differently as they moved from a world based on agriculture towards one based on industry and manufacturing ((Meadows 1948), (Tamura 2002)). Following World War I, there were huge changes in the structure of society which totally replaced the old established power hierarchies and shook the foundations of how the world was viewed and experienced (Maier 2015). Being conquered is another example that brings massive changes as many people need to make huge adjustments simply in order to survive.

All significant changes generate both winners and losers. At these times the old ways of thinking about and dealing with things are irrelevant and unhelpful. Even though it may be the same problem, the manner of dealing with it needs to be very different. People need to prioritize to get out of their dilemma and if they prioritize wrongly, using old previously successful ways of thinking, they may not survive (Plous 1993). They need to reconfigure their world and their place

in it. This involves recognizing that the world has changed and that new skills are needed for dealing with the new knowledge.

This article presents a four-way system of reconsidering views of leadership for the present time and into the future, based upon hypothesising (1) how key contextual changes lead to (2) the different type of problems faced (3) the consequent differences needed in leader behaviour and (4) the different impacts arising from any changes in practice. It has been inspired by the earlier work of Snowden and Boone (2007) who classified contexts into four categories; simple, complicated, complex and chaotic; and who then developed a schema of the resultant demands these different types of problems place on the leader to resolve. These categories align fairly clearly with historical developments regarding the nature of business.

In this paper, however, the authors have taken a slightly different approach by adding information to the original Snowden/Boone table concerning the different types of leadership which lead to outcomes associated with each type of problem and its handling. Our justification for this is described below. We note that the Snowden and Boone work focused upon the dangers arising from increasing complexity and chaos whereas our approach presents a more positive picture concerning what can be achieved.

Contextual changes

First of all we argue that there is a direct relationship between the environmental domain from which problems arise and their substance. For example, if the domain is relatively simple, relatively stable and relatively easy to decipher using existing exploratory and evaluation methods, then the problem can be classified as simple under the Snowden/Boone schema. However as contexts themselves become more complicated, the problems they present can escalate to requiring previously unexplored diagnostic measures and/or decision algorithms. More complicated still and the simple early responses are no longer appropriate. New emergent problem solving methods surface that involve several individuals, with divergent knowledge and different levels of understanding towards the potential cause, the potential ways to resolve it and the potential impacts of any change.

The adoption of such an historical approach to understanding how leader behaviour has evolved is not a new idea. Heames and Harvey (2006), for example, present a summary of societal changes across several eras from 1900 onwards. They saw the early 20th century as a period where critical leadership issues were about the complexity and size of organizations, the need to create a skilled workforce and the importance of human assets. By the end of the 20th century, global leaders needed the competencies of being open minded and flexible; possessing value-added technical/business skills; cultural sensitivity; resilience and optimism; being able to deal with complexity; having stability in one's personal life; and having integrity. While Heames and Harvey point out that there are overlaps in these sets of leadership competencies over the span of 100 years, human relations and communication skills, experience, additional education, respect for people from different backgrounds and being able to deal with ambiguity are present in both sets.

Other writers have expressed similar views as summarised by the review of Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden and Hu (2014) who classify leadership theories either in terms of the form of their emergence or the level of analysis, thus legitimising the form of emergence as a frame to examine the relationship between leader behaviour and the context in which it is embedded. Leader behaviour operates within a context and that context is important because it shapes the legitimacy of what is done, or buy-in will not be achieved. Few strategic decisions are taken in a

one-off way: they are generally done in stages and so can be trialled in the first stage and this further legitimizes the action taken.

What is different about the problems which leaders must address now?

It is common to write about the current days as presenting problems which are far more difficult to solve than those of earlier years, including those prompted by globalization, technological sophistication and multiculturalism. Whereas 100 years ago, there may have been a visible and easily identifiable solution to a problem, problems nowadays are far more complex. Several authors, for example Keene (2000), have claimed that our current times present a greater amount of instability than we have seen before and therefore significant additional challenges going forward.

There is evidence of an emerging tendency to view our current world as being particularly dangerous, complex, fast-changing, replete with 'unknown unknowns' and rather frightening. Thus Bennett and Lemoine (2014a) assert: "This ongoing churn in the business environment creates myriad traps for leaders" (p 311). In terms of the current challenges we face, the nature and consequences of this instability have received attention initially from military strategists; then more recently from those employed in the field of risk management, abbreviated as VUCA (Horney, Pasmore & O'Shea 2010; Kinsinger & Walch 2012; Bolman and Deal (2015)). VUCA refers to volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity. The acronym highlights the lack of predictability and the need for risk management and careful strategy in crises (Bennett & Lemoine 2014b).

In a similar vein, other writers have commented on the intrusion of hyper connectivity into our daily lives (Goldin & Mariathasan 2014) and into the reliability of our infrastructure (Huang et al. 2015). Complex dynamical systems which seem uncontrollable may produce surprising and counterintuitive outcomes, including cascading failures. Some have used the descriptor 'post normal' to depict this new world as one of complexity, chaos, contradictions and uncertainty (Sardar 2010): the problems we face today seem ungraspable and totally novel. Previous concepts of normality, in particular, progress, growth and development and control, are not appropriate any more. No single answer emerges to all of our challenges. Small changes can lead to chaos. Other indicators of a world which is out of perceived control are wicked problems (complicated issues which are ambiguous and changing, with complex interdependencies), and black swans (an unpredictable and improbable event which has a massive impact). Elahi (2011) describes such scenarios as dangerous territories and bemoans the lack of warning signs (no 'Here be dragons' signals).

However not everyone agrees with the descriptor of post-normal and the notion of disruptive change it brings. For example, Kapoor (2011) asserts that Sardar's characterization is rather Western. As he comments: "In the last decade, the combined shocks of terrorism, economic recession and climate change have… forced the West to come face-to-face with the stark reality of the 21st century. The combination of these events has shaken the confidence of the West" (Kapoor 2011, p.216). Of course a constantly connected world can also promote significant benefits. Global income inequality has been decreasing for several decades (Rougoor & van Marrewijk 2015) and global poverty is generally agreed to be declining (Dhongde & Minoiu 2013). There is evidence of astounding increases in life expectancy due almost entirely to technology (Zhavoronkov 2015). Thus our times can be viewed as both or either a potential tragedy and/or a vast opportunity.

Differences in leadership behaviour

At the simple level, the realm of "known knowns", there are clear cause and effect relationships and the right answer is evident. Under these circumstances, according to Snowden and Boone, leaders must sense, categorize, and respond. Complicated contexts such as that emerging post-World War II are the domain of experts and the realm of "known unknowns". Leaders must sense, analyse, and respond. Expertise may be required here and there will be a need to look at several options which may all be good. In the complex context, we are in the realm of "unknown unknowns" and this is where much of contemporary business now lies. There is unpredictability and it is not clear what has happened or is happening. Leaders need to probe, sense, and then respond. This is the field of emerging solutions and emerging patterns. In chaotic contexts, typified by crises, it is not possible to see any relationship between cause and effect because there are no patterns. The leader must move between several domains; firstly acting to establish order and then moving a chaotic scenario back to complexity where patterns can be identified and opportunities seen.

Thus complexity and chaos are situations where there are no clear cause and effect relationships and progress must occur based on emerging patterns. It is important for leaders to be able to identify the context they are working in and adapt their leadership style to suit. "A deep understanding of context, the ability to embrace complexity and paradox, and a willingness to flexibly change leadership style will be required for leaders who want to make things happen in a time of increasing uncertainty"(Snowden & Boone 2007, p.76).

Others have also written about the need to look at leadership within its context. Ireland, Gorod, White, Gandhi & Sauser (2013) present some approaches for leaders within projects at different levels of complexity. Thus in a simple context, top-down leadership with followers who like clear instructions will be suitable. As projects become more complicated, the leader needs to listen to conflicting ideas from a range of experts and followers will need to be comfortable with ambiguity and abstract reasoning. In complex situations leaders need to create environments that will allow patterns to emerge, increase the levels of interaction, focus on the generation of ideas, and encourage dissent. What is important is maximizing the production of a range of ideas. The success of famous CEO Jack Welch has been presented as an example of the effectiveness of a truly collaborative approach (McKelvey 2010). Of particular importance was the way Welch managed to bring together people with diverse experience and abilities, coach people in networking, and foster a climate of adaptive tension in which disagreements are not avoided but rather are encouraged.

Of critical importance in complex and chaotic situations are increased interaction and communication, hearing from both experts and non-experts, encouraging dissent, being aware of the emergence of new ideas, and not holding on to the need to find the one right answer. A leaders' behaviour in current times requires consultation, inclusion, clarification of who will be involved, and obtaining buy-in. A leader must be comfortable with uncertainty and tension. Promoting autonomy and positive conflict will enable workers themselves to work through the constraints. Leaders who enable adaptability act to foster new ideas, focus upon ways to emerge knowledge widely, and avoid micromanaging, instead encouraging loose structures and network building.

Central to the relatively new area of complexity leadership is the work of Uhl-Bien, Marion and McKelvey (2007), with their focus upon adaptive leadership which emerges from the interactions of a complex adaptive system adjusting to tensions and is able to produce adaptive and innovative outcomes. Change is produced by the clash of existing ideas, knowledge and technologies and takes the form of new knowledge and creative ideas. The adaptive leader

creates appropriate conditions including fostering interaction and moderate interdependency, encouraging loose connections, allowing a high degree of autonomy, and encouraging units to share ideas with others through a learning culture. This kind of leadership fits well within the turbulent environment we now face where leaders are dealing with ambiguous situations with not a lot of time and with the requirement to motivate followers, often themselves not in agreement. The dynamics in workplaces today are too complex to be managed or designed, and leaders can only enable maximization of creativity, adaptability and learning; they cannot control very much at all. Influence is thus preferred over control in this way of thinking. This form of leadership has a collective nature and acts outside of authority. Influence is not one way but rather it is interactive. Leadership may be temporary. Timing pressures and stress may exacerbate the difficulties ((DeRue (2011), Lichtenstein and Plowman (2009)).

Impacts arising from changes in leader behaviours

Nonetheless leadership is not operated in a vacuum. It is stimulated by certain events and it is activated in order to achieve certain outcomes. The outcomes of leadership behaviour can be classified in a number of ways. First of all, one might consider the degree to which new leader behaviour has resulted in a new practice and if so, to what extent is this new practice more effective than the previous practice? Secondly we need to decide upon what criteria are being utilised to measure the effectiveness of the new practice. A third type of outcome concerns how easily those involved have accepted the new practice. And finally we can look at what potential drawbacks are associated with the new practice. As previously mentioned (on page 1 of this paper) all changes involve both winners and losers. Whether one's resultant situation is assessed as either being a winner or a loser rests on several perceptions. Firstly if an individual had played a key role within the earlier decision group that authorised the new practices, then the likelihood of their buy-in to the new direction is high and as one of the original architects they are in turn likely to be viewed as a winner once the new direction is proven successful. However, should the newly chosen direction prove unsuccessful, they and all members of the driving team will be perceived as losers.

Inevitably this raises the question of how to determine success? Is it enough that the organisation's position relative to its shareholders, competitors, employees and others has improved financially? Or is it enough to have avoided ruin or disaster? We believe success is a relative measure; in times of threat, simple survival may be interpreted as successful. In times of growth, then success may be measured as outstripping one's competitors, or perhaps being better positioned for the next step into the future. Any lack of agreed measures leaves open the possibility for winners to seize on the criterion where they outshine their competitors as being the only relevant criterion. Should the new direction involve a high risk of failure, then understandably the key decision group needs to be as large and as representative as possible, not only to cement buy-in but to minimise the likelihood of any splinter group developing and gaining support should the decision prove problematic. The greater is the possibility of failure, the greater the need for representation and commitment to the new direction. Decision groups are likely to be cross functional, cross disciplinary, and culturally diverse. Furthermore, the greater the possibility of failure, the greater will be the need for some sign of immediate improvement after adoption of the decision. Initial improvement efforts need to be followed by efforts to embed their success in order to avoid losing what might prove only a tentative grasp on being a winner. The winners will be actively seeking any evidence that confirms their decision was the right one and if necessary, even strive to destroy the credibility of any contrary evidence.

Given the present increasing instability of our globalized world, it is possible that winners may not remain winners for long. The unpredictability of present day contexts means that the life of earlier decisions once operationalized will drastically shorten and inevitably power struggles will ensue as different factions strive to improve their position. Only by gaining control of the environment and having an acceptable decision process will organizations survive. For individuals, this demands developing the skills of diagnosing how their organisation will fare in the future, and harnessing the committed input of key personnel to address the best way forward. They too will need to develop skills of understanding strategy and predicting its future outcomes to protect and develop their unfolding career.

A Modified Model

Our reasoning suggests that the earlier model of Snowden and Boone may benefit from additional constructs that address connections between context and leader behaviour and between the decision concerning what action to take and its consequences. By placing the context into a historical viewpoint, the connection between the organisation of business and the structure of society becomes much more distinct (Lerman 1997; Church 2000) and by adding the additional dimension of outcomes, the connection between leader behaviour and consequent leader status and power is clarified. In addition, Snowden and Boone's model was designed in order to avoid disasters or negative outcomes compared with the current proposed model which is also addressing promoting positive outcomes. These modifications are addressed in more detail below:

1. **Connection between the context of commerce and the type of emergent business problem**

Simple societies such as those that led up to the early twentieth century tended to be characterised by a relatively small wealthy, educated class in control of business, economic and political activity. Typical organisations were comparatively small, family managed and confined to either a single or closely co-located vicinities. The manager, as owner, dealt with any problems, made decisions, then communicated to staff what needed to be done, if necessary arranging for any staff training. Gradually following World War I these structures began to crumble as societies, disillusioned by the failure of many decision makers during the earlier conflict, began to seek alternate methods to control the means of production and trade and access the lifestyle that they perceived could now be obtained through education and skill as well as wealth (Colli & Larsson 2014).

Others, seeing the successful emergence of this new driving force, followed their example and gradually this group of largely middle class individuals strengthened in both numbers and power as more members gained education, and were able to better diagnose problems that arose and suggest solutions based on expanding expertise rather than following past trends. They prospered because their decisions were successful; and in consequence organisations grew and professional managers were employed to manage them, accompanied by a growing awareness of the contribution of expert knowledge to the solution of more complex problems. Hence there was a further expansion of the expert class and the necessity to broaden the decision making power to include their knowledge. The evolution became a circular process (Winter & Taylor 1996). Increasingly complex societal structures lead to increasingly complex problems arising to be solved, leading to demands for broader knowledge banks to address them, in turn leading to the emergence of new more flexible structures and new approaches to find solutions. By the dawn of the 21st century, the societal context had morphed into an even less predictable

condition which resulted in increased difficulty of problem identification, diagnosis and the task of finding a workable solution, as clearly demonstrated in the Snowden /Boone model.

2. Connection between the decision chosen and its consequences

All decisions, once implemented, have consequences and not always those that were intended. Simple decisions that address well known problems are relatively easy to absorb by those affected. However once the context becomes more complex, the decision of what to do about it has more options, many of which are flexible, short term and risky. There is always an element of chance that the decision will be the "right" one and the difficulty to predict this in advance is both an attraction and a deterrent for individuals. Rewards are high but the consequences of failure are also high.

As the introduction to this paper asserts, we are now entering an era where we perceive the world to be infinitely less predictable than at any time in the past to the extent that it becomes viewed as threatening, potentially dangerous and overwhelmingly powerful, and leaving us experiencing strong pressures to face and overcome the threat but unsure of either how to best proceed or without confidence that success will actually eventuate. We seek reassurance by gathering others to boost the level of expertise within the problem solving team and to maximise the possibility of covering all potential threats. Evidence regarding the importance of the inclusion of key stakeholders confirms that this strategy will raise the possibility of success, but it provides no guarantee. Learning to live with the consequences and surviving any failure provides the next challenge. Such adjustments are rarely easy but they are necessary. What subsequently contributes to the assessment that the leader's behaviour is successful? We would argue that it is because it solves the problem quickly, cheaply and effectively and that those affected are comfortable with the outcome. The keys to achieve this today are sharing, vision, buy-in, acceptance, reduction of threats and that the action promotes solutions.

When the problem was a simple one, it was more likely that an outcome would be beneficial and energizing. As the century unfolded, and the context moved to becoming complicated, it became possible that even when the outcome was beneficial it might not be particularly energizing. Complexity involves an even greater likelihood that the outcome may be detrimental as the likelihood of choosing correctly is lessened when there are more options from which to choose. The key to energising is to gain clarity about the desired outcome and consensus about getting there, together with strategies for rebutting risk, none of which are guaranteed to succeed in complex situations but all of which need to be achieved for success to occur. Thus the leader becomes more one of facilitating agreement and commitment from those involved and focusing on the key behaviours that make this happen.

3. The revised model

The model below, Table 1, illustrates our expansion of the original Snowden and Boone model. On the left hand side we have added a column to illustrate the different contextual business environments that characterised the unfolding twentieth century and which have in turn led to changing patterns in leader behaviours. These periods are not meant to be exact but an approximation in time that characterises the changing ways in which the business world is perceived and its boundaries understood. The new column on the right hand side illustrates how leader actions become associated with outcomes that could result in either survival, growth or setback for the enterprise.

Table 1: The link between problem context and leader behaviour

Historical Context	Level of complexity	The leader's job	Level of risk/danger signals	Leader's response to risk/danger signals	Likelihood of success of the decision
Pre-1920	Simple	Sense, categorize, respond	Low	Create communication channels: don't micromanage	High
1920 - 1950	Complicated	Sense, analyze, respond	Medium	Encourage challenging and force people to think outside the familiar	Medium to High
1950 - 2000	Complex	Probe, sense, respond	High	Be patient: allow time for reflection. Encourage interaction so patterns can emerge	Low to Medium
Post 2000	Chaotic	Act, sense, respond; involve, consult, obtain consensus on outcome and strategy	Extreme	Take advantage of opportunities. Encourage people to challenge your point of view. Shift back to Complex	Low

Source: Adapted from Snowden and Boone (2007)

Each row in the model is designed to show connections between the complexities of the context, the nature of the emergent problem, the necessary conditions that might underlie an appropriate choice of strategy for dealing with it and the consequent likelihood that the strategy will be successful. These additions have been designed to update the original model into the twentieth first century by highlighting an inevitable dependence and consequence between matters external to the organisation and internal organisational activities, in response, and the impact of the chosen actions back into the context. To be successful in managing this turbulence, future leaders would need both high-level people skills and high level strategic skills. They need to determine both the future objectives, and the best pathway for their achievement. Furthermore, they need to do this through consultation and other forms of behaviour that facilitate buy-in from key players and commitment to the cause.

Conclusion

This paper has built on the original concept of Snowden and Boone by adding additional constructs, the key ones being outcome and its consequences. Their original theory was focussed predominantly on the selection of appropriate leader behaviour. We have extended this focus and added an approach which addresses the outcome of the leader's behaviour and its success in resolving the dilemma that is faced. In adding this additional information we believe we have

helped to clarify issues for leaders in a way which is more relevant to the complexity of the 21st century.

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PART 6
VALUES AMONG THE YOUTH

TEACHERS' ETHICAL VALUES AS MORAL MODELS FOR THEIR STUDENTS

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Abstract

The primary purpose of this research was to evaluate the teachers' moral standings by surveying their students regarding the current teachers' practice of ethical values in their daily classes. Additionally, this study evaluated how they influence their students, considering them as potential moral models.

We surveyed 920 students from different grades in a high school located in the state of Sinaloa, Mexico. The survey has 15 items related to the practice of ethical values such as respect, justice, honesty, responsibility and solidarity. We obtained the arithmetic mean of the responses to ascertain the practical ranking of the five values considered in the study.

The results showed that respect was the value most practiced by the teachers, while the least practiced value was solidarity. Students are morally inspired in low proportion by the ethical values practiced by their teachers.

Keywords: Ethical values, moral reputation, moral standards

Problem

Values do not remain static but are differentiated in the various facets of life (Rokeach, 1973). According to Singer (1995), a society has an ethical system that is constructed by its mental values which are expressed as principles that are used to understand and guide social behavior (i.e. it has significance and relevance to others), and to judge behaviors as good or bad. Hence, societies require direction, and values serve as elements that unite social behavior.

According to Chatman (1989) values are acquired by socialization; i.e. values have been transmitted to us by the people with whom we have socialized. Similarly, the most suggested reason to explain the differences and similarities among values is that they are influenced by personal experiences and by the exposure to formal socialization forces (Rockeach, 1973). In the case of the values that are relevant to specific social institutions, the process is primarily carried out during the first days that the individual is part of the social system and will be reinforced during the time the individual stays in such system (Meglino and Ravlin, 1998).

Meanwhile, Sandoval (2007; Figueroa et al, 2012:9) states that the process by which human beings have values, involves a series of intellectual and emotional conditions that are reflected in their decisions.

While Schwartz (1999) says that cultural boundaries do not necessarily coincide with the geographical boundaries of the nations and that each nation would have various subcultures. Thus, it is said that every nation has a dominant culture, with main attributes that are shared by the subcultures.

Based on the preceding paragraphs, it can be assumed that the role of the school in the society is very important, since it is an entity where values are taught and shared. Cobos (2009) argues that today, it is necessary to know and be aware of the values we want to pass on to our students, our

future generations, and through the positive and complementary relationships established between school and family be able to create methods to train individuals who can function in society and have a critical and tolerant attitude to address problems.

According to Ballester (2007), when we think about teaching values within the educational centers we should distinguish between the existence of universal moral principles (such as respect, human dignity, equality and solidarity) which are also statutory human rights, constitutional and part of school curricula, and other values that are not necessarily shared in the schools.

On the other hand, for Escudero (2005) the teaching process must integrate values, contents, and positive learning experiences that may have an impact in the personal, social and ethical aspects of the students' lives. While Savater (1997) argues that is important to recognize school education and the teachers in the irreplaceable work of educating free, autonomous people as active members of our society.

Precisely, Ballester (2007) concludes that students internalize attitudes and values according to their moral maturity (human development stage) and the learning processes developed within their families, schools and other relationship contexts. The influence of these contexts and the implementation of values through specific behaviors depend on what type of relationship the individual establishes with the context (family, classroom, center, peer group, community, etc).

According to Cobos (2009), the teachers' role is essential when educating in values; the teachers' belief system has an influence in the development of values and therefore the behavior of their students.

Even though, the role of the teacher as a promoter of values is recognized, in opinion of Lafarga (2013) most of the schools promote their own educational philosophies, ideologies and principles through plans and programs based on unobjectionable values and sublime contents, but all of that is absent in the daily practice within the classrooms and offices, and especially in the interpersonal relationships between teachers and students, the administrative staff and the employees, and among the individuals . Therefore, the author suggests the need to rethink the education system with plans and programs that consider feelings, emotions, attitudes and values based on respect and transparency.

Meanwhile, Savater (2012) states that a real educator teaches so that the one who learns may someday get by without his/her guidance or help. Good parents raise their children so that one day they can leave; and the teachers should pursue that their students can be better than them.

This research was conducted in Sinaloa, state located in the northwest of Mexico; Zazueta and Pardini (2011) consider that is urgent to attend this region by teaching values in schools, because the students are being influenced by the media to opt for an illicit life rather than a life of study and self-improvement through education. The impact of the narco-music is powerful in the formation of children and adolescents in this important region. This also coincides with Ballester (2007) who argues that learning negative moral values is facilitated by the media. Related to this, Savater (2012) states that, nowadays one of the most important tasks of the educators is to reach out the children before the bad educators could do it and protect them from their bad influence. Coinciding with this, Zazueta et al (2014) says that teachers have the opportunity to promote values among their students, using their behaviors to influence them during their lessons in the classroom.

Given the above, Zazueta and Pardini (2011) suggest that is desirable that high schools in Sinaloa

design and implement moral models to guide them on the right path, since due to various social and economic factors, teachers have increasing difficulties to fully accomplish their task of consciously promote certain values among their students. In response, teachers should promote basic ethical values for human coexistence within and outside the classrooms, such as: respect, responsibility, justice, solidarity and honesty, and with their behaviors influence the ethical values of their disciples.

In view of the problems above, the authors of this research considered the following questions:

- How is the practice of ethical values hierarchically organized by the teachers, according to the perceptions of their students?
- How much are the teachers morally influencing their students?
- Who are the more effective moral role models, male or female teachers?

Methodology

The research was performed in one high school of the University Autonomous of Sinaloa. The sample was constituted by 53% women and 47% men, from which 60% were enrolled in first grade, 21% in second grade and 19% in third grade. Their ages oscillated between 15 and 18 years old. 72% of the students were enrolled in the evening shift and 28% in the morning shift.

We designed a survey with 15 items derived from 5 ethical values, which were considered for their importance for a healthy human coexistence: respect, justice, honesty, responsibility and solidarity. The answers were presented in the Likert type scale, where 6 = strongly agree, 5 = agree, 4 = somewhat agree, 3 = somewhat disagree, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. The survey also included questions regarding the students' gender, age, school grade and shifts.

To detect possible errors and verify that the research tool was understandable for the interviewees, the survey was applied as a pilot test to 5 students for each of the three school level grades. Once the survey was corrected and completed, it was administered inside the classrooms where 920 students participated, face to face, without the presence of a teacher, to ensure the respondents would answer freely.

Results

With regard to the question: How is the practice of ethical values hierarchically organized by the teachers, according to the perceptions of their students?, the results were: respect (4.84), honesty (4.65) , justice (4.51), responsibility (4.45) and solidarity (3.90), which tells us that respect is the most practiced value by the teachers, and that solidarity is the less practiced. Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of the values practiced by the teachers.

Table 1. Statistic data regarding the values practiced by the teachers.

Variable	*Descriptive Statistics*						
	Valid N	*Mean*	*Median*	*Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Variance*	*Std. Dev.*
Respect	920	4.840	5.000	1.000	6.000	0.915	0.956
Justice	920	4.513	4.666	1.000	6.000	1.257	1.121
Honesty	920	4.650	4.666	1.000	6.000	0.844	0.919
Responsibility	920	4.449	4.666	1.000	6.000	0.838	0.915
Solidarity	920	3.901	4.000	1.000	6.000	1.328	1.152

Source: Own elaboration.

We used the statistical software STATISTICA to analyze the main components in comparison with the answers given by the students. Table 2 shows that the first main component (C.P.) explains 64.3% of the total variability in the original data, while considering the first two main components 76.6% of the variability is explained, and 87.47% of the variability is explained considering the first three components as a whole. Therefore, we only considered the first three components as significant.

Table 2. Analysis of the cumulative main components regarding the teachers' practice of ethical values according to the students' perception.

| Value number | Eigen values of correlation matrix and related statistics | | | |
	Eigen value	% Total variance	Cumulative Eigen value	Cumulative %
1	3.217	64.358	3.217	64.358
2	0.616	12.329	3.834	76.688
3	0.539	10.788	4.373	87.476
4	0.321	6.439	4.695	93.916
5	0.304	6.083	5.000	100.000

Source: Own elaboration.

From table 3 we can conclude that the first main component is as follow:

Y_1= 0.85 Respect + 0.82 Justice + 0.86 Honesty + 0.76 Responsibility + 0.69 Solidarity

The equation above means that teachers with higher scores on the values of respect, justice, honesty, responsibility and solidarity will correspond with high scores in the first main component.

Table 3 also shows that the second main component is expressed as follows:

Y_2 = 0.17 Respect + 0.22 Justice + 0.13 Honesty + 0.054 Responsibility - 0.71 Solidarity

This second component is a contrast among respect, justice, honesty, responsibility and solidarity, which means that teachers with high scores on the values of respect, justice, honesty, responsibility and small scores on solidarity will have higher scores in the second main component Y_2. Additionally, teachers with high scores in the value of solidarity and small values on respect, justice, honesty and responsibility will correspond with small values of Y_2; the value of responsibility has almost no influence on Y_2.

Table 3. Analysis of the variables and their main components (Ethical Values)

| Variable | Factors of the variables, based on correlations | | | | |
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Respect	0.851	0.178	0.204	-0.275	0.352
Justice	0.821	0.222	0.340	0.393	-0.064
Honesty	0.867	0.135	-0.065	-0.256	-0.399
Responsibility	0.761	0.054	-0.606	0.158	0.126
Solidarity	0.690	-0.716	0.098	0.017	0.002

Source: Own elaboration.

Regarding the question: How much are the teachers morally influencing their students, it was

found that 4% of the students admires 4 teachers, 28% admires 3 teachers, 18% admires 2, 11% admires 1 and 11% admires "0" teachers. Considering these results and that 20% of the interviewees were students of 10 teachers and 80% of the students had 11 teachers, we could state that teachers have little moral influence on their students.

Regarding the question: how much teachers inspire their students so that they want to be like them as professional adults, it was found that 4% of the students are inspired by 4 teachers, 11% are inspired by 3 teachers, 20% by 2 teachers, 30% by 1 and 28% answered that they are not inspired by any teacher. This information tells us that teachers are not a moral reference for their students and their behavior produces little inspiration in their students.

To verify if there was any relationship between the proportion of admired teachers and the proportion of teachers who inspire their students, we calculated the statistic Pearson and the resulting value was $p = .400$ ** which is statistically significant. This result shows that the higher the proportion of teachers who are admired by their students for being good people and good professionals, the greater the proportion of teachers who will inspire them, so they would aspire to be like them when they become professional adults.

Regarding the question: Who are the more effective moral role models, male or female teachers, figure 1 shows that 56.01% of the admired teachers are women and 43.99% are men, which means that female teachers are a greater moral reference for students than male teachers.

Figure 1. Teachers' genders in relation of the admiration their students have for them.
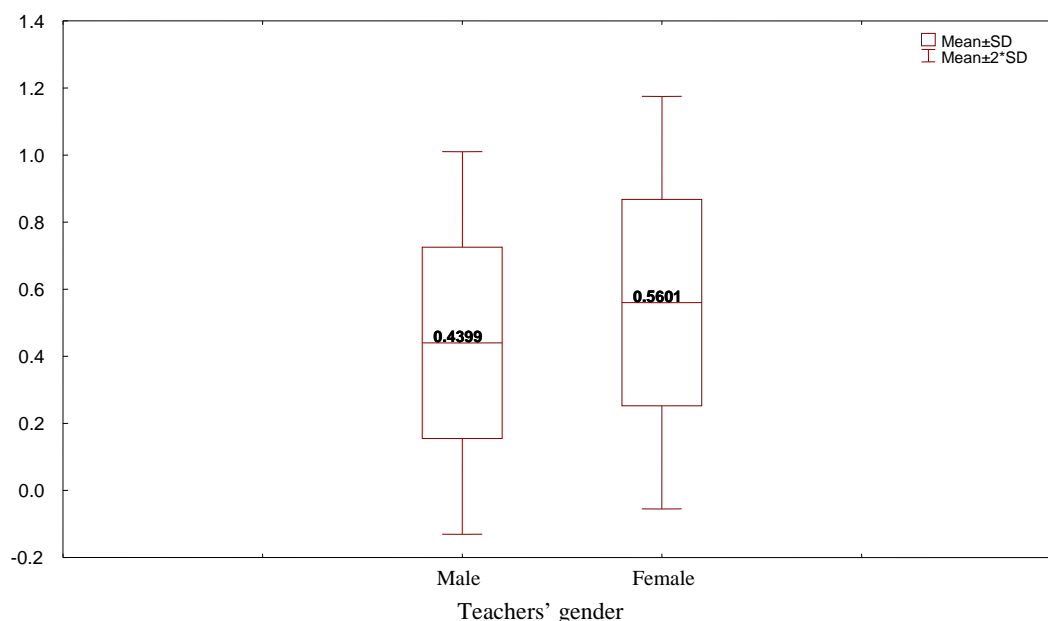
4. Conclusions

Considering the results of the statistical analysis, we have reached the following conclusions:

a) Respect is the most practiced ethical value by teachers (4.84), while solidarity is the less practiced.
b) Teachers have a low impact as a moral reference in their students, which differs with Cobos (2009), who says that the role of the teachers is fundamental to the development of education in values and that their belief system influences the behavior of their students; but agrees with Lafarga (2013), who argues that it is common to hear about

the importance of moral values in the speeches of teachers and school authorities, but they are absent in the practice and in the teacher-student relationship.

c) And finally, it was observed that female teachers have a higher moral influence on their students in proportion to male teachers.

Limitations

As many other researches, this one had limitations that could have affected the results, including the following:

Students' perceptions about the practice of ethical values by their teachers may have been influenced by the degree of affection that students have for their teachers. They could have seen the survey as an opportunity to punish or reward a teacher, depending on whether that teacher has given them a good or bad grade.

Since the number of teachers that attended each classroom were many (between 10 and 11), the students gave their opinions about a group of teachers and not about individuals.

And finally, the lack of time to apply the survey may have influenced the answers of the students, since some students had exams that day and had to dedicate time to study.

Recommendations

As mentioned by Ballester (2007), children should learn basic models of behavior that make them socially competent and capable of develop attitudes with a moral point of view. In this sense we should support a legitimate school socialization that set rules of behavior and a code of conduct. Thus, the students will have behaviors and socio-emotional skills that will enable them to get along with others and, ultimately, to express attitudes and behave according to their moral principles.

In the case of the students from Sinaloa, and in any region where the practice of the so called negative values is a permanent temptation for young people, it is advisable that the authorities of the school with the help of the teachers and the staff define and practice values concerning the environment, artistic creation, nature and especially human development. Coordinate actions in order to practice ethical values within the classroom, sports, workshops, art and other extra classroom activities with a comprehensive axiological strategy.

Also, in order to succeed with this "axiological strategy" it is advisable for the school authorities and teachers to identify the groups and individuals who are most vulnerable to be influenced by negative values and implement participative actions lead by specialized teachers, who with intelligence, affection and tolerance would promote values that allow counteract the influence of negative social models.

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PROMOTING ETHICAL BUSINESS VALUES

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Abstract

Colleges of business have come under examination for their role in developing students' ethical considerations. Unlike the majority of the literature that focuses on curriculum delivery at the college level, we propose that student organizations in business colleges can play a role in teaching business ethics values. The results from the study suggests that students are not convinced that student organizations should play a prominent role in teaching business ethics. The key barrier preventing student organizations to play a greater role in teaching business ethics and emphasizing ethical values is they do not feel prepared to be involved in teaching business ethics.

