This paper answers the call (Erickson and Ritter, 2001; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Martin, Knopoff and Beckman, 1998) for an increased emphasis on the study of emotionality – specifically emotional labour – beyond the traditional bounds of study established by such notable works as Hochschild (1979) and Erickson and Ritter (2001). From this perspective, I address the need to move beyond an examination of whether or not emotional labour exists, and toward an exploration of the relationship between the management of emotion and contextual sources of variation, which generate psychological effects – a gap in current knowledge identified by Erickson and Ritter (2001).

Traditionally, the common environment for the study of emotional labour has been that found among front line service employees; frequently flight attendants, fast food workers or theme park hosts. In addition, Erickson and Ritter (2001) suggest that previous studies of emotional labour have too often focused on the interaction between the performance of emotional labour and personal well-being. In this paper, the focal level of analysis addressed is that of the individual, and his or her perceptions and interactions among other individuals within socially constructed groups (functional, social, operational, etc.). In addition, the impact of the social environment within a group on the individual’s expression of emotion, regardless of whether the expression is implicit or explicit is of special relevance. Derived from the work of Edmondson (1999), I introduce the idea of an individual’s perception of psychological safety as having a primary influence on an individual group member’s decision to reveal or hide his or her expression of emotion.

Organizational life is becoming increasingly interdependent, frequently demanding that individuals interact with others, often simultaneously working in concert within a number of groups, to coordinate resources and achieve organizationally determined outcomes. As this degree of task interdependence increases, so too does the frequency of interpersonal contact. It is in this environment that the need for greater understanding of the effects of emotional expression and psychological safety can be recognized. Throughout the course of this paper, I will outline the development of a conceptual model aimed at extending an understanding of the relational linkage between a number of core constructs including context norms, content norms, individual emotional response and individual well-being. Central to the development of this model are the
individual’s perception of group climate in terms of two primary dimensions: psychological safety; and acceptance of emotional expression. Elaboration on the relationship between these two elements will be offered in the form of a two-by-two matrix, created with the intent of generating predictions of individual emotional responses to a given group climate. Finally, in undertaking this work I aim to contribute to the current state of understanding regarding the importance of - as well as the linkage between - the concepts of workplace emotionality, individual authenticity and individual well-being.
DETERMINANTS OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION STYLE: COGNITIVE, CONTEXTUAL AND EMOTIONAL INFLUENCES

This paper explores the role of emotions in the conflict process through the general hypothesis that emotions mediate the relationships between antecedent factors and conflict resolution strategies. We developed a scale of conflict relevant emotions organized along the two dimensions of the extent to which the emotion stressed the self versus other as subject, and the behavioral tendency of approach or withdrawal. This scale yielded the four emotion constructs of relational positivity, hostility, self-consciousness and fear, which are theorized to predict cooperative, domineering or avoidant conflict resolution styles respectively.

A total of 143 part-time MBA students participated in the study. Overall, the survey measured attributions of blame, concerns for own or the other’s interests, the central issue of the conflict, the status of the other party, emotions experienced during conflict and conflict resolution styles. An overview of the data presents two potentially incompatible profiles, one emotional profile that is self-serving and hostile, and the other a behavioral profile of cooperative resolution styles that demonstrate a positive, constructive concern for the other party and, possibly, the relationship between them. A series of hypothesis testing revealed the following findings in regard to the relationship between cognitive assessments / contextual factors and emotions and resolution styles. 1) Blaming oneself for the conflict significantly and positively predicted for self-conscious emotions and a yielding style; while blaming the other party was significantly and positively related to hostility but not to a domineering style; 2) Concern for the other’s interests positively predicted for relational positivity. However, no significant relationships emerged between concern over own or other’s interests and conflict resolution styles; 3) In terms of conflict issue, a yielding style was less likely for interpersonal or “interpersonal” conflicts than “substantive” conflicts; and 4) Lower status negatively influenced the use of domineering resolution style. However, no systematic relationship was found between emotions and resolution styles except for the positive relationship between positive relational emotions and cooperative styles.

Thus, while many of the hypothesized relationships are significant, none of the paths necessary for mediation are complete. Therefore, the preconditions for tests of mediation were not established. One possible reason for the non-findings of the omnibus mediation test could be that managers and professionals respond and behave according to social relational and professional norms regarding the expression of emotions, even during conflict. Alternatively, people in
conflict interactions could strategically mask or express emotions that they do not actually feel, in order to manipulate the other party.

We note that conflict is characterized by a joint interdependency between the parties. While beyond the scope of the present research, a more complete understanding of emotions in conflict would require dyadic investigation of expression and response.
SOCIALIZATION VIA EMOTION: EFFECTS OF SOCIALIZATION TACTICS ON NEWCOMERS’ EMOTIONS AND ADJUSTMENT

Organizational socialization is the process through which new members learn the beliefs, values, attitudes, and behaviours necessary to fulfill their new roles and function effectively in organizations. Various socialization programs and practices such as orientation programs, entry training, socialization tactics, as well as newcomer proactive behaviour influence newcomers’ attitudes, role orientation, performance, and turnover intentions (Saks & Ashforth, 1997a). Jones (1986) argued that socialization tactics can be conceptualized as three broad factors. Context socialization tactics have to do with the way in which organizations provide information to newcomers and includes the collective-individual and formal-informal dimensions. Content tactics have to do with the content of the information given to newcomers and includes the sequential-random and fixed-variable tactics. Social tactics have to do with the social and interpersonal aspects of socialization and includes the serial-disjunctive and investiture-divestiture tactics.

