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Cross-border Tertiary Education: The Challenges and Opportunities for Intercultural Understanding

1. Introduction

The interest in cross-border tertiary education is unquestionable and growing due to a number of factors. These factors include changes in student mobility, program mobility, long distance educational delivery, and the global trend of escalating student enrollments. However, the increasing interest in cross-border tertiary education extends beyond changes in student demographics and new delivery models. There is an increased awareness of the vital role cross-border tertiary education can play in building national capacity and enhancing mutual understanding among cultures. Many scholars believe sharing knowledge can influence social and economic progress within a country through the intellectual growth of its population. There are many other contemporary trends that merit close consideration of the potential of cross border education. The globalization of economies, the shift from an industrial to a knowledge based society, and the internationalization of education are among the leading forces in making cross-border tertiary education significant and in some cases a necessity. Cross-border tertiary education is not a new phenomenon as there is along history of exchange of students, professors, and knowledge dating back centuries. However, in the last two decades the world witnessed significant growth in cross-border tertiary education in large part due to changes in physical and virtual modes of delivery. This has expanded our thinking where cross-border tertiary education is now being conceptualized as more than the exchange of students and faculty. Advancements in technology made new modes of delivery possible. In addition to new ways to offer education many colleges and universities are changing their mission statements to include an international focus. The majority of these institutions regard cross-border tertiary education as a dynamic approach to

build mutual understanding, assist other countries in capacity development, generate revenue, and answer the need for an educated workforce in response to the demands of a globalized society. Parallel to the opportunities cross-border tertiary education provides there are a number of challenges and potential pitfalls that can threaten the existent promise of cross-border tertiary education. These inhibiting factors include the prospect of low quality providers offering degrees, brain drain from developing nations, and the ramifications of changes to the mission of higher education institutions.

In this paper I present an overview of the trends affecting the growth in cross-border tertiary education; discuss its potential benefits and inhibiting factors; review the models of delivery of education; and offer ideas of how cross border education can help build better social worlds. The burgeoning interest among providers and international planning groups such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)¹ makes this a topic that warrants the attention of administrators and scholars alike. I will present evidence that cross-border tertiary education presents opportunities for institutions of higher education to construct collaborative relationships designed to promote values and knowledge among students necessary to build a sustainable future. At this critical time in history, international collaboration for the transmission of knowledge across borders may help address a myriad of issues including sustainable development, poverty reduction, promotion of human rights, and peace. However, academic integrity must be upheld and administrators and scholars must work to address the challenges ahead.

2. Defining Cross-Border Tertiary Education and Recognizing Global Trends

Cross-border tertiary education has been defined as the movement of people, programs, providers, curricula, projects, research and services in higher education across national jurisdictional borders (OECD and The World Bank 2007). As a subset of educational internationalization, cross-border tertiary education is part of international efforts to develop cooperative projects, commercial initiatives and academic exchange programs. There are numerous reasons for the emergence of cross-border tertiary education programs. The first of these is the substantial growth of student populations worldwide. As illustrations of this growth, I offer these examples: in 2007 there were 132 million students worldwide while China and India have witnessed a 100 percent increase in

¹ The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is made up of 30 nations which includes Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, and the United States.

enrollment between 1997 and 2007 [Uvalic-Trumbic, Daniel, and West 2007]. Between 1990/1 and 2004/5 the United Arab Emirates saw an increase of total student numbers by 733 percent, Malaysia 725 percent, Poland nearly 500 percent, Hungary 371 percent, Romania 300 percent, United Kingdom 316 percent, France 224 percent, Czech Republic 217 percent, and the United States saw an increase of 147 percent. In this same time period China witnessed the exceptional growth of 950 percent in tertiary enrollments [OECD 2007 and UNESCO Institute for Statistics]. Knight [2007] indicated several other factors contributing to the rapidly increasing demand for higher education these include changing demographics; the greater number of secondary school graduates worldwide; a movement to lifelong learning, and the growth of the knowledge economy. While each country may have its own unique circumstances contributing to these dramatic increases, the growth of student population is substantial, and as noted above it has a worldwide effect spanning countries with a wide distribution of mean income levels. This rapid growth created issues of limited or strained capacity of higher education institutions in some countries. Without the capacity to meet the growing demand for education, many new opportunities and models are emerging. These new models have the potential to improve access to education for more people and ultimately help nations expand their base of human capital provided they can meet high quality standards.

Globalization is often cited as a significant force in the growing demand for higher education. Baumann and Blythe [2008] stated that globalization refers to the integration of economies and societies around the world, which has accelerated the mobility of goods, services, labor, technology, and capital. In their view, globalization is not a new phenomenon as they claim it has spanned several centuries. However, the advent of new technologies accelerated the speed of globalization due to ease in the circulation of information, resources, and people. Many economists agree that globalization has impacted a shift to a knowledge economy. A knowledge economy describes societies with the ability to turn information into productive knowledge. The characteristics of a knowledge economy include the proliferation of service organizations. These organizations can access, employ and manage information and knowledge strategically. Such an organization has found ways to weave technology and information together as compelling forces making knowledge available for use and in service to others or as a commodity that may be traded [*New Penguin Business Dictionary* 2003]. There is widespread agreement that in a globalized world education is a vital element necessary for the preparation of people for the knowledge economy. Intellectual capital replaces the capital of the past such as land, labor, and economic capital. Knowledge and innovation are necessary for the success of organizations, nations, and the global economy.

Drucker [1989] referred to the shift to a knowledge economy as more significant than any change witnessed in politics, government, or economics. Its impact reaches individuals employed as knowledge workers, the organizations trading information and services, the societies that rely on innovation, and a globalized world using knowledge to grow its economy and improve the quality of lives.

The OECD economies are increasingly based on knowledge and information and knowledge is now recognized at the central driving force of productivity and economic growth. In the OECD economies there is a dependence on the production and dissemination of knowledge for the benefit of people and society. Foss [2005] believed the knowledge economy rests on four pillars; (1) an economic and institutional regime that promotes incentives for creating, acquiring, disseminating, and using knowledge to promote the growth of its economic base and increase the welfare of its citizens; (2) a system of universities, research centers, think tanks, consultant firms that are capable of tapping into the growing stock of worldwide knowledge and adapt this knowledge to local needs and create new knowledge; (3) establish a dynamic communication and information infrastructure capable of facilitating the dissemination and processing of information; and (4) an educated citizenry that can create, acquire, distribute, and use knowledge.

Tertiary Education Institutions play a central role in the knowledge economy. Marginson [2009] noted the means of knowledge production are primarily located in tertiary education institutions as they serve as the primary source of knowledge production. The OECD (2008) recognized tertiary education institutions contribute to social and economic growth and progress by taking an instrumental role in the development of human capital. Tertiary education builds the knowledge base through research efforts, studying issues in the environment, applying theoretical constructs, and discovering innovations to adapt knowledge to a situated context. These institutions also serve as the repository of cultural knowledge and transmit the accumulated knowledge to students through teaching and learning.

A knowledge economy necessitates higher levels of competencies in the workforce. Knowledge workers fill positions in fields such as accounting, health care, management, education, communication, and governmental work to mention but a few. The United States saw an explosion in these fields during the 20th century and the demand for knowledge workers in that country continues to grow. This is not isolated to the United States as there are many other countries experiencing similar meteoric increases in numerous professional fields. The vast majority of these professions require study and degrees from tertiary educational institutions to prepare workers for intellectually demanding jobs. However, tertiary education is not limited to vocational training. As students enter the classroom they not only learn career skills, but should also learn how to engage

in reflective thinking, appreciate the value of cultures, understand the moral and ethical consequences of choices, and see the interdependencies of nations and people. A knowledge economy relies on the dissemination, application, and use of knowledge to serve the public. This is only possible through the efforts and contributions of graduates of tertiary education as they fulfill this critical role through their occupations.

The demand for education is obvious in the growing number of people across the globe seeking tertiary levels of education. The World Bank Group [2002] noted that in OECD nations the number of people with tertiary degrees rose from 22 percent to 41 percent over a ten-year period and the United States projects a 19 percent increase in positions requiring master degrees. Tertiary education is most important in OECD countries and for graduates it results in higher wages, lower rates of unemployment, and increased levels of productivity in the economy [Mankiw, Romer, and Weil 1992; Gemmill 1996]. Human capital is inseparable from national economic growth rates. However, education does not stop at the completion of a traditional tertiary degree. A knowledge economy also requires a commitment to life-long learning. This represents a significant turn in education, as many graduates are required to return to tertiary institutions to learn new knowledge or relearn skills in order to keep pace with innovations in technology, products, or services. Life-long learning creates a new dimension for tertiary educational institutions. The increasing student population will require access to more education post graduation. Tertiary educational institutions should have the capacity to serve students across the life span. This requires planning and a shift in the role of the institutions.

Clearly the role of tertiary education in a knowledge economy is vital to the success of the economy. The World Bank Group [2002] saw knowledge as the principal driver of economic development. It was their belief that higher education could support a knowledge economy through educating a qualified and adaptable work force from high level research scientists to teachers at all levels of education, and future leaders in government and business. More than this, institutions would generate new knowledge and provide people with the ability to access existing global knowledge so they may adapt this to local use. The World Bank Group regarded institutions of higher education as unique in their ability to contribute to sustainable transformational economic growth because of their capacity building contributions.