Promoting Ethical Business Values

It is hard to imagine that it has been close to a decade since the global financial crisis shook investors' confidence in the markets and financial services. Financial reforms were put into place in order to stabilize the market and there were increased efforts in order to better comprehend the character of ethical behavior and ways to reduce corporate misconduct as opposed to focusing on the industry. Despite the headlines of the strict consequences of corporate malfeasance post- Enron and WorldCom scandals, a recent report on the U.S. and U.K. financial industry has found that a culture of integrity has failed to take place (Tenbrunsel & Thomas, 2015). Public perceptions regarding unethical behaviors have remained the same largely because the behaviors of those working in the industry have deteriorated over the years. According to the 2015 survey, 47% of respondents reported that it is likely that their competitors have engaged in illegal or ethical behaviors to obtain a competitive advantage, compared to 39% in 2012 (Alton, 2015).

Given the numerous ethical lapses in news, it is surprising that there has been little change in our institutions of higher education, which are responsible for educating many of these unethical executives. Colleges of business have come under examination for their role in developing students' ethical considerations (Rutherford, Parks, Cavazos & White, 2012). The majority of the literature on teaching business ethics focus on having an ethics component in the curriculum and the methods to ensure such a course is delivered effectively (Ritter, 2006). Building upon the current literature, we propose that student organizations in business colleges can play a role in teaching business ethics.

We also explore the student organizational activities related to business ethics, as well as the extent to which their organization seeks faculty support in planning its activities. Finally, we surveyed perceptions of barriers in teaching business ethics. By addressing these issues, our study begins to search for alternative ways in which institutions for higher education can further educate individuals in business ethics so that they become responsible future executives. We begin by briefly reviewing the main issues in teaching business ethics literature.

Teaching Business Ethics

In an effort to impact tomorrow's business leaders to be more ethical, there has been a focus on redesigning the curriculum to include ethics as required courses and/or increase the coverage of ethics in various courses (Rubin & Dierdoff, 2009). In order to gain a better understanding of the role of business ethics as a required course and the factors impacting the decision to require ethics in the undergraduate business core curriculum, Rutherford et al. (2012) found that 75% of colleges of business do not require their undergraduate students to take a course in business ethics. Moreover, they found that the values of the school and its leadership were key factors that impacted the curriculum. Similarly, Evans, Trevino and Weaver (2006) found that that power and political factors can impact ethics courses in the curriculum.

One common approach to the literature on teaching business ethics is the examination of methods that facilitates the effectiveness of teaching business ethics. Surveys of business schools show that a wide variety of pedagogical approaches are used to teaching business ethics (Sims, 2002), however, the institutions largely rely on structured lectures. Schwartz (2013) proposes a more balanced perspective that incorporates positive stories about ethical leadership that can inspire others.

Sentell (2013) suggests that the most effective way to increase the relevance of business ethics is to heighten students' moral reasoning and request them to reflect on their own experiences and analyze those experiences using various ethical frameworks and present these finding to class in the form of a written paper or an oral presentation. Sims and colleagues (e.g. Brinkman & Sims, 2001) have also discussed the importance of increasing the awareness of students' attitudes about ethical situations and moral values when teaching ethics.

Similarly, Schwartz's (2013) recommendations for teaching business ethics which includes the importance of: (1) realistic objectives so students can have a greater understanding of ethical issues and its importance for business; (2) intrinsic importance of ethics to demonstrate the legitimacy that good business ethics is good business and will increase profits or share values; and, (3) using various teaching methods to teach business ethics, such as case studies, class exercises, and movies. Below, the role of students in teaching business ethics is discussed.

The Role of Student Organizations

The duty of teaching business ethics education in the United States and globally has primarily relied on various stakeholders such as, university faculty, business leaders, regulatory agencies and accreditation boards; we argue that student organizations can play a critical component of undergraduate and graduate education. While stakeholders seem to agree that business ethics can be taught, academic research has been unable to place that responsibility on any one stakeholder. Guido-DiBrito and Bachelor (1988) observed that student organizations play a critical role in leadership development in students. Since students show a lot of commitment and involvement in various student organizations during their college years, the opportunity can be leveraged to teach business ethics. Below, we provide more details regarding our exploratory study.

Method

Sample

The study employed a survey research method. A survey was administered to students in a private university in the Southwest U.S. with an enrollment of over 7000 students in

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undergraduate and graduate programs. The sample was taken from students who identify with a student organization on campus. The majority of respondents (56.6%) who indicated their gender were male with 43.4% female. About 29% of respondents did not indicate their gender. Their ages ranged from 18-42 years (Mean= 22.8). The majority were undergraduates (59%): freshmen (3.4%), sophomore (11.1%), juniors (26.5%), and seniors (17.9%), while 41% were graduate students.

Data were collected with the use of a questionnaire developed by the researchers. The questionnaire has a total of 16 questions including, Likert-type questions (ranging from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree), open-ended questions, and demographic questions. The questions were focused on the stakeholders responsible for teaching business ethics, the activities relating to business ethics in student organizations, the involvement of faculty in these activities, the recruitment strategies of student organizations, and the barriers encountered in teaching business ethics. Preliminary survey testing and stakeholders interview were done to determine the appropriateness and relevance of the survey items. This enabled us to tailor the final survey items for effective data representation by deleting redundant sections and reviewing other sections for clarity.

Results

Stakeholder responsible for teaching business ethics

The majority of respondents (99.4%) strongly agreed (Mean = 4.38) that business leaders should be responsible for teaching business ethics, while 64% strongly agreed (Mean= 4.26) that university faculty should be responsible. Only 34% of respondents (Mean= 3.62) strongly agreed that student organizations should teach business ethics.

Recruitment strategies of student organizations and reverse recruitment by potential members

Almost 65% of respondents indicated average GPA as the main factor used in recruitment strategies of student organizations, 62.3% identified organizational fit, and 59.7% indicated professional experience as a factor. When students were asked about their personal motivations to join student organizations, academic opportunities was the highest ranked motivational factor (mean=3.68) considered by and development of business skills was the lowest ranked (mean=2.35).

Activities relating to business ethics and faculty involvement

About 55% of respondents identified guest presentations by business leaders as the most frequent activity organized by student organizations. Guest presentations by faculty was indicated by 45.9% of respondents, while only 25.78% of participants agreed that role plays were used to focused on instilling ethical values. Only 43.6% of respondents strongly agreed that their organization seeks faculty support in planning its activities. Approximately, 77% of respondents agreed that their organization has a constitution guiding its activities, while only 39% of the respondents knew if there is a reference to business ethics in their organizations' constitution.

Barriers and motivations to teaching business ethics

Participants were queried about barriers encountered by student organizations when teaching business ethics. The two most common barriers were poor implementation (24.6%) and a lack of interest in business ethics (24.6%). Other barriers identified include limited human resources, subjective attitude to the topic, unclear boundaries of ethics, contradictions by facilitators and

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cultural perspectives. However, when asked about how student organizations can be motivated to teach business ethics, 32.5% of respondents specified that having real world experiences delivered by involved parties is the main motivational factor; other factors mentioned include experiential learning, use of incentives, emphasizing legal implications and faculty assistance with implementation.

Discussion

The results from the study suggest that students are not convinced that student organizations should play a prominent role in teaching business ethics. The key barrier preventing student organizations to play a greater role in teaching business ethics and emphasizing ethical values is they do not feel prepared to be involved in teaching business ethics. Student leaders can be trained and mentored by business leaders with real life experiences. These student leaders can be certified and mandated to impart the members of their organizations through experiential learning. We noted that the real world experience of business leaders can be leveraged to create a training program that student organizations will be greatly involved with. Our findings suggest that student organizations should be given the requisite support and exposure in order for them to contribute to this overarching goal in promoting the importance of ethical values.

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INSERTION OF YOUNG PROFESSIONAL FROM THE YOUNG APPRENTICE PROGRAM INTO THE LABOUR MARKET

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Abstract

The focus around the young people's insertion in the labor market has had great relevance in the Brazilian context. The initiation of the young people into the professional life when not well driven or even misguided, can lead to frustration for not meeting their necessary requirements of professional training prioritized by contracting firms that could make their entry into the labor market even more difficult. For this purpose, the research described the perceptions of the former young apprentices and the contracting companies involved in the program, comparing their answers to the information available in the documents of the vocational training institution studied on the program's effectiveness.

Introduction

Young people are particularly more susceptible to be affected by the constant changes in the world as they face some impasses such as studying, working, planning and doing life projects. These may compromise their performance, not allowing them to act safely and prepared by the society without any support.

The focus around the young adult's insertion into the labour market has had great relevance in the Brazilian scenery. According to Vasconcelos (2011 apud Aberastury, 1981), for adolescents, being adults means to permanent deprivation of their child's condition. This crucial moment constitutes the decisive stage of a release process that began with the birth. The insertion of the young in this market from a qualified formal employment with the guarantee of permanence in school is a challenge for governments. Thus, misguided young adults may be frustrated in the begging of the professional life by not meeting the necessary requirements of professional qualification, prioritized by contractors, further hindering their entry into the labour market.

The Ministry of Labour and Employment (MTE, 2006) has created the Apprenticeship Manual regulated by the Federal Law 10.097 on 19 of December of 2000 as part of public policy to present contents about the Young Apprentice program. Hence, various educational institutions were accredited to professionalize young people between the age of 14 to 24 years and no age limit for disabled young people, seeking the possibility to qualify young people for entering the labour market, from the apprentice mode. The National Commercial Training Service (SENAC) has been highlighted among the accredited institutions by studying the action with the contractors who perform activities in the trade in goods and services. Therefore, this research aimed to understand the perspective of the young apprentice from the apprentices mode in relation to the way of starting in the labour market and the reason why hiring company become involved in the program and its evaluation in the city of Itabira-MG.

Thus, this study seeks to collaborate for the current managers to rethink how the recruitment of those from the apprentice mode, is seen within the company, and if there is possibility of improvements that result in the permanence of the young in contracting company once training and developing employees skills has become a key factor for business success. It also intend to introduce results that may assure for future managers that the apprentice program may be a path of professional qualification.

Literature Review

In a classification line human being life, the youth is a period of live between two phases well defined. Childhood comes before the youth while adulthood is the next phase of life. This is a period that the child's condition was back, but the adult stage has not yet been achieved (PAIS, 2003). According to Mariani (2001 apud Quaper, 2010) and Pais (1990) youth refers to a socially created category apt to change over time, so it should not be seen only in compliance, but also in its diversity. In addition, UNESCO (2004) defines the term youth as a cycle of life that allows the transition from childhood to adulthood signalling several changes such as in the body, the mind and the culture of certain individual.

The family and the school are those responsible to educate and guide the insertion of young person in to the labour market. Family is supposed to be the first place that provides education to a person, transmitting values and norms that will be kept to a lifetime, whereas the education acquired from school is more likely to be a path to the labour market (Sposito, 2005). As an example, the high school is a pathway to the formal labour market for young people mainly those from a low-income family (Soares, 2012).

Hence, together the family and the school seek to prepare young people to be a productive and socially engaged adult (Aquino, 2009). In addition, the state government plays an important role in the youth education, especially because it organizes and encourages institutions that aim to develop young people through education. Therefore, in addition to increasing investment in educational and vocational areas government educational institutions should improve the management processes of all actions realized in schools. Meanwhile, families should keep educating and monitoring the actions promoted by the government to support young people, as well as allowing their children to continue with the study so that they can achieve a more secure space in the labour market (Soares, 2012). In addition, there is a correlation between the work on condition of learning and work out of necessity. On the one hand, young people face the entry in the labour market as a social access pathway and on the other hand as a possibility of acquiring consumer goods (Macedo & Alberto, 2012). Nevertheless, Gonzalez (2009) represent that extend the schooling of young people does not encourage nor guarantee their entry into the labour market.

The Brazilian government and social groups have created public policies to guarantee social and vocational opportunities for young adults at risk and vulnerability (Sposito, 2005). In 2005 was stablished the National Youth Secretariat (SNJ), the National Youth Council and the National Programme for the Inclusion of Youth (Projovem) in a joint management with the Ministry of Education (MEC), Labour and Employment (MTE) and the Social Development and Fight against Hunger (MDS) to promote better integration of programs and actions aimed at young people.

Furthermore, the Young Apprentice Program also was established in 2005 supported by the art. 429 of Law No. 10,097 of December 19, 2000 with a goal of organizing protective actions to develop uneducated young adult skills, vocational training and employment (Silva & Andrade,

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2009). This program proposes to empower the youth for their inclusion into the labour market by providing first work experience. It was inserted into the shaft 1 focused priority programs for youth policies, which corresponded to the rise of education, professional qualification and citizenship, and for young people between 14 to 24 years old the benefits of learning a skill or a profession in a temporary contract was offered. At that time, many educational institutions that cooperated with the apprentice program gained notoriety in Brazil with the National Service for Commercial Education (SENAC) being highlighted among them.

According to Gonzalez (2009), the purpose of youth professional qualification is to raise the professional skills of young people enabling them to learn skills needed in a particular type of employment, besides promoting the socialization among them. Dayrell (2007) to support the previous author pointed that young people recognize the relationship between the school and a future conditions as the possibility of minimum guarantee of entry into the labour market. In the SENAC (2014) view, the young apprentice assumes the role of developer of his career being a contributor at the company seeking wherewithal interaction to provide professional education and lead them to the professional market.

Necessary conditions that must be evaluated to hire a young adult as an apprentice in the Youth program was established by the Decree-Law No. 5598 of December 1, 2005 providing a new look to the hiring of apprentices. Firstly, they must be between 14 and 24 years old, except for disabled young people that there is no upper age limit; secondly, have completed or be enrolled and attending the class in elementary school,; 3) being linked to an institution with learning program. This decree considers apprentice a young adult with age between 14 and 24 years old, who in agreement with the contracting company signs the learning agreement based on the terms of art. 428 of the Labor Code, where does not limits age to apply to young people with disabilities "(p.30). Also according to the Learning Manual (2014), the contract between the young and the contracting company requires regular attendance at school by the student; working hours set for the accomplice the activities and a work program that offers professional qualification. Young people should be hired by signing a temporary work papers and must be enrolled in the educational system or have completed high school. The program also requires that the workload of the young adult does not interfere with study hours.

The MTE (2007) created through the Decree No. 615/2007, the National Register of Learning for the registration of qualified entities in technical and vocational training in order to promote the quality of educational programs and training courses. In addition, the MTE (2007) takes responsibility to approve and monitor programs involving socio-professional training of young people aged over 18 years. Moreover, it is guaranteed by law that company of any kind should employ and enrol an amount of 5% per cent at least and 15% percent of apprentice at most employee in each establishment whose duties require professional training in the National Service of Learning courses.

Subsequently, the young apprentice context and the peculiarities of the program has been introduced, the methodology that enabled to achieve the results of this research is presented.

Methods

Describing the perceptions of young graduates and employer's managers about the young apprentice program was possible by a methodological way. A qualitative descriptive approach (Richardson, 2004) was used to analyse in details the different experiences of 15 young adult included in this modality and their respective managers between the periods of 2011 to 2013.

Non-probabilistic sampling criteria for typicality and accessibility (Vergara, 2013) defined 15 male and female young adults of 17 to 24 years old and five managers aged between 39 and 46 years. It also ensured that the selected managers were linked to the companies for at least five years. However, one of them holds the position for more than two decades. The data was collected as determine the guidelines of a field research by considering the thematic oral history techniques (Meihy, 2002). Thus, the data was achieved through semi-structured interviews, which were conducted individually with respondents, at the student home and at the companies that the managers work (Vergara, 2013). The interviews lasted an average of 30 minutes. They were recorded and transcribed later.

The data were analysed by the content analysis (Bardin, 2008) to show the reality of respondents in their own life context.

Results and Discussion

Young people perception of the apprentice category

The testimony of the 15 young participants revealed the story of their lives, the reasons that led to the young apprentice program, their relationship with the contractor and level of professional learnings within the type of work.

The following subchapters shows a deepening in each of these categories.

Young apprentice life history.

The testimonies of the young adults interviewed about their life history revealed feelings such as, dreams, fears, difficulties, uncertainties, rewards, joys, achievements and transformations. They are young people who live with their families. They have good relationships at home and with friend. The parents encourage them. However, separation of parents or their absence in childhood and / or adolescence caused suffering on some of them.

The main features perceived by self-denomination among the respondents were timidity, outgoing, insecure, ambitious, self-motivated, communicative, persevering and daring. They have peculiarities proper to the age that may helped overcome challenges, such as the cure of leukaemia and teenage pregnancy as reported two interviewees.

Some of these young people started in the labour market before reaching the full age. The main activities accomplished identified in the testimonials were attendant, office assistant, hairdresser, manicure, seller, babysitting, car washer and administrative assistant. Even though, some young people intend to continue their studies to qualify, others seek a new profession and most of them want their financial independence. Above all, architecture, public safety, education, engineering, medicine and accounting appear as the most desired professions among them.

However, it is clear that the young apprentices had experiences that enabled them to uncover what was considered an unknown, setting life goals, preparing to enter into the labour market and to be more qualified. Nevertheless, they enjoy life with friends, travel and help people. In addition, marriage and a building family is a hope to some of them.

The motivations and perspectives to enrolment and permanence in the program

According to Souza (2004) cited by Hayashi et al., (2008) the young is seen as the protagonist in a period that seeks to raise young people from the perspective of diversity. Thus, the majority of young people interviewed see in the apprentice program an opportunity to build something new. This allows us to state that the entry of the young apprentice in the labour market happened in a

time of need, in search for independence, discovery, the need for proof of experience, initiative or other incentives, as some following statements:

> After realizing that being 17 years old without any work experience would be hard to be hired, I looked at the program as an opportunity to start in the labour market. (EJ12)

> I hoped to achieve my own independence, my own job and money. However, it is hard as a 15 years old person. So, the young apprentice program provides qualifications and helps to insert in the job market. (EJ07).

> Although I have been interested in the program, my life plans were more expensive compared to the wage of the program, but my father showed me a new way to think. He said that first I should qualify and then grow professionally. This can only be achieved slowly and from below. (EJ03).

According to the interviewed, closest people, such as friends and family usually encourage their introduction in the program. Aquino (2009) affirmed that the family is the first to educate the human being teaching values and norms for the whole life. Interviewed recognize the importance of the program and have the same motivations of the young apprentice according to the studies of Macedo and Alberto (2012), they want to be independent, having their own money and no longer live at the expense of parents. These motivations, family and friends influences stimulate young people to share school with the apprentice work. This creates a passage into the adult world. So, the insertion in the labour market represents a possible realization own dreams.

Relationship with the contractor company

For the young people interviewed, being hired as an apprentice by a recognized company in the Itabira city is "important for anyone," especially when work experience is not a requirement. However, the prior hiring process presents some difficulties they assume having to face. The job opportunity list, the general knowledge and computing exams, group dynamics and interviews with psychologists and managers are part of the enrolment process. Those are signs that the young aspirants may not be well prepared for a recruitment process and selection.

Even though the companies are required to keep the young apprentice program, respondents believe that these companies expect them to be proactive, motivated, responsible, dedicated, committed, available, punctual, team worker and add value to the group. This can be a motivation to remain employed after the apprentice contract. Many young people who studied show the exhaustion of the day-to-day and the overload of tasks as key challenges, besides acknowledging as a valid effort. Therefore, the conciliation of regular school with working activists affected the young apprentices. Oliveira et al. (2005) also proved it. It is seen from an excerpt from the interviewed 6.

> I would do everything again, even though it was hard. It seems boring from inside, but worthwhile seen after leaving the program. (EJ06).

Thus, the time as apprentices within the company was used to do activities that demonstrate maturity, commitment besides the beginning in the labour market be a challenge for almost all young adult interviewed, and many companies do not trust them to perform tasks of great responsibility. According to Gonzalez (2009), there are barriers that are imposed on young people, especially those under age, mainly because they do not have any experience.

According to respondents, these barriers exist because in most cases, the companies did not share important tasks or delegated responsibilities, placed young people in the right departments, or ignored them in the workplace. For many of these young people, the main activities were to rip paper, archive documents, necklace seals, answering phones, or whatever other employees

asked. In other words, underemployment, tasks with less complexity that contributed little to the training. Some interview records showed that young people also felt difficulties to correlate what they learned in the training institution with the activities at the firm or the discrepancy between theory in the institution and practice in the company. However, some young people interviewed have been able to accomplish relevant activities practicing the theory or learning tasks directly related to the course program. However, it was not possible to establish whether companies differ from the theory applied or simply do not involve the young at work as it should.

According to respondents, sometimes the young apprentice leave the job for irresponsibility, low pay, failing to reconcile professional activity with the study or lack of adaptation in the company. However, all interviewed young people completed the program taking certification. Young people showed unsettled with tone of voice and body movements when they were asked about being hired after the completing work apprentices. In fact, they recognized the importance of the program; moreover, the program fulfilled the role of qualifying and helping to insert the young adult in the labour market. Thus, it was possible to identify the sense of value, recognition and victory or conquest in the speeches of some of them. However, other participants did not foresee the same feelings. They believe that "they are just an apprentice in the company", mainly because they recognize law requirement as the reason for the companies to hire them.

Under age, providing opportunity to others or completed number of staff were examples pointed from young people who were not hired after the program ends. Thus, young apprentice finds it difficult to be inserted in the labour market from the apprentice mode at the same company. Only five remained in the contraction companies from 15 young people interviewed. Hence, retention of young people is much lower than the quotas established for companies. However, the number of young people working formally rises to 12 young people from 15 respondents considering the qualifications gained in this mode, which allow them to prove work experience that was not possible prior to the program.

Professional learning

The young apprentice recognition of the professional skills acquired during the program activities where found by the following indicators, inexperience of the young adult and its consequence; rules and knowledge; professional growth and insertion into the labour market. According to their responses, they faced inexperience as a positive point as they realized some companies prefer this type of professional to be trained. Although, young people complained of excessive rules and bureaucracy program, companies realize the program within the stipulated standards. According to the Learning Manual (2014), young people and contractors as part of the program, should take into account not only their rights, but also their duties that validates the existence of rules and normative principles, even whether young people do not have as needed. UNESCO (2004) shows youth from the various changes experienced by young people in its various forms. Hence, it is natural to some extent, or at least expected that the confrontation with the rules and the difficulty of living restrictive disciplinary conditions are specific to this period.

According to the young apprentice, there is a gap between what is seen at the training institution to the reality of the firm. Some young people felt unprepared to act in the routines of the company and unmotivated by the difficulty in entering into the labour market as the professional growth indicators and insertions analysis showed. This statement seems appropriate, once the declaration of the young about the courses offered by the training institution "falls short" as well as the material made available to young people. Soares (2012) states that the quality of schools

may be proven by continuous audit considering the conduct of routine processes identifying and implementing improvements when necessary.

Finally, regarding the program evaluation by the young people perspective, the program is valid and appropriate for those who actually want to be included in the labour market but do not have the required experience. Once again, it proves the acceptance of young people in the program. Above all, they recognized that the young apprentice program is an important mechanism to get a job, especially for not having to worry about proving the necessary experience in hiring.

Managers' perception about the youth learning process

According to the article 429 from the CLT, the enterprises that fit in the regulation requirements of the law are obligated to hire learners, according to the minimum quote established by each company. For this reason, it was observed that all the companies evolved on this research hire the learner merely due to an obligation, mainly, because the quote requirement does not considered the physical structure to support young people, the real need of the company, and the youth's mature to start your professional life. The managers comprehend as an authoritarian and unilateral necessity, which has to be done, simply, because there is no other alternative, only the payment for the current bill. In a specific case, it was said by the interviewed that the company's physical structure does not support the youth's number those who are determined by quotes, what brings the charge's payment more viable.

Knowing about the responsibility to ensure the technical-professional degree for the learner, according to the article 428 from CLT, the enterprises try to bring from selections, youth people who are beside to fit the program requirements, show responsibility features, course compatibility, a nice approach and compromised with the companies. Even though, the interviewed EG01 stated that there are a few situations where the enterprises need people with specific knowledge, despite he still believes that it is easier to teach one person to don't be addicted to anything.

Although, the companies' interviewers emphasise that each day it is harder to find young public who attend the minimal established requirements, in a way to justify their investment. 'They are totally irresponsible and immature', described interviewed EG01. At the same time, it is important to highlight that, even if the youth come to be called of uninterested or irresponsible (Pais, 2003), the companies' interviewers stated that not all the young people has to be classified this way. The manager argument (EG05) also demonstrate that at the same time the enterprises acknowledge the importance of hiring young people for their first job, the program still does not offer conditions to the companies to trust them bigger responsibilities. This part of the interview suggests such affirmation:

> 'I think it is valid and I have had a great contract [...] the young cannot be responsible at the enterprise because he comes one week and he does not another. There is no continuity of his works.' EG05.

However, in the answers analysis from the five companies, the candidates acknowledge that there is no feedback from the program to validate it, though it seems undesired and related problems. Even though, they have the expectation of to have responsible people, those who want to work the companies to sum at, and also whose are desired to learn the job. Thus, the learning may occur inside the company without the necessity of the manager institution intervention, some interviewed has said.

The managers also confirmed to have difficulties to follow the young's learning of that people who is not at the right courses with the real branch of the enterprises actions. It was still found

that the possibilities to invest in a person younger than 18 years old from the learning opportunities is not quite seem as a good idea for the entrepreneurs. According to the majority of the companies, these young people should only study, what goes to the vision of Gonzales (2009) about the purpose of extend the life at school, as a way to do not incentivise the earlier entry at the employee market. The interviewed managers also included that the people still younger than 18 years old have had more difficulties when they have to conciliate both responsibilities, resulting many times in the abandon of the studies, from the enterprise or from the school in regular basis, as also it was perceived by Mattos and Chaves (2010).

The managers guarantee that the qualification of the young learner is in second place for two reasons: due to the fact, it is only an obligation from the Work's Ministry, and because they do not see on the responsible organs bigger stimulus and evolvement as the processes run. For this reason, the managers believe that the finality of the program does not have been reached. They also acknowledge that the theoretical teaching of the teaching institution is very limited, so, does not attending, in fact, what is the companies need. These affirmations emphasize the studies by Abramo (2005), which orient that the qualification of workers shock with the needs for specialized qualification for the enterprises. Finally, when the managers were asked about the engagement of the enterprises to the program, their answers were redundant and limited to the lack of fiscal stimulus to keep the companies in the program.

Conclusions

The issue faced by the young people, as for example, to work and to study at the same time, can make harder their entry at the employee market, or still generate frustration, in case there is no guide or support necessary. The government, attempting to give support to the young, create public politics able to promote the qualification from the learning condition, guarantying the access high quality formal jobs, and still allowing the young to be in the school. It is case of the Young Learner program, study case of the paper.

As a beginning, it was identified that the best concept of youth, which allowed comprehending what is participative education, and have the family, as formal initial of values and norms, and the State, as responsible for the formal and professional education for the young people. Besides, this paper has acknowledged that several challenges faced by the youthful people as a question from the market to be insert on it, and that most approximate of the variables from this study, are: the young and the contracting company.

The perception of the egresses, it was possible to described the trajectory of insertion of each individual on the Itabira's employee market, the motive that make them to enrol to the program and how they adapt with the professional and scholar obligations. The 15 younger interviewed for the program participate for two years of this research, plenty time to narrate the obstacles and challenges from this project. The collected data showed that at least five of them stayed employed after the end of the learner contract, what indicate for the interviewed, that the insertion in the program Young Learner may be a way, however, it does not guarantee the job's continuity. Other factors, such as confidence and compromising with the enterprise were considered determinant to the permanency of these young people on their jobs. Even though, there are speaks that appoint the young themselves acknowledge that in some cases they are introduced in the program only because it is a condition impose by law. At the same time, they guarantee that their mayor motivation to entre in this works model comes from the familiar councils and from the need for financial independency.

Also, the young people stated to have problems with uninteresting of the enterprises to teach them in some cases, for their immature and unfavourable conditions to assume tasks of mayor responsibilities into the company, even, they keep motivated. Therefore, there is no evidence if the given opportunities to the learners are enough to integrate the learning from the developer institution with the practicals exercised at the contracting company.

From the managers' contracting enterprises point of view, the acceptation of this works modality in specific contexts happens only because of the obligations to follow the law, what was also perceived on the statements given by the interviewed people. Despite, all the five enterprises that participate of the research highlight the importance of the program, even when they do not receive a counter party. As the managers, the young people that stayed at the companies as professionals seem to show satisfactory results. Mainly, suggesting the inclusion of new courses in different segments, mayor program publicity, and more fiscal and tributary incentives.

It is not possible to state that the imposed condition and the demand for juvenile workers are enough to create first job opportunities for the young, or to guarantee public politics are able to qualify them. Beside of the willing from the young people to acquire a first job and from the state to demand the enterprises to accomplish the Young Learner law. There is a way to wise the discussions with the companies, raising their evolvement in the development of new issues, which could proportionate benefits to the height the managers wait for.

Nonetheless, it was not possible to identify data that prove the advantage cited by the young inserted in the employee market from this learning modality in relation to the others who have not participated in this program. Even, considering the richness of this paper's tame, it is suggested to research the young people insert trajectory in the employee market for those who have not participated of the professional learning. Therefore, they can compare if in fact, there are advantages at the insertion in the employee market of the young people who have participated in this learning modality.

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THE YOUTH AND THE INITIATION TO WORK - INTEGRATED PSYCHOSOCIAL CONCEPTION - A PROPOSAL FOR PARTICIPATORY RESEARCH, FOCUSING ON SOCIAL INCLUSION.

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Abstract

Work initiation programs in Brazil aim to promote social/professional inclusion. In 2014, the Technical Staff of the Psychology Institute/UERJ and the Program of Education and Introduction to Work/UERJ developed a project with the Childhood and Adolescence Foundation (FIA). Based on the Work and Organizational Psychology and the Integrated Psychosocial conception (Ayres, 2012), a participatory methodology was emphasized. The initial study, basis of this project, was conducted in two phases: 1st. Getting to know the group and 2nd. Mapping the demands, enabling the effective participation of partners, consolidating collective construction. Therefore, the project strengthened the focus on social inclusion, and discussed how to consider the interests of different segments: Company, Society and State, in an integrated conception of the social context.

Introduction

Tracing the historical trajectory of the main Brazilian public policies concerning young people and their training and placement in the job market, it is possible to affirm that such initiatives happened in a wide distance of years and had not so effective measures. Only in the year 2000, the Apprentice Law, as the Law No 10.097 of December 19th, 2000 is known, (Brasil, 2000) comes to emphasize and enhance early and standardized principles in Brazil, giving emphasis on professional learning. Consequently, the year 2005, can be considered a landmark to the youth social inclusion in Brazil, when the State legalized this matter, by means of Decree no. 5.598/2005 (Brasil, 2005). It is, then, established the Young Apprentice Program which states that all medium-sized to large-sized companies are obliged to hire teenagers and youths ranging from 14 to 24 years old and disabled citizens without age limit.. The Ministry of Labor point the program out as promoter of technical-professional education to learning a profession and gaining professional experience. Is it important to highlight, as a pioneer initiative, the allowance of the same labor rights of permanent employees to young apprentices, in a work contract of maximum due of two years.

In this sense, the Young Apprentice Program aims to promote social and professional inclusion, offering technical-professional education to youths ranging from 14 to 24 years old, spreading over the media, the slogan: "Legal Apprentice – good for the youth, better for the company". The program consists of a management initiative directed to social responsibility practices as the work initiation Programs in Brazil involve Companies, the Society and the State.

Facing the presented relevancy, discussions have been carried out in relation to these public policies, concerning the field of work and the organizations, in the Internship in Work and Organizational Psychology of the Applied Psychology Service (SPA) of the Psychology Institute of (IP) at the State University of Rio de Janeiro (UERJ). As a consequence, the extension Project: Work and Organizational Psychology – The Youth and work initiation in the social

inclusion perspective came up. The Project prioritizes the following objectives: - to develop the partnership – academic institution, company and society; - to foster these youths personal and interpersonal development, in order to facilitate self-knowledge and reflections concerning work, the job market and social inclusion possibilities and; - to carry out studies and research about the theme the youth and work initiation, raising the discussion about it and defining transformational actions in the current reality.

Theoretical Bases to Action

Based in the field of Social Psychology and Work and Organizational Psychology, the Project has as its objective to widen the studies, research and interventions in the field of work and of social organizations, focusing on social inclusion. According to Dejours, work is seen as "the fundamental operator of the subject's own construction" (p. 32). It is in the work environment that the construction of individual and social identity is promoted based on everyday exchanges. Borges and Yamamoto (2014) consider the importance of work in the construction of subject's own identity construction, by stating that work is, at the same time, structuring of the subject and of the society. A society in which individuals have access to a job, according to their potential, their abilities. Zarafian (2001) defines professional competency as a combination of knowledge, know-how, experiences and behavior that occurs in a specific context. And, Fleury & Fleury (2001) complement the concept, emphasizing that "work is no longer the combination of associated tasks descriptive to the position, but it becomes the direct extension of the competency that the individual demonstrates before a more mutable and complex professional situation. This complexity of situations makes the unpredictable more common and part of routine" (p.186).

In this perspective, the project has as basis the reflection on the concepts of identity and work, considering the contemporary scenery and the implications of the current productive context. As Zanelli, Silva e Soares (2004) highlight, human societies, in the contemporary age, organize themselves around work, the definer of the meaning of human existence Work, from the structuring of capitalism on, began to represent the necessary component to human survival. Thus, work is the fundamental element both in organizations and in the society and it is committed to the transformation of nature. These authors (2004) state that the processes of socialization, from the moment of birth, are destined to work. Moreover, the concept of human maturity is connected, most of times, to the individual's entrance in the job market. For this reason, individuals look for, in remunerative work, their needs fulfillment and autonomy.