Although associations between socialization tactics and adjustment are well-supported, the precise mechanisms underlying the observed associations have not been precisely identified and have been seldom studied. In this study, we propose that emotions are an important mechanism that explains the relationship between socialization tactics and newcomer adjustment (Ashforth and Saks, 2002). We focus on two emotions, one positive and one negative, that newcomers are likely to experience: happiness and fear. We predicted that context-, content-, and social-focused socialization tactics would be a) positively related to happiness and b) negatively related to fear. We also predicted that happiness would be positively related and fear would be negatively related to adjustment. Finally, we predicted that the emotions would mediate associations between socialization tactics and adjustment.

The 81 participants were university students who were invited to participate in a study on new job entrants through advertisements posted on the campus of a large urban university. We collected data in two waves. The Time 1 session occurred midway through participants’ last year of school. Positive and negative affectivity questionnaire were assessed at Time 1. Beginning at the end of the school year and for eight months, we maintained contact with the participants to find out if they had successfully obtained full-time employment and if so, their start date. The second wave of data collection (Time 2) consisted of asking participants to complete questionnaires about the socialization tactics employed by their organization, the emotions they felt in their job, and their adjustment to the job, four months after they started employment. There
were four indicators of adjustment: job satisfaction, intention to quit, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour.

The results indicated that the socialization tactics were significantly related to newcomers’ happiness and fear four months after entry even with positive and negative affectivity controlled. Happiness was related to all of the measures of adjustment, but fear was only related to job satisfaction. Furthermore, emotions mediated the relationship between the socialization tactics and three indicators of adjustment: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit.
AN EXAMINATION OF DISPOSITIONAL AND SOCIAL INFLUENCES ON THE JOB-LIFE SATISFACTION RELATIONSHIP

The relationship between satisfaction at work and home has been the subject of much research attention. Until relatively recently, personality traits and emotions have not been included in job-life satisfaction studies. This study asserts that at the core of the original constructs, was the essence of how happy a person was at work and in their life. We elaborate on traditional approaches to the job-life satisfaction relationship by incorporating measures of personality and emotions as indicators of happiness in both domains. This paper presents empirical data, from an experience sampling study with 147 executives, to support the notion of examining happiness from a dispositional perspective, by incorporating both personality (top-down) and social (bottom-up) influences on levels of happiness in both domains, over time.

The relationship between job and life satisfaction (JLS) has a rich research history, as attitudes in one domain of life intuitively should affect similar attitudes in superordinate domains. Empirical evidence has supported a reciprocal positive relationship between job and life satisfaction (see Judge & Watanabe, 1993). More recent inquiry, however, has found the relationship to be more complex than originally depicted, with personality and trait affectivity playing a confounding role (Heller, Judge & Watson, 2002).

This paper aims to: 1) Question the underlying theoretical foundation and the traditional approach to studying the JLS relationship, and 2) Using experience sampling methodology (ESM) data, offer alternative methods for conceptualizing and measuring happiness in work and life domains. We propose that at the core of both job and life satisfaction constructs is the desire to measure the degree of contentment, or happiness with work.

Emotion states and personality traits were found to be valuable gateways through which to expand upon traditional notions of the JLS relationship. Specifically, personality (extraversion and neuroticism) predicted emotional experience in both work and home domains. Moreover, these emotions could be clustered into positive and negative categories creating an affect-based measure that was found to have the strongest correlation across work and life domains. In concert with findings regarding the importance of (bottom-up) quality interactions with significant others in work and home life, the JLS relationship was reframed to include the psychological processes that underlie our evaluative judgments of happiness.
Les dirigeants sont préoccupés par le développement des capacités stratégiques de leurs managers intermédiaires, tant ils attendent de ce management qu’il participe désormais à de nouveaux modes de coordination à propos de la stratégie. Mais, pourquoi, alors que des conditions favorables semblent réunies pour des innovations en matière de développement managérial, les actions la plupart du temps mises en œuvre, ne font souvent que reproduire des modèles d’apprentissage en retrait par rapport aux besoins confusément exprimés par les dirigeants et aux premières esquisses d’action pourtant dessinées par eux ? Pourquoi, alors que de nombreux auteurs ont développé une approche très critique concernant les actions de développement managérial et que l’offre d’assistance et de prestation existante a su en tirer matière à réflexion, les actions finalement proposées et retenues demeurent-elles toujours aussi « scolaires » et stéréotypées et n’utilisant pas des modèles d’apprentissage pourtant reconnus ?

Nous tentons de répondre à ces questions en nous basant sur une enquête dans huit grands groupes industriels et de service d’origine française. Nous analysons les logiques d’action des responsables du développement managérial. La notion de champ organisationnel, concept clé de la théorie néo-institutionnaliste, nous permet de mieux comprendre les mécanismes de l’action collective impactant la construction des propositions faites au titre du développement managérial. Nous avons ainsi dégagé quatre « organisations » principales que nous désignons de la façon suivante : Service Formation ; Politique Managériale, département d’une DRH Groupe ; Université d’Entreprise ou Institut du Management ; Task Force Transformation Managériale. Une incompréhension sur les formes et les contenus de la transformation organisationnelle et managériale tient, en premier lieu, selon nous et ce sera notre principale hypothèse, à l’éloignement de certains acteurs vis-à-vis des nouveaux enjeux de la coordination stratégique. Les acteurs fonctionnels peinent à y trouver leur place et, se faisant, développent des politiques en décalage avec les enjeux de la transformation.
LE COURAGE MANAGÉRIAL
EXPLORATION ET CONFESSION

L’ambiguïté et le risque sont inhérents à la prise de décision stratégique qui repose sur une vision du futur. Ajoutant à la difficulté, les développements constants en technologie de l’information induisent des changements rapides et répétitifs, une compétitivité exacerbée et une complexité grandissante au sein même des entreprises et des marchés. Or, si ce contexte a fait en sorte que les approches et les thèmes se sont diversifiés dans les études sur la prise de décision stratégique, les chercheurs hésitent encore à aborder le domaine des vertus, dont les grands philosophes de l’antiquité disaient que les hommes de décision, et les femmes ajouterions-nous, devaient être investis. Qualifié de vertu exécutive, le courage managérial serait de celles-là. Mais l’est-il vraiment?