In essence a knowledge-based economy requires a highly skilled workforce and a highly skilled workforce has the potential to earn higher wages and secure employment more readily. Card and Lemieux [2000] found men between the ages of 26–30 with baccalaureate degrees earned three times more than men of that age who did not complete a higher education degree in both the United States and the United Kingdom. The OECD [2009] reported that in Poland between 1997 and 2007 those with a secondary education averaged an unemployment rate of

approximately 14 percent, while those with tertiary education unemployment dropped to under 5 percent. On average across the OECD countries, more than 40 percent of individuals with below upper secondary education are not employed. In Belgium, the Czech Republic, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, and Turkey more than half of the population with below upper secondary education is not employed. However, a tertiary degree brings the individual more than wages. The World Bank saw a meaningful education as more than access to scientific and management knowledge. They felt education should expose students to disciplines such as the humanities and social sciences to help form a person capable of reasoning and thought so they may answer critical questions and issues. Human capital resides in the ability of citizens to consider the moral implications of their actions, build communication competencies, and nurture habits that promote life-long learning. This ultimately promotes civic responsibility, and is instrumental in creating the foundation of economic, political, and social development.

There is little doubt that higher education institutions serve as the conduit and repository of knowledge. The act of educating affects the values, ethics, and attitudes of the student and this is the foundation of social capital required for the evolution of societies. This is not without controversy as there are those in the academy who feel the role of tertiary education should not be as closely allied with business and the economy of a nation. This is a challenge institutions will face, as the policy makers, students, and those paying for education often question what job opportunities exist upon graduation. Consistent with an economic perspective, many students want to know what the yield on their investment in education will bring. This leads to the larger central question of how closely tied should institutions be to vocational preparation. This is not an entirely new question, but the social context has changed in light of the knowledge society. Professional workers are not simply trained. The successful professional must possess the ability to reflect and find new applications of existing knowledge, or discover ways to combine existing stores of knowledge to make applications to real-world problems.

Scott [2005] made important distinctions in terms of what globalization means and its relationship to the internationalization of higher education. A common conception of globalization is that it is a worldwide market and the elite higher education institutions produce the innovations and scientific advances that a global knowledge economy relies on. However, Scott pointed out this is a limited view of what globalization actually means. He went on to describe other perspectives of globalization that emphasize the wide distribution of knowledge production inclusive of innovation in technology, economics, but also in social, political, and cultural areas as well. This perspective contends higher education institutions affect regional and national development. As they become what

Scott referred to as “transactions spaces” or “trading zones” between global knowledge and local knowledge. The tertiary education institutions bring together local agendas with international agendas on a wide range of matters such as ethnicity, religion, and cultural diversity. Scott also saw globalization as a potential contributor to a “world culture”. The danger of this lies in who determines what the world culture would be. Western or Asian dominance is a critical matter institutions of higher education face. These institutions should serve as mediators to ensure that world cultures and national cultures promote synergy rather than conflict. The internationalization of education has the potential to serve as force to promote international understanding, appreciation of cultural differences, and locate the universal values that are or may be shared by all. In these later accounts that Scott outlined we see there is an opportunity for scholars from many different kind of institutions to affect regional and national development. It could be argued that educational internationalization is no longer the exclusive province of elite universities it can become the concern of all academics dedicated to building intercultural bonds and understanding. Academics can construct collaborative relationships to share knowledge across nations and cultures.

The internationalization of higher education was described by Knight [2004] as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, and global dimension into the purpose, functions, and diversity of higher education”. The International Association of Universities in its statement on internationalization regards the role of tertiary education institutions to prepare leaders for an increasingly interdependent world where internationalization promotes intercultural diversity and understanding, respect, and tolerance among people. Their vision extends far beyond economic development as it includes solidarity among nations, the promotion of human peace, and access to opportunities for all people through the appropriation of knowledge. Among their recommendations they feel tertiary educations institutions should be proactive in the process of internationalization rather than reacting to forces such as economic markets to guide the direction of these institutions. The current climate creates an opportunity to build collaborations that will result in far more than the generation of revenue.

In 2003 The International Association of Universities surveyed its member institutions and they identified the top three motivations for internationalization as mobility and exchanges for student and faculty development; improvement of academic standards and quality assurance; and international research collaboration. However, the survey did identify brain drain and loss of cultural identity as the greatest risks of internationalization [Knight 2003]. As more institutions become participants in international education they will have to overcome these challenges as internationalization develops. However, the results of this survey show the focus of institution participating in internationalization

programs are intent upon improving educational experiences and working together to expand the base of knowledge.

As evidence of the prevalence of internationalization, in the United States we see a growing number of well-known institutions such as the University of Michigan, Pennsylvania State University, Boston College, George Washington University, and Clark University espouse an international focus. The University of Michigan defines itself as providing service to the world, Pennsylvania State University sees itself as a world campus, Boston College teaches global citizenship, George Washington University dedicates itself to international understanding and exchange, and Clark University's mission is to educate its students to be imaginative students of the world. This is consistent with Scott's observation of a shifting mission of the university towards internationalization due to rapid globalization, economic interdependency, a global knowledge society, and the state of the postmodern university all contribute to this change. Scott projected the new postmodern universities would have internationalization at the very core of their mission as they provide service to the body of worldwide nation states.

In many countries internationalization does not occur at the ministry level but between institutions. However among many OECD nations internationalization is not typically a priority and many do not have a proactive policy on marketing internationally. This has resulted in a relatively limited number of productive international collaborations especially among the smaller institutions that lack the funds or human resources to dedicate to cultivating these relationships. It is important that scholars begin to find ways to make the connections that will build strong collaborations to attain the goals of internationalization.

Initially internationalization was limited to the number of students electing to study in foreign countries. While the scope of internationalization expanded beyond study-abroad programs this continues to flourish in the present climate. We see evidence of this as indicated in The Global Student Mobility 2025 Report [Bohm and Meares 2003]. Bohm and Meares forecasted the demand for international education will increase from 1.8 million students in 2000 to 7.2 million in 2025. While many students benefit from international study it is limited in terms of access. Student mobility imposes economic barriers restricting international studies to only those students who have the economic resources to participate. Students from lower economic backgrounds participate less in cross-border student mobility.

Economic impediments are not the only concern of student mobility. Clearly the distribution of student mobility is unbalanced. The four English-speaking countries of the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, and Canada host 54% of all foreign students in the OECD area [OECD 2004]. For example, in the academic year 2004/05 the number of Polish students going abroad was 8390

that was 359 percent higher than the number of students coming to Poland 2330 [OECD 2007]. This can be attributed to a host of issues such as the number of courses offered in foreign languages, economies of scale, and international marketing efforts. In the USA during the 2008–09 academic year the total number of students from the USA studying abroad worldwide was less than half of the students from China and India alone studying in the USA.

Yet another inhibiting factor of student mobility is the increased risk of “brain drain” for the sending country. Brain drain refers to the situation that occurs when the most talented and skilled people migrate from their home country to another country. This can happen when a student completes a university education and remains in the foreign nation upon graduation rather than return home. The impact is a loss of human resource or capital for the home country [Blackwell Dictionary of Sociology 2000]. In spite of this precarious trend, many institutions have made the recruitment of international students a priority for the future as the number of eighteen year olds is declining in both North America and Western Europe. In many cases the receiving nations benefit by employing the brightest and most talented students from the sending country.

3. Models of Delivery and Challenges of Cross-border Education

Knight [2007] described a typology of program mobility. This typology provides an explanation of six models for the delivery of cross-boarder education. The six models are:

1. Franchise. In this model of delivery an institution of higher education from another nation (A) authorizes an institution of higher education in the host nation (B) to deliver their courses in their nation or other countries. The credits for completed work are awarded by the institution A but the agreement must comply with existing regulations and accreditation standards in country B and regulations and coded in country A. For example, an Italian university (A) authorizes a Czech university (B) to offer courses in the Czech Republic or another country. However, the Italian university (A) awards the credits or degree.

2. Twinning. This model creates an articulation agreement and collaboration between the source country A and country B that allows students to earn credits in either country. Credits and awarding of degree is awarded by source country A and complies with regulations and standards of the source country. For example, an American university (A) collaborates with a Hungarian university (B) and students make take courses in Hungary or the USA that earn credits awarded by the American university.

3. Double or Joint Degree. Providers in different countries form a collaboration to offer a program where the students receive credits from each provider or a joint award from the collaborating institutions. For example, a French university collaborates with an Indian university and the students complete courses at both

institutions that may lead to a degree from the French university and a degree from the Indian university.

4. Articulation. This is similar to twinning but with a looser collaboration. Providers from different countries allow students to earn credit by completing work with a collaborating party. For example, a German university collaborates with a Chinese university and credits earned at either university are recognized and may lead to a degree.

5. Validation. This arrangement allows providers in different countries to allow the provider in country (B) the receiving country, to award the credits of provider (A) in source country. For example, a Dutch university may award the credits of a Canadian university in Holland.

6. E-learning or distance learning. Courses or programs of study are offered to students any where in the world through distance models. This may include face-to-face support for students through domestic study or support centers. This model may offer the greatest potential when coupled with face-to-face support to improve the accessibility to education. This model has created the conception of virtual education, students, and institutions.