In can be inferred that, in contemporary age, work represent the essential value in the constitution of human life. Work, as a human action, institutes appropriations in the physiological, moral, social and economic spheres, affording the formation of social values. (Zanelli, Silva & Soares, 2010).

It is used, in this Project, the argument that work is seen as an essential category, not the only one though, for the understanding of social relations, identification processes and the individuals' personality, once the professional dimension occupies a meaningful space in people's lives, pervading human existence. Therefore, when young people enter the job market, they have, as a possibility, the experiencing of social inclusion from the moment he starts to become part of a social organization, favoring the sense of social acceptance. A social organization is considered a collective construction, resulting from the interaction and integration of the dimensions of individuals, groups, organizations and societies that impact people, society and nature. (Ayres, 2012)

Methodological Proposal

The Project presents as methodological basis the Integrated Psychosocial conception (Ayres, 2012), which emphasizes the theoretical studies on group processes (Mailhiot, 1985; Lane, 1989; Ayres, 2012) and the action research (Barbier, 1985; Thiollent, 2004; El Andaloussi, 2004), which prioritizes the involvement of all social actors, that is, who does something, who has something to say, a collective, participatory structure. A process that aims to emphasize the establishment of a partnership between the researcher and social actors, making room so that everybody can perform the role of protagonist and, therefore, opening space for dialogue and free expression. This conception highlights the importance of the following methodological orientations – ' Psychological Contract', ' Communication', 'Feedback Process' and ' Collective Decisions' – that make the establishment of this partnership possible. (Ayres, 2012)

Consequently, several phases are proposed and completed in a participative way, by means of meetings and interviews, with the goal of enabling reflection and group learning and the exchange of experiences. So, the substance is the appreciation of the human being, with emphasis on participation, life quality and people well-being, in an integrative conception, that takes the human being into consideration, in all its dimensions, physical, psychic and social; and the organizations as social, collective construction and partnership fields.

> Partnership is not limited to participation, nor cooperation. The interested actors will only solve their mutual problems if they accept to establish the partnership. Permanent interchange, point of view confrontation and the performance of common actions are part of the mechanism that enables the establishment of a partnership, which is not established by means of decree, it is established from personal beliefs, in a confidence environment, ruled by democratic relations.(El Andaloussi, 2004, 2004, p.134)

For that rebasan, the Project proposes a wide study composed of two initial phases, focus of this article, with the aim of generating means of thinking work and identity construction in order to extend the room of intervention-research in social and work relations. The focus is on the social inclusion of these youths, who start in this field of work and of organizations, considering all social actors involved with this context.

Study Development

In this sense, in 2014, a partnership between the Technical Staff of IP/UERJ and the Educational Program Work Initiation Scholarship (PEBIT/UERJ), a socio- educational program conducted by the Department of Internships and Scholarships - CETREINA/UERJ. The partnership had as an objective to get to know and follow the young scholars from the Childhood and Adolescence Foundation (FIA) who work in several departments of the University (UERJ). The Project team consisted of 15 students, who led the Project execution, a supervisor phycologist and a professor from the Psychology Institute, mentor and coordinator of studies. This group, formed in January 2014, composed the study and research group, being weekly supervised on the theme: The Youth and Work Initiation, conducted along the years of 2014 and 2015.

According to the methodological-theoretical basis (Ayres, 2012), a trajectory was traced in order to prioritize the collective, participative structure: proving information, analyzing, interpreting and taking action, in a shared process. A process that involved conversation methods, such as: "field recognition" visits, interviews and meetings that allowed the establishment of the partnership between the researcher and social actors. Therefore, making room so that everyone can perform the role of protagonist and a continual dialogue space can be highlighted.

In this perspective, the two phases, described below, (Table 1) were planned to provide methodological-theoretical support to the development of the next phases, called: The 3rd phase: The Youth and Work Initiation – The Social and Professional Role. This phase

characterizes of the creation of groups of intra and interpersonal development, both of the young scholars and their supervisors, making action plans of individual development and the 4th phase: Assessment and Follow-up, based on returnable interviews with all the involved actors. So, the action is registered in the 2016 General Report of IP/UERJ (Ayres, 2016):

> Making a place of meeting and learning for the young scholars of PEBIT, in this period of work initiation, having as fundamental objective the personal/interpersonal development for the performance of their professional and social role, from group experience, self-knowledge and exchange of experiences, concerning the current world of work, allowing the rise of each one and the group's potential, consolidated in an individual and group Action Plan. (Ayres, p.61, 2016)

Table 1 – Study Conduction

1st Phase – Getting to Know the Institution and the Group	
Steps	**Aims**
1st Step- "Field recognition" visits	- **To get to know the PEBIT program, the young scholar-interns from The Childhood and Adolescence Foundation –FIA and their supervisors, respectively.** - **To introduce the Technical Staff of IP/UERJ and its initial proposal for the execution of the project.** - **Discussing the proposal of the Project of preparation of youths, at this moment, of entering the job market.** - **Shared construction of the psychological and work contract for the formation of the intra and interpersonal development group: The Youth and the Initiation to Work – The Professional and Social role**
2nd Phase – Mapping the group profile and the demand	
Steps	**Aims**
1st Step - Structured interviews- individual interviews with the young interns.	- **To get to know the group from the mapping of the profile of this group of interns of CETREINA/ PEBIT/UERJ, the demands and expectations for the construction of the final proposal: The Youth and the Initiation to Work – The Professional and Social role** - **Shared construction of the psychological and work contract for the formation of the intra and interpersonal development group: The Youth and the Initiation to Work – The Professional and Social role.**
2nd Step – Data collection and presentation to the participants, consolidating the proposal.	

1st Phase – Getting to Know the Institutions and the Group

In this first phase, initially, the Technical Staff of the Psychology Institute/ UERJ visited CETREINA/ PEBIT/UERJ and FIA for "field recognition". From this moment on, three (03) "participative meetings" were held, coordinated by the Technical Staff of the Psychology Institute/ UERJ, with the presence of the Technical Staff from CETREINA/PEBIT/UERJ and the scholar's supervisors and three (03) other " participative meetings" with the interns and supervisors were held.

The six (06) meetings, called "participative", were planned, according to the methodological orientation of The Psychosocial Integrated Conception (Ayres,2012), in order to introduce the project's initial proposal, its aims, its schedule and the duration of the meetings, giving voice to the actors involved for the establishment of mutual definitions. Thus, making room for the establishment of a psychological and work contract for the development of a Project directed to meet the demands of this group.

Participation was voluntary in every step. All the forty-one supervisors (41) have been invited however, thirty-six (36) attended, which represented 88% of attendance. In total, forty-four (44) interns were invited, thirty-three (33) attended, 75% of attendance. Based on the data collected in the meetings, Technical Reports were written by the Psychology Staff, having all of them been forwarded to the participants by CETREINA/ PEBIT/UERJ.

2nd Phase – Mapping the Profile of the Interns and the demand

According to the methodological-theoretical orientation (Ayres, 2012), the objectives of this phase were to get to know the interns group, to map the group profile and, to identify the demands and expectations on the proposed job.

The IP technical staff carried out twenty-eight (28) structured interviews, followed by a questionnaire, based on the adopted theory, involving the following categories: Work Experience, prior to the Internship at UERJ; -Expectations about team work, that being divided into categories that represented everyday situations faced in relation to the research theme: The Youth and Work Initiation..

Getting to Know the Group, Demands and Expectations

The "field recognition" allowed the IP/UERJ Technical Staff to get to know the history and the current context of every partner institution, CETREINA/PEBIT and FIA, allowing the understanding of the institutions' proposal, their values and possibilities of carrying out the proposed project. The institutions are profoundly committed to the education and professional development of these youths, being characterized by actions that aim the youth social inclusion. Based on this data, the "participative meetings" were planned. In every meeting, a psychological and work contract was made directed to the development of the Project. The following items were discussed and included in the contract during the meetings: - Opinions on training, The Youth and the Initiation to Work – The Professional/ Social Role ; - Opinion on their participation and the importance of training for their success; - Their expectations on how to contribute to the Project; - Assessment on the Project and the meeting ; - Room for Commentaries and Suggestions.

All the data was registered and a Report of the meetings was generated and forwarded to the participants.

Briefly, the supervisors considered:

- The Project presents an important initiative of professional guidance and emotional support to these youths for their entrance and preparation to the job market and social inclusion;

- The role of the supervisors was fundamental, for having daily contact with the scholars, giving support, incentivizing the youth to participate of the Project;

- They hope to contribute with knowledge, observation, planning and dialogue; very responsibly, teaching, and participating of the youths' everyday life; divulging the ideas presented in the meeting and proposing new reflections;

- Lastly, they consider it and excellent initiative, but pointed out that it is necessary that the young scholars are willing to accept and commit with this training spontaneously not only under the influence or pressure of parents and/or supervisors;

 FIA interns:
- The Project is important as it is a possibility for better understanding the job market and the professional life, for their personal and professional development, maturing and experience; for the experiencing of the feeling of personal appreciation; for the better facing of the job market;
- They hope to participate, dedicate and contribute with ideas and experiences;

- They highlighted the fact that it is a unique initiative, that they are curious, interested and hopeful in the proposed Project and in the potential results for their professional future;
And, based on the individual interviews carried out, Table 2 presents the group Profile :

Table 2 – Profile of the intern group

Categories/Subcategories	Percentage – Description
1. School Life	• 97% consider school important for the professional life, as it is the basis of all knowledge
1.1 Education	• 82% were in high school and 18 % in elementary school
1.2 Additional Courses Taken	• 80% reported having taking courses, mainly language and computer courses
2. Social Context	• 100% admitted to have full family support regarding their internship at UERJ
2.1 Work	• 100% recognized that work is important for: Future Experience; Personal Satisfaction and; Financial Aid
2.2 Work Experience, prior to the internship at UERJ	• 67% did not have a formal job experience prior to the internship • 33% had some type of "informal" professional experience
2.3 Salary earned in the last experience	• 47% earned up to 1 minimum wage (R$ 880,00) • 63% did not inform
3. Internship at UERJ	• 53% recognized the internship to be important for their future
3.1 Learning about the internship	• 44% stated that learned about the internship from family members
3.2 Aim in staying in the internship	• 56% looked for an internship to learn and gain experience. • 14% stayed for the money to help with family bills
3.3 Internship importance	• 53% considered important for the professional life • 35% pointed out learning • 12% recognized it as an alternative to inactivity and for earning a salary
3.3 Main Roles Performed	• 100% of participants admitted to perform basic administrative functions, mainly: - sending and delivery of documents to the other sectors of the university.
3.4 Positive Points	• 26% pointed out learning • 20% elected the way people from work treated them • 17% pointed out the coexistence with other people
3.5 Negative Points	• 18% did not recognize negative aspects in their internship experience • 16% considered difficult coexisting with other people • 16% considered the salary low
4. Expectations on team work	• 58% expected learning for personal and professional life
4.1 Contribution of the participants for the success of the project	• 49% stated to contribute to Project by means of commitment, offering support to the others scholars.

Conclusions and final remarks

The first phase - "Getting to know the institutions and the group" -, of exploratory character, was fundamental for the establishment of the partnership between the Technical Staff of the Psychology Institute, the staff of CETREINA/ PEBIT/UERJ, the scholars' supervisors and the interns from the Foundation of Childhood and Adolescence (FIA). The assessments made at the end of the meetings consolidated the theoretical-methodological principle, regarding the importance of the participation of all in the formulation of the proposal, giving voice to all the involved ones, where each one can perform their role as protagonist of the study and of the final

proposal. It can be stated that this phase allowed the development of a cooperative process, between the Project's team, the staff of CETREINA/ PEBIT/UERJ, the scholars' supervisors and the interns in search of constant dialogue, in a process oriented by relations of trust, respect and open communication amongst all.

The second phase – "Mapping the Profile of the Interns and the demand" carried out based on the individual interviews, stimulated proximity between the IP technical staff and the Interns, development of an initial bond of trust that fostered the participation in the 3rd phase of the Project- The Youth and the Initiation to Work – The Professional and Social Role – group of intra and interpersonal development. The Interns mentioned, in their interviews, the importance of this moment for a greater proximity with the staff and for their decision of participating of the Project.

Such reports confirm the relevance of theses phases for the consolidation of the psychological and work contract, consequently, for the involvement of the interns in every phase of the Project.

The final reports, from the supervisors and interns corroborate the importance of having different phases for the consolidation of the methodological proposal, giving voice to the several partners. Therefore, allowing to get to know the group, to map the real demands and to consolidate the collective construction, once all the social actors state to see themselves as protagonists of the proposed study.

Moreover, these initial phases of the study came to consolidate the relation learning, research and extension, as they allowed the production of knowledge, experiences and contributing to the discussion, making the debate over the central questions of the Project advance. Therefore, it is possible to highlight that the study directed to promote room for discussion and learning to the Interns, in parallel, contributed to the education of the students who are part of the Technical Staff of the Psychology Institute, who composed the Technical Staff of the Psychology Institute. In this context, the students were trained to be in the execution of the project, from weekly enriching supervisions, both in relation to the developed contents and in the field of Psychology regarding the discussions about the professional practice. The assessments and follow-up of the students were made from instruments of self and hetero assessment, systematically and regularly, by means of specific forms filled in the beginning and at the end of the Project. In this sense, in the perspective of the theoretical studies on the field of work, of the organizations and group processes, the carrying out of the Project, together with the Interns from CETREINA/PEBIT, allowed the under-graduate students of the Psychology Institute of UERJ, to expand their education, based on practice, studies and research in this field.

This article aimed to discuss and evidence the need of a space of technical and emotional support to the youths who precociously enter the job market, considering the social context in an integrated way, assuming the participation of all involved for social transformation. The partnership established with the Educational Program Work Initiation Scholarship - PEBIT, a socio- educational program conducted by CETREINA/ UERJ for the development of the Project, was rooted by shared values, the belief in the human being and its accomplishment and transformation potential. Consequently, it intended to register that the methodological concept includes all the actors involved, strengthening the availability, the involvement and the commitment, in a process that aims to meet the different demands. That is, the demand of the young interns from the Childhood and Adolescence Foundation (FIA), the one of the technical staff of the Project/IP and CETREINA/ PEBIT/UERJ, the one of the Supervisor of the Interns, in a process of shared learning. Therefore, it can be stated that the initial phases could consolidate the focus on social inclusion, by giving voice to the interests of different segments: Society, Company and State, in an integrated psychosocial conception.

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VALUES OF FRESH MBA GRADUATES FROM A TOP INDIAN B-SCHOOL

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Abstract

As Indian MBA education industry picks up pace and top Indian B-Schools join the bandwagon of "Rethinking the MBA" (Datar, Garvin, & Cullen, 2012), there is little known about the values upheld by the critical input – the B-School student.

This paper presents the first part of a larger study. It attempts to explore the values of just graduating MBA students. It emerges that the students are driven by a strong desire to excel and to make a mark. Money or financial success did not turn out to be a significant goal, at least for a top B-school graduate.

Introduction

MBA education has been a coveted field of learning for several decades now. Its popularity has been consistent for several years and still remains a popular choice among graduates as a field of education. (Barley, Meyer & Gash, 1988). The valuation of an MBA graduate seems to be strong and positive (Bradshaw, 2007, Bruce, 2010; Brewer & Brewer, 2012) despite sporadic criticism of MBA, its value, and contribution to the society (Baruch, 2009; Harrington, 2010). Within India, between 140,000 to 170,000 candidates appear for the Common Admission Test (akin to GMAT) necessary to seek admission in some of the best B-schools in the country for roughly 3,000 seats at stake in 16 schools, of which 1300 seats are located within (arguably) the top three institutes as ranked locally. Similarly there are tests from other individual top-10 Indian B-schools that have similar seat to applicant ratio. The reason for such popularity of these B-schools is a five pronged promise as understood for MBA education (Simmering & Wilcox, 1995).

Some of the top B-schools have enjoyed tremendous confidence of students and their eventual organizations for about one hundred years in the USA. This confidence and utility was perhaps brought to limelight by Business Week in 1988 when it started with first ever ranking of B-schools. It compiled evaluations from consumers of B-schools, and since claims to have resulted in several changes in curriculum and pedagogical developments across major schools. It also raised the issue of increasing public demand for businesses and institutions to be accountable (Business Week Editorial, April 19, 2004: 140). Graduates from top-B-schools are a sought after set of business professionals. The expectations from them are also clear and focused on deciphering complex environment variables and delivering results in line with organizational goals. The quest for creating the most suitable business managers is real and ever strong in top B-schools.

More recently Datar, Garvin and Cullen (2010) studied systems and processes of several top ranked business schools in the world and argued that the content and delivery of MBA education needs to undergo an overhaul if it has to be of some relevance in near future. They strongly voiced in favour of globalisation of the minds, creating cultural awareness and developing critical thinking amongst the graduate students. It seems there is resurgence of Simmering and Wilcox's

(1995) idea of MBA being a useful career choice because of prestige, opportunities for career growth, developing interpersonal skills, entrepreneurial aspirations, and better career mobility.

As schools around the world scamper for rating agencies, accreditation bodies, argue for becoming more research driven (O'Brien, Drenvich, Russell, & Craig, 2010), and wish to create more suitable graduates (Datar et al., 2010), the main ingredient and consumer in this field has been largely overlooked. In the rush to develop systems, faculty capabilities, and pedagogical advancements, there have been two assumptions about the students who eventually join the program – (i) all MBA students across all schools are the same, and (ii) the selectors and faculty clearly understand students' motivations and drivers.

Both these assumptions do not consider the context of various schools and their students. Especially from a classical theoretic perspective there is no "recognition" of the reality of the unit of analysis. Each unit of analysis, phenomenologically speaking, could be diverse, and separately each unit will combine diverse elements (Sages & Goel, *forthcoming*).

In order to put it more succinctly, *firstly*, students at different schools cannot be the same. The selection process at different B-school ensures that only certain types of students do enter the program. The schools and their selection processes are inherently driven by the values that the institute upholds. These values run in the systems of schools, the faculty subscribes to them, and as we argue, strongly influence the selection of candidates. It would therefore be naïve to consider that all schools will have similar students. More so, top ranking B-schools end up attracting best of the students and best employers from the context. This combination of highly competitive students and corporates has its own demands for pedagogy, development needs, aspirations and expectations (Sharkey & Beeman, 2008). This needs to be acknowledged by institutions, and possibly introspection is warranted.

Secondly, it seems that an MBA aspirant, especially for a top B-school has been caricatured to a large extent. A person joining a top ranking school is considered someone who is interested in a fast paced, highly incentivised career that could propel a person into higher echelons of management hierarchy at a very fast pace. The difference is probably starker in a developing society such as India.

It is argued here the MBA candidate/student is one of the most important stakeholders in the milieu of B-school education. It is this student who is the input, the same student is the one where transformational processes are carried out, who voluntarily carries out changes, and then becomes the product of the B-school. It is important to recognize the nature of the input. Unless there is clear understanding of what the student bodies comprise of, the effectiveness of MBA education in creating better decision makers and business leaders will be easier to call for scrutiny. Besides, the values of students have been argued to strongly influence their career choices and satisfaction from those choices (Brown, 2002). Amongst the MBAs, there were significant cultural differences between students of similar schools located across different countries (Haski-Leventhal, 2014).

The Indian case for Higher Education

It is not uncommon for us to see many youngsters opting to go for 'higher studies', which in most cases mean post-graduation in different fields. If we think about the reasons/motivation for them to choose this step in their life, there are many things to consider. In the Indian system of education and society, it is considered an 'obvious step' for a student who has consistently displayed good performance at studies in school and college. Students with better scores are

often seen enrolling for higher studies. Students who fare poorly in school examinations often worry about being eligible for higher studies. Good grades at school and university are the most basic determinants of decision about post-graduation. As the numbers at all stages are very large, the competition is very tough. One has to beat others and be the best in order to have an edge over her contemporaries and colleagues in whichever way he/she can. The prospect of better pay package at job, and a better lifestyle are also some key points driving the student towards post-graduation. A higher degree instills an assurance that the person has better chances of professional progress. Improvement of their and their family's lifestyle could be a major decisive factor. This was found to be especially the case in students from middle-class where good education is the best way to be put into a higher orbit of influence, depicted through higher importance of self-oriented values than other-oriented values (Krishnan, 2008).

Lack of clarity from literature

A study in Canada found that students wanted to have family security and   health as top two values. The next set of values differed across genders, though hedonism was a common high ranking value between male and female MBA students. While male students tended towards achievement and self-direction, female students were driven by benevolence and security (Lan, Gowing, Rieger, McMahon & King, 2010). The gender based differences were not significant from a culturally similar sample. Additionally, Asian students from developing economies reported that making money for a hedonistic life is the most important reason for pursuing an MBA, those from developed countries saw making money as essential but life has to be lived in harmony with social values (Haski-Leventhal, 2014). The differences are therefore stark. In a longitudinal study in India, Krishnan (2008) reported that MBA students showed a shift from being concerned for others being concerned for themselves, i.e., the MBA program made them more aware that they need to fulfil their needs first.

Culturally, this finding puts MBA against the Indian ethos. One explanation of this difference is the need of the hour of highly competitive developing societies. That's where it is once again important to link the context.

We argue that the education changes for future – as to develop a global mindset, critical thinking and cultural awareness – is especially relevant for top B-school graduates. The situation at top B-school is different, at least in India, because of very tough competition to get in, and once top students make it to the school; the bar for performance is raised even higher. The selection process ensures that almost every person in a top school has a resume full of outstanding achievements in a chosen field. Corporates who flock to hire these candidates at the end of the program also find it difficult to differentiate between candidates and often end up looking for any evidence of weakness, rather than evaluate strengths. In other words, graduates from such schools are almost guaranteed of a good job, salary, and excellent career prospects. The other two pillars of Simmons and Willcox (1995) get established by the work between various peer groups.

Thus, top B-school graduates have certain edge over others. They need to be studied separately in order to understand who they really are. Unless this question is clearly understood, the changes in other parts of the program shall be more difficult to align.

Research Question

The broader research question is: What are the values of MBA students? What is it that drives them to compete? What are their motivations?

A comprehensive answer to the above research question would require at least the following levels:

i.   One year vs Two-year MBA

ii. Gender based differences

iii. Differences among top quartile vs bottom quartile vs mean

iv. Values at the beginning and values at the end

v.   Separation and test of differences between students from different backgrounds

As it is clear all these could be separate areas in themselves, and the methods would change for each of the tests for the samples above. These objectives can only be achieved in a large study that spans at least over one or two batches. Moreover, it is important to decipher the values before a test of differences could be administered to adjudge the differences. This paper presents a part of the study. The specific research question for this paper is- *What are the values of graduating students from the two-year MBA program?*

Method Philosophy

Where there are humans there are meanings. We live in a world of meaning. These meanings and their interrelations are not always evident in all their richness and complexities, neither for ourselves and specially not for others. Phenomenology strives toward an unveiling of the networks of significations structuring every human situation and interactions, hence even managerial ones. It purposes to explicate the ever ongoing and changing pattern of meaning constituting the lifeworld of the individual. The phenomenal aspect of the lifeworld stresses the importance for the formation of meaning of the modes of appearance of every intentional object. As to appear is to appear to someone, every person will, by definition, have at least different perspectives. The things, events, situations which people speak of, discuss, agree or disagree about, are not identical for different persons, not even for the same person at different times and/or different situations

There will be similarities, of course, but even differences, may be more important than similarities. They can be the source of creativity and/or alternative solutions to problems. But they may as well be a blocking obstacle to mutual understanding. Phenomenology emphasises the provisional nature of decision-making and thus of categorising.

Phenomenology is oriented toward meaning, and meaning is varied, continually transformed, and contextually dependent. As such, any meaning is always part of a totality of meanings, realizing a field interaction. Mutually interacting meaning moments, in a continuous process of modification and development. It is a dynamic field. In a field structure, things appear in certain ways or modes.

Method used and sample

The nature of the research question, the context, and the philosophical stance warranted use of qualitative methods (Bryman, 2008). A dialogue with the students would be helpful in understanding their language, nuances, and expectations at play. Hatch (1993) too has recommended use of in-depth interviews to explore multifaceted and dynamic situations such as these. Unstructured interviews were therefore chosen to be the method of initiation into dialogue. These interviews with volunteering outgoing batch of students were conducted after their course-work was over. A message was sent to all course participants students at the end of

the course offered by the first author in their last term of instruction of the program. The email highlighted the question mentioned above.

There was no additional grade or evaluation benefit or monetary reward associated with the interview. There were 18 positive responses to the email request immediately. Of these 11 people came for interviews. The message was spread by word of mouth to some other students in the batch. This resulted in three more participants (who were not part of the course) to come and share their opinion. There were 14 interviews conducted in total. There was no need to expand the sample as saturation was reached after this point.

Setting of the interview

All interviews were one to one, conducted in the office of the researcher. The reason for choosing the office was to maintain anonymity of the interviewee, and also a quieter space at the time of closure of the program. The setting was made non-hierarchical with seating by the side, against the traditional norm of sitting across the table. The participants were given a choice to be anonymous or reveal their names. All of them chose to be anonymous. The interviews were recorded on a voice recording device. Participants were asked to feel free to let know if the recording should continue, or if they were uncomfortable with the idea of being recorded. Some participants did not wish to have their interviews recorded. However, all participants agreed to allow the interviewer to take notes during the interview.

Upon meeting the participants were asked to clarify once again on record about anonymity and other considerations. Participants were asked a single question in a manner of speaking – *Could you tell me what are your values that drive you? What is it that motivates you? Why do you think you do what you do?*

Data Analysis

The interviews were heard, read and re-read to increase the familiarity with the data and formulation of emerging ideas. The points from the interview were coded iteratively using themes from the literature and those indicated by the interviewees. These codes were then organized into potential themes that were then refined in light with the data. Themes were then defined in a way that would provide more accurate meaning to the experiences. The steps followed the guidelines from Braun and Clark (2006).

Results and Discussion

The result highlights the values that emerged from all the respondents, or were very vivid in their description.

Grateful to family

It seems the graduates from top B-school were grateful to their immediate families, especially the parents. This is also expected in strong familial ties found in India according to the World Values Survey. They want to be called a good son or daughter, but the family acceptance of their actions is important. All of them presented a strong desire to appreciate what their families have done for them, felt responsible to their needs, and wished to give something back to them. There was also a tinge of gratefulness in what they think their families have done for them. One of the quotes that highlighted this value goes…

> I want to be a good son to my parents. I really appreciate what they have done for me throughout the years. I would not be here if it was not for my parents. I have to now take up to

the responsibility of leading the family… I want to do something for them… I want to give back a few things.

More importantly, as the values of family continue from one stage to another (Masuda & Sortheix, 2012) it would be fair to expect that such a person would wish reciprocation of actions done by him/her from the society or the immediate family. This would then set the tone for subordinates, peers, and the rest of the close group.

Need to excel, ambition, continuous improvement – Make an impact

The MBAs consistently talked of a desire to improve. This could be driven by education during the program, high degree of competition within and before the program, high competition for coveted job roles, a sense of achievement after MBA, or simply a point of caution to not to rest on the laurels. Everybody seems to believe that being the best is important for being successful. They want to excel as/carve a niche for themselves as professionals. They also exhibited a desire to continuously improve in order to be what they want to be. The objectives were perhaps clear to them, but several did not have a grand imagery of what they would be in future. It seems that the ambition was for excellence in a field, and to lead an organization; not necessarily to be a top ranking manager in a particular organization. This value or desire to excel seemed to coalesce into making a measurable impact in the life of an organization.

A graduate also seems to be willing to explore the avenues. This lack of clarity could be a good sign for it can result in creative solutions. However, if there is pending confusion for a long time, it may not augur well. Sense of confusion about self also indicates that the person is unsure. It may be noteworthy that MBAs are hired for bringing in more clarity to ambiguous situations but, if they themselves are somewhat confused within themselves, their conceptual or analytical prowess may not allow them to be leaders – more importantly value based leaders.

The Indian quest for higher education

Of course we cannot overlook the bunch of people who go for higher education for the sake of satiating their own craving for knowledge. Some people have the inherent inclination towards learning new things and an aptitude for selected fields. These kind of people are very likely to pursue higher studies to quest their internal goals.

A large number of people go for higher studies just to make them eligible for carrying on a pre-determined role. For example, children of doctor parents who get a masters in medicine just to fit in their family run hospital, or industrialists who get an MBA in order to understand, manage and develop their family business better.

One interesting category is the group of people who go in for higher studies just because they are not sure of their career choices after graduation from college and think that getting a higher degree might lead them to make a choice.

There are few people who are driven by the desire to bring a positive change in the world and want to contribute towards a cause, thus keen on getting a higher degree in the field of their interest. (basic scientific research, Journalism, Public health, social services, psychology etc.)

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A STUDY OF PERSONAL VALUES OF INDIAN GEN Y BUSINESS STUDENTS

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Abstract

The paper looks at the values that are held by Gen Y business students. While there exists some literature with regard to Gen Y values in the western contexts, there is dearth of research in the Indian context. Further, the distinct socio-cultural characteristic of India, is expected to lead to differences in the saliency of values which necessitates a separate study. A survey methodology was used to collect data for the study. An online questionnaire was used to collect responses on a ranking scale. The measure used for the study is J Oliver's PVS(Personal Value Statement) scale,a modified version of the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values Scale. The sample consisted of male and female full time post-graduate management students. Differences were found with regard to the values amongst students from different management programmes. Differences were also reported with respect to gender and between those who have work experience and those who have not worked.

Introduction

Since 2000-01, Generation Y popularly known as Gen Y (born between 1980 and 1995) has been entering the workforce. According to a recent Gallup (2013) article, Generation Y is overtaking the number of Baby Boomers in the work place. Boomers are approaching retirement and Gen Y are finding employment. Further according to a report by PwC (2011), this group forms 25% of the workforce in the US and accounts for over half of the population in India and by 2020, would form 50% of the global workforce. In view of this, it becomes important for HR research to find out the attributes of this generation, the similarity and differences between value preferences of different groups within this generation. This generation is not only large in terms of numbers but also has different characteristics than other generations. According to Crumpacker and Crumpacker (2007), critical events of a period tend to influence and therefore distinguish one generation from the other. Consequently, people born during the same period go through similar historical ups and downs during critical stages of their development (Inglehart, 1997; Kupperschmidt, 2000; Ryder, 1965). This leads to uniqueness as a generation from other generations. A study in US by Deloitte (2016) reported that two thirds of Gen Y employees expressed an intent to leave their current organization due to incongruity between their personal preferences and organizational policies. The study attempts to understand the motivations, preferences and values of Indian Gen Y. This would aid in designing human resource policies to align them towards organizational goals. This could help to improve employee engagement and check attrition. All aspects of human resource management are affected by the value orientations and preferences of its employees who constitute majority of the workforce.

As Gen Y currently dominate the workforce throughout the world, it was necessary to study their specific context to understand their values which determine their decisions and behaviours at workplace. The studies in the west are deficient in explaining Gen Y characteristics in Asian and Indian context due to difference in cultural and historical factors. A study of Gen Y value orientations in India will help bring in new insights having far reaching HR implications starting from Recruitment to Retirement. The current study is an attempt in this regard to find out the

commonalities of Indian Gen Y as a group and differences between various segments within the group.

This study used the PVS instrument of John Oliver administered to MBA students of a reputed University in India. The study was supplemented by a focused group discussion. The study found out major value orientations of MBA students and differences on the basis of gender, socio economic background and educational background. This will go a long way in helping Indian organisations to plan their HR policies and practices for Gen Y employees constituting the majority in workforce.

Literature Review

According to Allport (1961) "We know a person best if we know what kind of a future he [or she] is bringing about—and his [/her] molding of the future rests primarily on his [/her] personal values." Values were regarded as strong antecedents of behaviour (Mcdonald & Gandz, 1991, Spranger, 1928; Rokeach, 1973). Rokeach (1973) developed an instrument consisting of 18 instrumental and terminal values arguing that values determine all kinds of social behaviour. Recent research highlighted the importance of personal values in all kinds of domains of life home and work (Guttman, 1994; Jordan, 1992).

The literature on values has evolved to report the importance of shared values between individuals in organization for the success of any organization at both the individual and organizational level of analysis. At the individual level, there is evidence in literature that gender may be an determinant of value orientations of individuals (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Smola & Sutton (2002) reported that men prefer extrinsic aspects while women prefer intrinsic aspects of the job. Men have greater need for achievement while women have greater need for affiliation. Men value authority, rewards, security and competitiveness. Women on the other hand value collaboration, team work and human relations (Nevill & Super, 1989; Tolbert & Moen, 1998). As values are affected by differences in experiences of a person and also by the socialization process, the study has the following objectives.

Objectives :

To find if there is a difference in salient value for due to gender for men and women

To find out if there is a difference in salient value between individuals from a metropolitan background and those from a non-metropolitan background.

 To find out if there is a difference in salient value between students with different educational backgrounds.

Methodology

Method of Data Collection: The research is an exploratory study. Survey method was used to collect data for the study. An online questionnaire was used to collect responses on a ranking scale. The measure used for the study is the Oliver (1987) Personal Value Statement scale. The instrument has 20 sets of three values that have to be rank ordered in terms importance. Due to the inherent limitations of the scale, three focus group discussions comprising of seven respondents each drawn from the same sample set of those who had earlier responded to the online questionnaire was also held. Questions were asked to understand the meaning that they attributed to each of the values for example "what does 'Social' mean for you" The groups were further probed to understand the meaning that they attributed to a specific item for in the set of values that was salient for them for 'kindness' as a Social value. Questions were also asked to gain insight into

the perceived latitude or extent of impact of each of the values in their lives for example "Do you consider yourself to be social in the family, a particular group, in the class, in the University, etc. Finally questions were asked to gain an insight into the terminal application of these values.