La littérature en philosophie, en psychologie et en management nous présente le courage comme un concept polysémique qui repose sur des prémises fondamentalement différentes selon la discipline à laquelle est rattaché le chercheur. Chez les philosophes, le courage est abordé par la lunette de la théorie éthique et de la théorie du raisonnement pratique. Il doit donc s’inscrire dans un contexte moral et être issu d’un raisonnement, c’est-à-dire être une décision morale. C’est d’ailleurs dans cette perspective que s’inscrivent les auteurs en sciences administratives. Les psychologues quant à eux font fi du contexte et définissent le courage directement par la peur. Il résulte de cette divergence que l’aspect moral et éthique du courage est, sauf exception, occulté des études présentées par les psychologues. Le courage devient ici une capacité à contrôler sa peur. C’est pourquoi les psychologues ont étudié les caractéristiques personnelles qui permettent de contrôler la peur et d’être courageux. Notons également que les consultants en management conçoivent le courage managérial comme un élément important du leadership. Comme ces études sont pour la plupart théoriques ou expérimentales, nous avons voulu cerner comment se campe la conception d’un acteur d’une décision stratégique risquée sur le courage managérial, par rapport aux conceptions que nous retrouvons dans la littérature.

Exploratoire et préliminaire à un projet de plus grande envergure, notre recherche a permis de jeter les bases d’une compréhension du courage en contexte de gestion qui repose sur des données empiriques. Abordant le courage par une approche subjectiviste et un ancrage théorique cognitiviste, nous avons saisi la représentation mentale que s’en fait un haut gestionnaire. La conception de notre sujet, illustrée par une carte cognitive issue de trois entrevues, s’inscrit dans les perspectives amenées dans la littérature et par les consultants en management, c’est-à-dire : Le raisonnement pratique et éthique des philosophes; les traits de la personne des psychologues ; et le leadership des consultants en management. Nous proposons dans la discussion que les études ultérieures explorent le courage managérial : (1) dans différentes
situations de risque tant en termes de contexte que d’intensité; (2) que le design de recherche offre la possibilité d’explorer l’ensemble de la structure cognitive, c’est-à-dire la catégorisation, les facteurs déterminants, la manifestation et les conséquences; (3) et finalement que la conception des acteurs soit confrontée à la conception des acteurs secondaires de la décision stratégique risquée, ceux qui « observent » le courage managérial.
LE GESTIONNAIRE D’UNE FIRME-RÉSEAU :
CONCEPT ET APPLICATION

La firme-réseau apparaît comme une des nouvelles formes d’organisation adaptée au contexte concurrentiel qui s’intensifie. Une telle organisation semble être soutenue par différents types de gestionnaires. Qui sont-ils et quels rôles jouent-ils? Telles sont les questions discutées dans cette étude. Ainsi, la présente étude a pour objectif de chercher à comprendre les acteurs gestionnaires d’une firme-réseau et les rôles qu’ils jouent dans la mise en marche de celle-ci. L’intérêt de cette étude est de compléter la faible quantité de recherches traitant de la dimension « gestionnaire d’une firme-réseau » d’autant plus que le succès d’une organisation-réseau dépend non seulement de la qualité des partenaires, mais celle de ses gestionnaires. Cet état carentiel des connaissances amène principalement à inscrire la présente étude dans un cadre exploratoire. Ainsi, cette étude cherche à comprendre les faits associés à l’analyse de gestionnaire d’une firme-réseau. La stratégie d’investigation choisie pour ce faire est la recherche de contenu pour décrire en raison de son adéquation au cadre exploratoire en vue de comprendre. La poursuite d’une telle méthodologie appliquée au cas de la firme-réseau Bombardier Produits récréatifs a permis de noter qu’il peut y avoir deux types de gestionnaire d’une firme-réseau : le pivot et l’intermédiaire. Le pivot agit comme gestionnaire principal d’une organisation-réseau et peut être soutenu par un gestionnaire intermédiaire. Tous les deux peuvent, en complémentarité ou en substitution, jouer les rôles de concepteur, de coordonnateur et de facilitateur. Ils peuvent favoriser certains rôles. Mais, ils n’excluront en aucun cas l’exercice simultané d’autres rôles.
A MULTIDIMENSIONAL MODEL OF SITUATION STRENGTH AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO ORGANIZATIONAL ATTACHMENT

This study investigates the dimensionality of situation strength. Although the original concept of situation strength was formulated as having multiple and distinct dimensions (Mischel, 1968; 1977), tests of the situation strength hypothesis in organizational settings have tended to adopt much narrower definitions of the concept and used a variety of proxy measures (for a recent review of this literature, see Withey, Gellatly & Annett, 2005).