New technologies have been instrumental in increasing accessibility to education and have opened new avenues for cross-border education. Higher Education institutions can easily link with partners in other countries and make their programs and courses accessible through programs such as Blackboard, Cicada, Elluminate and other electronic learning systems. In some cases a partner is not necessary and the institutions can recruit students from other nations and employ this new technology. This developing technology made virtual classrooms and virtual universities a possibility, thus leading to significant changes in program mobility. In the past decade a number of new models of delivery are present

Knight's typology may not be an exhaustive list of all models as providers have developed other ways of delivering education to students or they have combined features of these six models to offer access to students in other geographic locations.

A relatively recent phenomenon is making an impact on cross-border tertiary education and that is the number of alternative providers who offer education to students. Traditional providers are usually defined as the public or private universities and colleges, but there has been an arrival and an increase in a new kind of provider of tertiary education. For example, the Apollo Group a publicly traded company was founded in 1973 in the United States. It includes its subsidiaries the University of Phoenix, College for Financial Planning, Insight Schools Inc., the Institute for Professional Development, and Western International University. Informatics of Singapore provides degrees and courses and states its vision is "to be a global leader in providing quality education and training services"

Informatics claims to have partnerships with twenty-six tertiary education institutions in the United States, United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. Aptech of Mumbai, India began in 1986 to provide IT and animation education and claims to have trained over five million students. However the alternative providers can come from other areas such as corporate universities who join these profit-making ventures to sell training to organizations, employees, or students worldwide. Allen [2002] identified there are about two thousand corporate universities in the United States, but the vast majority are designed to provide training to their own employees. Allen's research indicated only five of these corporate universities offer degrees and pose little threat to traditional tertiary education providers. Corporate universities have the potential to impact the life-long learning market. As stated above, many employees are likely to continue their study after the award of a degree due to innovations in their field. The need for ongoing education may be highly attractive to the corporate universities or alternative providers. These new entities may also see the growing student needs coupled with the limited capacity of tertiary education institutions in many countries as a profit making opportunity. The overwhelming numbers of students seeking education and capable of paying will likely be of great interest to the alternative providers.

The new models of delivery, new providers, and strategic initiatives of traditional providers of tertiary education have raised quality assurance concerns. Accreditation does not have an international standard. Without recognized standards the problems lie in determining which institutions are legitimate providers and which are not. There is evidence of what has been labeled as rogue providers. These are institutions that do not meet accepted accreditation standards, but boast of accreditation from a non-recognized body or one that may not exist at all. Students and tertiary education partners in a receiving country need safeguards from the prospect of poor quality programs, untrained faculty, and providers driven by commercial interest and not academic integrity. The rise of the profit making institution, rouge providers, and even traditional universities competing for paying students is a cause for caution if not concern.

Reform of higher education accreditation has its roots in Europe with the well-known "Bologna Process". This is one effort driven by forty-six countries to ensure quality, as well as synchronize and balance tertiary education. The Bologna process has become the leader in generating worldwide interest in developing consistent standards for tertiary education. However, the Bologna Process is not without its critics as many academics are either suspicious or mistrusting of this movement and there is reluctance to support the process. Among the concerns is the loss of academic freedom and independence in curricular design.

The European Commission developed the European Diploma Supplement designed to provide students with a document attached to their tertiary

education diploma to improve international recognition of academic and professional qualifications. This is a response to differences in qualification systems in different countries. Student mobility and program mobility has resulted in more people participating in study outside of their home nation. The Diploma Supplement is a way to respond to the need to provide an articulation of the qualifications the student has accomplished. It provides a description of the qualification the student achieved by providing information on the mode of study, length of the program, program requirements, the units studied, grades obtained, grading scheme, along with information on the national higher education system of the country issuing the diploma. This is an effort to provide transparency and fair information about the students' qualifications. This is likely to improve the acceptance of European degrees across participating nations. With a clearer indication of the students' qualifications, this should facilitate employment across borders.

Another effort in quality assurance is the partnership between the World Bank and UNESCO known as the Global Initiative for Quality Assurance Capacity (GIQAC). This effort aims to build quality assurance capacity of higher education in developing countries.

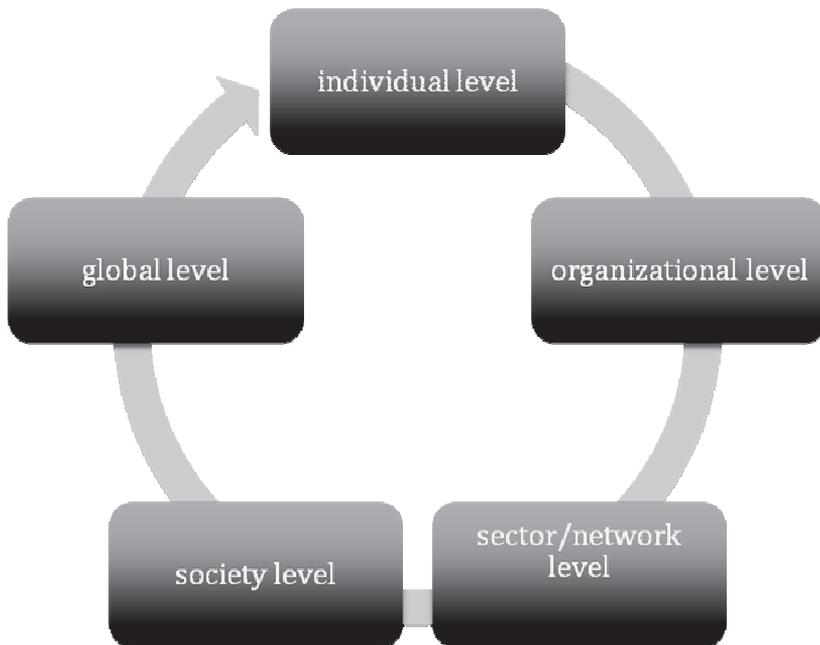
Quality Assurance remains an obstacle that tertiary education providers will face in the future. With the proliferation of foreign study likely to increase this is a significant issue requiring the cooperation and collaboration of many institutions and policy-making bodies across the globe to ensure that students are being served.

4. Favorable Impacts of Cross-Border Tertiary Education

While cross-border education presents a number of challenges, it can provide many positive outcomes. Among these outcomes there is wide agreement that cross-border tertiary education can enhance mutual understanding, help nations with capacity development, generate revenue, and address global issues and concerns. Mutual understanding has been a motivating force since the inception of academic exchange programs. Sharing ideas and learning about new ideas in political, cultural, and academic spheres has always been central to faculty and student exchange programs. It has been shown that exposure to new cultures and the development of strategic alliances leads to closer geo-political affiliations. Mutual understanding renders knowledge as borderless and can move people towards greater appreciation of cultures.

A commonly held goal of cross-border education is the ability to contribute to capacity development. There is no singular definition of capacity development but all of the definitions share the concepts of a process where people, organizations, and societies assist others to strengthen or develop people or nations. This may be done through sharing resources that promote learning, empower people, build social capital, integrate cultures, and create new relationships of mutuality

and reciprocity between societies [Eade 1997; Morgan 1994; Smillie 2001; UNDP 2006; OECD 2006]. Capacity development's goal is sustainable development to improve the lives of people and nations and build the capacity of a country to reap the benefits of a global society. Vincent-Lancrin [2007] described capacity building as a multi-level conceptual framework occurring on the individual level, organizational level, sector/network level, society level, and global level.



The individual is capable of acquiring skills through learning that may or may not come from formal education. However, Vincent-Lancrin believed that formal education is the most common means to transmit knowledge and skill development. At the organizational level capacity development affects the infrastructure or institutions within a country. In cross-border education the effect may be improvement in a university's ability to offer resources to students in its nation. The sector/network level capacity may be improved by better coordination among organizations. In the case of tertiary education, there may be improvement in different kinds of institutions such as research and teaching facilities working together for the benefit of people in its host nation. The final two levels are the most difficult to change and usually take a longer period of time. Societal level addresses conventions, attitudes, values, beliefs and the human frameworks that sustain these. This may include social issues such as racial discrimination, gender equality, political representation to name but

a few. Capacity development at the global level targets improvements in global affairs and the international affiliations the nation operates with.

Education is a key factor in capacity development because of the well-recognized role of tertiary education institutions as providers of knowledge, teaching, and research. As discussed above, knowledge is an engine of economic growth and the role of tertiary education in economic growth has been well established. It is clear that tertiary education brings many economic benefits to the individual such as higher wages, and a greater likelihood for employment. However, in terms of capacity development the gain is realized in the development of human capital. There is a positive correlation between the level of human capital within a country and the national productivity rates. Nations with more human capital will see greater growth rates in gross domestic product. Perhaps more importantly the standard of living increases and citizens will enjoy a higher quality of life. As we can see in Vincent-Lancrin's model, capacity development has the potential to impact multiple levels in positive ways and is a goal societies should strive to attain.

Revenue generation is another by-product of educational internationalization. Tertiary educational institutions, like all other organizations, have been subject to a shifting economy and are forced to deal with increased competition for paying students. Due to the declining economy, we see public institutions in many countries are operating with less governmental support. All the while, operational costs for institutions have continued to escalate. Internationalization has become a part of strategic plans of institutions as a way to diversify their student body, increase their presence in a global world, and find new sources of revenue. The vast majority of tertiary education providers are not-for-profit organizations and new revenues are likely to be dedicated to meet operational costs or as a source for investment in their institution. The new commercial providers may have other goals and this has raised questions about the commoditization of education. Education as a commodity represents a radical shift from the purpose of the university. Revenue generation can appear to transform tertiary education institutions towards entrepreneurial organizations. The internationalization of education coupled with the aspiration of revenue generation may transform the mission and strategic goals of tertiary educational institutions. However, internationalization is only one among many new directions tertiary educational institutions are entering. Some critics are left to wonder if the university is moving from a social institution to an industry that is deferential to market forces [Gumport 2000]. This raises questions if universities and colleges are moving away from the traditional mission of creating and teaching knowledge. This presents another challenge for scholars and administrators alike to reconcile. The changing economic landscape presents a new reality and we can only speculate that tertiary education will become more competitive and market driven as we move toward the future.