Sample characteristics: The sample consisted of full time post-graduate management students from a University in eastern India. 300 Students in different programmes of business management, human resource management and executive business management were sent an online questionnaire. 218 responses were received for the study out of which only 199 were usable responses. The fact that the authors were also teaching in the various programmes facilitated a high response rate. 103 respondents were from the business management programme, 84 respondents were from the specialized human resource management programme and 10 respondents were from the executive business management programme. It is to be noted that the executive business management programme is a full-time residential program like the other two programmes. Care was taken to solicit responses from full-time students only to take care of variations in values that may be there when a person combines both work and studies at the same point in time. There were 108 (54.2 %) male and 91 (45.7 %) female respondents in the study. This distribution by gender is also reflective of the general gender distribution in the management programme, which sees a higher proportion of males than females. 66% of the respondents had prior work experience, the remaining were fresh out of college and had no prior work experience. 135 respondents in the study had a four years bachelor's degree in engineering studies whereas 64 respondents had a three years bachelor's degree in commerce, arts or science. 59.6 % of the respondents reported that they had predominantly non-metropolitan upbringing, 40.4 % of the respondents reported that they had a predominantly metropolitan upbringing.

Measure Used: There are a number of instruments that have been used to measure Personal Values. While the Allport, Vernon and Lindzey (1970) scale was found to be widely used but it has been critiqued for being archaic in content and wording (Hogan, 1972 ; Kopelman, Rovenpor & Guan, 2003). While the Kopelman et al. (2003) scale was found to be more relevant for the current day and also presented behavioural scenarios to understand what would be valued in a given context, but the behavioural scenarios were not found culturally fit for the Indian scenario and for the student group under study. For example questions on the " Last Supper" or the questions on 'discovery by Earhart and Magellan". Therefore, the Oliver (1987) Personal Value Statement scale was used because we found the items still hold relevance in the current day despite the scale having being developed in 1987. It is also not culturally loaded and could be used across different cultures. To test for reliability, a one week test-retest reliability was done and the scores ranged from .70 to .84.

Results and Findings

The top three values for the respondents were found to be Social, Theoretical and Economic. It was found that 37.1% of the respondent reported that their salient value was Social, 28 % reported that their salient value was Theoretical and 23% of the sample reported that their salient value was Economic (see Table 2). Interestingly, Theoretical emerged as the second most preferred value being ranked second by 66 (33.1%) respondents and Economic emerged as the third most preferred value being rated third by 62 (31.1 %) respondents. This shows that the three main value orientation of majority Gen Y people are Social, Theoretical and Economic values.

One-way between subjects ANOVA was used to test if there are differences in the salient value among individuals based on differences in gender, educational background, and metropolitan or

non-metropolitan background. There were some differences reported with regard to some of the values between individuals from different genders. Differences were also reported with respect to educational background and background of upbringing i.e. metropolitan or non-metropolitan.

Table 1: Mean Scores and Standard Deviation of the Sample

Values	Mean	SD
Social	28.43	3.8
Theoretical	26.45	3.4
Economic	25.24	3.1
Aesthetic	22.49	3.6
Political	22.10	4.1

Table 2: Percentage distribution of sample by preference for values

Value	Most Preferred	Second most preferred
Social	37	28.2
Theoretical	26	25.6
Economic	20	21.6
Political	12	15.6
Aesthetic	5	9.0

The test of ANOVA revealed that the women were found to be more aesthetic and economical as compared to men (see Table 3). Men comparatively were found to be more political and theoretical but the difference was not found to be significant. More specifically, there was a significant effect of gender on aesthetic value at $p<.05$ for the sample ($F (1, 197) = 2.135$). The mean of theoretical value for men at M= 19.6 and women at M= 25.9 differed significantly from each other. It was also found that gender also had a significant effect on the economic value for the sample at $p<.05$ ($F (1, 197) = 2.6$). The mean of economic value for men at M= 23.25 and women at M= 27.6 differed significantly from each other. Gender did not have any significant impact on theoretical, social and political value.

The results of ANOVA conducted on the sample revealed difference in one of the values exhibited on the basis of metropolitan or non-metropolitan background. The impact of metropolitan background was significant for the social value at $p<.05$ for the sample ($F (1, 197) = 3.135$). The mean of Social value was higher for those with non-metropolitan background at M = 40.2 than those with metropolitan background at M = 35.1. The background of upbringing did not have a significant difference for the theoretical, political, aesthetic or economic value.

Educational background of the individuals had a significant impact on the salient value in the sample. The results reveal that the students with B.E. / B.Tech. background reported significantly higher theoretical and social in their value orientation than general student who had degrees in commerce, arts or science. The impact of educational background was significant for

the social value at p<.05 for the sample (F (1, 197) = 1.7). The mean of Social value was higher for those with engineering students with M=32.0   than those with arts, commerce or plain science background at M=21.07. The impact of educational background was significant for theoretical value at p<.05 for the sample (F (1, 197) = 2.57). The mean of theoretical value was higher for those with engineering students with M= 29 than those with arts, commerce or plain science background at M=21.1. There was no significant difference reported for political, aesthetic or economic value on the basis of differences in educational background.

Table 3: Preference for values percentage distribution by gender

Value	Mean of Male	Mean of Female
Aesthetic	19.6	25.9
Economic	23.25	25.6

Findings from focus group discussion

The responses from the three focus groups were recorded and content analysed for finding common categories. The different meanings given to the different values have been listed in Table 4. Focus group discussions conducted with three group of seven members each brought to the forefront the understandings of Gen Y with regard to these values. It also gave an insight into the reasons for ranking one value higher than the other. For example, most of respondents interpreted power, conquest, control as negative values. On probing it was also revealed that they understood these values as being manipulative and unethical. This led to a lower ranking of the political value. The discussion also revealed that social value was interpreted by Gen Y as networking and building relationships in the organization with various stake holders. They emphasized need for team work and collaboration for business success and growth which is why it can be understood that Social value was ranked as the most salient value for this group.

Table 4: Findings from focus group discussion

Value	Meaning Attributed	Implications for work
Social	Team, Collaboration, Helping relationships	Need collaborative climate
Theoretical	Concepts, ideas , structure, plan	Need proper structure, rules to guide
Economic	Calculative, Money minded, Prosperity, comfortable earning and adequate backup of wealth miserly, spendthrift	Need reasonable pay packet, rewards, recognition
Political	Manipulative, unethical,	Need transparency and fair play
Aesthetic	Creative, imaginative, daydreaming, stylish, finer things	Need sophisticated, tasteful work environment, Scope for job crafting

Discussion

The results reveal a high social value orientation of Gen Y. India has a collectivistic orientation. It is likely that the high social value orientation may be attributed to this orientation. This finding

is in line with the fact this generation is a Networked Generation. This is similar to the finding of Thoni (2002), who found that this generation uses use state-of-the-art communication technologies to exchange information within networks. It was also found that individuals from metropolitan background had lower social value than those from non-metropolitan background. It could be due to the fact that the busy metropolitan life and increasing incidence of nuclear families in India leads to an individualistic orientation. The predominantly social value orientation of Gen Y would mean that the organization would need to be open, accessible and collaborative. The new age organizations which have a preponderant Gen Y work force therefore have many self-directed teams. The implication of this finding would mean that Gen Y would expect free and fair access, even to the highest level without hierarchical barriers. The theoretical value orientation also emphasize that organizational practices would need to reflect trust, transparency and integrity for employee engagement. Beaton (2008) concurred that while Gen Y desire a career they are also concerned about corporate, social and environmental ethics (Beaton, 2008). The focus group discussions also brought out that reason, logic, information was also perceived as the availability of systematic instruction and information. The economic value orientation of the sample gets reflected in their preference for a comfortable life, sufficient earnings, and saving for future exigencies.

Conclusion

While the study contributes to the academic literature on understanding the saliency of values for Gen Y, it also has important managerial implications. One of the limitations of the study is that the study has respondents from one particular b-school. Despite this above limitation, given that the b-school admits students from all over the country, the sample may be considered to be representative of the general Indian b-school student. But a broader set of sample of respondents would need to be considered to make the findings generalizable for Gen Y. Further, there are also limitations with regard to the measure used and the ranking that is being done for the different values. The ranking provided by an individual may change depending on his location for example whether the values would be important at his home or work. Therefore in future the study may be done using a behavioural descriptive measure of values at home and work to come to a relatively more accurate assessment of saliency of values. It has also been noted that values are a function of the individual's socialization process and discrete life experiences. India being high on collectivistic orientation and the joint family system still being prevalent in India, future research can study if there are differences in values between people from nuclear and joint families. A longitudinal study might also help study how the values might change over a period of time as the students enter the work force. The findings of such a study would have more accurate prescription for human resource policies in the organizations.

Nonetheless, despite its limitations the study makes important contributions to theory and practice. While there have been a number of studies in the western contexts, the understanding of salient Indian Gen Y values have been few and far in between. This research attempts to fill a gap in this particular field. Practically with the influx and predominance of Gen Y in to the working population, it becomes apposite to study the drivers of their behaviour. The findings of this study have important organizational implications. Changes may need to be brought about in various human resource policies and practices in line with the Gen Y values in order to retain crucial talent. Values are related to individual aspirations and behaviours and the findings of this study may provide important managerial insights for managing and engaging talent. An understanding will help to address problems with regard to talent acquisition and talent retention.

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ENTREPRENEURSHIP INFLUENCES ON STUDENTS: AN ANALYSIS OF BUSINESS' STUDENTS

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Abstract

This research analyzes the entrepreneurial interest aim of Baixada Santista institutions, Brazil. Hypotheses about the conditions of entrepreneur business interest were raised. The research was developed with data collected from 620 students, which they were analyzed using descriptive analysis, management regression and variance. Results demonstrate students have an intermediate corporate predisposition, influenced by the entrepreneurial vocation in the field of strategic skills, and in fact, to be a business owner or its family company. Non-probability sampling provides guidance to stimulate entrepreneurship students.

Keywords: entrepreneurship; students; business school.

Introduction

During the last two decades have seen the extraordinary evolution of courses and programmers on entrepreneurship at all levels of education. In the United States, virtually no institution of higher education there is that today, on his resume, there is at least one course on entrepreneurship (Gartner *et al.,* 1994). This phenomenon can be explained by various reasons, but is mainly due to the need that people have of training before entering the market on their own. The growth of the self-employed worker is without doubt, the most important business phenomenon of the last decade.

The term *entrepreneurship* was translated from the entrepreneurial spirit in English word, which, in turn, is derived from the Latin *imprehendere*, with its corresponding "*Start"*, which emerged in Portuguese in the 15th century. In 1800, the French economist Jean Baptiste Say, considered the father of *entrepreneurship*, used the term in the book "Treatise of political economy". "Entrepreneurship is a neologism derived from the translation of the word *entrepreneurship*." It is used to designate the studies concerning the entrepreneur your profile, its origins, its activities, its universe of action ", (Dolabella, 1999).

Entrepreneurs, who are independent innovators, have played a critical role in the growth and development of the capitalist economy. They were essential in the beginning of capitalism, by introducing new methods of business and other innovations, (Baumol, 2002). The entrepreneur is the agent of the process of "creative destruction", understood as the fundamental impulse which establishes and keeps moving the engine of capitalism, in constant creation of new products, new markets, and even overlapping methods less effective and more expensive, forever revolutionizing the economic structure, destroying endlessly the ancient and continually creating new, (Schumpeter 1959).

Drucker (1987) says that the entrepreneur is one who creates something new, something different, is one that changes or transforms the 'values' and also practice systematic innovation, looking for sources of innovation and creating opportunities. Kaufmann (1990) emphasizes that entrepreneurship is the ability to innovate, take risks intelligently, and adapt to rapid and continuous changes in the environment fast and efficiently.

The entrepreneur is what destroys the existing economic order, through the introduction of new products and services, with the creation of new forms of organization or the celebration of new features in the materials. And yet, he says that the entrepreneur is what creates a balance, the search for a clear and positive position in an environment of chaos and turbulence, i.e. identification and opportunities in this order. (Dornelas, 2005).

The entrepreneur is the *independent innovator*, in the broadest sense, i.e., that the activities of this person beyond of technical inventions and their use (Baumol, 2002). In the words of Filion (1999), the entrepreneur is which has the following features: is a creative person; marked by the ability to set and achieve goals; It maintains a high level of environmental awareness where you live, using it to detect business opportunities; It seeks to continuously learn and develop their skills; decisions are risky moderately; objective innovation; He feels, develops and realizes the visions.

Since the beginning of the 1980s, a large number of books and articles are published every year, in hundreds of magazines, among which 20 are specialized in entrepreneurship and micro and small business (MSB). However, a more in-depth study reveals, that diversity is not as important as it seemed at first glance.

"The movement of entrepreneurship in Brazil began to take shape in the 1990s, when it created institutions such as SEBRAE (Brazilian Micro and small business support service) and SOFTEX (Brazilian society of software exports)," (Dornelas, 2005). The same author says some of the actions that also contribute to the growth of the entrepreneurial practice in Brazil: programs Softex and GENESIS (generation of new Software companies, information and services) which support the business activities in software. The enterprising Brazil's Federal Government program, led to the formation of more than 6 million entrepreneurs across the country and programmers EMPRETEC and young entrepreneur of SEBRAE, among others.

Demand for a corporate training and education does not come only from people who want to engage in business on their own. Refers equally to all areas of human and Administrative Sciences. The model of training with an emphasis on entrepreneurship is increasingly an interesting option for courses; adjust the theoretical knowledge acquired in the courses, with the exploration of market opportunities, providing a professional training for more than the culture of employment. Therefore, it is essential to establish a series of structural changes, to improve support for entrepreneurship. Agencies and ministries that offer support programs are many, but cannot hire people who really know the problems and have a level sufficiently solid training in the field.

There is a consensus that the personal characteristics and skills of entrepreneurs can be developed through education. In fact, some research suggests that entrepreneurial behavior can be stimulated through formal programs of education (Gorman, Hanlon and King, 1997; Bechard and Toulouse, 1998).

As pioneer, (Garavan and O'Cinneide,) 1994 proposed more than two decades a synthesis of the most commonly cited objectives in entrepreneurial training programmers, which maintains total force and whose detail is as follows:

- *On the subject of entrepreneurship skills.*
- *Skills in the use of techniques in the analysis of business situations, and in the synthesis of the action plans.*
- *Identify and stimulate the drive, talent and entrepreneurial skills.*
- *Reverse the risk aversion for the use of different analytical techniques.*
- *Develop empathy and support in all outstanding aspects of entrepreneurship.*
- *Promote attitudes toward change.*
- *Promote the creation of companies and other types of ventures.*

In this sense, Laukkanen (2000) claimed and synthesized in the University level education for entrepreneurship is the teaching and learning of the process-oriented "to undertake", where the individual is the focus of a perspective, trying to answer questions like: what should be done and how, and to a lesser extent with "studies" the entrepreneurial process analyzed as one social and economic phenomenon among others.

Business capacity building should be linked to the actions of educational institutions to provide an impact mainly on strategic and operational nature. However, assumes that compliance with the requirements of training, despite its importance to the success of the business, have a potential limited the construction of interest in undertaking of future professionals. The national ambient conditions (Begley and Tan, 2001) and family fitness (Miller, 2000), as social relations (Greve and Salaff, 2003) are examples of factors that educational institutions have a limited stock and considerable power of influence.

A deepening of the entrepreneurship studies allows you to develop systems of knowledge that make us in the era of the knowledge society. In fact, it would be interesting, for example, think about targeting professionals to undertake, carry out, to the extent that make feasible the necessary experience to would-be entrepreneurs. However, exploratory data obtained by this research did not indicate the effective results of this guidance and these actions. The importance of work experience in the choice of the professional career as self-employed has been shown in several studies (Kolvereid, 1996); (Scott and Twomey, 1988).

In fact, the analysis of the contents of the settings shows the influence of basic materials in the conceptualization of the entrepreneur. It is often associated with business creativity. In many cases, there is a need or a corporate culture that is inserted in a given context, resulting in the potential entrepreneur to develop their creativity. When there is the creative potential, young people develop their potential and gradually learn the best advantage of this.

Characteristics of the potential entrepreneurs, socio demographic features, such as: gender, age, activity of parents, cultural level, the time experienced in business activities, training in entrepreneurship, among others, are very investigated in the literature, due to its relationship with the entrepreneurial activity. The literature points to different aspects social, emotional, cultural, etc. affect the formation of vocations to undertake.

In fact, with these possibilities in mind, defined as topics of analysis to this research that is perceived in business training, the social determinants of support (family), and control of the business requirements. Is therefore defined as the central problem of this research: How do these factors (support, guidance, conduct and domain) affect the corporate interest of the students of administration?

This research analyzes the entrepreneurial interest aim of Baixada Santista institutions, Brazil (guidance, conduct and area); and assess variations in these factors, taking into account the socio-economic variables of students.

Literature Review

It was not until the 1980s that doctors have been formed in entrepreneurship itself. Observing the field of entrepreneurship, it was verified that most researchers classify them in one of the three following categories, according to the customer of his research: 1) the customer is a University researcher; (2) the customer is an entrepreneur operational; (3) the client conceived policies (State and parastatals agencies). The origin of its clientele is explained not only by researcher's career, but also the subject that he chose to study. In this case, her chosen can be summarized in the following way: How does the entrepreneur who organizes his system activities? Several subjects' lines allow you to categorize research on human and Administrative Sciences.

Created by Burrell & Morgan (1979) is particularly useful. She divided researchers into quadrants: radical humanism, radical structuralism and functionalism interpretation. This line of research distinguishes between methods of analysis of the social theories, separating the subjective approach of the objective. There is countless excellent research in the world of the entrepreneur, surveys them to inform us and improve our knowledge, but almost none of them had the theme way of thinking of the entrepreneur. You should try to identify a way to address the issue, so future employers can structure their thinking, so that their potential is optimized in the practice of entrepreneurship.

The flexible systems methodology, developed by Peter Checkland (1981) in England, showed that he allows an interesting approach to a better structure of the media of entrepreneurship. The methodology Checkland, commonly called SSM ("Soft Systems Methodology"), is designed to structure an action method for complex and difficult situations. This methodology is advantageous, especially for administrators to establish correlations in complex and difficult situations. It was conceived as a self-learning system. This method was not used until then for purposes other than those for which it was designed: to foster an agent of the Organization, an instrument of reflection to better organizes their thinking and, finally, the following action. A comprehensive analysis of the activities of entrepreneurs and their classification in categories, revealed the interrelations between these activities and the three different relationship levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. The first level is the circle of people close, the second level is the business and the third level of relationship is that of learning (which is prepared for the design of the action).

There are degrees of influence from one level to another that actually seems to be very particular to entrepreneurs in growth and learning in advance. Therefore, the system of business activity is not only to define and find contexts and guidelines to carry out its achievements, but also to acquire skills that enable them to work better. Entrepreneurial activity can be understood as the ability of human beings to give form to the environmental conditions in his favor, by a visionary process of the creation of reality. The increase in the increase of business activities is one of those responsible for the improvement of the living and the increase of income per capita in the Western world, (Murphy, Liao and Welsch (2006).

In Schumpeter (1983) design, the entrepreneur is regarded as a driving force behind the economy, therefore an agent of change. No one is born an entrepreneur, but the business characteristics can be developed throughout a career, as for example, the readiness to take risks

or challenges in a new adventure. Thus, the entrepreneurial spirit is established as a cultural phenomenon, strongly related to the educational process. In his speech, the author makes a distinction between the owner and Manager, this last associated with the entrepreneurial idea, i.e., the person who starts a new business. He points to some forms of innovation, such as the development of new products, new forms of organization of production and innovations in the marketing and distribution of goods and services.

The venture begins from changes in the market through innovation opportunities generated by the production system dysfunction. The prospect of Schumpeter is which has been recognized as current business thinking, (Souza and Guimarães) Economist 2005. The basic point of view is that people seek their personal fulfillment, and have any business initiative for the realization of that goal, according to the authors. More recent research on entrepreneurship, keep your attention focused on the social aspect, heavily influenced by environmental agents, people involved with the (social) businessman and environmental regulations. Means that these insights lead to better interpret the entrepreneurial process and the best interpretation of the factors that influence the business interest of the people.

Katz (1994) warned that the development of business media means changes, i.e., move toward a goal. Entrepreneurship has been the subject of intense debate, both in the context (research level) academic and in the design of public policies. Throughout the process of change involves risk-taking and people need to be prepared to do so. It will be very important to have the determination and perseverance not only to start the project, but also to maintain it over time.

Following the reasoning of Kirzner (1973) in which the entrepreneur is that creates a balance, the search for a clear and positive position in a chaotic and turbulent environment, i.e., identifies opportunities in the present order. But both are emphatic in affirming that the entrepreneur is a successful opportunity, knowing that his chances improve when he increases his knowledge.

As for Filion (2001), which advocates that the professions in the future, they will have greater entrepreneurial inclination, glimpsing the conception of different types of entrepreneurship. A first level, the corporate interest is explained by the action of the behavior of the business initiative that emphasizes the motivation for the pursuit of self-realization. This fact is the externalization of the inner self (Dolabella, 1999).

It is important to analyze the difference between the administrator and the employer (Dornelas, 2001) the art of management is focused on actions to plan, organize, direct and control; entrepreneurs also do it, but the author says that entrepreneurs are visionaries or managers. Baughn *et al.* (2006), analyzed the following factors that influence in this context, the author devotes as vocation of countries to entrepreneurship: social capital and business skills. These factors formed the basis for the development of this research, as described below.

Still arguing with Filion (1999), which reported that numerous studies have been carried out in order to define a profile for the entrepreneur, but that such a statement is complex and difficult to achieve given the large differences in existing samples and a direct impact on the results? According to the author, so far it has not been possible to establish an absolutely scientific psychological profile of the entrepreneur. He even adds that certain characteristics are developed in practice, which implies different characteristics for different types of businesses and sectors of activity.

Method

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An analysis of the influence factors in the corporate interest is necessary to meet the objectives of this research. For workforce (Baughn *et al.* 2006), the following factors were analyzed: influence of the context, the social capital and the domain of the business skills. As for the influence of social context, taking into account the different areas of training of students of higher education, the current perception is that entrepreneurship is a transversal logic to different areas of knowledge. The experience and exploratory contacts give evidence that some areas have a higher vocation for the development of entrepreneurial activity, like the Administration, engineering and technological courses.

The authors (Araujo *et al,* 2005), based on data from a survey of institutions of higher education in Canada, identified a concentration of entrepreneurial education in some areas. (Baughn *et al.* 2006). The authors do not provide national data, but it seems that Brazilian reality is very close. In terms of social capital, this is understood as the closest of the enterprising people (family and friends) support.

After the review of the literature, came to the conclusion that business actually suffers from the limitations of existing social relations (Greve and Salaff, 2003; Miller, 2000). As holding Filion (1993), this system of relationships is fundamental to entrepreneurial activity, since,

[...] Entrepreneurs are originally products of the systems of family relationships, which then develop a network of business relations, so that the people involved in it become social products so that the needs of the employer, to the extent, carried out his vision.

In connection with the domain of the needs of employers, in the literature already appears be the understanding that is required for the entrepreneur, first of all, to master some specific skills (Dolabella, 1999; Dornelas, 2005).

In 1943, Maslow proposes his *"theory of human motivation",* which has its roots in the social sciences, and was widely used in the field of clinical psychology; at the same time, it has become one of the main theories in the field of motivation, business management and development and organizational behavior (Reid-Cunningham, 2008). Maslow, with the *"theory of human motivation"*, presents a hierarchy of needs and elements that motivate people; this hierarchy is formed by identifying five categories of needs and builds whereas a hierarchical ascending order according to their importance to the survival and the capacity of motivation, see figure 1.
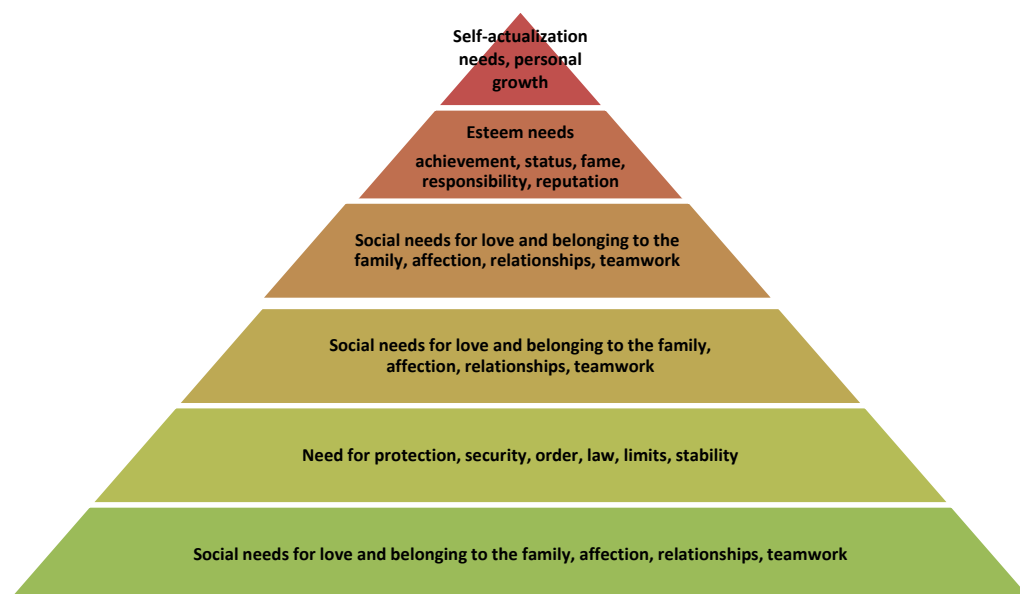
Figure 1. Adapted from Chapman (2007).

In addition to the five needs previously described, Maslow also identified three other categories of needs: aesthetics, the cognitive and the self-transcendence (Feist and Feist 2006), which gave rise to a rectification of the hierarchy of needs. Is the characterization of these three needs: to) aesthetic needs (this refers to some people who are motivated by the need for outward beauty); ((b) cognitive needs (desire to know, curiosity, research)) and (c) need for self-transcendence (go beyond itself). In fact, "Maslow needs", in the area of needs human, is part of the humanist educational paradigm, for which the maximum achievement of *self-realization* of the students in all aspects of the personality is a fundamental part, trying to provide education with training and personal growth.

There are motivations that lead a person to entrepreneurship and understand these motivations are an important step for the development of training courses in this regard. The general suggestion given by several authors of books that seek to analyze entrepreneurship and development of business activities is that, in addition to a well-conceived idea, employers must have mastery of the skills management with funding sources and various associations.

In this research it was considered appropriate to consider based on the ideas developed by these authors, and adopt adjustment and the necessary adjustments in the national context. Therefore, the main points of the conversation between the works of Baughn *et al.* (2006) and this research, were the empirical analysis of the context, hypotheses and the scale of measurement of the constructs. In terms of the context for the analysis, they were evaluated in the original study, the perspectives of the different countries analyzed hairs authors and the grounding evaluate the courses of management the Region Metropolitan of the Baixada Santista was consistent.

With respect to the assumptions, these authors developed four hypotheses that announce the influence of relationships with the corporate interest. **These hypotheses** were assessed as they were applied in the specific context in the original work, and made adjustments to the Brazilian reality with the objectives of this research.

Initially, developed the hypothesis that the entrepreneurial desire is conditioned by vocation and the national culture fosters entrepreneurship. The authors are based on previous findings that acceptance, admiration, or even direct stimulation promoted by countries are having impact on the interest that people develop to undertake. So, bearing in mind the evidence of exploratory analysis, it was decided to adapt the hypothesis of the study, not in relation to the national standard, but the standard of the course of management also analyzed the influence of the social capital, this understood as the support of family and friends. He also developed and related previous hypothesis that combined the business interest to the business activity of a member of the family. And, finally, refers to the business interest with the self-evaluation of respondents related to the scope of the skills needed for the development of business activities.

These assumptions raised by Baughn *et al.* (2006), the foundations of the topics can be prepared to be investigated and answered in this research:

1. What the corporate interest is related positively vocational business training perceived?

2. The corporate interest relate positively with the support of family members?

3. Is the corporate interest influenced positively by the company owned by the employer or their families?

4. Business interest relates positively perception of individual mastery of the skills needed to carry it out efficiently?

Based on these premises, we have developed an empirical study for validation through appropriate statistical techniques. Procedures and decisions are described below. Exploratory procedures (research and development of hypotheses), followed by the phase of General exploratory procedures (evaluation of similar jobs, the scales used analysis and the preparation of the constructions of the research). Finally, it was the identification of respondents, with questions on demographic and socio-economic data. Specifically on the scales of the constructs, all variables were extracted from Baughn *et al.* (2006), with some adjustments.

The configuration of the themes of the items in the questionnaire to measure the constructs became in form of statement, to investigate the level of compliance through a 5-point Likert scale, where 5 indicates agree and 1 indicates total disagreement.

After the preliminary consolidation of the instrument, a pre-test was conducted (pilot research) with a sample of 15 respondents. Made the necessary adjustments, the questionnaire was applied. At this stage settings were established as explained below:

1. The Survey Universe: formed by the students of business administration courses in the metropolitan area the Baixada Santista in the period of March to June / 2014;

2. The current size of this universe: approximately 4,400 students.

3. The sample: a sample of surveyed 620 was selected from eight different academic institutions, all private character;

4. Collection of method: data collection was directly preceded by the researchers, with the support of the coordination of the courses and professors who made possible the application. The selection criteria were comfort and accessibility.

Statistical procedures for data collected in the field research were: description of the sample; Univariate analysis of constructions; and multivariate analysis, with the evaluation of the defined scenarios. The statistical treatment of the data was performed with the software SPSS - 17, based on (Hair *et al.*, 2005 and Malhotra, 2001). Factor analysis was used in this study, as it is considered a useful technique to analyze sets of related variables that have the interdependence. The grouping of variables or factors identifies underlying dimensions that explain the correlation between the variables.

Some care of background analysis factorial were needed, as the realization of the test of sphericity of Bartlett, the value of KMO and the adequacy of the elements of factor analysis, by checking the values in the array anti-image (Hair *et al.* 2005). Bartlett's sphericity test turned out to be significant at a level of 1% and value of approximately 273, 5; value of KMO = 0,657. The values obtained for the MSA - *sampling adequacy measure* - to identify the suitability of each element to the analysis model factor, the resulting anti-image matrix out exceeding 0.55.

Using the criterion of Kaiser, which considered the *eigenvalue* (eigenvalue) values greater than 1.0 (Hair *et al., 2005*) found five factors that account for 61.1% of the variance, developing a data base from questionnaires for further processing and analysis of the results. To ensure reliability and consistency inside of the data performed calculating Cronbach's alpha, which resulted in 0.73 and therefore higher than those recommended, corresponding to 0.6 (Malhotra, 2001).

In relation to the univariate analysis were initially extracted the means and the standard deviations of each variable. As for the description of the sample it was to show the spectrum of responses for each of the variables in the course about the future intentions, and the demographic and socio-economic variables.

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General measurement for construct, with aggregation of average scores of entries in the components of each construct was extracted with the confirmation of the structure of the elements in the composition of the constructs. Whereas the hypothesis, they supposedly are be related constructs, it was decided to assess these relationships through Multiple regression analysis tool. This tool allows the evaluation of the consistency of the relationship of influence between two or more independent variables and a dependent variable (Malhotra, 2001). Therefore, the four scenarios were tested and have the dependent variable for the construct of *interest*, and as independent variables, the construct support, domain, standards and the property.

With the results available, it was decided to evaluate structures taking into account the different alternatives of response of some of the variables of study, such as how to identify and discuss the possible differences. With Malhorda (2001), this procedure is made possible by the statistical technique analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Analysis of the results

The universe of respondents consisted of, student components of various stages of the Administration courses, from the first to the fourth year, however, the greatest concentration of respondents were in third and fourth year (81.0%). With this result, more consistency should be given to the analysis, since these students have a better view or condition for the assessment of the questions in the survey, because of the greater academic experience.

As regards this situation that it was working or not working, the majority of the students reported to be working (73.7%) and 26.3% reported that they were not working. The variable that is argued over ownership of the company by the defendant or his family had a relatively low rate for the affirmative case (16.9% of the sample).

Questioned about the professional future, most students said that they want to get a job (public or private), with 78.4 percent of respondents. Those who wish to work in your own company or family (9.0%) and 12.6% indicated another answer to this question. These results demonstrate that the search of a job at the expense of entrepreneurial activity is one of the favorite choices for the management of students in Santos.

To better evaluate an exploratory hypothesis of association between personal or family, business and entrepreneurial interest, the variable *company own* or *family* or family and future job prospects they were crossed. Unit test results showed that there is a significant discrepancy between the observed and expected values. Found that students who have their own business or family are disproportionately more interested in working on them, while those who do not have a business (or own or family account) are disproportionately more interested in getting a job.

Specifically in relation to the studies, the majority of the students plan to graduate in the course (77.6%), followed by the pretense of doing another course of degree (11.2%), and intend to attend a year of *Master* (8. 6%) having not responded (2.6%). The results are indicative of the interest of students in the pursuit of studies to deepen, especially through courses *lato sensu* which reinforces the continuous improvement of the search trend.

The sample also consists of 73.3% versus 26.7% of unmarried and married people (see Figure 2).
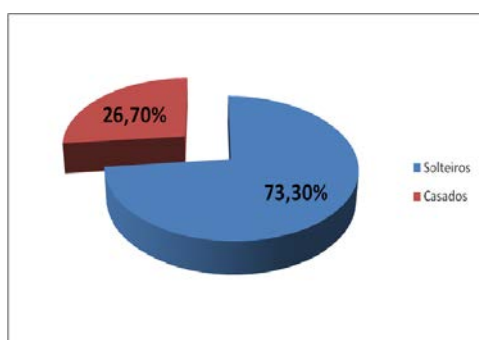
Figure 2. Marital situation

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Source: Research Data

In terms of gender, 47.1% were male, 52.9% women (see figure 3).