The study also investigates the effects of situation strength on organizational attachment. We hypothesize that the relative strength or weakness of a social context or situation will convey to members the lack or presence of trust, which will, in turn, affect organizational commitment and turnover intentions.

Data were collected in a survey of alumni from an undergraduate business program at a Canadian university. The results indicate that, contrary to the premise of research involving the construct, situation strength is multidimensional. The results also indicate that that situation strength is associated with organizational commitment and turnover intentions and that these associations are mediated by trust.

Three conclusions can be drawn from these results. First, the fact that the pattern of results is different for each of the dimensions of situation strength indicates that they are indeed separate and have varying effects. This would not be expected if situation strength were one-dimensional. Second, with the exception of the control dimension, which has opposite associations, situation strength is positively associated with the desirable outcomes affective commitment, normative commitment and trust and negatively associated with turnover intentions. And third, the results indicate that trust acts as a mediator between situation strength and organizational attachment. Each of these three results fills a gap in the organizational literature. In spite of some methodological limitations, such as the reliance on cross sectional data measured at only one point of time and the use, in some cases, of single-item measures, we believe that these conclusions shed some important light on situation strength and suggest some useful avenues for future research.
INDIRECT INFLUENCE THROUGH ORGANIZATIONAL AND RELATIONAL STRUCTURES: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Influence strategies utilized by a source actor generate behaviours in the intended target actor generally through compliance or internalization. There are many practitioner examples of influence strategies that use compliance or direct control methods. These methods include: the application of coercive power (Kohli 1989, Frazier & Rody, 1991) or the direct monitoring of employees, both by observational and surreptitious methods (ie. mystery shopping – Wilson, 2001). Although effective, these blunt influence strategies that force compliance may lead to employee resentment as employees may view the use of these methods as a signal of mistrust from their employers (Wilson 2001). Therefore, influence strategies that allow employees to internalize firm rules rather than simply force their compliance are more effective at shaping employee behaviour since removal of direct supervision will still result in the target actor’s continuous conformity to firm rules. Also, given that we live in a knowledge-based economy within a free-agent nation, it is becoming increasingly difficult to “require” certain behaviours in the work environment. Thus, influence strategies that foster the internalization of firm rules are increasingly becoming more relevant since employees that internalize firm rules require less direct supervision in the performance of their tasks; they become perpetual self-motivators.

The aim of our study is to explicate the internalization process. In this paper, we draw from institutional theory to define the internalization process in terms of legitimation and we offer a comprehensive framework of antecedents and consequences of this process. Institutional theory is also invoked to highlight the limited effectiveness of economic incentives on the legitimation/internalization process. We also offer moderators of the antecedents of internalization in the form of the “Big Five” personality traits.

Managerial implications include the observation that the indirect control methods, although more complicated to manage, may be used by employers to properly motivate and effectively control their employees. These indirect methods or indirect influence strategies allow the employees to accept firm rules and policies without management resorting to using coercive or surreptitious means in order to enforce them.
TRICKSTERS: NECESSARY FOILS TO LEADERS?

Excessively strong leaders frequently cause adverse organizational outcomes. We argue such situations require an emphasis on different worldviews and individualism rather than homogenous values provided by strong leadership. Using the metaphor of the trickster—a role found in mythology—we suggest that challenging leader values and restoring individualism is the major function of such beings.
Using an occupationally diverse sample, we examined the combined effects of self-reported job stress and job scope on independently measured job performance, creativity, and citizenship behaviors. Results revealed that the negative effects of job stress on creativity and citizenship behaviors were stronger when job scope was high. Although both job stress and job scope had a direct linear relationship with job performance, an expected interaction effect was not observed.

11 This research was supported by grant 410-2003-1014 from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada and a grant from the International Council for Canadian Studies. The authors wish to thank Ishrat Khan for her help in editing and formatting this paper.
ADOPTION AND FAILURE OF BEST PRACTICES:  
A DECISION-MAKING ANALYSIS

Adoption of and failure of best practices is examined from the perspective of various decision-making heuristics including anchoring, representativeness, framing, status quo and others. Suggestions for both future research and improving adoption decisions are offered.

Summary

Much has been written about best practices, innovations and benchmarking. A small amount of recent research (Johns, 1993; Rogers, 1995; Pfeffer and Sutton, 2000; and Rynes, Colbert & Brown, 2002) suggests that managers and their organizations have not done a good job adopting best practices and innovations. Some of their explanations such as lack of awareness and knowledge of innovations, risk aversion, political issues and others appear similar to the stages of innovation diffusion in Rogers’ (1995) model. On the other hand, it is clear that many organizations attempt some best practices, some innovations and engage in benchmarking. This paper has proposed one avenue of explanation for why managers adopt innovations. Harrington (2004) and Ledford, Lawler and Mohrman (1988) offer some evidence that not all best practice implementations have been successful. This paper has also presented some explanations for the innovation failure.