5. The Opportunities Ahead

Universities have long been agents of social responsibility and served as think tanks to assist society in meeting emerging trends and help prevent major crises before they occur. There are a multitude of social, political, economic, and health care issues facing people across the world. These global and regional issues may be a rallying point for tertiary institutions to build collaborative relationships to ameliorate our contemporary challenges. International cooperation among tertiary institutions may be able to use the resources of the world to address these issues, seek solutions, and improve responses to eradicate poverty, promote health care, and bring peace to the world. This is a unique opportunity for institutions to work together and sustain the role of the university as a think tank.

As presented above cross-border tertiary education has many potential benefits, but at the same time it presents a number of challenges for administrators, faculty, students, and policy makers. It would appear we are in the nascent stages of the design of an effective cross-border tertiary education model. It is highly likely the leaders will emerge who will shape an effective system that can meet the needs of people worldwide. Cross-border tertiary education offers numerous opportunities for collaboration to help build human capital and capacity development worldwide. Principled scholars and administrators have an opportunity to embrace a unique opportunity to enhance intercultural understanding. If we think of knowledge as border-less and recognize we have a moral responsibility to share precious knowledge resources that create prosperity for all; we would be taking step forward in creating a better world for all people.

In order for cross-border tertiary education to be truly effective it can no longer remain unidirectional. Dominance by the USA, UK and the few other nations leading the way is not intercultural parity. The universities of the world have a long and rich history, multiple perspectives, and knowledge to share so we may all address the future with the greatest amount of collective knowledge. There is room for tertiary institutions of many nations to participate in the true sharing of knowledge and overcome domination by a small group of nations and universities. This is particularly true in doctoral study where the restrictive American model of residency and high costs limits advanced study for many. This may an opportunity for universities in Central Europe and other regions that offer high quality, lower cost, and less restrictive residency model to explore and develop. Such an effort would make knowledge at the highest level more accessible to more people.

The power of economic market forces should not be the sole impetus for educational delivery. An educated citizen contributes to the world in many ways and reducing an education to its economic benefit misses the purpose and intent of knowledge. Better social worlds come about when citizens have a keen sense

of what is right and the consequence of their actions on the world around them. Education is not only necessary for economic success; it is a key component of a successful democracy. Academic integrity should supersede notions of profit. There is ample room for institutions to meet economic goals and increase the base of knowledge. Internationalization has to first be motivated by the desire to make a better world and improve the quality of life for all.

Tertiary institutions worldwide can enhance their status as agents of social responsibility and together they can address the pressing issues of poverty, genocide, human rights and access to health care for all. Cross-border tertiary education delivered in a collaborative model can generate new forms of knowledge and innovation that will benefit all societies.

Abstract

Universities are agents of social responsibility and this paper explores how they can expand this mandate by forging collaborative ventures to produce the worldwide leaders of tomorrow. These international partnerships between universities can instill in future leaders the values and knowledge to build a sustainable future. The significance of international cooperation for the transfer of knowledge across border is critical in meeting the needs of people across the globe. UNESCO has defined cross-border tertiary education as the movement of people, programs, providers, curricula, projects, research and services in tertiary (or higher) education across national jurisdictional borders. Cross-border education is a subset of educational internationalization and can be part of development cooperation projects, academic exchange programs and commercial initiatives in today's globalized era. The mobility of students, professors, knowledge and even values has been part of higher education for centuries, but it has recently grown at an unprecedented pace. The last two decades have seen a significant growth in the mobility of higher education programs and providers through physical and virtual modes of delivery. Parallel to these opportunities are an equal number of challenges: a potential increase in low quality or rogue providers, a lack of recognition of foreign qualifications by domestic employers or education institutions, along with elitism and the tensions it creates.

This paper will present research on several successful models between several institutions of higher education in different nations. These models will demonstrate how universities have take on an anticipatory role by fostering intellectual advancement that contributes to the broader goals of sustainable development, poverty reduction, creation of wealth, and peace and human rights.

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Human Side of Learning – To Play or Not to Play

1. Introduction

From the very beginning the world has always been changing. These changes are mainly unpredictable and non-continuous. Processes and events, which we couldn't imagine a few years ago, are happening nowadays and making new challenges.

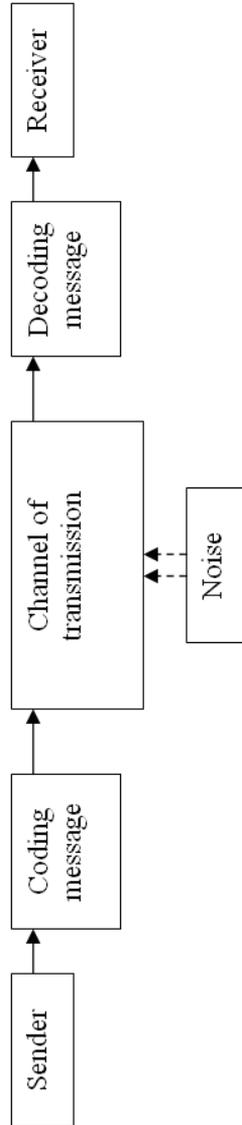
It is essential to realize that the relaying new knowledge process is strongly connected to the human beings and for thousands years it has been to improve individuals' and societies' life. The knowledge medium, which was widely used from the ancient civilizations to the present XXI century, is information [Luenberger 2006, pp. 1–4]. It contains a record giving answers to questions: what, how, when, who, where and why. These pronouns have helped to define activities indispensable to make better the processes in human environment and inside an individual human being. Although today we are used to thinking that the most important information channel is a visual language, such as writing in letters and in the consequence an alphabet and a print. The first natural way of communication was a speech, invented about 50 thousands years ago.

2. Communication process in relaying new knowledge

Through many ages the communication process was not appreciated in relaying new knowledge to new generations. Techniques in that field, which was being developed by the ancients, such as logic, grammar rules and others were usually aimed at improving the way of communication and making a planned influence receivers by people possessing these uncommon skills. If nowadays it had been used only this way of communication, the relaying knowledge process would

work only in limited, narrow channel. This process could be defined as teaching. It creates a possibility of informing someone what a certain road sign indicates turning right, but an apprentice will not be able to do it. It is also possible to convince a man about a high level of safety of parachuting, but does it mean that he will not be afraid of that? The traditional communication process described above is shown in the figure no. 1.

Figure 1. Traditional communication process



Source: O'Rourke J.S., 2007. *Management Communication*. Pearson Education Inc., Upper Saddle River, p. 25.

The traditional communication process is widely used in one-way techniques of relaying new knowledge, such as lectures, presentations or speeches. In this case teaching is focused on relaying theoretical knowledge, essential to understand a core and structure of the topic and to present generally rules and a mutual dependence various factors.

Besides the traditional way of communication there is also the process, which is more complex and efficient in relaying new knowledge. The main characteristic element is a feedback between a sender and receiver. This type of a communication process is named as learning and it is shown in the figure no. 2.

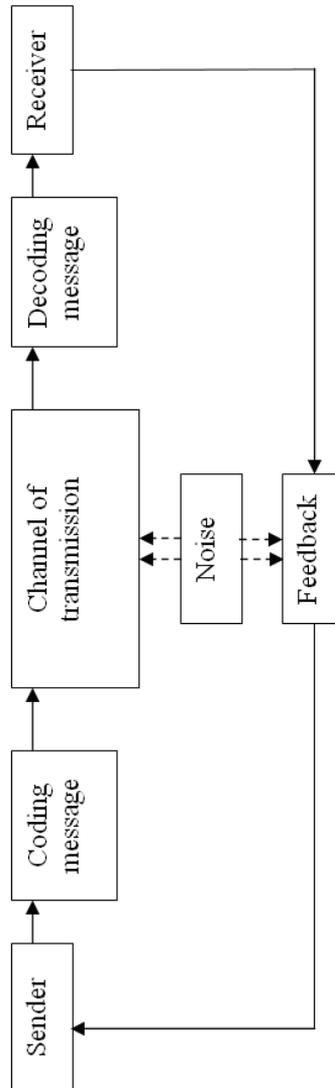


Figure 2. Complex communication process

Source: O'Rourke J.S., 2007. *Management Communication*. Pearson Education Inc., Upper Saddle River, p. 25.

It consists of four stages, defining knowledge not only as a set of information, but also abilities to use it in practice and forming new attitudes and behaviors. The process is most relevant in training and teaching employees and managers of firms. Because of their up-till-now experience connected to the ways of relaying new knowledge, customs and obtained behaviors they are very specific group of learners [Statt 2000, pp. 21–22]. At universities there is still a huge attachment to the traditional way of transmitting knowledge, however the experience based on trainings slowly influences on the academic lecturers.