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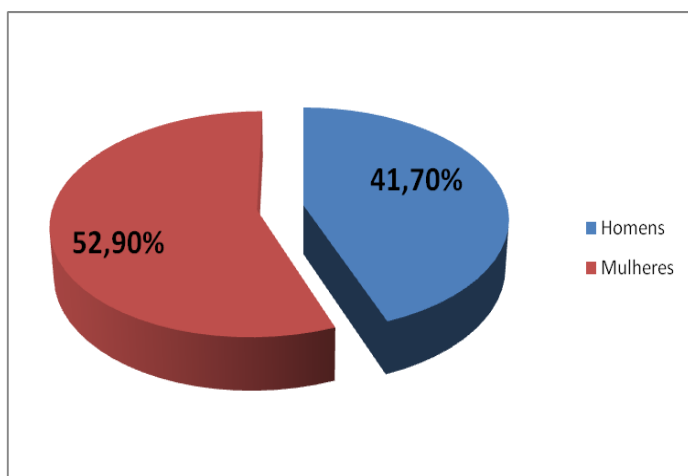
Figure 3. In relation to gender

Source: Research data

With regard to age: 42.6% has up to 24 years; 20.7% are aged 24 to 28; 19.1% are 28 to 31 years and over 31 years 17.6% (see figure 4).
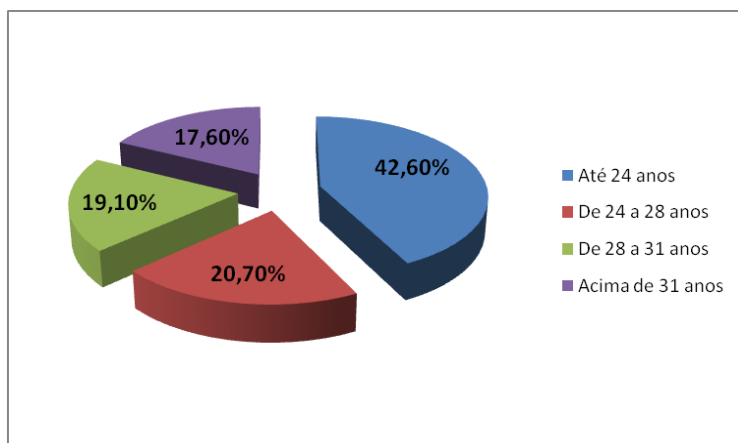
Figure 4. As for the age of the students

Source: Research data.

Household income, the data were: 21.1%, with incomes of up to R $1,000.00; 38.9%, from R $1,000.00 to R $2,000.00; 19.8% of the income between R $2,000.00 to R $3,000.00; 10.7% of income between R $3,000.00 to R $5,000.00, and 9.50%, with income above R $5.000, 00 (see graph 4). The Brazilian currency, the "real" (R $) was used in this study (see figure 5)
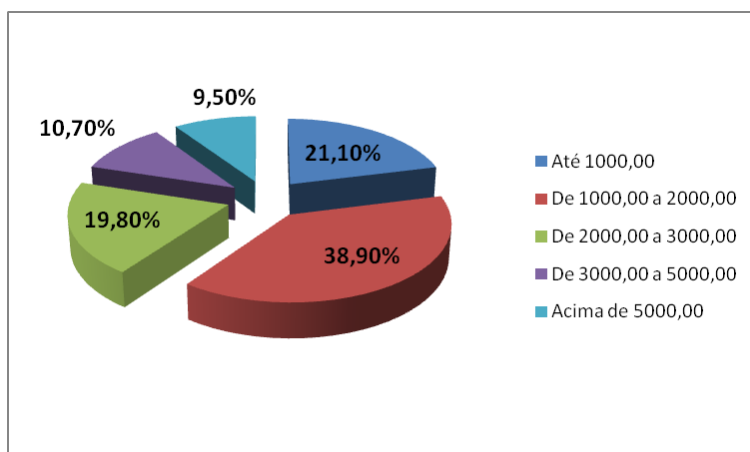
Figure 5. The salary of the students

Source: Research data

The exploratory factor analysis with the variables of each one of the buildings was submitted to the statistical technique that provides a comparison with the previously defined proposal and the results actually found in the field. As for the "business interest" constructs, (family support and friends, and the perceived vocation of the area), obtained factorial evaluation keeps expectations established previously, without the need for any adjustments.

The variables associated with business skills, exploratory factor analysis have resulted in two factors other than the presented variables initially submitted for analysis. Verification of the variables indicated that these are grouped in order to identify two specific types of skills that were then identified by *strategic* and *operational skills*.

The results can be seen in the following way: the averages of variables of personal interest in conducting may be considered intermediate, with relatively high deviations, except for the variable that asked about the facility to open a business, considered low - 2,882 average and deviation standard of 1.18.

Measures to vocation perceived in the area they had sufficient variation in average. The highest averages are the variables that have been consulted on creativity and innovation, which can be considered high, above 4. Variables related to the business itself had lower averages. With regard to deviations, they can be considered as intermediate products.

The perception of support from friends and family, from their variables, presented a variation of a high average, considering high averages over 4. In general, deviations can be considered of intermediate to high, indicating a relatively high dispersion in the evaluation of students. Perceptions of the domain were homogeneous on the strategic skills for averages and deviations. All of them with relatively close values, between 3.55 to 3.89 to averages and standards deviations between 0.90 to 1.03. With this data, it has been concluded that, in general, students are considered in good condition for the evaluation of strategic level to undertake.

Finally, perception of mastery of skills we have presenting a variation in the averages; it ranges from 3.69 to 4.33. Variations also fluctuated between 0.69 and 1.03. The indication was that the students feel very confident about the abilities of domain to manage a business.

With the results of the structure factor found, and extracted reliability, opted for the composition of variables to generate an overall average of each construct. Taking as a standard of composition the average of scores of entries in the worksheet corresponding to each construct.

The results for the *Alpha,* the average index and deviation values standard each of the constructs are shown below.

The average structures (Table 1_ are rated between intermediate deviations and high standard can be considered low, except for the measurement of personal interest in the area, which was already at an intermediate level.

Table 1. Result of the averages of the constructs

Construct	Alpha	Average	Standard deviation
Personal interest to undertake	0,859	3.42	0.99
Vocation perceived entrepreneurship	0,611	3.98	3.66
Perception of family support	0,648	3.8	0.68
Perception of the strategic skills	0,873	3.79	0.76
Perception of operational skills	0,821	3.99	0.66

Source: Research data

In the result of the presented averages, you can more clearly see the position of the students of the Administration in relation to the construction of reference of the study. It is possible to understand that, in the evaluation of the students, the course presents great vocation for entrepreneurship, which refers to the nature of the course, which deals mainly with activities related to the world of business.

Defined for the study hypotheses were assessed using multiple regression analysis, since this allows the simultaneous evaluation of the influence of defined factors.

Therefore the construct "self-interest to undertake" was placed in the condition of dependent, while the perceived vocation in the area, perception of support, mastery of skills (those on the same scale of the dependent variable) and the company in the family (as a *dummy* with a 0 for no possession, and one for possession) were introduced as independent.

The values of the regression model are presented in table 2. The model could be considered coherent (R = 0,381), and, as you can see, only the associated constructs with perception of family support "and" perception of operational skills, "significant influences", which are shown in the statistical results of table 1, for the standardized coefficients.

Table 2: results of multiple regressions

Construct	Standardized coefficient	T-statistic	GIS. (p - value)
Personal interest to undertake	0.17	2,371	0.018
Vocation as entrepreneurship	0.07	8.49	0.41
Perception of family support	0.466	5.07	0
Perception of the strategic skills	0.466	2,371	0.018
Perception of operational skills	0,258	3,855	0

Source: Research data

The results can be done an analysis of the cases in accordance with the following procedures:

The hypothesis that the corporate interest is related positively business training vocationally perceived, was accepted. Therefore, there is confirmation that called spotted by students, who are studying management, has been influential in fact.

The hypothesis that States that "the corporate interest is positively related to the support provided by the family, was denied. This finding contradicts the expectation and shows that

despite the students suggest a further intermediate support level, this factor is not what motivates them to take entrepreneurial initiative.

The hypothesis that establishes that the corporate interest is influenced positively by the property company of the holder or of his family, was confirmed. This element of the property of the proposed tests of conditioning in the choice of some courses in business management and the influences of the interest in the company, evidence that the proposed conditioning of ownership of a business in the choice of courses of Administration exerts influence on the interest to undertake.

The hypothesis that establishes that the corporate interest is positively related to the perception of individual mastery of the skills needed to carry out in an efficient manner is accepted, however, the factor that the business interest is related positively the perception of individual mastery of the operational skills to carry out in an efficient manner was rejected. This shows that student Administration considers the strategic skills are essential to the person concerned to undertake. The denial of the second part does not have any justification in advance, and it can be assumed that the students of this area, despite the security itself and the mastery of these skills (see table 1), not if you understand as a prerequisite for taking the initiative to undertake.

In table 3, which is shown below, you can see that the perception of family support, operational skills and mastery, are not factors influential in the corporate interest. That interest is effectively conditioned by the perception of the vocation of the area, owned by the same company or in the family and the perception of the personal scope of strategic business skills.

Table 3 - Summary of the results of the tests

Condition of personal interest in undertaking	Result
Perceived vocation to undertake	It accepts
The family company	It accepts
Perception of family support	Do not accept
Perception of the strategic skills	It accepts
Perception of operational skills	Do not accept

Source: Research Data

With the results obtained, in table 3, it is possible to conclude that the perception of family support, and the ability (of domain) for the management, is not factors of influence in the interests of the entrepreneur. True interest is conditioned by the perception of the vocation to "undertake", the possession of a family business and also by the perception of mastery of strategic skills to undertake.

In order to develop a greater contemplation and exploitation of data, measures of constructions against some important variables that were used in the research were evaluated. Using ANOVA (analysis of variance statistical technique), which allows you to prove the existence of significant differences in the mean values of the different possible answers to the questions. The results obtained with the procedures described above are discussed below:

1. The analysis of the data on the sex of the students, shows statistically significant differences in the responses of the dimensions of support family ($F = 4,201$, $p < 0,057$), and the perception of operational abilities ($F = 4,701$, $p < 0,051$). A higher than average for the students was perceived here. This shows that women feel safer in terms of receipt of support to the family;

2. In the construct "own company or family, which represented a significant difference was *"self-interest to undertake"* (F = 6, 133, p < 0.055)." The group that owns own company or in the family showed a strong interest in undertaking. An important factor to note is that there is little difference between groups, those who have and those who do not have your own company or the family in relation to other constructs. Therefore, it is possible to believe that that have now acquired a greater support of the family and those who also have their own company or in the family, have acquired more experience and better security connection to have skills strategic and operational;

3. As regards the analysis of the educational institution significant statistical differences in the conditions of dimensions there were "personal interests in the enterprise" (F = 6.089, p < 0.053), and on the "perceived to take vocation" (F = 4,779, p < 0,051); In all the institutions, within the course of administration a business or some other name, discipline was found however, always focusing on the entrepreneurial action of the students.

4. With regard to the fact that the students belong to the first or second half of the course, the construct with the biggest difference between these two groups was the perceived vocation to undertake"(F = 6,573, p < 0,052), while the second half of the course, was presented a level of very high perception and vocation. As a result, these students have higher academic experience, more knowledge and a broader vision of its future. In terms of the variable of the business skills and entrepreneurial interest there were differences, however, not very significant, but with a more positive trend for the Group of students from the second half of the course.

Conclusions

All research carried out on corporate culture, both in academia and in business, has demonstrated the need to develop an entrepreneurial culture, bolstered by solid base and a well-articulated framework to support the growth of entrepreneurial future Brazilian professionals from top degree courses (third grade). It is global consensus that business action is the main source of wealth of a country.

The results of this research shows that, in general, management students have an interest above average for business activities, to realize that there is a high vocation for entrepreneurship in management courses. Family support, the mastery of the skills needed to carry out and strategic are well perceived and very important factors. Research in the field of study of entrepreneurs has pointed out repeatedly that the social models that provides family environment have a positive influence on the development of the professional career through self-employment (Roberts and Wainer, 1968; Brockhaus. 1982; Shapero, 1982; Hisrich and Brush, 1986; Scherer, Adams and Wiebe, 1989; Katz, 1992; Andreu, 1998). So, come from a family with business link makes that person enter slowly in the business world (Moriano *et al.* 2006:78).

In the terms of the factors influencing entrepreneurial interest, the assumptions associated with the perception of the vocation to undertake, the ownership of a company or DNA family and strategic skills were confirmed. It can be concluded, therefore, experiment involving entrepreneurial activities, in addition to the specific guidance provided by the course in relation to entrepreneurship associated with strategic skills are strategic and relevant factors so that students of Administration to increase its interest to develop your business vision.

The results achieved have enabled assess with consistency the enterprising character of the students from the Metropolitan Region of Baixada Santista, having been successfully achieved the objectives set. The information presented here generates a relevant knowledge for managers

of Administration courses and all educational institutions who wish to strengthen their business actions to contribute to a better direction for the formation of a dynamic and enterprising culture in management courses.

As the study sample was restricted to the Santos Administration courses, therefore, is limited and non-random, recommended replication of this research in other cities of São Paulo and, in addition, in other States, the application of more rigorous methods of sampling is also recommended. And, if possible, in other courses for the comparison and similarities between them.

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A VALUES-BASED STRATEGY COACHING MAP: TOWARDS ALIGNING COACHING BY VALUES WITH THE STRATEGY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS TO ACHIEVE SUSTAINABLE PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

This paper presents and explores Coaching by Values (Dolan, 2011) —a management system, methodology, and managerial coaching tool—may be utilized within the strategy development process to help firms achieve sustainable performance. We propose that managers may develop values-based strategic goals at the beginning of their strategic planning process and employ them both as the foundation for the creation or re-creation of firm-level vision, mission, values and measures and as a guide for aligning managerial and individual behavior to achieve goal-related performance outcomes. We describe a Values-based Strategy Coaching Map, a planning and coaching tool that provides a visual representation of integrated strategic goals, vision, mission, values, and measurements. We suggest that sustainable results best occur when: 1) organizational members share a high degree of economic-emotional-social/ecological values; 2) these values are employed throughout the firm's strategy—from setting strategic goals through establishing a measurement scorecard; and 3) are effectively communicated and embedded within the firm's culture.

Keywords coaching by values, changing management, economical-emotional-social/ecological values, strategy map, values-based goals, sustainable innovation/results

Introduction

Today's critical success factor for enterprises achieve high sustainable performance is their capability to develop and implement firm-level goals and strategy development process as well as individual and organizational behavior. Research indicates that firms aligning their respective vision, mission, and values with managerial and employee actions by using effective management systems (Brillo et al , 2015) along with strategy development processes enables them to achieve high sustainable performance. It is vital to remember, however, that firms, at their core, are comprised of people—sometimes called human capital resources—who contribute their knowledge, creativity, passion, and work effort to the firm and team members within the context of their jobs. People act and perform from their respective individual and organizational values (Dolan, 2011). Furthermore, causally-based measurement systems have also shown that firms utilizing HR-related values drivers to lead, engage, and manage their human capital resources (i.e. firm leaders, managers, and members) achieve high performance outcomes (Ulrich et al, 2001).

This paper explores how Coaching by Values—a management system, methodology, and managerial coaching tool that has been employed by hundreds of organizations and thousands of individuals to develop individuals and achieve firm prosperity (Dolan, 2011)—may be further adapted for use in the strategy development process. Leaders and coaches have a unique role to play in creating values-based goals, which, in turn, can guide the development by which they can engage, empower, and inspire employees and other stakeholders (Dolan, 2015). The use of a strategy map enables managers to translate general statements about mission into more-specific strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives for individuals and organizations (Kaplan and Norton, 2004).

We suggest integrating the notion of the strategy map with the Coaching by Values system, proposing that managers develop a Values-based Strategy Coaching Map and methodology for aligning mission and strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives with its economic-emotional-social/ecological values. We also introduce a visual representation of the Values-based Strategy Coaching Map and proffer a strategic methodology for developing an integrated and sustainable strategy, culture, and value-based management system that simultaneously leverages human, financial, and social resources. The proposed Values-based Strategy Coaching Map additionally incorporates the development values-based strategic goals with other strategic development activities, which, in turn, allows managers to infuse and logically link the firm's culture and values with its mission and strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives--thus generating and regenerating sustainable results.

We propose that CBV may be further extended with insights afforded with the Managing by Sustainable Innovational Values (MBSIV) management system (Brillo et al, 2015). Previous writing has argued that values-based management systems such as Management by Values (MBV) and Managing by Sustainable Innovational Values (MBSIV) have allowed firms to deal with chaos, complexity, and the constantly changing global business arena better than traditional Management by Instruction (MBI) or Management by Objective (MBO) systems (Dolan, Garcia and Richley, 2006). MBSIV, in turn, is a management system that enables managers to develop cultures and people capable of delivering sustainable innovations (Brillo et al, 2015). Thus, we propose that CBV be adapted and renamed as "Coaching by Sustainable Innovational Values (CBSIV)," thereby allowing managers to simultaneously develop sustainable-innovation strategic goals and implement them within their cultures via their coaching system and skill set. Additionally, firms utilizing the MBSIV values-based coaching method can bring the values-based strategy and management system to all the firm's leaders, managers, and employees, whether they are competing in mature markets or seeking to open up new markets, or to target new customer segments in existing markets.

With knowledge becoming the main resource of global firms, firms need to increase their capacity to capitalize on their strategic human resources and management systems in order to enliven the knowledge, creativity, and initiatives of its leaders, managers, employees, and other stakeholders. For firms to compete, managers must simultaneously integrate three seemingly unrelated activities: 1) build, develop, exploit, and integrate tacit and explicit resources within its strategy and organizational development process; 2) build an innovation organization, environment, culture, and climate that maximizes sustainable innovations; and 3) identify, inspire, embed, and manage to organizational, managerial, and personal values within their cultures.

This paper thus explores how managers may use the Values-based Strategy Coaching Map and methodology along with an enhanced version of the Coaching by Values system (called "Coaching by Sustainable Innovation Values") to achieve strategic goals while also driving creativity and sustainable innovation across the firm (Brillo, et al, 2014).

We describe the Values-based Strategy Coaching Map and methodology and how it may be used for incorporating values in a firm's strategic goals and mission statement as well as strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives and then assessing the extent to which they are shared by

organizational members. We extend the CBV system to Coaching by Sustainable Innovation Values, suggesting that the map, methodology, and values-based management system may be used to develop sustainable innovation and performance results. Lastly, we use the map, coaching tool, and scorecard system to depict a firm's strategy, culture, management system, and values, examining their values positioning along economic-emotional-social/ecological axes. We show that sustainable results best occur when organizational members share a high degree of economic-social-social/ecological values, when these values are employed within the firm's goals, mission, and strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives, and when the values and strategy map are effectively communicated and embedded within the firm's culture.

High sustainable performance demands a new leadership model

Firms obtain strategic competitive advantages by implementing strategies that exploit their internal strengths, through responding to environmental opportunities, while neutralizing external threats and avoiding internal weaknesses (Barney, 1991). As Daft (1983) proposes, firm resources include all assets, capabilities, organizational processes, firm attributes, information, knowledge, etc. that are controlled by the firm. Resources that serve as distinctive competencies for the firm are valuable, rare, inimitable, and organizationally embedded. Firm-level resources, among others, include their human capital resources (Becker, 1962) (including the training, experience, judgment, intelligence, relationships and insight of individual managers and workers in a firm) as well as its organizational resources such as its controlling and coordinating systems and management routines and systems (Barney, 1991) and its organizational culture (Barney, 1986).

Values-based coaching and management system—such as Coaching by Values (CBV), Managing by Values (MBV), and Managing by Sustainable Innovational Values (MBSIV), therefore, can also be viewed as firm- and individual-level resources that can be employed by firms to achieve sustainable competitive advantage. Coaching by Values (CBV) is a coaching system, methodology, and tool that allows individuals and organizations to diagnose and/or develop their values and hierarchy and move towards alignment so that individual and organizational success and performance is maximized (Dolan, 2011). Managing by Values (MBV) is a management system, methodology, and tool that allow firms to enhance the performance of individuals and managers to address the increasing chaos and complexity of global business environments and achieve sustainable competitive advantage (Dolan, Garcia, and Richley, 2006). Since both the CBV and MBV systems were initially developed, firms and managers around the globe have had to address a growing number of simultaneous transformations challenges occurring around the world i.e. the growing global population, an increasing level of migration and mega cities, a constant search for new ways of creating a decent life, the energy crises, infrastructure collapses, the growing global divide, comprehensive access to education, and the "metaverse" and singularity of virtual reality (Raich and Dolan, 2008).

Managers are recognizing that in order to stay competitive they must increase their ability to develop sustainable innovation, leveraging the benefits of the open innovation process (Chesbrough, 2003), in which they incorporate the knowledge, creativity, and relationship value of external actors such as scientists, suppliers, and customers into new products and services, and both develop and adapt common tools for the integration of end users in the generation of creative sustainability ideas, concepts and prototypes. The main advantages of this practice are: new creative ideas, thinking "out of the box"; tailoring products to latent needs and wants; and reducing the risks of market failures.

Firms seeking to create open innovation environments and maximize sustainable innovations will utilize both MBSIV and CBSIV, both of which enable managers to incorporate the goals and values needed to incorporate sustainable innovation in their strategies as well as in individual and firm behaviors. In this paper, we describe the Values-based Strategy Coaching Map and methodology and how it may be used for incorporating values in a firm's strategic goals and mission statement as well as strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives and then assessing the extent to which they are shared by organizational members. We extend the CBV system to Coaching by Sustainable Innovation Values, suggesting that the map, methodology, and values-based management system may be used to develop sustainable innovation and performance results. Lastly, we use the map, coaching tool, and scorecard system to depict a firm's strategy, culture, management system, and values, examining their values positioning along economic-emotional-social/ecological axes. We show that sustainable results best occur when organizational members share a high degree of economic-social-social/ecological values, when these values are employed within the firm's goals, mission, and strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives, and when the values and strategy map are effectively communicated and embedded within the firm's culture.

Management models evolution

Both managing and coaching systems have adapted as change has accelerated in the 21st century were innovation is a fundamental ingredient for sustainable success of the firms. Coaching systems have evolved into an essential skill for leaders and managers to encourage idea generation in coaches make them aware of incongruence between their thoughts, emotions, and action to find out unique and innovative solutions.

Management models as well have evolved, more lately changing in order to enable firms and societies to deal with natural disasters, technology, our emotions, dreams and fears, in which needs our human capacities for empathy, caring, and creativity culturally support (Dolan, Eisler, and Raich, 2014). (See Exhibit 1).

Exhibit 1: Evolution of Management Models
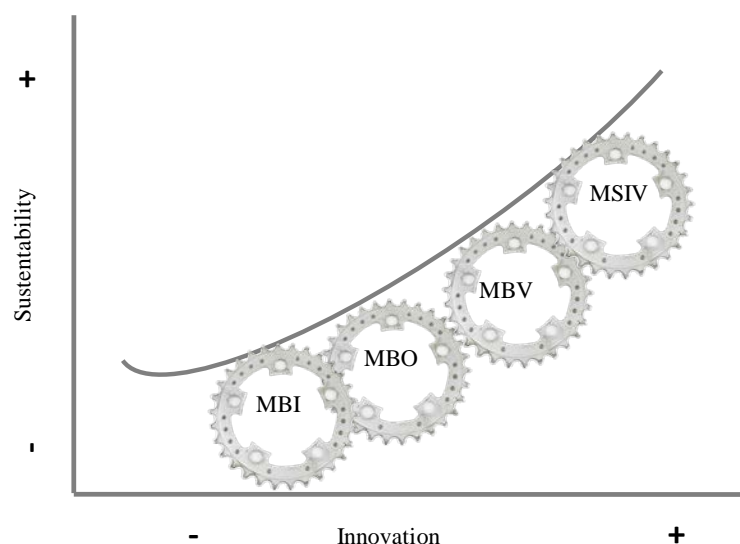
The four management models represented by MBI, MBO, MBV, and MBSIV may be distinguished one another on the basis of main primary characteristics, summarized in Exhibit 2.

Exhibit 2: Main primary characteristics of MBI, MBO, MBV and MBSIV

	MBI	MBO	MBV	MSIV
Preferable situation for application	Routine work or emergencies	Moderately complex Relatively standardized production	Need for creativity to solve complex problems	Innovatory organization: strategy, culture, management, process
Type of leadership	Traditional, hierarchical	Focused on resources allocation	Transformational	Inner driven, outer connected
Image of customer	User buyer	User customer	Discriminating customer with freedom of choice	Global, web-based
Product market type	Monopolistic, standardized	Segmented	Highly diversified, dynamic	Open innovation, co-creation
Social organization relationships	Top-down control, supervision	Control and stimulation of professional performance	Self-supervision encouraged	Organization to Society to Human all connected
Purpose of organization	Maintain production	Optimize results	Continually improve process	Sustainable innovation
Type of culture	Loyalty, conformity, discipline	Rationalization, motivation, efficiency	Creativity, mutual trust, commitment	Innovatory, renovation

More and more research as well as consulting experience suggests that the underlying meta value needed by organizations and individuals, today, is *trust* (over the former tacit agreement that control was better). MBSIV, in fact, has been developed under the awareness and commitment that successful leaders today and in the future are those that can obtain the commitment of their followers by sharing their own values, helping followers to identify their own values, and ensuring that these individual values are aligned with the strategic objectives of the organization. Therefore, if one of the strategic goals of the firm is to deliver sustainable innovation, then it must create a culture based on the values that will align people's behavior and decision-making processes to maximize sustainable innovation. The firm's coaching system, therefore, must also align with the management system so that all firm members will be guided to utilize the sustainable innovation values in their job activities, behaviors, and decisions.

Creating the Sustainable Innovation Culture with MBSIV and CBSIV

We propose that firms adopt both MBSIV and CBSIV in order to create the strategic goals, strategies, and cultures to achieve sustainable innovation.

MBSIV

Let's first explore MBSIV, a tri-intersectional model an asymmetrical cultural reengineering tool that may be used as the foundation for developing organization culture (Brillo et al , 2015).

MBSIV suggests that a firm's central values, goals, and strategic objectives be circumscribed within the triangle that is formed by the following three complementary yet orthogonal axes: economic-pragmatic, ethical-social, and emotional-developmental. Economic-pragmatic values

are a set of values related to the criteria of efficiency, industrious, performance standards, and discipline. These values guide the planning, quality assurance, and accounting activities in organizations: they are necessary in order to maintain and unify various organizational subsystems. Ethical-social values represent the way people behave in groups guided by ethical values shared by members of a particular group. These values come from conventions or beliefs about how people should behave in public, at work and in their relationships; they are associated with values such as honesty, consistency, respect and loyalty, among others. These values are manifested by actions more than words. Emotional-developmental values are essential in creating new opportunities for action. These values are related to intrinsic motivation, which moves people to believe in a cause. Optimism, passion, energy, freedom and happiness are some examples of these values; without them, people would be unable to make firm commitments or be creative. Therefore, when designing an organizational culture, it is essential that people are able to do what they do best in their jobs.

MBSIV describes a perpetual process for alignment and realignment of the three axes (economic-pragmatic, ethical-social, and emotional-developmental) at their intersection points, which allows managers and leaders to focus on innovation linkage (40%)—intersection between the emotional-development axis and the economic-pragmatic axis—which allows them leading to great innovations, while keeping the sensitivity and survival linkages in an adequate level of 30%.

Exhibit 3 shows the points of intersection between the 3Es: the intersection of the emotional-development axis and the economic-pragmatic axis leads to greater innovation; the economic-pragmatic axis and the social ethical intersection enhances survival (after all, when a big ethical or social scandal arises, the survival of the firm is at stake); and the intersection of the ethical-development axis with the emotional-developmental axis increase sensitivity and makes the organization more humane and more socially-responsible.

Exhibit 3: The MBSIV asymmetrical culture reengineering model
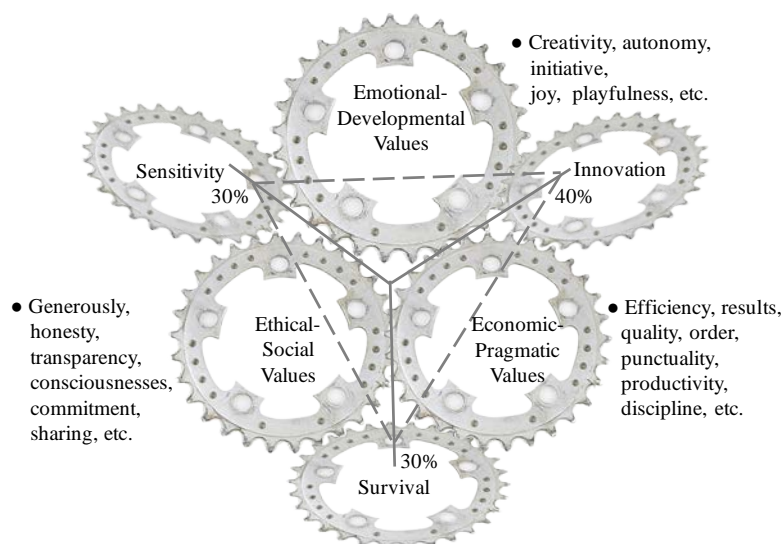
CBSIV

CBSIV can be used in conjunction to MBSIV helping coachees focus on developing and implementing sustainable innovations and to inspire people to come up with user-centric innovative options and solutions. To this end, we identify two different coaching approaches that can be applied according to the dominant values of the organization:

• The Innovational Coach – MBSIV tri-intersectional model, in its asymmetrical culture reengineering, driven by emotional values.

• The Entrepreneurial Coach – MSIV tri-intersectional model, in its asymmetrical culture reengineering, driven by economic values.

The core competencies focus on Innovational values and organization culture

Some organizational strategies emphasize the importance of core innovational competencies (Breen & Hamel, 2007) as a guarantee for sustaining the firm success. Innovational coaches bring their greats in people in a way that honors the integrity of them looking to work activity toward making tangible transformations and we argue that they must have the following core competences to perform effectively the CBSIV 40-30-30tri-intersectional model of values:

- Relationship and co-creation – Build a relationship of respect and trust with the people and create an equal and synergistic partnership with them. Listen actively and provide support to the people self-expression. Keep in touch with own intuition, centered in people needs and co-create an agenda of exciting experiences, developing a fun work space.
- Questions and stretching – Help people through asking powerful questions that provoke curiosity, insight, discovery, and actions. Build together different perspectives to reframe people experience, and communication skills, mainly in detecting obvious things. Make them aware of incongruence between their thoughts, emotions, and actions. Support people to grow their self-awareness while stretching them for breakthroughs.
- Values and goals – Work with people to arouse their positive passion aligned with innovational values and help them to become aware of them. Co-create SMART (Stretching, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time bounded) goals. Help the people to develop an appropriate, measurable action plan with their initiatives and target dates.

According to the Management by Values philosophy the successful leader in "tomorrowland" is the one that can obtain the commitment of their followers by sharing their values and ensuring that they are aligned with the strategic objectives of the firm. Sharing values, guarantees that the minds and souls are committed to the same extend (if not more) as the physical presence. Moreover, values represent something constant while everything else might be changing. So values are the DNA to focus on hence they are the ingredients for sustainability. In order to develop CBSIV as a co-creation process, we adapt the DART model of Prahalad & Ramaswang (2004), following these definitions:

- D stands for Dialogue, which encourages knowledge sharing and improves the understanding between coaches and people, giving them the opportunity to interject their point of view about the innovation process.
- A stands for Access to knowledge, tools, and expertise helps people construct their own experience outcomes, broadening their views of innovations opportunities.
- R stands for Risk sharing means that the co-creators of innovations are responsibility for dealing with both success and the risks of failure and overcoming any associated frustrations.
- T stands for Transparency of information in the interactions, which is fundamental to enhancing participation between people participation and building trust between employees and their coaches.

Values-based Strategy Map

The use of a strategy map templates, customized to organization's particular strategy, describe how intangibles assets drive performance enhancements to the organization's internal processes that have the maximum leverage for delivering value to customers, shareholders, and communities (Kaplan and Norton, 2004). It provides a framework to illustrate how strategy links intangibles assets to value-creating process. The architecture of cause and effect relationship linking the Financial Perspective-the outcomes of the strategy in traditional financial terms-, Customer Perspective-value proposition for the targeted customers, Internal Process Perspective-the critical few process that are expected to have greatest impact on the strategy, and Learning and Growth Perspective-human, information, and organization capital required to support the value-creating internal process-, define the chain of logic by which intangible assets will be transformed to tangible values, generating high sustainable performance.

The measurement systems of causal models also shows the relationship of high-performance HR values drivers with human capital growth as well as firms high performance outcomes (Urich et al, 2001). The essential part of the HR scorecard is the strategy map for the management and measurement of the human capital, representing the firm´s value chain. The HR scorecard suggests three important things: manage HR as a strategic asset, demonstrate HR´s contribution to firm´s financial success, and its total influence on high sustainable performance. More than a business performance measurement framework in the market place to build a list of measurements that are non-financial, HR scorecard has to tell the story of human capital integrated to the company´s strategy.