Best practices and innovations were examined from the perspective of problem solving and decision-making. It was suggested that managers often fall prey to several decision-making biases when considering adoption of a best practice. The effects of anchoring, framing, confirmatory bias, availability bias, overconfidence, representativeness and sunk costs on managers’ decisions to adopt best practices and innovations were discussed.
STRESS, BURNOUT, AND COPING:
COMPARISON OF MANAGERS TO OTHER PROFESSIONS

This study examined work outcomes among managers, teachers, and physicians. In a large-scale study, discriminant analyses revealed that managers experienced significantly higher burnout, sleep difficulties, job dissatisfaction, and intention to quit than teachers and physicians. Differences in positive and maladaptive coping were also found. Implications of the results are discussed.
CITOYENNETE D’ENTREPRISE ET ENGAGEMENT ORGANISATIONNEL :
REPERAGE DES LIENS

L’article se propose d’examiner la relation entre la citoyenneté d’entreprise et l’engagement organisationnel des salariés. Après une revue de littérature relative aux deux concepts, nous discuterons et commenterons les résultats ainsi que les implications de notre étude qui repose sur les données d’une enquête effectuée par questionnaire.
THE IMPACT OF EMPOWERMENT ON WORK ENGAGEMENT
AND PHYSICAL AND MENTAL HEALTH

We tested a theoretical model which specified the relationships among structural empowerment, six areas of work life that promote employee engagement, and physical and mental health. A predictive, non-experimental design was used to test the model in a random sample of 285 nurses. Structural equation modeling analyses revealed a good fit to the hypothesized model, and supported our model linking Kanter’s theory of organizational empowerment to Maslach & Leiter’s work engagement model.
EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT: A NEW CONSTRUCT OR OLD WINE IN A NEW BOTTLE?

In recent years, there has been a great deal of interest in employee engagement. In fact, employee engagement has been touted as the key to organizational success. For example, a recent report on hot HR issues for the next two years published by the Conference Board of Canada, states that the “quality of people and their engagement will be critical factors in corporate vitality and survival.” The findings from the sixth annual survey of the 50 Best Employers in Canada found that top employers have employees who are significantly more engaged than those in other organizations. The same report also notes that there is a connection between high employee engagement and organizational results. However, much of what has been written about employee engagement comes from the practitioner literature and consulting firms. There is a dearth of research and writings on employee engagement in the academic literature. The purpose of this paper is to propose a model of employee engagement and to provide some empirical results of the antecedents and consequences of employee engagement.

At the core of the model are two types of employee engagement: job engagement and organization engagement. This follows from the conceptualization of engagement as role related; that is, it reflects the extent to which an individual psychologically puts themselves into a role. The two most dominant roles for all employees are their work role and their role as a member of an organization. The antecedents of engagement include job characteristics, rewards and recognition, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisor support, and perceptions of procedural and distributive justice. The consequences include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to quit, and organizational citizenship behaviour.

Based on a sample of 102 employees working in a variety of jobs and organizations, the results indicated that although job and organization engagement are moderately related, participants had significantly higher scores on job engagement than organization engagement. The results also indicated that job characteristics and perceived organizational support predicted job engagement, and perceived organizational support and procedural justice perceptions predicted organization engagement. Job and organization engagement were both significantly related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit, however, only organization engagement predicted organizational citizenship behaviour. In addition, job and organization engagement were found to mediate the relationships between the antecedents and consequences.
The results of this study suggest that employee engagement is a unique construct that is influenced by a number of work conditions and has implications for employees’ job attitudes, intentions, and behaviour.
REACTIONS TO INJUSTICE:
A MEASURE DEVELOPMENT STUDY

Current research on injustice has tended to focus on its relation to negative behaviours such as vandalism, absenteeism and sabotage. Yet, our review of the literature suggests that this focus is too narrow. The purpose of our study, therefore, was: (a) to develop a conceptual framework of reactions to injustice which recognizes that such reactions cover a wider range of responses than has been previously considered and (b) to create a reliable measure of these reactions. Our proposed typology categorizes reactions to injustice along two dimensions -- a positive-negative dimension and a cognitive-behavioural dimension. Positive responses are defined as reactions to injustice that benefit the organization, whereas negative responses are defined as reactions to injustice that are harmful to the organization. Behavioral reactions to injustice are behaviors that are observable by others whereas cognitive reactions are thoughts and as such are not directly observable. These two dimensions can be combined to form four quadrants. Thus, the behavioral/positive quadrant (labelled constructive), represents actions taken by employees in response to perceived unfairness that are beneficial to the organization. The cognitive/positive quadrant (labelled supportive) entails cognitions or thoughts that are beneficial for the organization. The behavioral/negative quadrant (labelled destructive), where much of the research on reactions to injustice has been conducted, entails actions taken by employees in response to perceived unfairness that are detrimental to the organization, such as theft. In the final quadrant (cognitive/negative labelled disengagement), people respond to injustice with thoughts that are detrimental to the organization such as liking their job less.

To test this typology, we started with an initial pool of 288 items and gave it to four subject-matter experts. Only items that raters agreed matched the theoretical definitions were retained. Using snowball sampling, we then emailed the remaining 32 items to a diverse sample of employees, and asked them to rate how likely they would be to engage in the activity described by the item and to fill out a measure of social desirability. Two-hundred and ninety three people provided surveys. We then examined each item of the reactions to injustice measure and rejected those items with extreme means, low variability, and low item-total correlations. Items that correlated with social desirability were also rejected. The items that remained were then subjected to a confirmatory factor analyses. We tested a one-, two- and four-factor model. We expected and found that the only model that had a good fit to the data was the four-factor model. Unlike the other models, the GFI, AGFI, TLI, and the CFI for the four-factor model exceeded .90 level and the RMSEA was below .05 as recommended. Although further validation is necessary, this study provides promising evidence for a four-factor model of reactions to injustice.
International management and cross-cultural negotiation can improve if we recognize that people from various cultures bring with them a set of attributes that need addressing for desired negotiation outcomes to be attained. There has been very little negotiation research carried out in Canada or specifically on the multicultural aspects of the Canadian population. This study examines cultural affects and trust on negotiation behaviours and outcomes. The effect of negotiation knowledge and training on behaviours and outcomes is also examined.