3. Learning stages and styles

The first stage in the complex relaying knowledge process is described as unconscious incompetence, which defines knowledge of learners in two dimensions: they not only do not know anything about the case, but also they are not aware of their incompetence. The second stage is conscious incompetence. While this stage an apprentice realizes that he has a lack in his knowledge, but he is not able to get enough information to fill it up. The third stage of the complex definition of knowledge is conscious competence. In this case the learner managed to obtain theoretical knowledge, but if he wants to put it into practice he has to put in his work a conscious afford, which must be amplified with true motivation. Seldom does it succeed. The fourth stage of efficient educational process, which is able to be achieved when two sides of educational interactions are simultaneously committed, is unconscious competence. Then the obtained knowledge turns into abilities, customs, attitudes and behaviors. This stage is also called the learning process in the contrary to the teaching process, which occurs at the third level and is widely understood as a traditional communication process [O'Connor, Seymour 1998, p. 29].

In order to start the learning process, following the teaching process, it is important to use the special techniques, called 3A. The technique is based on three rules:

- awareness,
- abilities,
- action.

This technique is aimed at a gradual way of obtaining and improving knowledge. In the first phase, which has to be initiated by a teacher (trainer in companies), the opportunity to get new useful tools has to be shown to the learners. Afterwards there is a time to relay certain knowledge and procedures to do new tasks. In the last phase of the 3A technique a teacher (trainer) should convince apprentices to put into practice their new knowledge by practical exercises. They should be strongly connected with jobs and professional tasks, indicating the relevance of the training [Szczepanik 2006, pp. 16–17].

In the literature it is claimed that a learning process influences both human values and beliefs, and in the end it can create emotions indispensable to an

efficient way of obtaining new knowledge. As far as learning is concerned this process is used to be carried out on many different levels:

- the first one is an environment, which gives to a learner general knowledge about his surrounding and people who he goes along with,
- the second level is a behavior, which is to say actions in the real world,
- the third means skills and flairs,
- the fourth level of learning consists of forming beliefs and values,
- fifth – creating the identity of learners, which takes an effect as a definition of a life mission,
- the last but not least, the most profound level of learning, is when a learner can base his thinking on spiritual values and merits.

It is worth mentioning that most of courses, trainings and school education are focused mostly on the first, environmental level. Rarely does it reach the second and the third one making an influence on behaviors, abilities and skills. Very often only the first level is understood as an education process and the others are left to a learner. Additionally as adults are concerned during the school education they obtained three main barriers against effective learning [Dryden, Vos 2000, p. 99]:

- critical and logical (“at school I always felt bored and confused, so for sure nothing has changed”),
- predicting and emotional (“I’m sure I again will not know what it is about”),
- critical and social (“hardly anyone is an omnibus, so I will not be different from others”).

In the literature there is a clear division of learning styles. Scientists point four main styles and give name to people who represents them. First style are connected with Activists. They involve themselves fully and without bias in new experiences. They enjoy the “here and now” and are happy to be dominated by immediate experiences. They are open-minded and this tends to make them enthusiastic about anything new. Their philosophy is to try anything at once. Their days are filled with activity, but reveling in short-term crisis fire-fighting. They tackle problems by brainstorming but as soon as the excitement from one activity has died down they are busy looking for the next. They tend to thrive on the challenge of new experiences but are bored with implementation and long-term consolidation. They are gregarious people constantly involving themselves with others and being the life and soul of the party.

The second style of learning are embodied in Reflectors. They like to stand back to ponder experiences and observe them from many different perspectives. They collect data, both first hand and from others, and prefer to think it over thoroughly before coming to any conclusion. The collection and analysis of data about experiences and events are what really counts, so they tend to postpone reaching definitive conclusions for as long as possible. They prefer to take a back

seat in meetings and discussions. They enjoy observing other people in action. They listen to others and get the drift of the discussion before making their own points.

The third group of learners are like Theorists. Theorists adapt and integrate observations into complex but logically sound theories. They think problems through in a vertical, step by step, logical way. They assimilate separate facts into coherent theories. They tend to be perfectionists who would not rest easy until things fit into a rational scheme. They like to analyze and synthesize. They are keen on basic assumptions, principles, theories, models and systems thinking. Their approach to problems is consistently logical and feel uncomfortable with subjective judgements and lateral thinking.

The fourth style of learning is recognized at Pragmatists. Pragmatists are keen on trying out ideas, theories and techniques to see if they work in practice. They positively search out new ideas and take the first opportunity to experiment with applications. They like to get on with things and act quickly. They are essentially practical, down to earth people who like making practical decisions and solving problems. They respond to problems and opportunities as a challenge [Wilson 2000, pp. 108–111].

4. Types of knowledge receivers

In the communication process, described in the figure no. 2, all senses of a human being are engaged. The process is carried through our sight, hearing, taste, touch and smell. Another channel of getting new knowledge is movement. It is considered that specially learning processes at more profound levels, such as behaviors, beliefs, abilities or values, happen through what people do. It is not possible to overestimate the importance of using all senses in the learning process. Relaying new knowledge is not efficient enough, while a theory is departed from practice. It does not mean that learners should do the same things which they will have to do at their work, but things strongly connected in figurative meaning and analogous to these ones in a real work [Kolb, Kolb 2005, pp. 195–196].

As far as creating new patterns in a human brain is concerned, that part of human body is reckoned as the most sophisticated tool in the world and it is not possible to compare it to any other invention of a mankind. Many scientists say that much information and knowledge are stored in the brain branches system, which is similar to branches of a tree. The matter is so complex that i.e. when a man is asked to list economic efficiency indexes, he does it with a certain names of them, and he hardly realizes that they can measure also usual actions in a common life.

People in their learning process can be divided into at least three groups [Dryden, Vos 2000, pp. 349–360]:

- “movement and touch” learners, who learn most efficiently when they are running, walking, waving, swaying and touching other things and they can experience on their own,
- “sight” learners, whose the best way of obtaining knowledge is to see what they should remember,
- “hearing” learners, who prefer hearing to any other senses, they like learning through sound, especially music and a verbal language.

Scientists from the Specific Diagnostic Studies in Rockville in the USA made a research in that field and results of that appeared more than surprising. The research was carried out in primary and secondary schools in the USA and confirmed that most young people simultaneously use in learning processes more than one human sense. Another conclusion drawn by the scientists was that the elder people are the more a sense of sight in getting new knowledge they use. Obviously it does not mean it is the most efficient way of learning.

The facts shown above are a very strong reason for implementing in professional trainings new creative methods of learning, based on games and case studies. They take advantage of simple interpersonal interactions and a hidden level of childish creativity and vitality, which has been put out through years of adulthood.

Jan Mądry, the Board President of Training Partners Sp. z o.o., claims that a good teacher or a trainer does not repeat a piece of information twice in the same way. “Simply, I talk about the subject and simultaneously show some graphs or pictures connected to the case. Additionally I go round the class and move my arms, hands, use my face to express feelings and emotions” [Flak 2003, www.pracuj.pl]. Always after the teaching stage, the third one in the four-stage learning process described above, he make an exercise, which is to strenghten the knowledge and put it into practice.

Trainers with great experience in trainings for companies and firm maintain that there are several types of participants who behave in many different way during sessions. It is a great possibility of being the same situation among learners, despite their age. They are shortly described in the figure no. 3.

Figure 3. Types of participants in teaching process

Type of participant	Features
Calm Cindy	Calm Cindy is a participant, who likes being hidden behind others' backs. She takes part in a training in a passive way – not because of being bored, but shyness. She does not cause troubles – the truth is she does nothing. If Calm Cindy has to learn anything, a trainer should force her to active attitudes, besides her calm nature.
Dominant Derek	Dominant Derek is a person, who is eager to talk all the time – on every topic he has something to say and can give five examples. He is either a talkative person or he wants to impress others.
Always Against Adam	Adam never agrees with a trainer and always has arguments for a thesis against the widely shared – I think, a trainer is wrong saying an elephant has a trunk – Adam says – because I saw an elephant, which...
Disturbing David	David often breaks a sentences of others or talks to participants. Probably he is not interested or he has so many opinions about the subject and he can't stop talking. No matter what a reason is, he makes a noise and a disorder.
Doubting Dorothy	Dorothy claims, that whatever a trainer or one of participants propone, will not work. It can't work – says Dorothy – we tried it a year ago, besides we can't meet criteria, it is too expensive and takes too long. Anyway, managing board will not allow to do it. Dorothy is often against any changes. She is pessimist and can make troubles. Because of this vice she can destroy an innovative atmosphere.
Complaining Chris	Complaining Chris is not satisfied at anything. Why is there not fresh coffee – he asks – for dinner there were awful beetroots and I can't see the words on a blackboard. Can we change a topic of a training, because the old one is really boring? Chris can find a problem in every situation, but he will not solve it for sure.
All Knowing Agnes	Agnes always knows the best solutions. She knows the best answer and nobody else can do it. A right answer is only one – which she gives. If someone has a different opinion, she will fight till the end. Only her idea must be discussed (discuss means adore).
Malicious Mary	Malicious Mary is worse combination of Adam and Dorothy. she does not agree and does doubt, her attitudes is more personal. She likes attacking a trainer – he is the most visible person.

Having Personal Problems Peter	Peter is a man, who every few minutes is like Dorothy, Adam, Chris... He has personal problems (depression, family crisis, misunderstanding with his boss) and unconsciously disturb others.
Clowning Conrad	Clowning Conrad every minute plays a fool and makes jokes not necessary connected to a topic.
Wise Willy	Wise Willy must boast he has finished two faculties – As the latest research says – claims Willy – it seems, that interdisciplinary definition of the problem allows draw a conclusion that...
Changing Topic Tom	Changing Topic Tom is a person, who when a trainer finishes a sentence, claims: “indeed, it makes sense, I remember, when I was on holidays and there was a swimming pool, and...” Tom likes giving examples not suitable to a topic.