In line with strategy map and RH scorecard concepts, the Values-based Strategy Map provides a visual representation of how firm's vision, mission, and values can be integrated. We suggest that sustainable results best occur when organizational members share a high degree of economic-emotional-social/ecological values, when these values are employed within the firm's goals, mission, strategic objectives, processes, initiatives, and are effectively communicated and embedded within the firm's culture. Exhibit 4 shows the Values-based Strategy Map:

Exhibit 4: Values-based Strategy Map
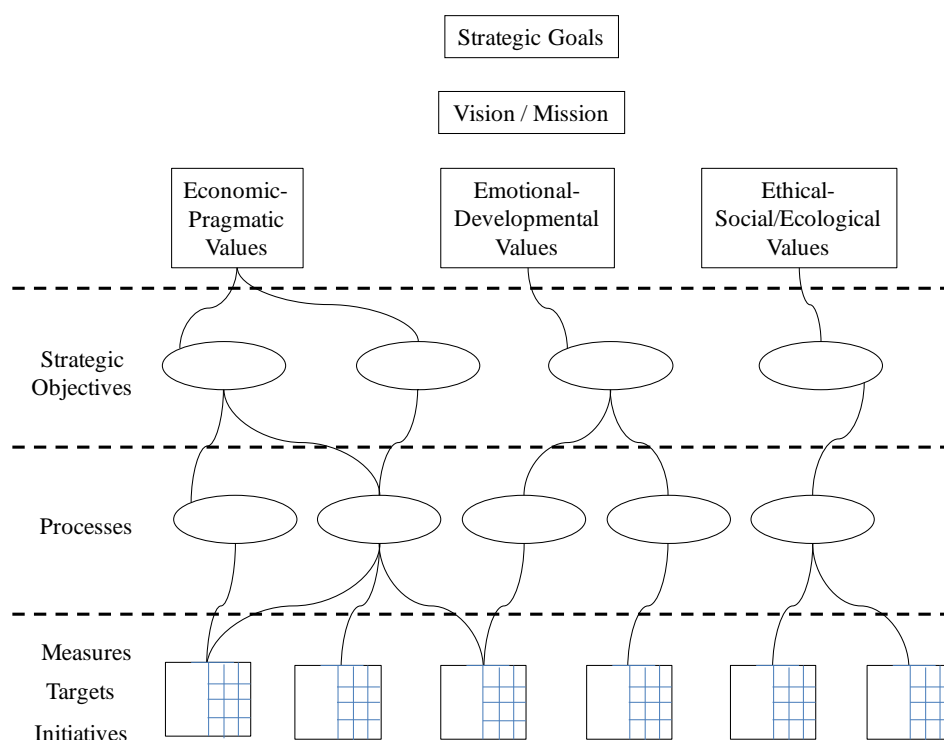
The architecture of cause and effect relationship, customized to organization's particular strategy, linking the Values Perspective-the Firm's core economic, emotional, social/ecological values-, Strategic Objectives Perspective-value proposition for the targeted the vision/mission, Processes Perspective-the critical processes that are expected to have greatest impact on the strategy, and Initiatives Perspective-human, information, and organization capital required to support the value-creating processes-,define the chain of logic by which intangible assets will be transformed to tangible values, generating better communication as well as competitive advantage.

Conclusion

The Values-based Strategy Coaching Map and methodology may be used for incorporating values in a firm's strategic goals and mission statement as well as strategic objectives, processes, initiatives, and measures and then assessing the extent to which they are shared by organizational members. We extend the CBV system to Coaching by Sustainable Innovation Values, suggesting that the map, methodology, and values-based management system may be used to develop sustainable innovation and performance results. Lastly, we use the map, and coaching tool to depict a firm's strategy, culture, management system, and values, examining their values positioning along economic-emotional-social/ecological axes. We show that sustainable results best occur when organizational members share a high degree of economic-emotional-social/ecological values, when these values are employed within the firm's goals, mission, and strategic objectives, processes, and initiatives, and when values-based strategy map are effectively communicated and embedded within the firm's culture achieving high sustainable performance.

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PART 7
SPECIAL SECTION: VALUES AT WORK IN LATIN AMERICA

STUDIES ON OUTSOURCING IN THE BRAZILIAN ACADEMY

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Abstract

This article's objective is to describe how the Brazilian business academy addressed the outsourcing issue between the years 2005 and 2014 through bibliometrics approach. The research study is not intended to generalize the results but to suggest a platform for discussions. Some of the selected articles were most empirical studies. They point out negative aspects about the outsourcing process (57.5%); only 7.5% point out positives process aspects and 15% focused on evaluating outsourcing process results. These numbers indicate existent surveys addressing the issue and instigate to find new ones in different views. It is suggested, for example, an analysis of economic events papers to confront if there is a negative bias as identified in business area.

Key words: Outsourcing; bibliometrics, Brazilian academy.

Introduction

From an academic and business standpoint, outsourcing constitutes an alternative mechanism in the strategic management of organizations. Often the need for specialization, the development of new management techniques to improve business management, increasing productivity and reducing costs motivate the hiring of services provided by other companies (Nascimento, 2004). The skills of an organization can be leveraged when it concentrates its own resources on a set of 'competitive essences' in which they can achieve superiority and provide unique value to customers. This leverage is maximized when the company strategically outsources other activities in which the company does not require critical strategy or special abilities (Mintzberg& Quinn, 2001). In the *EnANPAD* published articles between 2005 and 2014, studies to investigate the production and evolution of the outsourcing issue were not found. To fill this gap, it was decided by this work to identify and analyze the discussions held in the academy on outsourcing, and the researches' conclusions. Thus, this article's problem was: How do Brazilian administration field researchers treat the outsourcing subject? The overall objective of the study was to analyze the Brazilian academic contribution on outsourcing from *EnANPAD* items in the period 2005-20014.

Literature Revision

Outsourcing practice in areas such as IT - Information Technology; back-office services such as accounting and customer service to consumers through call centers; logistics and service provision in a more broadly way – dates back to the 60s and 70s' practice (Ramanujan & Jane, 2006). Gilley and Rasheed (2000) seek to clarify the concept of outsourcing defining it as purchasing a product or service that was originally produced inhouse or domestically and, which was produced by a supplier. But, why outsource? Gonzalez, Gasco and Lopes (2010, p 4) list a set of seven reasons why outsourcing is valid:

1. Focus on organizational strategy: one of the main ways to make the organization direct their efforts to their core competencies;

2. Increased flexibility: outsourcing is adopted for restructuring and internal reorganization processes;

3. Easy access to technology: outsourcing helps to reduce the need for investment in technology and increases the availability of new technologies for the contractor;

4. Reduced obsolescence risk: the risk of exploration and investment in new technologies is the provider's;

5. Staff costreduction: selection, hiring, constant training and possible layoffs are the provider's outlay;

6. Reduced technology costs: expertise, skills and all the infrastructure needed for its operation, and;

7. Fad or trend: mimetic mechanism in relation to other companies, previously successful in their outsourcing experience.

However, the literature shows that authors challenge the effectiveness of outsourcing. Londsdale (1999), for example, suggests that only 5% of the surveyed companies have achieved significant benefits from outsourcing. Despite its increasing use, their results as an operational management practice continue vague. However, there is little empirical research, focused on results found in the literature. Jiang and Qureshi (2006) state that the vast majority of research has focused on understanding the determinants of decisions and the control of the sourcing process and not exactly the results achieved.

Method

The article has a descriptive nature, and a desk research study type was performed, which, according to Malhotra (1993), is a search method that resorts to secondary data from information already published and available in the literature. The topic studied was outsourcing and the universe of analyzed papers that were published in Brazil's largest research event in business academy area - *EnANPAD*. This event takes place annually and effectively demonstrates the ongoing Brazilian academy's studies.

The period chosen to analyze the outsourcing issue was ten (10) years of the event publication between 2005 and 2014. There are 8.775 articles for analysis. From the database, it was sought to identify those that contained the term "*terceirização*", 504 were found or the equivalent English term "outsourcing", with 204 articles. Therefore, we used the Text Filterer software to analyse them. Forty-five (45) articles were found, whose main focus is outsourcing activities and that was the final example of this study.

Description and Results' Analysis

YEAR	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
QUANTITY	3	5	9	5	5	4	6	2	3	3

Table 1: Distribution of articles published per year

Source: Research Data

There is not an increasing or decreasing tendency in the number of annual publications, which points to stabilization in the number of publications focusing on the outsourcing issue, making an annual average of 4.5 publications. Considering that EnANPAD publishes 800 articles per

year, there's an average of approximately 0.5% on the outsourcing subject, relative to the total display. Given the importance of the issue reflected by the discussions in society, resulting in a bill, the number of publication is not relevant. Table 2 shows the classification of papers by event theme

THEME	QUANTITY	%
Information Management - IM	15	33
Logistical Operations Management - LOM	11	24
People Management and Labor Relations - PMLR	9	20
Strategy in Organizations - SO	6	13
Teaching and Research in Management and Accounting - TRMA	2	5
Public Administration - PA	2	5
Total	45	100

Table 2 Classification of articles by academic division (themes) EnANPAD

Source: Research Data

There has been a predominance of topics Information Management (IM) with 33% and Logistics Operations Management and Work Relations with 24%.The concentration of papers involving IT outsourcing (33%) finds support on Applegate, McFarlan and Austin (2002) when they argue that, in fact, companies are gradually outsourcing all or significant parts of their IT areas. According to the authors, the main reasons for hiring these services include reduced costs, improved service quality, suppliers' pressure, as well as access to technological equipment and cutting-edge applications. As it can be seen, these reasons are driving more and more to the indiscriminate adoption of outsourcing as a management practice in IT. The concentration of articles on logistics theme (24%) finds support in the evolution of its complexity, the influence on the business performance results, especially as it regards the agility of processes (Schoenherr, 2010).

Table 3 presents classification of articles by organizational functions.

FUNCTION	QUANTITY	%
Information- Technology IT	14	31
Logistics and Supply	8	18
Operation and maintenance industry	7	15
General Services	2	5
Accounting	1	2
Call center	1	2
Not identified	12	27
TOTAL	45	100

Table 3 Classification of articles by organizational functions

Source: Research Data

There has been a research concentration on outsourcing in IT and Logistics function, themes that have been discussed earlier. What draws attention to Table 3 is the little attention given to the general services function with only two items, i.e. 4% of the total comes to classic role in outsourcing. It is common to find outsourced security services, concierge and cleaning. We did

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not find support in the literature to explain this fact. One possible hypothesis is that it is a "socially accepted outsourcing", which are of low complexity and high level of standardization services with little attractiveness for research.

ASPECTS ANALYSIS OF RESEARCHED ARTICLES: Favorable or Unfavorable

In this section the main results reached by the papers. Table 4 shows a summary of the main emphases indicated in the articles. Of the 45 selected articles, 26 (57,8%) were identified with empirical research as well as the identified results from the qualification point of view of the researched object.

FUNCTION	QUANTITY	%
Articles whose conclusion emphasizes positive results of outsourcing	2	7,5
Articles whose conclusion emphasizes the negative aspects of outsourcing		
Process failures	4	15
Managing people and work relationships	9	35
Results below respondents' expectations	2	7,5
Articles whose conclusion does not emphasize positive or negative aspects	9	35
TOTAL	26	100

Table 4 - Key conclusions from the articles with empirical research and identified results

Source: Research Data

Of the 26 articles, four focus on results achieved, and in two articles the results were positive relative to expectations and two below expectations. This result of 7.5% of research with positive results is similar to that found by Londsdale (1999). He concluded in his research that only 5% of the surveyed companies have achieved significant benefits from outsourcing. In four items, or 15% of total, failures were identified in the process. The importance of good processes in outsourcing was highlighted in another study with Brazilian companies that embrace outsourcing. In it, Fernandes and Carvalho Neto (2005) concluded that most companies, or 43.27% of cases, point establishing structured processes as a major challenge for companies. All nine articles or, 35% of the total, analyzing personnel management and labor relations emphasize negative aspects of this process. Souza al. (2005) investigated the strategic outsourcing and management of the human factor in large manufacturing industries from Ceará - Brazil and concluded that the process is fragile: The fragility of the techniques of outsourced human factor management is striking (Souza et al., 2005, p. 15). From the employee's point of view, there are references in the literature that outsourcing tends to lead to a weakening in work relations, the conditions of multiple jobs, sometimes adverse, to receiving wages below the market's average, jobs without contractual formalization and benefits, acting on above average pressure conditions and others (Sarsur et al., 2002).

Some researchers have as a result the description of how processes occur, without assessing quality or satisfaction. For example, Prado and Takaoka (2006) investigated outsourcing compensation models in various companies in the state of São Paulo and found that there is little flexibility and additional benefits. Mazzali (2007) conducted a survey of São Paulo companies to understand the relationship between large and small companies in the outsourcing process. Melo and Borini (2006) conducted a survey to study the outsourcing of call centers for salaries and

guidance. The conclusion is that they are geared for mass segments adopting strategies focused on product / service supported by strategic resources from information technology, while call centers themselves are geared to specific segments adopting strategies focused on the client and supported by strategic resources from the human factor.

Conclusions

This research's goal was to analyze the studies on outsourcing from EnANPAD articles from 2005 to 20014. A research has descriptive nature and a desk type research study was conducted. On selected period for the study, ten years from the EnANPAD event, between 2005 and 2014, 8,775 articles were published, with 45 of them, or 0.5% focused on outsourcing as a central theme. From these 45 articles, 26 were identified with empirical research and identified results from the point of view of qualification of the researched object. The purpose of this study is not to generalize the results but to suggest a platform for discussions. Therefore, some indicatives emerge: • Most of the empirical research, 57.5% conclude the outsourcing process with negative aspects; • Only 7.5% of searches conclude with positive aspects and • Only 15% focused on evaluating the results achieved with the outsourcing process. Within this sample, it should be noted that all 9 articles dealing with the subject Personnel Management and Work Relationships gave rise to some outsourcing process criticism. Terms such as "precarious work", "weak management", "trafficking of people", "mental suffering" and others were mentioned. These figures indicate that the research is not 8 enough for more robust conclusions about outsourcing. Teixeira et al. (2009) state that when in depth, and the dimensions of the problem are not unraveled, debates go to simplistic and manichaeistic generalizations. This portrays the common vision of the outsourcing topic where people understand that this practice can lead to quality changes, compensation, where there are emotional and ideological analysis, as also occurs with other related issues such as privatization, neo-liberalism and minimal state. Based on this study, we intend to initiate new forms of discussions about controversial topics and compare between areas and even different countries. It is understood the need to advance research on the topic including results that demonstrate the utility of outsourcing in social, business and government.

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EFFECTS OF INNOVATION-ORIENTED VALUES IN THE PERFORMANCE OF INTEGRAL HEALTHCARE IN CHAGAS DISEASE

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Abstract

Evandro Chagas National Institute of Infectious Diseases (INI) has implemented Laboratories for Clinical Research Associated to Healthcare Assistance in Infectious Diseases, structures inspired on Innovative Organization of Mintzberg's theory. In order to improve clinical research according to Integral Healthcare Model, INI's Chagas Disease Clinical Research Laboratory has adopted this organizational innovation as an incentive mechanism based upon values of decentralization and entrepreneurial orientation. This case study uses, as methods to assess said innovation, surveying of micro costs, Activity Based Costing system, Spearman correlation test and DEA. Aggregates knowledge on the contribution of organizational values in multipurpose public health organizations and shows the effects of INI's restructuring on development of research, diversification of healthcare and promotion of cost-effectiveness and overall efficiency.

Introduction

According to literature on competitive advantages, organizations internalize entrepreneurial orientation in order to achieve goals efficiently, deal with competition, and adapt to change; their structure should be less centralized as well as involve more participation; and the structure of the public organization responsible for innovative solutions is decentralized.

At Oswaldo Cruz Foundation (Fiocruz), for instance, the Innovative Organization structure (Mintzberg, 1995) in 2006 and the Clinical Research Laboratory Associated with Healthcare substructure in 2007 were chosen for the restructuring of Evandro Chagas National Institute of Infectious Diseases (INI). It has aimed at improving its performance in innovative research, by means of the incorporation of the organizational values of autonomy and entrepreneurial orientation. INI has integrated healthcare, research and teaching activities to the Integrated Action (PAI) organizational structure in 1999, and has promoted the innovative orientation of the Chagas Disease Clinical Research Laboratory (Lapclin-Chagas) in 2007.

The aim of this Short Competitive Manuscript is to assess the effect of the organizational restructuring oriented to organizational values of decision-making decentralization in the promotion of clinical research, and the development of comprehensive care in Chagas disease, according to the principles of the Integral Healthcare Model.

Conceptual Framework

Literature on public health discusses the basics of Integral Healthcare Model, whose characteristics fit the mission of multipurpose public health organizations as INI. For analytical purposes, in turn, this kind of organization is herein understood as a productive organization subjected to internal conflicts of interest that: provides comprehensive healthcare services associated with teaching and research; uses specialized resources, many of which sold in incomplete markets; produces "public goods" whose assessment depends on user experience; and stands as a benchmark for health services development.

This model of attention is associated with the actions of health promotion, prevention of and recovery from disease, as well as with healthcare practices oriented by the precedence of human rights over market relationships. It is characterized as a model of transition from ambulatory medical care focused on the specialized doctor to procedures focused on multidisciplinary work, that promotes: interaction of health professionals with patients and peers (Ross, 2009); multidisciplinary healthcare (Oliveira, Nascimento, & Marcolino, 2012); and inclusion of patients and community (Knaul et al, 2012; Ivers et al., 2011).

On its turn, since the origin of INI's labs, the organization of the Fiocruz Institutes as Professional Organization (Mintzberg, 1995) was taken on by professionals with highly standardized skills, emphasizing professional authority, but was characterized by poor governance of organizational objectives.

As for the Divisional Organization model (Mintzberg, 1995) that succeeded the Professional Organization model in order to promote mission-oriented health research through results-oriented management since 1995, it in fact ensured restricted autonomy to the Institutes, whose strategic plans were *a priori* defined with Fiocruz's "central office" on the basis of performance assessment. In order to attract resources for clinical research, INI integrated the activities of lab diagnostics, healthcare, teaching and infectious disease research, focused in infectious diseases targeted by its strategic plan (Jorge et al., 2006). In line with the "new public management" paradigm, INI's search for strategic positioning resulted in an attempt to combine efficiency with effectiveness in treatment regimens. Incentive mechanisms and organizational values such as orientation to results, management decentralization, accountability and flexibilization of procedures (Cunill Grau, & Ospina Bozzi, 2003) arrived on the scene, but standardization of activities restricted the promotion and autonomy of clinical research.

Research activity, typically dynamic and complex, is subjected to uncertainty, thanks to which integration of clinical research associated with assistance depends on the effective interaction, through mutual adjustment, of professionals with different patterns of skills (Harris, 1977) in *ad hoc* project teams. In 2007, restructuring in accordance with the Innovative Organization model has: focused on encouraging innovation-oriented organizational values with the empowerment of the operating nucleus, decentralization as well as freedom of "mutual adjustment" between professionals for establishing research teams; and conditioned the creation of labs and their survival thanks to their results (Mintzberg, 1995). It focused on evolving labor division and research coordination mechanisms, in accordance with the existing projects, such as the creation of INI's clinical research labs, substructures of comprehensive care like Lapclin-Chagas, designed to take on fast-response linkages with the users of the researches, in order to promote innovative research (Fundação Oswaldo Cruz [FIOCRUZ], 2006).

In this sense, the need to internalize the initiative and develop the individual's potential (Morton, & Hu, 2008) has highlighted the choice of the organizational structure which holds conditions to

promote organizational values of entrepreneurial orientation at Fiocruz. Jointly combined, values of autonomy and competitive, innovative and proactive attitude, as well as predisposition to risk would result in the improvement of the organization's performance in achieving goals more efficiently and in the acquisition of the capacity to adapt to turbulent environments (Jogaratnam, & Ching-Yick Tse, 2006).

Finally, from the perspective of Economic Analysis, search for efficiency explains the organization and expresses its rationality (Varian, 2006). The doctrine of the so-called Managerial Public Administration, for instance, is consistent with the principles and policies of Economic Analysis (La Forgia, & Couttolenc, 2008). Particularly in presence of complete information on production processes, the objective function of profit maximization in the neoclassical theory of the firm's equilibrium in the short run explains the search for absolute efficiency in using resources. Efficiency sustains the organization's survival in the market; costs savings and cost-saving oriented innovation express organizational performance success.

However, the Organization's Internal Economics incorporates the asymmetric information hypothesis to describe interaction between manager and production agents, from which results the interest in assessment models adopting the informational hypothesis of the existence of inefficiencies out of the manager's control, the so-called type X inefficiencies (Leibenstein, 1966). Acknowledgement of inefficiencies, of information costs and of imperfect information requires appropriate treatment of the distinction between inefficiencies in dealing with phenomena controlled by managers and the effects of factors beyond control. To assess managers, the alternative behavioral hypothesis is that they look for relative efficiency (Mantri, 2008), that is, to emulate best practices observed among peers, giving rise to the interest in models like Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA).

Moreover, in complex organizations, integrating a significant family of economic units with different types of property and activity, including multipurpose public health organizations like INI, oriented by Integral Healthcare Model, the coexistence of internal groups of interest creates difficulties for the precise definition of their common goals (Bisang, & Katz, 1996), and for the organization's overall assessment, when not all activities have similar performance levels. With views to a summary measure for performance assessment of these multipurpose organizations, selection of a standard of comparison is also dealt with in literature on evaluation by the identification of the so-called efficiency border through DEA method for calculating the frontier of empirically observed production possibilities for the pairs of these organizations.

Research Methodology

In this Short Competitive Manuscript, assessment problem is stated as a problem of construction and analysis of indicators of the effects of new substructures resulting from pro-decentralization organizational change of INI on: the distribution of healthcare resources among its' labs; and the volume and diversification of the assistance, cost-performance of clinical care, and efficiency in the use of Lapclin-Chagas' resources.

The employed method is a case study of the new organization of Lapclin-Chagas, with empirical support provided, first, by indicators on the evolution of volume, diversification, expenditures and production costs of its activities, with views to assess its overall growth and costs performance in the period 2006-2011. Internal cooperative attitude was achieved by eliminating duplicity of effort through compilation of secondary data from INI public files to quantify production and diversification variables (Jorge et al, 2006). Costs and expenditures investigation considered appropriation: of incentives for genuine production choices (Birkinshaw, Hamel, &

Mol, 2008) through the census of production expenses (Djellal, & Gallouj, 2005) on micro-costs level (Brewer, Norren, & Garrison, 2005) - required for efficient management (Medici, & Marques, 1996) – and of "indirect" costs (Nakagawa, 1994) - or "common" costs (Milgrom, & Roberts, 1992). Survey of micro costs method (Horngren, Sundem, & Stratton, 2004) and Activity Based Costing system (ABC) were used.

Here called Direct Expenses, several expenditure items at micro costs level registered in the labs' budget compose actual unit costs, namely expenditures with: kits & reagents; outsourcing - individuals; stockroom items; non-stockroom consumption items; telephony; amortization of permanent material; maintenance of permanent material; and internal administrative support. Expenditures registered in the budget of Fiocruz central office, here called Indirect Expenses, include: personnel not paid by INI; transfer medicines; internal administrative support; and administration of the campus (Jorge et al., 2006). Production, costs and permanent material data refer to annual periods, with views to crossing off seasonal fluctuations (Medici & Marques, 1996). Expenditure of permanent material covers reserve funds for the organization's sustainability (Bresser Pereira, 1996). "Personnel expenses" for each product amounts to the sum of wages and charges relating to specific share of time of each professional in charge of its production (Grönroos, 2003). Diagnosis expenses is estimated as expenditures related to each individual use of the exam's result, that is, part of expenditure for carrying out the exam the results of which can be read for the progress of several research projects.

Next, this performance assessment considers that, regarding the effect of INI's restructuring on cost effectiveness in labs' healthcare activities: annual expenditure for each activity per lab represents preference on the distribution of resources of each INI activity among them; and that average unit cost of each lab's specific activity represents its effectiveness in costs in the use of resources. Assessment of the organization's overall performance in costs aims to answer whether expenditures per activity are primarily directed to substructures with better performance in costs, in order to contribute to efficiency. This manuscript investigates the relationship between different annual expenditures and unit costs per INI's lab activities in 2011, when organizational innovation matured. Spearman coefficient identifies the type of actual association between average and annual expenditures per lab activity in 2011 (Triola, 2005). The hypothesis on the effect of the new structure on the lab's cost performance is that in the activity in which expenditure per unit of output is higher, allocation of 2011 budget funds is lower when compared with the endowments destined to it in the other labs.

Given the diversity of services encompassed by INI's PAI, the overall performance of Integral Healthcare Model in Lapclin-Chagas was assessed for efficiency in the use of resources, starting from the analysis of labs' relative efficiency synthesis-scores with respect to a DEA-efficient frontier. The DEA product-oriented model with variable scale returns (DEA-BCC-O) was used to: investigate its maximum output with aggregate consumption of inputs kept constant, because INI's PAI budgets are established *a priori*, so that manager's target is to increase results obtained; and compare production processes of decision making units (DMU) with different sizes, such as the PAI.

Out of the total of INI's fourteen PAI, the performances of eight PAI already structured according to the Integral Healthcare Model in the period 2002-2012 were considered, amounting to eighty eight observation units: annual PAI in Chagas disease, acute febrile diseases and dengue, human T-lymphotropic virus, leishmaniasis, mycosis, toxoplasmosis, tuberculosis and HIV / AIDS (Jorge et al., 2006). Inputs per PAI variables of the model are: (a) physician-hours – time allocated by each physician; and (b) operating expenditures excluding staff - annual

expenditure on medicines, reagents and hospital supplies. Products per PAI are: (a) exams – annual amount of exams; (b) consultations – annual amount of consultations; (c) admissions - annual number of admission days; (d) scientific production – annual number of published articles; (e) cohort – annual number of new research patients; and (f) teaching – annual number of approved dissertations and theses.

Results

Measures of association among variables representing the participation of the various labs in the annual expenditure of each healthcare activity and its performance in costs in that activity are presented in Table 1. Indicate an inverse association among the variables of annual and average expense and cost effectiveness in the activities – the resources employed in the labs with better cost performance are higher (Zar, 1972).

Table 1 - INI – Cost Effectiveness of the Distribution of Expenses in the Healthcare Activity per Lab: 2011

R, RE		ANNUAL DE: 2011			
		Ambulatory	Day-Hospital	Admission	Intensive care
DE/ Assistance: 2011	Ambulatory	-0,72 (R)**	-	-	
	Day-Hospital	-	-0,56 (RE)	-	
	Admission	-	-	-0,69 (R)***	
	Intensive care				-0,73 (RE)**

Source: Elaborated by the authors.

R, RE – Spearman correlation coefficient, respectively without and with posts tie.

DE - Direct Expense (registered in INI' budget; under INI's manager control).

**: $p < 5\%$, ***: $p < 10\%$

Indications of positive effects on production in the five years post Lapclin-Chagas' restructuring (2006-2011): annual number of clinical research projects in progress quadrupled; physicians' consultations increased by 9%; nursing procedures by 140%; and admission days by 105% - see Table 2. Clinical research projects listed in Figure 1 exemplify those in progress in the main Lapclin-Chagas' lines of investigation (Hasslocher-Moreno et al., 2013). Until 2012, Lapclin-Chagas' teaching activity in post-graduate courses *stricto sensu* of cardiology (UFRJ) and infectious diseases (INI) areas resulted in seven doctoral theses and twenty eight Masters' dissertations (Hasslocher-Moreno et al., 2013). Table 3 concerns evolution of volume and diversification in assistance to Lapclin-Chagas' 2200 patients' cohort per types of clinical procedures and exams performed, as well as of the annual expenditures and effective unit costs, direct and indirect expenses: in the period, annual number of exams and procedures grew 36% and variety of types grew 12%. From the perspective of minimizing costs, calculation of Direct Expenses provides an overall diagnosis on performance in costs of healthcare services per Lapclin-Chagas assistance activity in the period. According to Table 4, actual unit cost of medical consultations, nursing procedures, admission day and day-hospital care came down.

Table 2 - Lapclin-Chagas - Annual Production Evolution per Activity: 2006-2011

Activity	Amount/Year	
	2006	2011
Ambulatory		
Infectologist Consultation	3.019	3.100
Non-Infectologist Medical Consultation	1.770	2.122
Non-Medical Specialty Consultation	4.140	767
Nursing Procedures	2.701	6.476
Admission	268	548
Day-Hospital	1	10
Teaching [1]	18	29
Research [2]	4	18

Source: INI.

Footnotes:

(1) Graduates

(2) Research Projects in Progress.

Figure 1- Lapclin-Chagas - Clinical Research Projects: 2012

• Progression to chronic Chagas' heart disease in a cohort of Chagas disease
• Longitudinal Study of Cardiac Morbidity and Mortality in Chronic Phase of Chagas disease
• Experience with treatment pro-elimination of Trypanosoma cruzi in chronic Chagas disease patients
• Cardiopulmonary rehabilitation program in patients with heart disease of infectious etiology
• Clinical study in patients with chronic chagasic cardiopathy. BENEFIT study
• Pharmaceutical care in the quality of life of patients with heart failure due to chronic Chagas disease: randomized clinical trial
• Clinical and epidemiological aspects of Chagas disease in patients of Rio de Janeiro state
• PCR implementation for the diagnosis of Chagas disease as a clinical routine
• Chronic Chagas' disease diagnosis through signs, symptoms and exhibitions in individuals with diagnostic investigation indication
• Predictive value of transforming growth factor-$\beta1$ in Chagas disease: towards a biomarker surrogate of clinical outcome
• Cardiac performance analysis of Chagas patients in light of new echocardiographic methods
• Study of the mechanisms involved in the genesis and maintenance of fibrosis during infection by Trypanosoma cruzi
• Prevalence of the genotypes NOS and IFN-gamma in Chagas patients and correlation with prognostic markers

Source: Elaborated by Lapclin-Chagas

Table 3 - Lapclin-Chagas – Clinical Care, Diagnostics and Support: 2006-2011

DESCRIPTOR	2006				2011			
	AMOUNT	TYPES	ANNUAL DIE (*) (**)	DEI/ASSISTANCE (*)	AMOUNT	TYPES	ANNUAL DIE (*) (**)	DIE/ASSISTANCE (*)
Infectologist Consultation	3.019	2	581.860,43	192,73	3.100	2	254.575,38	82,12
Non-Infectologist Medical Consultation	1.770	2	164.695,03	93,03	2.122	2	241.250,36	113,69
Non-Medical Specialty Consultation	4.140	2	473.012,85	114,25	767	2	298.327,94	389,00
Outpatient Procedures	117	14	27.241,32	232,10	145	16	61.007,55	420,06
Nursing Procedures	2.701	45	95.593,25	35,39	6.476	81	112.499,59	17,37
Day-Hospital Procedures	1	-	6.708,32	6.708,32	10	-	15.284,79	1.528,48
Admission Day (nourishment and medication included)	268	-	426.008,15	1.589,58	548	-	957.522,03	1.747,30
Admission Day	268	-	341.766,20	1.275,25	548	-	856.768,56	1.563,45
Patient Hospitalization	25	-	341.766,20	13.670,65	46	-	856.768,56	18.625,40
Admission Day - Intensive Care (nourishment and medication included)	-	-	-	-	221	-	332.211,65	1.503,22
Admission Day - Intensive Care	-	-	-	-	221	-	283.338,66	1.282,08
Patient Hospitalization - Intensive Care	-	-	-	-	19	-	283.338,66	14.912,56
Pathological Anatomy Lab	462	4	118.009,95	255,45	910	4	154.617,94	169,93
Bacteriology and Bioassays Lab	1.315	19	122.734,40	93,32	2.087	18	172.446,68	82,64
Imaging Lab	1.131	60	291.959,03	258,03	611	57	314.900,01	515,54
Immunodiagnostic Lab	2.806	21	150.569,13	53,66	2.786	21	137.439,54	49,34
Mycology Lab	13	2	1.525,80	116,91	4	3	832,77	188,92
Parasitology Lab	749	8	77.558,28	103,51	485	7	60.106,66	124,04
Clinical Analysis Lab	16.148	57	487.038,26	30,16	26.373	52	461.430,32	17,50
Ampule Dispensing	5.300	-	2.516,35	-	100	-	60,54	-
Capsule Dispensing	10.000	-	316,88	-	2.000	-	89,69	-
Pill Dispensing	411.000	-	318.230,10	-	265.020	-	130.188,25	-
Meals at Day-Hospital	1	-	6,93	-	10	-	296,51	-
Meals at Ambulatory	N. D.	-	28.908,21	-	N. D.	-	30.679,35	-
Meals at Hospitalization	268	-	57.553,30	-	548	-	93.517,75	-
Meals at Hospitalization – Intensive Care	0	-	0,00	-	221	-	37.714,27	-
Internal Mngmt Srvces	-	-	376.419,80	-	-	-	503.297,12	-
Campus Mngmt Srvces	-	-	368.390,41	-	-	-	537.922,70	-

Source: INI.(*) 2013 prices in R$. (**) DIE - Direct and Indirect Expenses (partly registered in the budget of Fiocruz central office; out of INI's manager control).

Table 4 - Lapclin-Chagas - Annual Expense and Unit Cost per Healthcare Service: 2006-2011

ACTIVITY	ANNUAL DE (*) (**)		DE per Care Service (*)		
	2006	2011	2006	2011	2006/2011
AMBULATORY	300.331,33	241.307,34	-	-	-
Infectologist Consultation	64.480,23	64.375,83	21,36	20,77	DECAY
Non-Infectologist MedicalConsultation	48.599,52	39.779,50	27,45	18,75	DECAY
Non-Medical Specialty Consultation	112.470,59	32.963,55	27,17	42,98	RISE
Outpatient Procedures	15,75	16.329,03	0,13	112,36	RISE
Nursing Procedures	74.765,24	87.859,42	27,68	13,57	DECAY
ADMISSION	238.899,35	425.283,50	891,42	776,06	DECAY
INTENSIVE CARE	-	203.562,48	-	921,10	-
DAY-HOSPITAL	5.506,19	8.659,02	5.506,19	865,90	DECAY
TEACHING	155.908,45	231.057,52	8.493,80	7.865,04	DECAY
RESEARCH	236.050,31 (***)	565.530,63	18.042,06 (***)	31.124,42	RISE
Σ	936.695,62	1.675.400,50	35.400,48	27.936,58	DECAY

Source: INI.

(*) 2013 prices in R$. (**) DE - Direct Expense (registered in INI' budget; under INI's manager control). (***) For the year 2009.

Quantifying eight input and output variables of INI's PAI and calculating DEA-BCC-O model through the solution of the underlying Linear Programming Problem as well as employing the Frontier Analyst® software, relative technical efficiency scores for annual PAI in the 2002-2012 period are obtained and Chagas PAI's efficiency evolution is compared with the evolution of the annual average efficiency in Figure 2. Results of nonparametric tests designed to measure statistical accuracy of results of experiment similar to the analysis herein developed have confirmed that variations of scores obtained are statistically significant - see Jorge et al (2006).