Problem solving or cooperative behaviours can be viewed as one where both parties collaborate with each other, sharing information to reach a more integrative outcome. Contending, yielding and avoiding are all less cooperative strategies where less information would get shared. This competitive behaviour would lead to less integrative and more distributive outcomes.

Cultural differences may affect negotiation behaviours and outcomes. Individualists whose focus is on personal gains would only cooperate if in their best interests to do so and if they could not reach similar gains by working alone. Collectivists, however, would strive to better group performance and well being disregarding their own personal gains. There is also ample evidence for negotiating experience mediating the integrativeness of a negotiation outcome.

Thirty-three (25 female and 8 male) students enrolled in an undergraduate Negotiations class (trained group) and 104 (41 male and 60 female, 3 missing values) undergraduate volunteers (untrained groups) recruited through an Organizational Behaviour class subject pool participated in this study. Students completed a survey before and after participating in one of three dyadic negotiation exercises.

Trained negotiators were less competitive, more cooperative and reached more integrative outcomes than collective negotiators. Collectivist negotiators reached more integrative outcomes than individualist negotiators.
AN EXPLORATION OF THE DOMAINS OF WORK INSECURITY

This study explores insecurity about four types of involuntary work transitions. These are referred to as domain insecurities and include job facet insecurity, job loss insecurity, occupation insecurity and employment insecurity. The primary purpose was to distinguish these insecurities conceptually and demonstrate their independence empirically. The secondary purpose was to explore the nomological network about the domain insecurities. Data were collected via snowballing. Correlation analysis confirmed that the domain insecurities are distinguishable from one another. Regression analysis identified general and domain-specific antecedents of the insecurities. As well, it identified general and domain-specific strategies that people use to cope with the insecurities. In summary, the key findings are noted and implications for research and practice are offered.
SUMMARY

The goal of the present studies was to examine the relation between organizational commitment and work motivation. We chose a theory of motivation that bears many similarities in its conceptualization of motives with the conceptualizations of organizational commitment offered by the two theories discussed above. Moreover, it allows us to examine how different forms of organizational commitment develop. Self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) proposes the concept of internalization to understand how work motives develop, and consequently, we propose and test whether the different forms of organizational commitment will emerge from such motives. Recently, Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe (2004), and Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) have proposed that organizational commitment is actually a component of work motivation, an argument that follows naturally from their definition of commitment, which asserts that the target of commitment can be both an entity and the outcome of a course of action (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). It seems important to us to keep differentiated definitions of motivation and commitment by treating them as constructs with different targets. We propose that the target of commitment is an entity (e.g., organization, person), whereas the target of motivation is a course of action (i.e., task, activity, behavior). Meyer and colleagues (2004) also proposed that the different forms of motivation within the SDT framework, and the three forms of commitment in their model, both fall along a continuum of increasing internalization going from externally driven to internally regulated motivation and commitment. We similarly argue that there is considerable conceptual overlap between types of motivation and types of commitment. Affective commitment represents a desire to follow a course of action (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001), and so do both intrinsic and identified motivation. Normative commitment represents an internalized feeling of obligation, and so does introjection. Continuance commitment represents a focus on pressure by the calculation of costs associated with failure to follow a course of action, which is similar to externally regulated motivation. Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) also proposed that affective commitment emerges when personal and situational factors lead to intrinsic motivation, identification and value internalization, that normative commitment emerges through
adherence to norms and feeling the need to reciprocate when the organization provides benefits, and that continuance commitment emerges when people could lose investments and lack alternatives. We therefore examined whether parallel forms of motivation and commitment share the same antecedents and consequences, and whether there is mediation between the constructs.

We found general support through three field studies that affective commitment is strongly and positively associated with autonomous forms of motivation, that normative commitment is strongly and positively associated with introjection, and that continuance commitment is more strongly associated with controlled forms of motivation, sometimes with external regulation, sometimes with introjection. Normative and continuance commitment are differentially associated with motivation, and so are instrumental and integrative commitment. However, the jury is still out as to whether affective and normative commitment are differentially associated with the different forms of motivation. Perhaps certain organizational and personal factors could influence the co-development of these two types of commitment, which could lead to their sometimes different, sometimes similar patterns of correlations. Temporal analyses in suggest that motivation is a basis through which commitment develops: cross-lagged analyses showed that motivation at Time 1 was more strongly associated with commitment at Time 2 than the other way around, and regression analyses showed that autonomous motivation at Time 1 could account for between 16% and 23% increases in integrative commitment over a 13-month period. Results provide preliminary evidence that internalization, operationalized as a continuum of motivational styles that range in terms of how autonomously regulated work behavior is, can serve as a psychological process to explain how workers become committed to their organization. Thus, motivation affects organizational commitment, and not the other way around.
PREDICTING TASK VERSUS CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE

Task and contextual performance are important dimensions of performance (Borman & Motowidlo (1993). Task performance refers to the set of core substantive duties central to a particular job. Contextual performance relates to behaviors that are not formally prescribed by the job but are inherent in all jobs and supports the social fabric of the organization (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Rioux & Penner, 2001). Empirical and conceptual work in this area suggests two broad categories of citizenship behaviors: (a) OCBO – citizenship behaviors that are directed toward and benefit the organization in general, and (b) OCBI – citizenship behaviors that are directed toward and immediately benefit specific individuals (e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991).