Source: Eitington, J.E., 1996. *The Winning Trainer*. Houston: Gulf Publishing Company.

5. Teaching techniques without a play

Training techniques without playing, improving knowledge and skills of learners (students, employees during trainings etc.), are different from each other by a level of creativity. As the result of that they can give various effects of a learning session. It is worth mention about six of them [Jolles 2005, pp. 98–110]:

- a presentation,
- a lecture,
- a discussion,
- a case study.

A presentation, a lecture and a discussion are aimed at relaying new knowledge at the stage of conscious competence – when the teaching process ends. The most important question asked to the participants is “why” and it should be mentioned as often as possible. It is better when a lecturer asks open questions, because in favouring circumstances it lets change attitudes and behaviors of learners. They are also intangibly forced to an open, mutual conversation.

A case study fits when the aim of a learning is to develop analytic and creative thinking. This technique works in the unconscious competence stage, which is formed not in a direct way but through analogous tasks let participants understand the facts to the real life. Similar technique to the case study is playing parts, especially indispensable in shaping roles in a team or a firm.

These teaching techniques are mostly based on the traditional communication process, shown in the figure no. 1. It contains theoretical knowledge without an opportunity to test it or use anyway in practice. They are loved by academic societies and hated by adults, who have to develop professional skills during trainings. It is so because in today’s demanding corporate environment,

classroom time is still valuable, but learning organizations must adapt with the times and implement new approaches. Classroom learning should no longer consist of isolated events meant to transfer information from a lecturer to a student. Rather, face-to-face instruction should serve as an extended process where learners can also converse with peers to discuss the content they have absorbed in advance of the day's classroom meeting [Minocha 2006, p. 20].

6. Teaching techniques with a play

Nevertheless the technique which becomes more and more popular among training companies and universities are games and plays. The importance of this technique derives from the fact that 50% of a human brain develops and shapes up till the four year of a human life. When a child is 10 years old, 80% of its brain is shaped and the last 20% of the human supercomputer develops till the eighteen birthday [Dryden, Vos 2000, pp. 213–229]. Tony Buzan, a specialist at training with games and plays, has such experiences: “After thirty years questioning people, what the word education means for them, I drew a conclusion that there are nine basic definitions. There are: boredom, exams, homework, wasting time, a punishment, irreality, lessons, hatred and fear. However, when you ask a four-year child who attend to a good infant school, it says it is a great fun” [Dryden, Vos 2000, p. 175].

Nowadays most of training specialists and scientists admit that there is a real need to come back in relaying knowledge to a cheerful feeling of a play, which was present in every of us in an early childhood. Rafał Szczepanik, a partner in Training Partners Sp. z o.o., claims a good play should both make fun and relax and integrate employees. It mustn't base on criticizing and mocking behaviors of participants, but it ought to consist of discussion about roles in a team, ways of decision making, verbal and non-verbal communication, customs and behaviors [Szczepanik 2006, p. 16]. This technique is so innovative because it turns the great rule of training, which Gordon Dryden formed as: “Remember about the rule which you learnt making puzzle: it is much easier to do it when you can see the whole picture before.” As the games and plays are concerned, they should be unpredictable and the aim of that should be hidden till the end. In addition, today's most successful learning programs embrace advances in technology. Therefore, the most optimal learning programs should consist of both classroom time and e-learning methods. By offering a variety of learning models, people learn in different ways.

“By 2011, gaming will emerge as a critical component in a majority of corporate learning solutions. Game-based learning can significantly accelerate the transfer and application of knowledge. It is recommended to leverage the scalability and immersion characteristics of games to accelerate the time to competency and depth of competency” [HR Focus July 2007, p. 5].

As Plato said: “You learn more about a person in an hour of play than in a year of conversation”, learning from games is truly captured when games are employed as an educational tool. Nowadays many universities have been demanding major changes in use of real-world applications, cases, spreadsheets, and collaboration with other functional areas, which can be described as “learning by doing”. All applications are mostly in the world-wide-web, using distance and blended learning [Erkut 2000, p. 24]. Video game techniques can be used for a variety of corporate training and academic purposes, from teaching simple tasks to higher-level management skills.

For example, L’Oreal, the French cosmetics company, uses an online game, the e-Strat Challenge, for recruiting managerial candidates (www.e-strat.loreal.com/_int/_en/index.aspx). Many companies, from the military and airline industries, use simulations to train employees to perform tasks or to learn emergency evacuation routes. “Examples of these applications include Cold Stone Creamery’s ice cream scooping game, which became popular worldwide, and a similar game Quiznos has developed for building a submarine sandwich, called Sub Commander, according to the companies’ Web sites” [HR Focus, July 2007, p. 5].

Figure 4. Companies in teaching process

“While IBM’s research may be aimed at helping to build its own consulting business, it comes at a time when there’s a flurry of corporate experimentation in games. McKinsey & Co. is using video games to test recruits for leadership potential and assess their team-building style. Royal Philips Electronics (PHG) and Johnson & Johnson (JNJ), meanwhile, are using multiplayer games to improve collaboration between far-flung divisions, as well as between managers and their overseas underlings. What distinguishes the latest corporate forays into the gaming world is the degree to which companies are tapping virtual environments to hone the leadership skills of their workers. By 2011, 80% of Internet users will have avatars, or digital versions of themselves, for work and play, according to market researcher Gartner (IT). By the end of 2012, half of all U.S. companies will also have digital offices or ‘networked virtual environments,’ adds Gartner. The online game world will become an important place to hold meetings, orient new hires, and communicate across the globe.”

Source: McConnon, A., 2007, June 14. IBM’s Management Games. No fooling around: Big Blue is promoting a video game that could change the way companies develop leaders and manage projects. *BusinessWeek*.

Another innovative way of relaying new knowledge at the unconscious competence level is a survival game. Most of outdoor trainings which are offered in Poland are focused on team building, improving interactions in a team or a firm or is only treated as an holiday event. If the firm expects achieving such goals, the most essential things are a exciting, innovative idea, good organization and safety of participants. If the firm mostly wants a profound educational effect (communication, conflicts solving, change management, project management, planning, time management), the training session should be prepared in order to the four-stage learning theory.

It is worth saying that a survival session can not be an exhausting marathon of games and plays. It must base on the assumption that at first participants experience, then discuss and analyze and at last – plan how to put it into practice. If trainers concentrate only on an innovative way of learning and pass over in silence discussion, drawing conclusions and individual experiences, the training session will not achieve the aim.

7. Conclusion

The process of learning, so relaying new knowledge at the four stage of the efficient learning theory, has always been changing. Innovations in teaching techniques are aimed at increasing their efficiency. The positive effects of that should be both for lecturers and their student, trainers and employees as well..

Increasing popularity of business simulations is the fact. They plunge students into real business situations. In a real-time simulated business environment, students strategize, make decisions, and see the immediate consequences of their actions. Then they learn from their mistakes. They do according to the Chinese proverb: “When I hear, I forget. When I see, I remember. When I do, I understand” [Bisoux May/June 2007, p. 38].

Playing games do not stimulate learning on their own. Computer based simulations throw a problem out there and provide a sophisticated model of play, but at the end of the day, the game is a mechanism for conversation among colleagues. It provides a shared experience and common language to discuss an issue. The experience remains much longer and to more extend then a traditional presentation. In addition it causes a strong addiction to such a way of learning, which makes people willing to answer to the title question: to play.

Abstract

The paper consists of basics characteristic of adults' learning process and a comparison between playing and not-playing during the process. The authors tries to show the difference in effectiveness when training in these two ways. There are also some examples of training styles in different companies.

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Communication in Global Work Group Projects

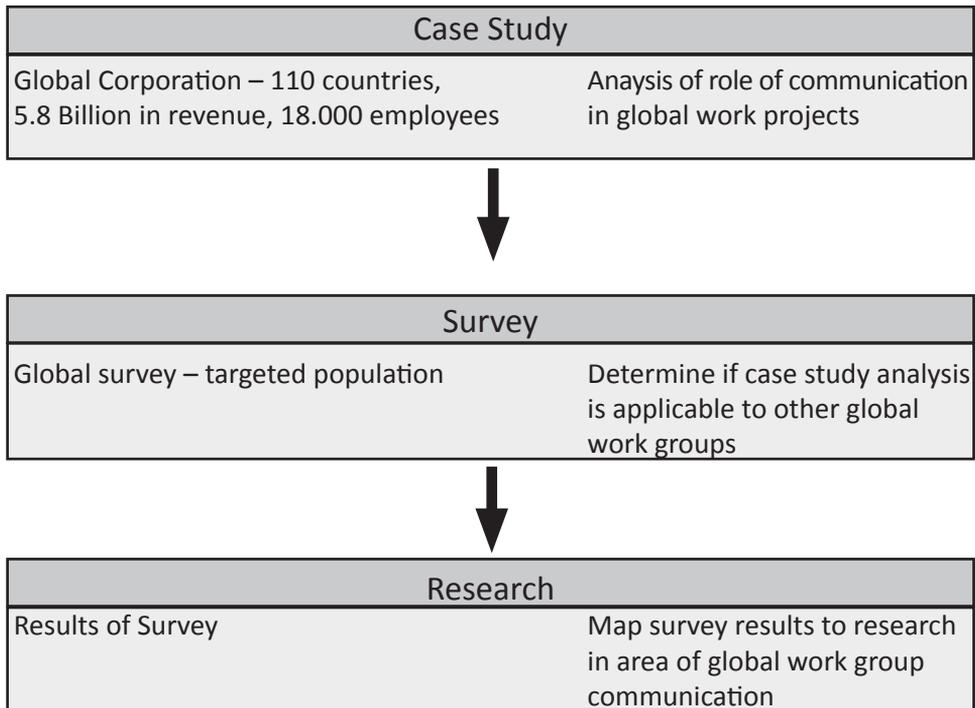
1. Case Study: Role of Communication in Global Work Group Projects