Figure 2 - Relative Technical Efficiency Annual Evolution per PAI - 2002-2012
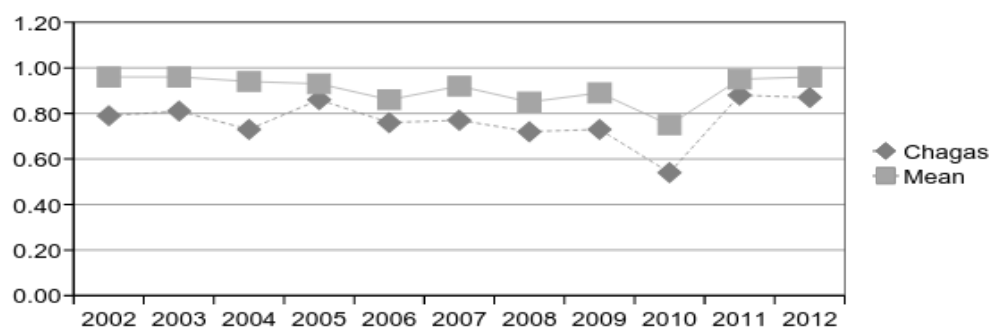
Source: Elaborated by the authors.

Conclusions

As knowledge production activity, clinical research is typical of public health organizations and clinical research in infectious diseases fits in multipurpose public health organizations; its

development requires more effective knowledge exchange between research and healthcare assistance activities. Based upon the conceptual framework of Mintzberg (1995), reconstruction of clinical research trajectory in Fiocruz sheds light on the success in choosing the single case study approach to assess Lapclin-Chagas. Expectations on the promotion of organizational values of entrepreneurial orientation and decentralization through Lapclin-Chagas's restructuring in 2007 were of growth of research, teaching and healthcare, as well as of diversification and effectiveness in costs of comprehensive healthcare procedures rendered.

It was evidenced, during the period of analysis: the high diversification of Lapclin-Chagas' healthcare procedures; that Lapclin-Chagas' patients receive healthcare assistance of interdisciplinary and multiprofessional character; and that the commitment of Lapclin-Chagas's treatment model of Chagas disease is directed to: health promotion; evidence-based decisions; humanized healthcare; social and family involvement in care; social protection assistance; and control of risk behavior. Performance in costs assessment confirms association between restructuring oriented to promote these values, and effectiveness in costs of the distribution among labs of the INI's budgetary resources per activity. In other words, resources allocation strengthened the most efficient labs. It could not be confirmed, however, the costs minimizing behavior in the strict sense of microeconomic rationality: in the period 2006-2011, Lapclin-Chagas' growth wasn't followed by unit costs reduction of outpatient consultations in non-medical specialties and medical procedures, at 2013 prices. Efficiency Analysis shows that, since promotion of pro-innovation orientated values, PAIs' relative technical efficiency grew along time, and that INI's annual expenses in the PAIs, as well as Lapclin-Chagas' management, associated positively with the search for best practices in the distribution of resources per activities of each PAI.

As contribution to knowledge, this Short Competitive Manuscript has established association between the dynamics of change promoted by values of innovative orientation in INI as of 2007, and the search for efficiency driven by peer's performance adopted as hypothesis in Efficiency Analysis (Ozcan, 2008). As managerial contribution, it confirmed the association of INI's new organizational structure of clinical research integrated to healthcare assistance with relative efficiency-oriented incentive, highlighting evidences of the potential benefit of its replication for growth and improvement of Chagas disease treatment. In this sense, it has demonstrated the DEA model explanatory power for understanding multipurpose organizations, although analysis of a single case imposes limitations on the generalization of these research findings.

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INFLUENCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL VALUES AND CHALLENGES OF LEADERSHIP IN THE BRAZILIAN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: A CASE STUDY IN AN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

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Abstract

The leaders of a Brazilian public institution is faced with major challenges in exercising leadership role, given the changes in the Brazilian government that impact on people management and organizational values. This project, using qualitative method, had the goal to analyse the challenges faced by the leadership in the public sector, through a case study in a public educational institution. The challenges are organized in five contexts: the legal context, the politician, the cultural, the administrative and the economical context. During this research was possible to identify that the management's model which went through the institution, left traces which have not been forgotten by the following models, making harder the leadership's performance.

Introduction

This study aims to analyze the challenges faced by leaders in the public sector, more specifically in a Brazilian public educational institution, in view of the features and characteristics of this sector and the influence of organizational values. For Schikmann (2010), are limiting factors for public administration the rigidity of legislation, the culture existing in public sector organizations, who inherited bureaucratic features that limit innovative postures. In a context of constant changes and technological developments, organizations, both private and public, have been modifying their strategies and forms of management. Given this dynamic, the Brazilian government promoted organizational changes in their models, which over time was characterized by paternalism, then evolved into a bureaucratic public administration and, finally, in the late twentieth century and early twenty-first century, innovated through the new public management model (Costa, 2008).

Human capital and leadership are also important actors in the transformation of organizations and developing strategies to overcome the bureaucracy. As Longo (2007), the major goals of any contemporary collective project depends on the human and intellectual capital. For Barbieri (2002), the paradoxes raised by the continuous transformations of organizations and the importance of human capital in the performance of them require a great responsibility in human resources management, as well as leaders.

The analysis of how leaders have played their roles and the difficulties they encounter for this exercise is fundamental to the study of Brazilian public administration, in that it can contribute to an improvement in the provision of industry services and a reduction in costs thereof (Guerra, Ferreira & Morais, 2013; Oliveira, Sant'anna & Vaz, 2010).

Following these directions, the first will be presented theoretical framework that addresses the characteristics of public education, aspects of people management in the public sector and the issue of leadership, which includes organizational values. Then we will present the methodological procedures of the study, data analysis and final considerations.

People management in public institutions Brazilian education

Longo (2007) believes that the main objectives of changes and modernization of organizations depend on the human and intellectual capital. Also according to the author, changes alone are not enough to change organizations, since the real change is one that can penetrate the minds of individuals and transferred to their behavior. In this sense, people management appears as a key area for improvement in the performance of organizations, especially in public, due to the fact of being intensive industry in manpower and human resources. The direction of people 's main objective is to maximize the commitment and development of the individual within an unstable environment and full of uncertainties (Longo, 2007).

Public organizations have characteristics that affect the way people management is performed. These include rigidity imposed by the laws, the little emphasis on performance, compensation mechanisms to disengage the performance of the salaries, the limits to innovative postures, the few mechanisms for planning and management, turnover in the occupation of management positions and the role of gratification (Schikmann, 2010).

New management practices that give meaning to the human assets arise along with the evolution of public management. The management of people begins to leave the bureaucratic company and administrative function to a strategic role of internal service provider, articulator of new values whose aim is to produce results that are consistent with organizational strategy (Longo, 2007). People management becomes then an agent in the transformation and evolution of public enterprises.

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Considering the educational sector, the area has an even stronger role in the evolution of educational institutions due to their nature. The greatest asset and foundation of educational institutions are the people and the success of these institutions involves ensuring adequate conditions for teachers, technicians and administrators develop their activities effectively and efficiently (Grillo, 2001). Despite the changes in people management in public organizations and educational institutions, there are still several findings of bureaucratic characteristics. Many organizations still have personal management features, which makes the emphasis on performance issues, merit and results (Schikmann, 2010).

As Vieira and Vieira (2010), the flow of administrative and academic demands to come up against the bureaucratic processes and isotonic salary structure, seen as the main reason for low productivity in the sector. In educational institutions, academic cultural performance is marked by the low level of efficiency in the movement of flows and a long time for decision-making (Vieira and Vieira, 2010). Faced with the changes, barriers and paradoxes experienced by the area of people management in public education, there is the responsibility of leaders as a transformation driving element (Kotter, 1990; Barbieri, 2012).

Leadership in the public sector and the public institutions Brazilian education

For Yukl (2010) the term leadership is loaded with different connotations and interpretations. The research of this phenomenon usually define leadership according to individual perspectives, which covers the particular values of the individual , that is according to its objectives and purposes (Schwartz , 1994). As in all construction of social sciences, the definition of leadership is more subjective. Some settings are most used, but there is no right or wrong concept (Yukl, 2010).

In the context of the social sciences, the term represents reality in a peculiar way for the individual and impacts their conduct , according to Gonzáles (2002). The choice of a positive or negative depends on the present value analysis (Hofstede, 1994). The author states that the organizational values guide the attitudes of employees through the organization's objectives.

As Yukl (2010), Bergamini (1994) believes that the various studies on the subject culminated in the emergence of countless concepts. For the author, two aspects are common to different concepts given to this phenomenon: the fact that leadership involves two or more people and it is an influence process intentionally exercised by leaders in their team.

Yukl (2010) adds that leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree on what should be done and how to do this, to facilitate individual and collective efforts to achieve common goals and to ensure that their subordinates are prepared to face future challenges. Focused on the study of higher education institutions, Santana, and Cunha Oliveira (2010) consider the phenomenon of leadership as a cyclical transformational process. The authors believe that

> It is transformational as it promotes changes in the university and consequently the academic , generating impacts of administrative and social order. It is cyclical as it occurs every four years, depending on the relevant legislation

For these authors, leadership plays an important role in that influence individuals to pursue different ways to achieve the objectives of the educational institution. While influences led, the leader is influenced by them (Santana et al, 2010). For Longo (2007), the role of leaders in public organizations find numerous challenges considering the entrenched bureaucratic features in the administrative culture.

Bureaucratic characteristics that persist in the public sector as stable employment and inert organizational culture also hinder the effective performance of the leaders of this sector. The scarcity of resources is another challenge for the leadership, as the leader does not have the resources to motivate their employees and the policies and casts career plans, as well as fixed remuneration, demotivate the lead. Still, the lack of performance management in public institutions hampers leadership actions to increase the productivity of these organizations (Santana *et al*, 2010).

Forward to the challenges that the leadership is to exercise fully in its activities, this study proposes to explore them deeper into, having as object of study a public educational institution.

Methodology

The research is characterized as a case study consisting in the investigation of holistic and general characteristics of the real context of the events and can be organizational and administrative proceedings (Yin, 2014).

Data collection took place through individual semi-structured interviews with a combination of open and closed questions in thematic routes, which allowed respondents address us on the issues from topics, and answer the basic questions, which had support theories (Triviños, 1995).

In this paper the characterization of the institution in question will not be shown, with a view to preserving the identity of respondents and organizational identification. They interviewed eight of the ten leaders of a higher education institution of Minas Gerais, including five directors and three deputy directors.

Respondents seven men and a woman, have between 38 and 60 years, all formed in upper level graduate (masters and doctorate). Among the eight respondents, six have experience in the private sector. With time working in the institution, four of them have less than 10 years and the rest has more than 18 years.

Another technique used in data collection, along with interviews, was the construction drawings by the respondents. The attention of the design before the interview with the intention of collecting characteristics, perceptions and intrinsic and subjective feelings of it. The main objective was to understand how he feels and how he perceives his performance before the institution examined, no influence of any other matter. An important point that was transmitted to the respondent is in relation to the freedom to express what they really feel, without any censorship. After the construction of the drawings, respondents interpreted the same and these interpretations were used in the data analysis.

According to Vergara (2012), the design construction technique stimulates the manifestation of emotional and psychological aspects, some privileged by nature rational techniques. This technique enables the capture of contributions that go beyond the reports of the interviews can capture.

Data analysis was made from the content analysis technique that aims to detail to understand the meaning, content and implicit or explicit meanings, communications (Chizzotti, 2006). This technique involves analyzing communications from systematic procedures to describe the content of the interviews (Bardin, 2011). Respondents will be referred to as E , followed by the interview number.

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People management and leadership: peculiarities of public administration

The first specific question directed to all respondents was whether they see difference between people management in the public sector from the private sector and what would be. The order to start the interview with this question was to introduce the subject of personnel management in the public sector and understand its peculiarities in relation to the private sector, then enter the leadership on issues. All respondents see great difference in people management of the two sectors. Responses focused mainly on factors relating to the stability of public service.

Longo (2007) corroborates the ideas of respondents and sees a gap between the public and private sphere especially in the way again and interact with the binomial stability/change. The

author considers stability as an element of rigidity that hampers the effective functioning of government. The stories below show the main idea withdrawal of interviews:

> The most striking difference is the issue of stability. [...] People who can not handle it, they fall into a comfort zone and do not seek to improve, give the most of themselves for growth. In the private sector, you know that if you do not perform properly , tasteful way, seeking to stand out, you're out. (E2)

> In the private institution the vision of management and those people are there to build that institution unidirectional way. The institution has to be satisfied with that server [...]. He has to give results. In public initiative there is a sense of belonging, the server belongs to the institution as well as the institution belongs to him. He's here to stay almost a lifetime. He has little chance of being fired. [...] Is a comfort very large and somewhat challenging . He does not feel the challenge to overcome, to be better than the other. (E4)

After questioning in relation to differences in people management in the public and private sectors, respondents were asked how these differences interfere with his performance as leader. According to Oliveira et al (2010), the leaders of the public sector are more difficult to act under the motivation of their team due to the stability of careers and inflexibility in career plans and remuneration. The stories below show the ideas of respondents.

> Make a people management in the public sector, you need to be able to motivate the strongest way to group that would be in the private sector. Otherwise you can not get people to buy your goals and make you reach them. (E2)

> Here I have to have a convincing work, in relation to work and the person's vanity for her to feel comfortable working. (E8)

> The question to determine and act more directly , without the worry of how you will react . In the public sector people come and stay, stability difficult deliberation, the planning. (E1)

In the face of reports of respondents, we could analyze the peculiarities of people management in the public sector in the context of educational institutions to the private sector considering its negative and positive points.

Analysis and presentation of data: Perceptions of leadership

The process of leadership involves the ability of a person to influence others in order to make them strive to achieve a common goal, facilitating individual and collective efforts for achieving that goal. The activities of the leader are related to this attempt to influence through communication, led behavior (Tannenbaum, Weschler & Massarick, 1961; Hunter, 2004; Yukl, 2010).

When asked about what they perceive as leadership, respondents' answers focused on convincing ability of people to follow a path that leads to a common goal.

> Person's ability to be heard, to be then be answered. Leadership is convincing ability of people to act forme she understands what is right, how to do. (E1)

> Leadership of the understanding of your position, you have to understand where you are, to externalize power to your community what it needs to do in a compelling way and she accepted you as a guy who will show the way. The leader convinces with examples, actions, speech and word of it ends up being accepted by the community and she agrees to follow that direction that the leader indicates. (E4)

The preparation of the drawings also possible to see how leaders behave and what in fact is leading to them. For the respondent E2 leadership involves the "ability to unite, motivate people around a goal."In the interpretation of its design, the respondent (E2) believed to have a block, which represent its set of activities to be undertaken by the organization, and pulling servers that block. For him the leader should be with people pulling this set of activities.
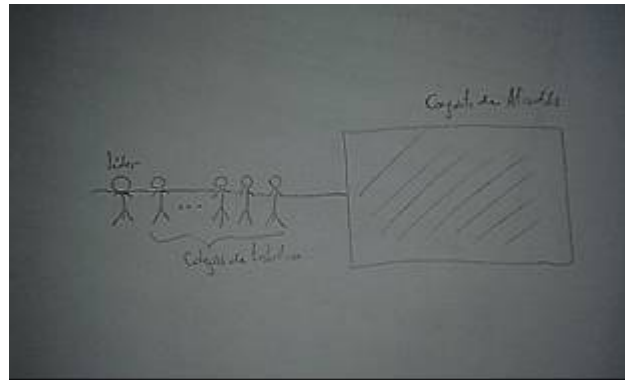
Figure 1 - E2 interviewed drawing

Source: Research Data

> Too often we see this leader moved on top of the set of activities and just telling people do this, do that. [...] The boss who gets the whip, can not motivate, unite people around a goal. If you come down here and embraces, is with them and help solve. (E2)

The understanding of how to manage more participatory and dialogic is trodden in some authors management and related areas that pose the importance of having a management that does not follow exactly the same precepts of traditional understanding of what is management and how lead (Assis, 2012).

At the end of the interview, respondents were asked to self evaluation from 0 to 10 as a leader. The average of all notes that participants gave to their own performance was 7,31. Only two of them have lower grades 7 and only one self assessed with note 10. When asked what they would change in his stance as leader, two of them talked about being more incisive in its decisions and to be more focused on the end goal . Another answer that appeared in the report of two respondents was the ability to improve relationships with people. Only one participant did not answer the question.

Leadership challenges in the public sector and the organizational value

The cultural issue present in public organizations was also much discussed in the interviews. Longo (2007) states that the difference between the perception of the eigenvalues of the public sector and the private sector is a cultural reflection rooted in our administrative culture, that is, the intangible aspects that govern public management, such as mental models, dominant values, standards of conduct, among others. Pereira (1996) discusses the inefficiency, lack of motivation, lack of willingness to work that stability brings to public service. Regarding the values Tamayo (2007) states that were incorporated to the organizational structure, which indicates the importance given to work.

One of the respondents (E5) represented the public organization as a whole, and a part of employees work together for the achievement of the objective of the organization. The other part is distant from this objective order of the institution, without much productivity. The respondent (E5) reports "[...] you have a group chasing butterflies, looking for the sex of angels, hunting anything. [...] Basically this is a group producing and other loose, without producing anything, and inventing things".

Figure 2 – E5 interviewed drawing

Source: Research Data

Rivera (2003) believes that effective leadership should promote the development of the organization to a desired future state, by encouraging change and introduction of new philosophies and strategies. Corroborating Rivera (2003), Kotter (2001) believe that the leadership has the role to prepare organizations for change, helping the adaptation challenges. The process of leadership in educational institutions is transformational in that it promotes changes in the university and academia generating impact on administrative and social dimensions (Santana et al, 2010).

Santana et al (2010) consider that another major challenge for leadership is the lack of resource as the leader does not have the resources to motivate their employees. Hooijberg and Choi (2001) believe that the reduced control and autonomy over resources inhibit the actions of leaders. As the authors, the respondent E2 says that "the issue of financial resources is also very difficult to be managed within the public institution because the resource comes from the government" (E2).

Before the whole situation experienced by public organizations, several challenges were identified by leaders. These challenges cut across five different contexts: the legal context involves rigid and plaster legislation; the political context refers to the difficulties in dealing with bureaucracy and stability in the public sector; the cultural context illustrated by inertia and resistance to change; the administrative context represented by the difficulty in motivating the servers and the lack of preparation of leaders for the exercise of management positions; and the economic context in which the difficulty of leaders to exercise leadership in the face of scarce resources.

The figure below summarizes these various challenges of leaders who were perceived during interviews.
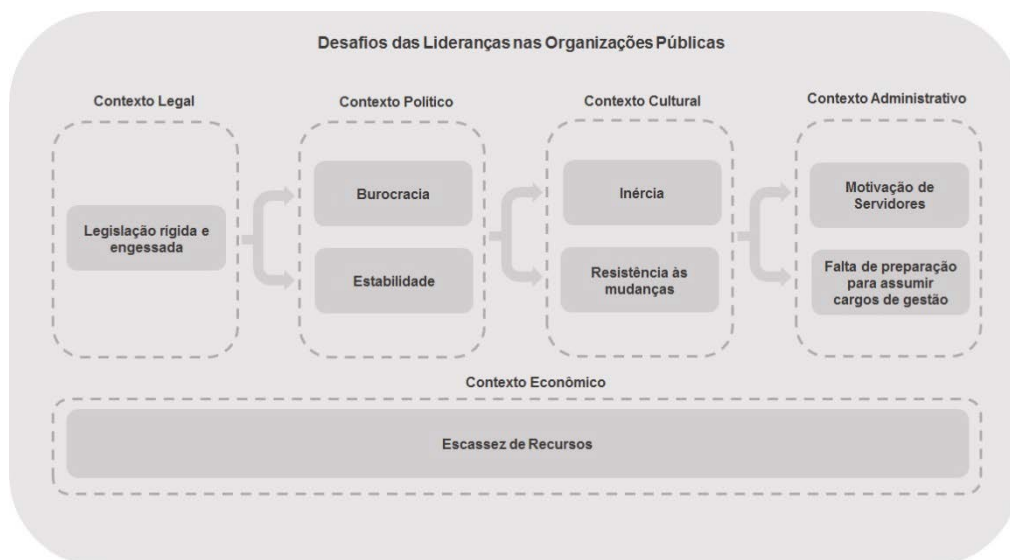
Figure 3 - Challenges of leadership in public organizations

Source: Research Data

Final considerations

The aim of this study was to analyze the challenges facing the leadership in a Brazilian public educational institution, considering a context marked by several changes of Personnel Management. Therefore, information was collected from eight individuals, including directors and deputy directors of a public educational institution, which, in the performance of their duties, also play a leadership role.

The first stage of work involved the construction of a theoretical framework that was used as a basis for analysis of the collected data. The methodology used was semi-structured interviews and construction drawings, in which respondents had the opportunity to express how they saw themselves as leaders. Through the analysis it was possible to identify the various challenges faced by leaders of the educational institution.

The challenges cut across five different contexts: the legal context involves the difficulty of the leaders in dealing with the rigidity of the law. Through the testimony, it was revealed that the legal inflexibility hinders and restricts the role of the leader. The political context refers to difficulties in exercising leadership in the face of bureaucracy and stability hovering public administration. Cultural issues as changes inertia and resistance involve the cultural context. The administrative context understands the difficulties in motivating public servants and the lack of readiness to assume management positions. Finally, the economic environment comprises the scarcity of resources that also appeared as a limiting action of the leaders.

The analysis also allowed the exploitation of the peculiarities of managing people in a public educational institution and perceptions that leaders of this institution have on its operations. The stability and legislation were the main differences raised by respondents between the management of people in the public and private spheres. In addition, through the reports, it was possible to describe the perception of leadership for the management of the institution. Responses focused on convincing ability of people to follow a path that leads to a common goal. The exploitation of designs contributed greatly to the analysis, enriching and complementing the reports of respondents.

This paper, as a case study, was limited to the impossibility of generalizing the results collected. However, it can serve as a basis for further studies on leadership in public organizations. It is suggested further deepening the theme of leadership, especially with regard to the comparison of aspects of leadership with the different moments lived by the public administration.

The research has raised some concerns that are not answered. Respondents leaders highly value a democratic and dialogic leadership, but what are the positive and limiting impact on this type of activity? Furthermore, it can be understood how the dialogue institution? There was talk of a lack of preparation for the exercise of leadership, but how to do this preparation? These are concerns that can be explored in future work on the issue of leadership in the public sector.

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DIAGNOSIS OF A TECHNOLOGICAL CENTER: A CASE STUDY ON THE CLUSTER LOCALITY IN SANTOS/BRAZIL

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Abstract

This study aims to provide a model of shared management services on companies involved in the Local Productive Arrangement (LPA) of Information Technology. The model stimulates the collaborative work. This is based on the 2004 qualitative research French project. In the design of the construct the application of a partnership system is included as a set of organizations to create a central collaborative services. The results include the exchange of common services and economies of scale in the potential application of information systems in organizations.

Keywords: Technology center. Shared management model. Competitiveness.

Introduction

In recent years, several countries have adopted policies in the dynamization of *clusters,* usually involving small businesses, as part of industrial policies enable. In general, the main objective of these policies is, by improving the competitiveness of companies specialized sectoral and geographically grouped, promote a better distribution of regional and social income, contributing to a process of sustainable local development installation.

This type of policy is often seen as an innovative alternative to industrial policies and traditional, regional development practiced in Latin America until the early 80's and focused, mainly in the installation and development of the activities of manufacturing, often grouped in zones, through classical grants and incentive mechanisms. In Brazil, promoting *clusters*, this so-called local productive arrangements (APL) is one of the prioridatarios of the new strategy of economic and social development of the Federal Government.

As result of the APL program was included in the multi-year plan, during the period of four years (2004-2007), the investment, with the participation of various agencies of the Government on the policies and joint actions. In line with what is observed in other countries, the main objective of this programme is to promote the competitiveness and sustainability of the territories in which the groups are, promoting decentralized development processes.

While there are strong arguments in favour of this type of public intervention, there is a recipe list for the design of groups of tools for promotions of APLs, or warranties regarding the results of its application, persisting the risks and uncertainties associated with the success of this type of industrial policy. The risks are increased by the lack of methodologies to simplify the APLs that have been researched and tested in a structured way. In general, the studies in this field have been descriptive and have failed to promote the understanding of the consolidated actions that contribute effectively to promote the APLs.

This research aims to contribute to fill a clear gap in policies and groups of dynamic actions: evaluate, objectively, the actions undertaken, in order to identify those which bring best results.

This study mainly used French, as instruments of policy for regional development the analysis of competitiveness clusters based on knowledge and innovation as the increase of the competitiveness of the companies. New French industrial policy in the case of *clusters*, is based on the premise that the approach of the business agents, academic and technology, established in the same territory or region, organized in groups, encouraging creativity and innovation, the attractiveness of the region and the decrease of the movements of the companies and dropping out of school.

From study of field carried out in the year 2006, it is observed that the success of the French *clusters* is affected directly by the level of industrial development of each region and the ability to articulate their potential and scientific and technological innovation, as well as the importance of business *clusters* that contain. And also that each *Pole* is represented and coordinated by a legal person, in which the majority of the cases is an association. This Association has a permanent staff which focuses on structuring and joint projects among different stakeholders groups. The French State, the regions and communities contribute with various forms of financing such activities.

Theoretical Approaches

In this section is presented succinctly, the review of the literature and raised the working hypothesis: trial deals with the part corresponding to the spatial grouping of organizations and subsequently to SMEs, *clusters* of competitiveness - the French experience and financing competitive groups and their activities.

Spatial grouping of organizations

The recognition of the importance of external economies of scale, promoted by the spatial agglomeration of companies, goes back to the industrial districts Anglo-Saxons of Alfred Marshall, described in his famous book "Principles of Economics: Treaty introductory". In these districts, the Organization of the companies in the same sector settlements would be based on obtaining economies of scale systemic, or externalities, allowing a reduction in the average cost of production of each company. Promoted by agglomeration externalities would result due to the emergence of auxiliary industries around a key industry, (Marshall, 1961), "devoting each small branch of the process of production and work", the creation of specialized suppliers, as well as the development of a group of workers with special skills, of which would be a "constant skilled labor market". In addition, the information and knowledge accumulate and spread more easily among companies in the district due to the proximity of the agents.

In harmony with their time, analysis of Marshall (1961), however, does not identify the need for introduction of public policies to promote districts, which emerged and grew due to the natural advantages of location of a given territory. Later, Steindl (1990), commenting on the work of Marshall (1961), argues that the promotion of cooperation between the small environment to the same policy, could go to the root of the problem of the survival of this type of business: the small scale "diseconomies".

In many cases, the disadvantage can be eliminated or reduced by some kind of cooperative action. If the economies are large scale conspicuous in any activity of the company (for example, in the purchase), this activity can be deployed and developed in common within a cooperative controlled by small business owners. The financial disadvantages of small enterprises could be reduced by Government action (for example, through the rent of facilities or providing credit). This, in turn, presupposes a coordination of small enterprises with the interests of Government

policy. Is possible that the prospects for small business owners to cooperate with each other, and welcomed the Government's policy objectives, are not too bright; but adherence to individualistic attitudes hard to change or stop the trend of the technical development.

As for other prerequisites, Bellandi (1989) points out that, behind the promotion of dynamic, through cooperation, external economies social, cultural and institutional factors including entrepreneurship, trust between agents, ethical standards in business practices or social limitations and other factors characteristic of each region. Here, the notion of social capital in accordance with Putnam (1993) is commonly used in the interpretation of regional and local realities. The existence of social capital helps to reduce transaction costs, since in the process of cooperation, the opportunistic behaviour of the agents would be hampered, reducing the asymmetry of information between them.

Against the new requirements that are considered necessary for regional and local development has increased interest in the study of productive, agglomerations that are presented in the literature through the concepts of clusters, industrial districts or local production systems. This growing interest seems to have framed the work of Piore and Sabel (1984) and as first empirical evidence the success stories in traditional sectors such as textiles and footwear in the so-called third Italy, and high technology, such as the microelectronics in Silicón Valley (USA). They would be the models to follow for LDCs in their efforts to promote regional and local development.

However, as the emergence of regional production is related to a large extent, the economic and social factors that are historical territories socially built, products the transfer of these theories and practices of the periphery of capitalism should show the local specificities. Crocco *et al.* (2003) described its specificities in the context of Brazil, where: (I) entrepreneurship is scarce and the conduct of the employer is generally conservative; (II) innovation capacity is scarce; (III) the institutional and macroeconomic environment is volatile and structurally restrictive; and (IV) groups are in many cases, in a subsistence economy, which is located in regions with low urban density, where per capita income is small, educational levels are low and production complementarities with other groups are weak.

In addition, these important positive institutional elements, not usually present. These properties have led to some Brazilian researchers to forge another concept – local productive arrangements - to deal with specific aspects of the historical formation of *clusters* productive in the periphery, (Cassiolato *et al.* 2000).

Therefore, in this work, are understood to be APLs territorial traders, agglomerations political and social, that they are developing a specific set of productive activities in a coordinated and interdependent way. The productive arrangements can be configured not only by groups of companies in the same industry. May also include suppliers, customers, the service providers and public and private institutions that support the formation of human resources, the promotion of learning and collective projects funding. However, cooperative joint acquire different forms and densities, depending on historical, cultural and institutional characteristics that are specific to each region, among other factors.

Is in this context that industrial agglomerations came to be seen as a tool key to enable the development, indicating the new guidelines for the formulation of policies for regional and local development. This has led to countries like Brazil, Portugal, Spain, Morocco and South Africa, among others, to observe not only the successes of the third Italy (textiles and shoes) and Valley of Silicon (the microelectronics industry), but also from Taiwan and Thailand (clothing), Pakistan (soccer balls and surgical instruments), Chihuahua, Mexico.

These countries seek to adopt local and regional policies, even without planning at the national level, to promote embryonic agglomerations and create new settlements of the relocation of production plants or location of new investments, movement Although, in some cases, and in the beginning, upon the basis of spurious location advantages. These policies considered that the actions in the dynamization of APLs may particularly be suitable for regional and local development when involved agglomerations (*clusters*) of micro and small business (MSB) established in defined territorial bases. In fact, the collective processes of cooperation and learning that lead to the stimulation of innovative activities are considered essential for the survival of small enterprises, in an environment characterized by the rapid diffusion of new technologies, especially information and communication technologies and global competition. In such cases, the Government could assume a role catalyst and mediator, to facilitate cooperation, reduce asymmetries and promoting joint actions that can trigger a process of development of sustainable competitive advantages (Fernandes and Lima, 2006).

While there are strong arguments in favour of public promotion of the APLs, actions there is a recipe list for your design or guarantees on the results of its application. From Steindl (1990), co-operative action is seen as a key instrument for the promotion of agglomerations of small firms. This perspective is also taken by the authors linked to the concept of social capital, as his main symbol in Putnam (1996). However, should be aware that this approach has been widely criticized, not only by the unreality of their conclusions, according to Amin and Robins (1990), but by the practical problems of its recommendations, as shown by shipping and Londolt (1966):

> "... No one, however, has come with a reliable formula to produce social solidarity and confidence in communities that lack them, despite the fact that the appeals are heard from pulpits every Sunday".

There are risks and uncertainties associated with the success of this type of industrial policy. In fact, according to the ECLAC / DDPE (2006), in the second half of the nineties, eleven Latin American countries had set up various plans to stimulate the productive cooperation of small enterprises grouped spatially.

Different instruments, such as subsidies to finance the improvement of actions of companies, technical support for the promotion of linkages between the agents. Were used with special conditions of access to loans and tax incentives. Often, these initiatives have the support of international organizations, which now include in their programmes of economic items for this purpose. However, in many cases, these schemes have experienced problems resulting from political and administrative discontinuity of national and local governments and the lack of resources when it ended cooperation with international. We must remember, too, the risks are emphasized even more by not having methodologies to stimulate clusters that have been researched and tested in Latin America, as they corroborate Pietrobeli and Rabellotti (2005).

In general, the research in this field has been more descriptive, as Cassiolato *et al.* (2000) and has failed to promote a strengthened understanding of the factors contributing to boost the APL, or how these factors can be stimulated. With respect to the actions promoted by the authorities in the various countries of the region, various public bodies and beyond the public (supporting organizations) are involved in the implementation of such a policy. However, each organization usually uses its own methodology, even when she is in an embryonic stage.

With this framework in mind, the issue which is proposed in this paper can be formulated follows: what groups of dynamic actions can be considered successful and able to reproduce in order to obtain effective results? It is important to note that the wording of the question was the assumption that the performance of APL is distinct and that the differences may be explained

not only by pre-existing conditions on each of them, but also the types of measures taken by public organizations.

Micro and small business (MSB)

Companies are concerned about the identification of the needs of its customers, based on what produces services or products. The production of goods and services should be aligned to the needs of one in any group. Quality in the provision of services is more complicated to measure because it is intangible. Here the quality must be perceived by the customer. Slack *et al.* (1997) defined "quality is the conscious compliance with the expectations of the consumer." In accordance with Grönroos (1995), the quality is "what customers perceive." Kotler (1998) pointed out that the quality is related to the level of customer satisfaction, so customer satisfaction is a function of performance and expectation perceived.

Companies that provide services, as in the segment of services computing, the attention of the participants focused on the identification of the needs of its customers and tried to respond to them in the best possible way, making a differential attention. Have a material impact to the Group and perceived by customers, collaboration among participating automotive companies had to be firm and honest entrepreneurs, because according to the national SEBRAE (2008):

The majority of SMEs can not invest in this area, losing competitiveness over time. In this case, working together lowers costs to facilitate technological research, allowing small businesses to gain a competitive advantage. It is also a cooperative mode to increase operational efficiency.

The fact that the same segment companies are sharing their difficulties does not leave them weakened and more vulnerable in comparison to other companies. Even as competitors, entrepreneurs can see that many of the problems were common and that finding solutions together becomes easier when shared and discussed it.