However, empirical studies of antecedents have focused on one or the other type of performance but not both. It is essential to investigate factors that influence task and contextual performance in a single study because both are equally important and necessary for effective and efficient functioning of organizations. The primary purpose of this study was to fill this void in the literature. This study investigated the influence of self-efficacy and political skill on task performance, OCBO and OCBI. Based on previous theory and research, self-efficacy was expected to relate more strongly to task performance than to either form of OCBs. In contrast, political skill was expected to relate more strongly to OCBs than to task performance.

To test 3 specific hypotheses, ratings of task and contextual performance of subordinate employees were obtained from 26 managers who supervised 4 to 9 subordinates. Ratings of self-efficacy and political skill were obtained from 170 subordinates and matched with their supervisors ratings of task and contextual performance for data analysis.

As expected, self-efficacy was more strongly related to task than to either of the two forms of contextual performance. Political skill was more strongly related to both forms of contextual performance than to task performance. When the influence of both self-efficacy and political skill were simultaneously examined to test hypothesis 3, a clearer picture emerged. Self-efficacy explained almost 33% of the unique variance in task performance whereas political skill only explained .02% of the unique variance. Clearly, self-efficacy is more predictive of task performance than political skill. This pattern was reversed when contextual performance served as the criterion. For instance, political skill explained 15% of the unique variance in OCBI whereas self-efficacy only explained .04% of the unique variance. Clearly, political skill is more predictive of OCBI than self-efficacy. Political skill explained 16% of the unique variance in OCBO and self-efficacy explained 9% of the unique variance in OCBO. Although the expected
pattern emerged, results for OCBO were not of the magnitude seen for task performance and for OCBI.

Given that both task and contextual performance are crucial for the efficient and effective functioning of organizations, the practical implications of these results are significant. Results suggest that by increasing self-efficacy beliefs and political skill, both aspects of performance, task and contextual, could be enhanced. This study might be the first to investigate the influence of self-efficacy beliefs on contextual performance, measured as OCBO and OCBI. It is the first study to investigate the influence of political skill on performance, contextual or task performance. Four specific directions for future research are offered.
THE DYNAMICS OF SOCIAL INTEGRATION IN GROUPS: THE ROLES OF SELF-CATEGORIZATION AND SELF-VERIFICATION

Summary

Groupwork constitutes much of modern organizational life. Individuals rarely work alone: cross-functional teams, project teams, and work groups all mark different organizations, from information technology firms to health care organizations to manufacturing environments. Individuals have roles within groups and often approach these roles with their personal identity in check. Similarly, groups will have expectations of individuals and their roles. Furthermore, individuals are also expected to identify with the group by participating in the successes and failures of the group. Thus, a challenge for groups in organizations is the social integration of individuals and their identities within groups.

To date, there have been two main approaches to studying the fit between individuals and groups: social identity theory and self-verification theory. While both approaches assume that individuals are “motivated to minimize subjective uncertainty” (Polzer, Milton, & Swann, 2002: 318), each approach follows a different path. Social identity (and its’ offshoot, self-categorization) theorists posit that when individuals join groups, they attempt to maintain or enhance their self-esteem (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), so ensuring a fit between the individual and the social group reinforces self-esteem and leads to group identification. In contrast, the self-verification approach views the individual as less conforming to the group norms; the individual possesses an identity and seeks to ensure that the group’s perception matches that identity (Swann, 1987). Most studies have investigated these approaches separately, with the exception of a study by Swann and colleagues (2000). In this study, they discovered that self-verification effects were significant in raising the level of integration and identification, whereas social identity effects, as measured by self-categorization, did not have a significant effect. However, individuals may be more complex; indeed, both these identity approaches may interact with each other to produce social integration.

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to build on the existing literatures on self-categorization and self-verification respectively by suggesting a dynamic view of social integration within groups involving both approaches. Exploration of antecedents to the identification process shall round out the paper.
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THE APPLICATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE WITHIN TEAMS

This paper examines Emotional Intelligence (EI). As EI appears in the literature, it is examined primarily as an individual concept. However, with the growing importance of teams within the workplace, there is increasing interest in the concept of Team Emotional Intelligence (TEI).

The literature that examines TEI is limited partially by the uncertainty of the definition of EI. Although the concept was not new, Goleman (1995) popularized it in his book *Emotional Intelligence*. Throughout Goleman’s articles, numerous characteristics and attributes were included under the umbrella, leading some academics to deride the concept as too inclusive and not well defined.

However, the concept has been found to have merit through numerous studies of individuals, particularly in the workplace. This work has centered on an individual’s self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills. But individuals in the workplace frequently are placed in teams. Unfortunately, the field of developmental psychology has not examined the phenomena of groups. The literature that is available indicates that people in groups act and react differently in groups than they do as individuals. This begs the question of the differences in TEI as compared to individual EI. Unfortunately, the concept of TEI has proven as difficult to clearly define and therefore to adequately measure as EI.

When examined in workplace, there is evidence that TEI includes team self-evaluation, proactive problem solving, creating resources for working with emotion, and creating an affirmative environment (Zohgi 2003). But the concept of individual EI cannot be forgotten, leading the authors to the conclusion that TEI must also include individual EI, especially including influence, empathy, trust, and communication. Team EI is linked directly to the EI of individual members including influence, empathy, trust, and communication. The achievement orientation that is necessary for team EI is linked to the team goals, norms, and the degree of accountability as well as the availability of resources. However, as Barth (2001) finds, individuals need to be emotionally healthy to have high emotional intelligence; and individuals with high emotional intelligence need assistance in forming effective teams with good emotional intelligence. This highlights the importance of the concept of trust and the willingness to
cooperate to achieve a common goal with the recognition that optimal performance will come from a group rather than individuals. When group efficacy is achieved, group identification is facilitated, making the establishment of healthy team EI mandatory for groups.