The term global work group as used in this paper is defined as a working unit consisting of individuals who are geographically dispersed, separated by time, geography and culture. They must effectively communicate and interact to achieve strategic organizational results [Grosse 2003]. What makes global work groups unique is that their area of focus usually falls under the umbrella of project or task focused endeavors that can spans across many organizational functions. As result, global group team members join a project, execute their tasks and move on. Today's global work groups are probably best categorized by the term "ensembles" [Logeski and Riley 2008]. Like any ensemble, work group members need to be aligned on objectives and deliverables, understand their role and that of their peers and execute "performance" to the best of their ability. Communication, knowledge sharing and collaboration are hallmarks of working in global virtual environment (see figure on page 37) [Oakley 1998].

The following case study will demonstrate the role of communication in a corporate global initiative. What is unique about this case study is that two project implementations with the same solution, managed by the same project managers within the same corporate function, resulted in two different conclusions.

A global premier measurement company was looking for a solution for an enterprise wide contracts document management system. The corporation is one of the world's premier measurement firms and a technology leader in communications, electronics, life sciences and chemical analysis. The company's 18,000 employees serve customers in more than 110 countries and reported net revenues of \$5.8 billion in fiscal 2008. One of the company's major infrastructure functions had a technology need for a contracts document management

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system. The function was a global infrastructure support organization. A team was assigned from the organization's project management group to source a contracts document management tool that met specific requirements: secure storage and retrieval of contracts documents, ease of use and quick adoption by user, minimal system administration, global reach and cost effectiveness.

After investigating many commercially available automated solutions, the project team developed a very innovative solution that was not only efficient, but highly cost effective. They decided to use an existing enterprise wide collaboration tool – ECM Documentum's® eRoom. The tool provided document management functionality and met a majority of the stated requirements. Originally, the tool was selected for document management of Commercial contracts in 2006. The project spanned 7 months. It was a truly innovative approach and achieved quick user acceptance as many users were familiar with using eRoom as a collaboration tool. (The first rollout is referred to in this paper as the Alpha Project.) With the success of the Alpha project, it was decided to apply the eRoom solution to the Procurement function. Procurement also had a need to replace an outdated contract document management system. This rollout is referred to throughout this narrative as the Omega Project. Each implementation was managed by the same project management group.

Both projects followed standard project management methodologies and each had engaged executive sponsors. Alpha team was highly successful in meeting the project objectives: implementation of the solution and user acceptance. The Omega project team also executed the implementation of the automated tool flawlessly; however user adoption proved to be a major hurdle. After both Alpha and Omega phase were completed, the project team debriefed and conducted a Lessons Learned session. The purpose of conducting a Lessons Learned session at the conclusion of a project is to catalog what went well and what could have been done differently. This inventory is documented and becomes an organizational asset that should be reviewed at the start of any new project initiative. During the Lessons Learned discussions, it became apparent that one of the key differentiator for project success was the communication approach employed. A deeper investigation also uncovered a difference in the training methodology – Alpha employed face to face training sessions, where Omega’s training was conducted in a virtual environment.

Alpha team was the first to implement the eRoom contract management solution. The project management group is structured as a composite organization. (A composite organization is one that creates a group to handle strategic or special projects.) [Project Management Institute 2008] Two project managers were assigned to design and rollout the associated business processes and training associated with the new tool. (One of the techniques employed by the corporate function’s project management group is to apply “2 in-a-box” approach – where 2 project managers work together in the rollout of a large project. This approach affords flexibility and coverage in terms of project management bandwidth. It also improves decision making and problem resolutions as two individuals work in collaborative synergy to achieve the optimal outcome.) Alpha team focused on the sale side of contract management. Core team members and end users of the new tool were located in various regions around the world – Europe, South America, Japan, and Asia Pacific. As part of the rollout, face to face meetings were approved for both the data migration phase and user training on the new tool. The project managers met with the core team (made up of regional representatives) on bi weekly bases in a virtual environment and used virtual technology tools – phone conferences, WebEx® and email exchanges. However, during critical phases (data migration and training) the team did come together for a weeklong face to face meeting. Once the training of the core team regional representatives was completed, they returned to their regional offices to train their intact (onsite) teams. Each phase of the training was done in a face to face meeting. Upon completion of the training, all commercial contracts personnel began using the new tool and required very little post implementation support from the core team. After the implementation, the project managers monitored the situation for 30 days – and there were no user issues or technology issues with the tool.

Given the success of Alpha, it was decided by management to apply the same solution to the Omega (Procurement) environment. The organizational structure of the Procurement group was global in scope similar to the Contracts function. However, Project Omega was initiated in 2008 and was impacted by the downturn in the economy. Face to face meetings were curtailed with one exception: the face to face meeting for the core team to conduct the data migration. No users participated in the face to face migration phase. Data migration was successfully completed when the Omega team learned that training would need to be done in a virtual environment. Users were required to attend training sessions on how to use the new tool and its business application through WebEx® (desktop sharing technology tool). Unlike the Alpha training, there was no face to face training, even for the local intact teams.

It is important to note that the training was conducted in a “send and receive” mode where instructors used graphics on the WebEx screen while users listened via a conference call. There was very little interaction between users and the instructors given the time and technology constraints for the training presentations. Many users were from geographical regions where English is a second language. The amount of information was overwhelming for those who needed to translate simultaneously. There was no way for instructors to monitor users’ facial expressions or body language in the virtual training environment. This issue of simultaneous translation had been raised by the project team when the decision to conduct global training in a virtual environment was announced. However, given the financial constraints of the economic downturn there was no alternative but to conduct the training virtually. The project team’s awareness of intercultural communication issues can be attributed to the company’s focus on working in global environment. But for the Omega team, economic prudence took precedence over face to face training sessions.

After the training, users began to utilize the tool and many experienced difficulties. It is important to note, that the solution implemented –eRoom – was a corporate collaboration tool that all users were familiar with. It was not the tool that was proving to be an obstacle, but rather users’ understanding of applying business processes (contracts document management) in the eRoom environment. Post implementation support became a major issue with many hours spent by the core team in addressing users’ issues/questions/complaints. It took nearly 7 additional months of support and the rollout of 1 on 1 virtual training sessions to reach stability.

What was the business impact of foregoing a face to face meeting? The most visible impact is the amount of time and labor dollars invested to address issues experienced by procurement users. Support by the Omega project team for additional post-implementation training exceeded the cost of travel by 67%¹.

¹ Project team calculated hours spend on post implementation support using a simple database and cost calculations are based on internal labor costs for a Full Time employee per job level. The

This additional cost is above the threshold set by research studies that suggests a 50% increase in cost can be expected if face to face meetings are not allowed for high impact global projects [Logeski and Riley 2008]. Not only was there a negative financial impact as a result of no face to face training, but it was a lost opportunity for Omega project team members to focus on other projects. Another consideration is the time that users needed to invest above and beyond the original training to grasp and understand the tool and its' application.

Another differing factor in the communication approach, discovered during the Lessons Learned debriefing, was the frequency of communication with the executive sponsor. Both project sponsors were engaged and had sufficient executive power to resolve conflicts over resource allocation, schedules and funding. Both exhibited a keen interest in the project results and were advocates of the project. However, the sponsors had different communication styles and communication plans were adapted accordingly by the project managers. Understanding different leadership and communication styles of principle stakeholders – like project sponsors – is a core competency for a project manager. Alpha had regularly scheduled bi-weekly calls with the project sponsor to debrief with the project status and upcoming milestones. Omega's communication schedule had a less periodic check-in schedule.

In analyzing the outcomes of the Lessons Learned from the Alpha and Omega projects, a few critical success factors are apparent:

- Frequency of communication within a global work group,
- Face to Face Meetings to complement virtual meetings,
- Importance of Global Collaboration Awareness,
- Importance of Lessons Learned.

But are these factors unique just to these two projects? Do project managers, work group members and executive sponsors ensure that enough attention and focus is given to these factors on each global project? To answer these questions, a survey was released to global project managers with questions structured around these four critical success factors.

2. Survey on Global Work Group Communication – Methodology and Approach

An online survey, consisting of 20 multiple choice and 4 open ended questions was conducted from 24th August 2009 through 6th September 2009. The responses were solicited from a targeted audience who had a minimum of 2 years experience in managing global implementations or engagements. These professionals were trained or certified in Project management methodology and/or Six Sigma™ or

67% additional cost does not take into account the time invested by the users to attend remedial training. The actual cost is probably more than 67%.