Although isolated, small businesses have many difficulties to carry out their projects; through the cooperation, the advantages according to Amato Neto (1999) are:

➢ Combination of skills;

➢ Burden-sharing in relation to the realization of technological research;

➢ Sharing of risks and costs associated with the exploration of new opportunities;

➢ Offering a complete and diversified product line;

➢ Share resources, especially the underused by a given enterprise;

➢ The strengthening of the purchasing power;

➢ The force majeure for the competition in the international market;

➢ Strengthening the competitive capacity.

The cooperation between the companies will have a positive result to change the culture, what comes to be reinforced by Guimarães (1995), which says that "is necessary to not only change processes, in jointly, but also the people and the culture of the organisation". According to cut and Quintella (1994) "the internal processes of the organization need to be adapted to the behavior that charms the customers." Of car repair business culture change has been incorporated from top down, i.e., change came from owner towards their employees, so despite the difficulty, when ordered by the owner is more enjoyable. Awareness of these companies Association, on the other hand helps to reduce mortality of micro and small companies that, according to the Sebrae (2008), 75% of the MSB succum' in five years.

The clusters of competitiveness - the French experience

There are some explanations about the reasons that led the research team that choose the French model as a reference for this study. France is a member country of the OECD (Organisation for economic development and cooperation), traditionally been a participant in several studies that provide important theoretical constructs to support national policies / regional, production / disposal of various indicators of science and technology and innovation, that subsidize the studies currently in development. Another aspect relates to fruitful relationships established between Brazil and France, which has resulted in agreements for scientific and technical cooperation, allowing the research group a better access to French actors involved with issues relating to systems and environments of innovation in the context of public policy national / regional.

Should also be considered that the innovation law of Brazil (law Federal N° 10.973 on 02/12/2004) 2004, national framework for sustainable development, denotes a strong influence of the French law, namely Act No. 99 - 587 of innovation and research of France from 1999. Law establishes legal procedures of the public-private relationship, beyond creating mechanisms to promote technological innovation in the University field, which is divided into four sections dealing with: the mobility of researchers toward industry and companies; cooperation between Centre for research in the public sector and businesses; Marco general prosecutor for innovative companies; and for innovative companies' legal general framework.

The law of technological innovation in Brazil focuses on: the creation of an enabling environment for the strategic alliances between universities, technological institutes and industries; encourage the participation of the institutions of science and technology in the process of innovation; and the encouragement of innovation in the company. Comparison of the content of the French law indicates that it decisively influenced the design of law of technological innovation in Brazil, (Matthias-Pereira and Kuglianskas), 2005.

France adopts the model of development based on the polycentrism, i.e. the idea that a territory should be organized around various clusters. Therefore, the administrative bodies created more recently, in particular of the DATAR (*Délégation à l' aménagement du territoire et à l'action régionale)* created in 1963 are intended to reflect, promote and foster policies of State territorial planning.

Inter-ministerial nature is directly related to the Prime Minister? In December 2005, the date was replaced by decree by the DIACT - (*Délégation interministerielle à l' Aménagement et à compétitivité des territoires)*, giving more attention to the aspects of development of the competitiveness of the French regions which act as administrative and political guarantors of "waterfall development", (economic theory inspired by clusters of development of François Perroux), (Eurobrasil 2000 project 2006).

In fact, to develop innovative activities through the actors in the public and private initiatives approach the French Government creates, in the context of a new industrial policy in the year 2004, the competitiveness clusters, aiming to stimulate the French economy and increase the competitiveness of their firms (Darmon, 2006). The core of industrial policy launched in 2004 in France is anchored in the thesis of alignment of business, academic and technological actors established in the same territory or region, organized in *clusters,* that models are: supply of innovation (proximity promotes the circulation of information and knowledge, facilitate the creation of innovative projects); attractive source (attract companies that invest or are associated with companies in the region by creating an environment suitable and attractive, with high levels of international visibility); causes a decrease in the movement of the regions companies (business

competitiveness is related to the territorial favorable aspects taking into account the competencies and local productive associations / regional).

You can define the clusters of competitiveness as an instrument of public policy that aims to highlight the skills of public and private research units' centres of training and *expertise* of companies in a certain territory taking advantage of synergies and promoting collaborative work (Polo competitivo, 2008). As justifies this appointment? The structure of a pole of competitiveness is the articulation of the enterprises, the centres of training and research, public and private, involved in joint innovative projects in an area, focusing on regional economic development.

The key elements for the success of a pole of competitiveness consist of: establish a common strategy for the economic development consistent with the global strategy of the region to articulate strong partnerships between those involved in the projects / decision making; give priority to technologies to markets with high potential for growth (internationalization); create a critical mass to develop national and international visibility.

The expected results with the implementation and operation of the clusters of structures consist in the creation of wealth for the French regions and jobs, especially the qualified (to absorb the large number of young graduates in the country). The development of French competitiveness clusters is particularly influenced by the articulation of the level of industrial development of each region, its scientific and technological and innovation potential, as well as the importance of groups of companies that characterize.

The assumption is that the interaction between the actors is capable of promoting the development of innovative, technology-intensive activities since the physical proximity facilitates the transmission of knowledge and stimulate synergies, resulting in an increase of the efficiency and effectiveness of activities (Suzigan *et al.*, 2004, Audretsch and Thurik, 2001).

There are currently 71 clusters competitive, being seven classified as global clusters and ten as clusters of vocation with a reach across the globe, in France is to say, with a strong presence in foreign markets. The clusters are thematic and developed from sectoral areas, as an example we can mention the *Pole nucléaire Bourgogne* for the manufacture of components for nuclear power plants. The clusters are classified in: global Clusters, Clusters of vocation and regional.

Discussions about motivation for competitiveness initiatives

During the study of field made in France in 2006, the researcher pointed out that several actions were taken in the past to encourage the formation of *clusters* or other formal or informal, agglomeration of companies and organizations around the idea of the diffusion of knowledge and innovation as a stimulus to competitiveness and regional development.

There are discussions about the overlap of the policies and actions, especially in the case, taking into account the existence of mechanisms known in France as Local productive systems - SPL (very close to local groups in Brazil; it is important to consider, however, that in Brazil are different local productive arrangements and local systems of innovation concepts).

There is a debate in the country, among the main actors involved in these agreements, the effectiveness and efficiency of existing mechanisms, including the fact that there is possible overlap.

In the interest of this research, was conducted an analysis between the case of the competitiveness Clusters and the SPL, with some important conclusions follow. The SPL, the

French definition, is made up of groups /*clusters* of small and medium-sized enterprises, and institutions that are geographically close, collaborating, working in the same sector of activity, possessing its own legal structure. The SPL, in its creation, had its support policies coordinated by date and was made official in 1997 by an interministerial committee for planning and development of the regions.

Very close to what happens in the Brazilian reality, these agglomerates do not include research units which assist the development of synergistic innovative projects (common interest). Also in France, we can say that the SPL can integrate competitiveness as active clusters of these mechanisms. SPL, Clusters of competitiveness of small and medium-sized enterprises (concentration in geographically limited area) - competing and complementary.

Clusters of competitiveness analysis in France

To determine what would be the competitiveness Clusters to study in France, in the interest of research, previous studies were conducted in the municipality of Santos, identifying the main economic activities of the region and identifying information on the economic activities of French competitiveness clusters. These are: *Medicen - Paris Region*; *Aerospace Valley*; *Solutions Communicantes Securisees*; *Automobile Haut de Gamme*, of which the first three are classified as global Clusters and the fourth, as Regional vocation.

Funding

The total value assigned by the French State to the financing of the competitiveness clusters and their activities was set at a minimum of 1.5 billion euros in three years (2006-2008) distributed in the following way: single inter-ministerial Fund of the French State - 830 million; exemptions from taxes--$ 160 million; Organizations in funding - 520 million euros. The main financing will be used for research, development and innovation projects.

The part of tax exemption is reserved for companies that operate in the so-called "fields of research and development" of the pole and involved in one of the development research. Should be considered including the fact that many of the regions and communities also spend additional resources to the clusters that are in its territory. In addition, usually clusters, especially in case globas poles and vocation, participate in national research networks coordinated by the French Ministry of research and international networks, especially in the context of the European programmes.

Still in the context of the observation in this field of study, a discussion is carried out, taking into account the views raised various stakeholders that make up the Poles, universities and research centres, which is the question of overlapping structures and mechanisms, with similar aims in France?

Methodology

This research is based on a descriptive qualitative study with gathering information about the formation of a group of micro and small companies in the computer industry in the city of Santos, interior of the State of São Paulo, that in the pursuit of improving the quality of their services, increase of productivity, training, accepted the challenge of acting altogether in search of solutions to problems, and dodging difficulties to remain on the market with competitive advantages.

Theoretical-methodological model which was adopted in this research was qualitative in nature, as shown below. Was used to conduct this study, literature review and field, research opting for

an interview of research, which, according to Gaskell (2002), allows a deep knowledge of the motivations, attitudes, values and beliefs of the individuals under investigation.

This research is exploratory, and descriptive nature considered by Cervo and Bervian (1996) as *... the initial step in the research process by expertise and assistance that brings in the formulation of meaningful hypotheses for future research.*

Therefore, it is necessary to clarify that when choosing the methodology adopted in this work was observed in the definition of a descriptive research as classified the authors (Gil (2009), Malhotra (2001) e Marconi e Lakatos (2006).

The proposition is treated here as an unresolved issue, which becomes the object of discussion to obtain expertise in this area of knowledge and whose data were subjected to scientific analysis. This work through multiple case study aims to verify the questioning from a detailed analysis of the organizations considered in the research, and this is the most common situation, as Tachizawa (2008) which recommends this type of methodology used in this work: a case study approach.

Analysis and Results

Characterization of the study area - Santos and region

The city of Santos has a population of about 420,000 inhabitants- permanent residents, according to IBGE (2010). During holiday periods, hosting a number of over 150,000 people settling in the city. Figure 1 shows the map of the region and the location of the city and in table 1, the distribution of the population and GDP in the Santista region and the city of Santos.

Municipalities that comprise the region Santista, harbors on its territory branches and sectors of activities ' to the great São Paulo. Beaches are popular for residents of other regions of the State, the country and the world. In the port of Santos, the largest and most modern of Latin America, there are 37% of operations of products manufactured in the country. Other important industries are metallurgical areas of oil refining and treatment of derivatives. Driven by tourism, real estate and construction sector, also highlights, in addition, the commercial activities and services. Small, agricultural production is limited to the cultivation of banana.

With the exception of the areas directly linked to the local markets, the region's economic activities are strategic for the State and the country, important and are therefore vulnerable to political and economic changes set out. An example is the modernization of the port of Santos, necessary for increasing the competitiveness of Brazil: the privatization process used, had negative consequences on employment levels in the port of Santos and Guarujá, activities reflected in the commercial sectors and services. On the other hand, problems located - the pollution caused by the industry based in Cubatao, which had effects on the nearby Serra do Mar has served to create a negative perception regarding this type of activity.

Santos City has the largest port in the southern hemisphere, both in management and the charging infrastructure. Its area of influence covers the States of São Paulo, Minas Gerais, Goiás, Mato Grosso and Mato Grosso do Sul, an area that concentrates 50% of GDP and 48% in the Brazilian trade balance. The participation of the port of Santos, in the first half of 2006, the trade balance in Brazil was 25.9%. The same diagnosis indicates that the 2000 Saints, led by local government, program aims to modernize the port and has as main action PROAPS - lease program and partnerships, which increased the flow of power from 39.9 million tons / year in 1998 to 71 million tonnes / year in 2005, according to data from the "Companhia de docks of

the State of São Paulo" - CODESP. Are the main products exported at the port of Santos: oils of sugar, soybean, fuel oil, diesel and gas, juices and alcohol, while the main imports are: coal, fertilizer, sulfur, wheat and caustic soda. While the port exerts a strong presence in the development, the sector that employs and has establishments in Santos is the services sector, with 50% of the formal jobs, followed by trade sector.

Legal aspects

A possible form of technological park, as a totally private entity is a corporation. This type of enterprise objective benefits in this case, the Park is completely private and the State has not, in principle, participation. Nothing prevents to have some actions, but the State cannot be the controlling shareholder. If this happens, it would be another legal person: a mixed economy company. This type of company is a joint-stock company, subject to the same rules as others, but, as its main shareholder is the State, which is subject to other provisions in the law of corporations.

Technology parks can also be constituted as a Foundation, along with societies and associations, are three possible legal entities in the field of private law. However, the difference in the last two, which brings together the people, on the foundations there is a depersonalized, a purpose-oriented heritage. The model of the foundations has some advantages. The foundations do not suffer from political interference from the Government, what might happen if the Park was linked to the direct administration. In addition, it is possible to participate in tenders, such as the financing of studies and projects (FINEP), 2003, San Carlos Park was one of three winners. Foundations can also enjoy a number of exemptions and immunities.

The technological parks of São José dos Campos and Sorocaba is consisted from the beginning, as social organizations, 9.637 Act / 1998. El Parque Tecnológico Porto Digital in Recife, was initially established as OSCIP, but then change their shape to a social organization. Currently, the main income comes from these management contracts of parks municipalities in the case of São José and Sorocaba, and the Government of the State in the case of the Park of Recife.

Parks may be established as a social organization. They shall enjoy the same exemptions and tax immunities enjoyed by foundations and also, because organizations non-profit, which may participate in the bases of the calls for funding agencies. Stood by the director of the technological park of Sorocaba, the fact that these parks will constitute as a form of social organization also ensures the possibility of providing service to other municipalities, without relying on the authorization of the City Hall of Sorocaba. Cannot be ruled out, according to the head of the technological park of São José, who, as evolve things, the Town Hall and the technological park begin to distance himself and the Park begin to become more independent.

Therefore, if applicable, in the future, the Park can migrate the legal form from a social organization toward a still more private organization. OSCIP transforming into a social organisation, in the case of the Recife Park, was aimed precisely enable the Park to make management contracts. According to its director, the social organization-legal form would allow the Park Act in more areas than OSCIP, as well as the parliamentary resources, amendment which would not be possible in the case of the OSCIP. Although the form of social organization makes it impossible to perform certain financial transactions, several operations private fundraising can be maintained.

Model of cluster created in Santos

The organisation of the sector of information technology and communications (it & C) in the Santista region began in 2007. Of own entrepreneurs, with the formation of the Chamber of

information technologies and communications of the commercial Association of Santos (ACS) initiative. At that time, to strengthen the sector, government organizations and partners also lined in the formation of the Local productive arrangement of technology of information and communications of Saints (IT&C). Some companies also appeared with technological approach within the Santos business incubator.

Since 2009, the actions were consolidated every day. The project of strengthening of the sector IT&C in Santos, promoted by Sebrae-SP; provided autonomy to the Group today called Tech Santos, the creation of the Foundation for technology and knowledge of Santos (FTC-Santos), by the City Council, and the implementation of the technological park of Saints, Association of the private sector, City Hall and Government of São Paulo, show the importance of the sector of IT & C for scientific, economic and social of the region development. This group of entrepreneurs and businessmen attentive to new trends began to work to consolidate Santos as the "Region technology and knowledge". Therefore meet regularly to share experiences, draw goals and discuss the direction of the industry.

Initiatives such as the project of strengthening of the Sector it & C in the region Santista, promoted by SEBRAE-SP and the creation of the Foundation of technology and knowledge of Santos (FTC-Santos), by the City Council, reinforces the importance of the segment. The implementation of policies like these strengthens the company's shares and makes the sector more competitive, reducing to the minimum the barriers and improves outcomes.

In addition to the structuring of the chain TI & C, group projects will provide the creation of wealth and social inclusion in the region, contributing to the revitalization of cities and satisfy the demands of tourism, trade, services and basin of the port of Santos.

With the new perspectives offered by the pre-salt layer and the expansion of the port, the complex should bring together institutions interested in contributing to the development and technological innovation in the region. New businesses will be drawn and many of them will be established in the technology park. All this will help to consolidate the brand ", Baixada Santista - Region technology and knowledge" and to strengthen the regional production chain.

 The field of the technology of the information communication technology (ICT) in the region adds hundreds of companies, many of them small companies. However, a group of 24 companies, who have between 10 and 60 employees and have become leaders in their fields, joined and formed Showcase TI & C Santos and Region.

The programme intends to show the degree of maturity of the companies of the sector in Santos and persuade potential local customers to hire the own region. The group, with the support of SEBRAE and commercial Association of Santos and City Council, has developed a catalogue with detailed profile of each of the 24 companies that joined together. The Group also has a website: http://ticsr.com.br

The Guide, called Showcase TI & C Santos and Region is to consolidate the Association of entrepreneurs who believe and fight for this segment, which is essential for the development of the region. This project began to be considered in 2010, the meetings of the municipal Council of TI & C and came up with the need to disclose corporate information technology and communication in the region, in a unified way.

In order to protect the region of Santos as a national benchmark in technology, knowledge and innovation, the Show-Case is the realization of a dream that now becomes a reality. It is the first big step towards professionalization and strengthening of this sector, one of the most important for the local and global economy.

Institutions and actors involved

To get an idea of the main actors involved in participatory in Santos governance have well defined roles as explained by the Committee Executive of the arrangement productive Local technologies of information and communication in the project presented at the SEBRAE-Santos:

- The commercial Association of Santos plays the role of Executive Secretary of the APL, strategic and financial management, and also the coordination of the activities foreseen within the framework of participatory planning of APL.
- Local ICT companies have been organized in the State, creating a sectoral Chamber of ICT.
- The city of Santos, through the municipal secretariats of the Government and of planning exercises the function of coordination General of governance of the APL, appointed by the Advisory Board.
- SEBRAE-SP, responsible for the expenses involved in the program, which funded the planning of APL and the diagnosis of the local ICT industry.
- The Metropolitan Agency of the Region of Santista - AGEM, comprising the Secretariat of planning of the State of São Paulo, participates in the coordination of the policies of the project with the State Government.
- Federation and center of industries of the State of São Paulo - FIESP / CIESP provides the structure of your regional directory of Saints, periodically following the development of the project.
- Universities, training of skills and the preparation of the qualified labor to focus on productive activities necessary to promote the development of the Santos' Cluster.

Taking into account this broad alliance of participatory governance on November 13, 2008, in Santos, was presented to the agents of development and entrepreneurs of the region, "Diagnosis of the companies and the definition of actions for the implementation of APL in the Santos region", prepared by the core Softex of Campinas (State of São Paulo), at the request of the regional office of the SEBRAE of Santos. The objective of diagnosis was 'to assess the degree of maturity and characteristics of operation of companies of Saints and, based on the data collected, to define the actions to promote the development of these enterprises and make possible the implementation of cluster in the region of Santos'.

Allocation of common services

The strategy of creating a central purchasing is to make APL (see participating companies in annex 1), be more competitive, through purchases with volumes, thus reducing its service in order to stay in the market. Also share marketing and marketing activities. This includes the realization of fairs, conferences and national and international events, representing all companies

The software development and implementation of information technology

The APL of Saints it, already has a *Website*, but must develop it, so that it can present a complete institutional profile of APL, which must contain: economic data from the region Santista; space reserved for partners; social projects developed by the Group of APL and its public and private partners.

You must also have a news agency with information about the technological environment of the region, promoting integration with the society, the simplification of the concepts of the new

economy, providing the signature of a newsletter with information on the companies in the region.

Web Page it's a service channel for the population that frequents the area every day and for the employees of technology companies. Facilities like list of banks, restaurants, pharmacies, post offices, and cultural attractions must be within the reach of users. This type of instrument, beyond its efficiency and functionality, should be viewed as a priority in the Plan of development of the shared services center. Other possibilities of future paths in exchange of services can be inferred from an analysis of the Schedule 2.

Conclusions

We present a model of management in the network of shared information technology services. It is a proposal for the expanded analysis of the production line, which extends to suppliers, customers, competitors, and other institutions of the market.

The model made it possible that there were economies of scale in the implementation of the information technology, operational and strategic level where are located on a central computer-based services to meet the needs of the common organizations of the pole. (Your application allowed that the Organization could: to) concentrate efforts in activities closely related to the Mission of the Organization; (b) the structuring of the activities around processes to streamline the flow of information and decisions (between the internal systemic processes) and inter-organisational way (with suppliers, customers and external entities). Was then possible to identify the needs of the information technology directly related to the company's objectives and business strategies. Migrate the environment of functional structure for the environment of processes has allowed a reduced need for investment in information technology.

He was quantitative for a smaller number of information systems gain and, at the same time, occurred an optimization of qualitative profit for each systemic process as a result of which the rules of decision is internalized in every information system in order to streamline internal to each process connections and interfaces between the same systemic processes.

Although there are limitations, especially in relation to the information provided by the indicators of performance, is believed that article can make a significant contribution to groupings of activities of dynamic assessment. As specific results of the applied to these industries survey, it was found that the group in this sector:

1. Is directed primarily to the sphere of services, in particular for the integration and customization of solutions and operations on the model of factory software;
2. It has different historical sources but in general, result of concentrates of an institution; efforts are
3. Serves mainly domestically;
4. (are supported by a significant number of governmental institutions (curiously, the State Government is absent only in the governance of single APL not located in a capital city) that reinforces the impression of the concentration of the actions of State Governments in capitals),,SEBRAE and universities, present in all the clusters studied;
5. Is the most common practices to joint training and collaboration between companies for the development of products that are checked in all the four clusters investigated;
6. Has benefits from the actions of the public authorities to strengthen the sector, beyond fiscal incentives.

We found, however, that the most important contribution generated by the effort that gave rise to this work, goes beyond the specific analysis of its industry and is associated with difficulties observed in the application of conduct - performance model.

It is suggested that similar studies in other economic sectors are carried out since this study only focused on this sector in the context of corporate social responsibility. Other similar work which may develop in the future is the analyzis the environmental impact due to the current growth of the region.

The experience of Saints is set way pioneer in the region, a strategic alliance based on participatory governance making the local articulation of the different interests to promote sustainability, since the business acumen, and taking into account the performance partner-environmental integrated the economic performance of different agents and actors of development in Santos. Taking into account alliances between different actors, Santos must become a city with more technology and attractive for investors and entrepreneurs, features with the implementation of settlement productive Local (APL) of the information technology and communication. Governance participatory, in turn, strengthens a difference in the speed of the process, now that you decision making committed institutional as agents of local development actors integrated and sustainable, in a single round of commercial, as well as promote the democracy, participative and responsible, backdrop of the sustainability.

The Local productive arrangement should change the profile of the labour market in the region, which is the great challenge of participatory governance.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE: THE STUDY OF BRAZILIAN HOSPITALS

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Abstract

It is an experience report about the studies developed from 2010 to 2016 aimed to analyze the organizational culture (OC) of Brazilian hospitals. To data collection it was used the Brazilian Instrument for Assessment of Organizational Culture and another instruments. The results demonstrated that hospitals' cultures are characterized by rigid hierarchy, power centralization and a strong devaluation of individual requirements, although the nursing workers recognized collaboration at work and the improvement of some practices focused on interpersonal relationships sometimes. Besides, the OC of the hospitals are intimately related to the work organization model adopted by the institutions and the studies discussed the relation of OC and the quality of health care.

Introduction

Culture is a historical and social phenomenon, characterized by knowledge, ethics, morality, standards and norms that determine a group's behaviour and by the individuals' experiences, beliefs, values which can be learnt and transmitted from generation to generation (Helman, 2010).

Organizations are included in a social context and are considered micro societies. They interact with the context, influencing it and being influenced by it. They represent cultural, symbolic and imaginary systems and are composed by a structure of values and norms that can guide the behavior of its members (Schein, 2010).

Organizational culture (OC) represents a collective mind programming that determines the identity of the group, as well as the personality determines the identity of each individual (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). It results from the beliefs and values that guide the actions of workers at all levels of organizational structure (Jericó, Peres & Kurcgant, 2008).

According to Schein (2010, pp.17), *"the culture of a group can now be defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems".*

In this context, members' perceptions express shared beliefs and represent organizational values, which express the core of OC, the diverse dimensions of the institution. Thus, organizational values can guide the company's life and the daily behavior of workers, influencing the workplace and the functioning of organizations, determining common directions for workers (Azevedo et al, 2002; Tamayo, 2004).

According to Organizational Psychology, OC determines several dimensions of the institution, from the behavior of workers, managers and institution to the adopted management model and the work organization, the strategies and organizational goals. This way, the OC is related to different work-related aspects, such as pleasure and suffering, satisfaction and motivation, occupational stress, organizational effectiveness, quality of life at work (Carvalho et al 2013; Gerson et al, 2004; Santos, 2007).

Hofstede was one of the first authors to discuss the influence of national culture on the organizational culture. He conducted a quantitative study in 76 countries (including Brazil), analyzing the characteristics of the national values systems and the relation between them and the culture of organizations (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). After, studies on OC were intensified in the early 1980s with the recognition of the importance of the concept of culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

Method

It is a report about experiences developed by a research group (professors, graduate and undergraduate students) to analyze the OC of Brazilian hospitals.

The studies were developed from 2010 to 2015 and data were collected using the Brazilian Instrument for Assessment of Organizational Culture – IBACO (Ferreira et al, 2002) to analyze the nursing workers' perception about the OC.

Another scales and instruments were occasionally used to enlarge the scope of the studies like the adapted version of Resilience Scale (RS) (Pesce et al, 2005), the Scale of Pleasure and Suffering at Work (SPSW) (Pereira, 2003) and the adapted version of Safety Attitudes Questionnaire – SAQ (Carvalho & Cassiani, 2012).

IBACO was constructed based on Hofstede's theoretical model (Hofstede, 1990) and it was applied to nursing staff. It has seven dimensions of OC. Four dimensions are related to organizational values: cooperative professionalism values (CPV), rigid hierarchy values (RHV), competitive and individualistic values (CIV) and satisfaction and well-being values (WBV). The other three dimensions are related to organizational practices: external integration practices (EIP), reward and training practices (RTP) and interpersonal relationship promotion practices (RPP) (Ferreira et al, 2002).

CPV refer to the valorization of workers who have a team spirit and perform their tasks with professionalism. RVH are present in organizations with a vertical and rigid structure, in which there are centralization of decision-making process and power. CIV refer to priority of individual skills, performance and efficacy. WBV are concerned with the well-being and satisfaction at workplace (Ferreira et al, 2002).

EIP include planning and focus on external client. RTP reveal the company's reward and training system (salaries, awards, promotions, investment to qualify and update the worker's knowledge). RPP promote interpersonal relationships at work.

Regarding to the study sites, they were carried out in high and medium complexity hospitals, which represent public, private and philanthropic health services of São Paulo State.

Results and Discussion

Studies developed from 2010 to 2015

The first was a descriptive research developed in 2010-2011 at a public hospital of the state of São Paulo aimed to identify the values and practices which characterize the organizational culture according to the nurses (Carvalho et al, 2013). The sample was represented by 52 nurses. Based on the data collected through the application of the IBACO, values of cooperative professionalism are significantly applicable in the institution in the perception of 31 nurses (59.62%) and reasonably applicable for 19 nurses (36.54%); there is significant hierarchical rigidity and centralization of power according to 31 nurses (59.62%) and 18 nurses (34.62%) report that the values of hierarchical rigidity apply reasonably in the hospital; regarding values of individual professionalism and competition, 33 nurses (63.46%) believe that they apply reasonably in the hospital, and 19 nurses (36.54%) judge there to be little competition in the hospital; according to 35 nurses (67.31%), the workers' well-being and motivation are values applied reasonably in the institution, and 14 nurses (26.92%) believe that these values apply little in the hospital.

In relation to organizational practices, strategic planning and external integration are significantly applicable in the opinion of 41 nurses (78.85%); the workers' training and rewarding are reasonably applied practices in the opinion of the majority of the nurses (71.15%) and investments related to the promotion of interpersonal relationships and work satisfaction are practices which are reasonably applied in the perception of 31 nurses (59.62%) and significantly applied in the hospital for 20 nurses (38.46%).

As a conclusion, the hospital's culture is intimately related to the model of organization and management of the work, which furthers the fragmentation of the care and make it harder to work as a team and to develop interdisciplinarity, compromising the quality of the care.

The second was a descriptive study developed in a public hospital of São Paulo State to analyze the OC (Rocha et al, 2014). The sample was composed by 198 nurses and nursing technicians and auxiliaries. Data were collected from January to June 2011 using the IBACO. The analysis of the organizational values showed the existence of hierarchical rigidity and centralization of power within the institution, as well as individualism and competition, which hinders teamwork. The values concerning workers' well-being, satisfaction and motivation were not highly valued. In regard to organizational practices, the promotion of interpersonal relationship, continuous education, and rewarding practices were not valued either. It becomes apparent that traditional models of work organization support work practices and determine the organizational culture of the hospital.

According to the nurses, the results showed an average score of 3.06 for the values concerning cooperative professionalism; 3.22 for values related to hierarchical rigidity and the centralization of power; 2.27 for individualistic professionalism and competition at work; 2.32 for values related to wellbeing and the motivation of workers. In relation to organizational practices, we verified an average of 3.51 for external integration; 2.20 for rewarding and training practices, and 2.94 for practices related to the promotion of interpersonal relationships at the hospital.

The perceptions of nursing auxiliaries and technicians showed an average score of 2.64 for cooperative professionalism; 2.81 for hierarchical rigidity and the centralization of power; 2.19

for individualistic professionalism and competition at work; 2.13 for worker well-being and motivation. In relation to organizational practices, we verified an average of 3.44 for external integration practices, 1.87 for rewarding and training practices, and 2.57 for practices related to the promotion of interpersonal relationship within the organization.

The results provided evidences that traditional management models and principles of scientific organization of work, historically incorporated by health services, together, support work practices and determine organizational values at the hospital.

After, it was conducted a retrospective, analytical case-control study from 2011 to 2012 at a public hospital with the aim of analyzing the influence of the organizational values and practices on the occurrence of occupational accidents involving biological materials among nursing staff (Marziale et al, 2013). It was carried out in two steps. The first one involved the analyses of occupational accidents' characteristics (involving biological materials exposure) over a seven-year period recorded in the Network for the Prevention of Work Accidents (NPWA) databank. The second step represented the analyses of the organizational culture according to 122 nursing professionals, which were allocated into a control group (workers who had suffered accident) and a case group (workers who had never suffered accidents).

As results, 386 accidents had been recorded: percutaneous lesions (79% of the cases); needles (69.7% of the accidents); contact with blood (81.9% of the accidents). Regarding the influence of the organizational culture on the accidents occurrence, based on the responses of the control group, 2.59 was ascertained for values of cooperative professionalism; 2.90 for values related to hierarchical rigidity and the centralization of power; 2.14 for values of individual professionalism and competition at work; 2.12 for values related to workers' well-being and motivation. About organizational practices, 3.31 was ascertained for external integration; 1.91 for rewarding and training and 2.60 for practices related to promotion of interpersonal relationships in the hospital.

The perception of the case group (nursing workers who had suffered work accidents involving biological fluids) demonstrated the scores: cooperative professionalism 2.72; hierarchical rigidity and centralization of power 2.80; individual professionalism and competition at work 2.17; workers' well-being and motivation 2.13. About the organizational practices, 3.52 was ascertained for practices of external integration; 1.90 for rewarding and training and 2.59 for promoting interpersonal relations. Thus, there was no significant difference between the groups´ scores (and perceptions).

It is concluded that accidents involving exposure to biological material need to be avoided; however it was not possible to confirm the influence of organizational values or practices on workers' behaviour where the occurrence of these accidents is concerned.

In the same way, a cross-sectional study was developed to assess the values and practices that characterize the organizational culture of a private hospital of São Paulo State (Vegro et al, 2016). Data was collected in 2013 using the IBACO. Twenty-one nurses and sixty-two nursing technicians participated in the study. The results showed scores of values and practices: cooperative professionalism values (3.24); hierarchical rigidity (2.83); individual professionalism (2.69); well-being (2.71); external integration (3.73); reward and training (2.56); relationship promotion (2.83).

This way, the nursing workers recognized the existence of hierarchical rigidity in the hospital despite they claimed that there were cooperation and good interpersonal relationships at work.

Last month, a descriptive study conducted to analyze the OC of a psychiatric hospital and to identify the capacity of resilience of the nursing staff was accepted by a nursing journal to be published (Rocha et al, 2016). As the other times, the IBACO was used to identify the nursing workers' perception about the OC but it was used the Resilience Scale (RS) also to understand the workers' resilience at work. As results, participants reported power centralization and workers devaluation, while they recognized collaboration at work and practices aimed at improving interpersonal relations. Regarding resilience, 50% of workers had a high degree and 42.9% intermediate degree of resilience. The correlation tests revealed negative values between specific domains of IBACO and RS, indicating that the lower the valuation of individual skills, the greater the workers' resilience.

In development studies (Future Research)

Actually, a correlational study is being conducted in a Brazilian philanthropic hospital to analyze the relationship between organizational culture and pleasure and suffering at work among 214 nursing workers. To data collection, it is being used the IBACO and the Scale of Pleasure and Suffering at Work (SPSW). To data analysis, it was included descriptive statistics and correlation tests.

Although it was verified values of hierarchical rigidity, suggesting a traditional management model based on authority and centralization of decision-making processes adopted by the hospital, it being identified that positive values and practices such as cooperative professionalism, well-being, external integration and relationship promotion were related to increased pleasure and decreased suffering at work.

Since 2014, it is being developed two studies in order to identify the nursing workers' perception about the organizational climate related to the adoption of safety attitudes by public hospitals located at São Paulo State. In both cases, for data collection, it was used the translated and adapted version of the Safety Attitudes Questionnaire – SAQ to the Brazilian context. The results are shown that job satisfaction and perceived stress were domains that had higher scores in the opinion of nursing staff, revealing that nurses, technicians and nursing assistants felt pleased to be working in the hospital, although they identified factors that can generate stress in the workplace, which can compromise their physical and mental health.

Finally, a cross-cultural study to the adaptation and validation to Brazilian context (Portuguese) of the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument – OCAI (Cameron & Kim, 2011) is being carried out. The OCAI is one of the most important instruments worldwide.

Conclusion

These studies carried out since 2010 have allowed the analysis of the organizational culture of several Brazilian hospitals, providing important information for understanding the relationship between organizational values and workers' behavior, individual feelings at work, management and work organization models adopted by the institutions and the quality of health care.

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