Emotional intelligence is found to be an important concept both for teams and for individuals, and the authors conclude that this concept must be further explored in the workplace.
THE EFFECTS OF IDENTIFIABILITY AND NEED SATISFACTION IN SOCIAL LOAFING WITHIN THE CLASSROOM

Summary

In their seminal article, Latané, Williams, and Harkins (1979) demonstrated that group work can be affected by a process known as “social loafing”. Social loafing has been defined as the “sizeable decrease in individual effort when [people perform] in groups as compared to when they perform alone” (Latané et al., 1979, p.822). Research has found that making participants’ outputs identifiable (Williams, Harkins, & Latané, 1981) and potentially evaluated by someone (Harkins & Jackson, 1985) decreases people’s propensity to loaf. However, social loafing has yet to be conceptualized and fully understood as an outcome of motivational processes. Williams and colleagues (1981) reasoned that participants whose output is unidentifiable might exert less than maximum effort because rewards for good performance are unlikely to come forth, and punishments for not working hard enough are improbable. This explanation of social loafing is completely based on a view that motivation comes from extrinsic sources. However, other researchers realized that when a task is challenging or individual contributions are unique, the loafing effect disappears, regardless of identifiability level (Harkins and Petty, 1982). Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000) proposes that there are two basic types of motivation: intrinsic motivation, where individuals engage in an activity for its own sake, and extrinsic motivation, where individuals engage in behaviour in order to obtain a reward or avoid a punishment. A good deal of research has shown that performance on complex and creative tasks is enhanced through intrinsic as opposed to extrinsic motivation (Amabile, 1982; Benware & Deci, 1984; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; McGraw & McCullers, 1979). When individuals are extrinsically motivated, they often become fixated on the outcome of their actions, not on the process of engaging in the activity (Deci, 1995). In the long run, extrinsically motivated individuals may develop a habit of performing only the minimal work required to obtain these outcomes, which may encourage the use of shortcuts and possibly loafing on the efforts of others when given the opportunity. George (1992) found that employees holding perceptions of low task visibility were judged by supervisors to loaf more than those who believed their efforts to be identifiable, but also that task meaningfulness, task significance and contribution were negatively related to social loafing. Moreover, intrinsic involvement acted as a moderator of the task visibility - social loafing relationship: when employees reported high levels of involvement, they were less likely to loaf regardless of visibility. Consequently, we hypothesized that identifiability and motivation would both have main effects and interact to influence social loafing. Business undergraduate students completed a survey concerning a required group containing measures of
identifiability, need satisfaction (proxy for motivation), expected and actual grade, effort, and enjoyment. Group size influenced the amount of effort individuals put into the project and how much they enjoyed working on it, such that in bigger groups, people put less effort and enjoyed working on the project less than in smaller groups. However, group size did not influence what students expected to get for a grade and the actual grade they got. Identifiability positively influenced the amount of effort students put into the project, but it did not influence actual grades. Need satisfaction positively influenced grade expectations, effort, enjoyment, but not actual grade. However, need satisfaction did not moderate the relationship between identifiability and the outcomes. Finally, expected grade, although it did influence the amount of effort students put into their project, did not influence actual grade nor did effort. However, expected grade was positively correlated to actual grade.
GROUP GOAL ORIENTATION AND GROUP PERFORMANCE

Although goal orientation has been widely recognized as an important predictor variable when studying individuals’ performance, there has been relatively little research that addresses how goal orientation influences group processes and outcomes, especially in organizational settings. In this paper I develop a conceptual framework for how group goal orientation affects group performance in organizational contexts by focusing on the mediating mechanisms involved.

In this paper, I limit the scope of my discussion in several ways. First, I focus on teams and groups that work on the same task or job and the group members are interdependent in carrying out the shared task. Second, I focus on groups engaged in decision making or problem solving activities, or groups whose task activities emphasize innovation and creativity (e.g., R & D departments). Third, I examine group goal orientation as a group collective construct and a shared perception among group members.

I examine the role of three mediators in a model of group goal orientation and group performance in this paper: group absorptive capacity, coordination and participation. Particularly, I argued that (1) the influence of group learning orientation on group performance is mediated through group absorptive capacity; and (2) the effect of group performance orientation on group performance is mediated through coordination and participation. Moreover, referring to goal-setting literature, I proposed that when conceptualizing group performance orientation, we need to consider group performance orientation with two different foci: individual performance or group performance. I believe that this is an important distinction to make in research on group performance orientation because prior goal-setting studies have revealed the differential effects of individual and group goals on group performance (e.g., Crown & Rosse, 1995; Mitchell & Silver, 1990). The model that I developed in this paper can help us understand the mechanisms underlying the differential effects on group performance of group performance orientation with different focus.

The propositions developed in this paper are summarized as follows: group absorptive capacity, coordination and participation are positively associated with group performance. Group learning orientation is positively associated with group absorptive capacity. Group performance orientation with a focus on group performance is positively associated with coordination and participation. Group performance orientation with a focus on individual performance is negatively associated with coordination and participation. Finally, there is more participation in a group with group performance orientation focusing on both group and individual performance than in a group with group performance orientation focusing on either group or individual performance solely. The paper concludes with a discussion of theoretical and practical implications.