IACCM (International Association of Commercial Contract Management) core competency training. The participants were experienced in managing global projects within their companies. No individual responses were analyzed, but rather all responses were consolidated. As the survey was global in scope, the introduction contained a list of Operational Definitions. This glossary of terms was designed to help assist the respondent when answering the questionnaire, as well as to ensure consistent understanding of survey terms. The surveys analyzed (N=130) represents a small sample size, however, the distribution of regions are well represented with 48.8% from the Americas, 34.9% from EMEA and 16.3% from Asia Pacific. Industry representation in the sample spanned 15 different industries: banking, constructing, engineering, retail and technology to name a few. A large majority of respondents (83.3%) categorized their project used for the survey as a success.

The data gathered from the survey questions on COMMUNICATION (questions 3 through 8, 10 and 11.), presents an interesting picture of 21st century global work group communication. Less than 1% of projects had only face to face meetings. Over 80% utilized a combination of face to face and virtual meetings, while 28.5% had all virtual meetings. This data underscores the impact of advances in collaborative technology tools that allow global projects to be conducted. Today's global companies are information based, electronically connected, and work is completed online. The term "virtual work group" [Lipnack 1997] coined in 1991 has now become an established model thanks to communication technical innovations. A key collaboration tool used by most respondents is Cisco's Web Ex®. It is considered to be one the most effective technology for conducting business in the 21 century. [Economist 2008]. The tool allows for real time, interactive knowledge sharing for geographically dispersed group members by combining online visuals with conference call capability including audio and visual recording. Based on the feedback from respondents, communicating and working in a virtual environment did not hinder their ability to complete their objectives. Only 20% experienced an extended project timeline as a result of virtual communication and only 18.5% felt that project deliverables were impeded by communicating virtually.

Respondents did indicate that frequency of communication was more important than the method of communication for ensuring project success. Continuous communication is a critical strategy that needs to be employed when managing virtual work groups [Grosse 2003]. 67.7% had scheduled weekly or bi-weekly meetings with their global work teams and 20% had daily communication with their work groups. Frequent communication was seen as a critical success factor for achieving highly participatory levels of engagement of work group members: 59.7% of respondents had high level of member engagement and 38% had adequate participation. Frequent communication by global work group project leads creates a virtual environment that suggests to group members

a sense of supportiveness, participation, trust, openness and collaboration. Ongoing dialogue with global group members diffuses misunderstanding and deflates mis-information. The project group lead needs to establish credibility with the global work group. Credibility, coupled with competency and sincerity form the cornerstone of establishing trust with group members. These factors are critical for ensuring progress and success for the global work group [Buzzanell, Shohl 2009]. Continual communication is not just about project status and schedule updates. Open communication must include setting clear and specific roles and responsibilities; defining achievable goals and objectives; and continual feedback on work group member's performance [Eisenberg, Goodall Jr. 2001; Drucker 1999].

The same can be said of the importance of frequent communication with the project sponsor as 94.6% of respondents had ongoing and scheduled updates with their sponsors. Level of sponsor engagement that was characterized as highly participatory was 58.1% and 24.8% considered sponsor engagement as adequate. Executive leadership, participation and communication are critical to any global initiative. The ability to effectively communicate at the interpersonal, group and organizational level is a core competency necessary to ensure organizational goals and objectives are realized. Executive sponsors need to apply these core competencies at the tactical/project level especially in a global environment [Gundling 2007].

Although communication technology can bring global work members together virtually at the same time, it cannot completely mitigate the impact of time zones. Global group work members need to identify the "time zone" factor as a major dependency from the onset of the project/initiative [Reyes 2009]. Everything from scheduling virtual meetings to finalizing a project deliverable will be impacted by the time zone in which team members reside. The farther apart team members are located geographically, the more time zones they have to cross to communicate. Time becomes a major factor when work tasks need to be synchronized. And the window for synchronization (real time communication) decreases proportionally to the increase in number of time zones represented by group members.

There is a potential for communication to default to the asynchronous mode (one way communication such as email) if global project leads are not proactive. Communication must be scheduled so that all global group members share the "inconvenience factor" of attending virtual meetings during "off work" hours. Many global work groups are aware of the impact of "time zone inconvenience" as it usually addressed when scheduling virtual meetings at the onset of the project. However, it is important as the project proceeds, that the timing of meetings being periodically re-visited to ensure against 'Standard Calling Mode'. "Standard Calling Mode" is when one specific global time is set for meetings – with one time zone constantly experiencing the "inconvenience factor" and it

is never re-visited. This is because as higher project priorities take precedence as the global initiative gains momentum, conference call scheduling takes a lower priority. Global work leads need to implement a “sanity check” throughout the project schedule to ensure that scheduled virtual meetings are not putting on a particular time zone at a consistent disadvantage.

It is not only the world clock that needs to be taken into account on a global project. Global work groups must understand that each culture has its own sense of temporal dimension: “What does on time mean?” to each global member [Levine 1997]. Cultural differences among global group members can give rise to issues during conflict resolution. The idea of time has hidden dimensions that can confuse communication among members. In the West, the concept of time is viewed as a linear event, where in the Eastern world, time is seen as “looping process”. It is important at the start of a project or engagement that global group members address the difference in time perceptions to mitigate potential misunderstanding and conflict [LeBaron 2003].

Given the explosion on online resources, global team members have access to learning and understanding the “temporal” dimensions of their peers at their fingertips. Some examples of such tool are Aperian’s GlobeSmart®, the Dr. Geert Hofstede™ Cultural Dimensions Center for consultative online web tools for assessing cultural differences. Cultural awareness prep work should be a mandatory project deliverable on a global initiative.

Responses to questions on the importance of FACE TO FACE MEETINGS (Questions 9, 13, 14, 16–19)² indicate that onsite meeting for global work groups are essential: 70% surveyed considered the impact of meeting face to face as positive. Improved communication (30.2%) and Better Cooperation and Collaboration (42.6%) were cited as positive outcomes of face to face meetings. Face to face meetings were cited among the top tier critical factors for ensuring project success. Management approval for funding face to face meetings occurred mostly when the project was strategic in nature and had the potential of management of change issues (52.0%). Many respondents did cite lack of budget or executive sponsorship for failure to secure onsite meetings for their virtual teams (34.4%). This is an important consideration for global corporations – to weigh the impact of cost of face to face meetings against lost opportunity costs. It is estimated by the year 2012 that 40% of multinational corporations will be working in a virtual distributed environment [Domick, Reilly, Lojeski 2007]. It is also incumbent on global project leads to ensure that s/he makes a very strong case for justifying the need for a face to face meeting. Research conducted on effective virtual teams over the years, almost universally attribute a least part of a team’s success on an effective start up face to face meeting [Fisher &

² Complete survey is available as an Appendix.

Fisher 2001]. This is especially true at the onset of a global project or a global project that will require training [Grosse 2003; Gisson, Cohen 2003; Kirkman 2004]. Alignment and commitment from global group members takes much longer when face to face meetings do not occur. Meeting and sharing ideas at an onsite venue, enhances understanding, aids collaboration and innovation while minimizing potential misunderstandings and conflicts that can arise during a long term project [Kerber, Buono 2005].

Responses to questions on the impact of MULTICULTURAL PROJECT TEAMS (Questions 12, 16 and 17) indicate the multicultural make up of a global group is not a major critical success factor or a major inhibitor to project success. Only 10% of those surveyed felt that a multicultural team was a divisive element, while 51.9% experienced no impact and 37.2% responded that the great synergy from a multicultural team accelerated the project execution. In terms of project success, multicultural team composition was rated last as a critical success factor. In exploring the major factor for a project failure, again a team's global makeup was rated as the least important factor for project failure.

There are several reasons for these results. A work group composed of members from various cultures and geographies has long been considered a competitive strength. In 69 AD, the Roman Emperor Vespasian, exploited the notion of intercultural synergy, and consciously placed various ethnic groups within the legion units to improve military strength [Grant 1997]. In the 14th century, monks staffed their scriptoriums with copyists, linguists and illustrators from around the world to support their mission to copy and preserve books from around the known world. The work required a multicultural team [DeHamel 1992].

Today's global corporations also recognize the strategic importance of multicultural work groups. By shifting work across time zones, there are several key strategic benefits to be gleaned by multinational corporations [Thondavadi, Albert 2004]: access to deeper talent pool product and process innovation, cost efficiencies to mention a few.

Knowledge sharing is also enhanced by the multicultural composition of the work group. As group members take advantage of different perspectives, talents and ideas, their synergy increases an organization effectiveness to compete on the global stage [Cummins 2004]. Effectiveness and efficiency is the hallmark of 21st century successful global enterprises. In the age of globalization, multinational corporations need to employ, engage and educate their multicultural teams on the importance of collaboration. It is tantamount to business survival.

What is critical to achieving the synergy of multicultural work group is to ensure that specific goals of the project are clearly communicated to group members. The second action that needs to be taken into account, is to communicate to group members that collaboration will ensure their place with the organization. A finally, the corporate culture has to be the "stated" framework within the group members work. A focus on a common culture (the

corporation) will help to join various cultural members under the same umbrella as the project moves forward [Caruso, Rogers, Bazerman 2008].

The survey posed two questions around the topic of LESSONS LEARNED (question 15 and 20): Only 14% of respondents did not conduct Lessons Learned. The 86% who did formally debrief after the project was completed, focused on critical communication issues as part of the debriefing: Team engagement (57.9%), Communication Plan (54.5%), Role of project sponsor (44.6%), Role of Virtual Communication (41.3%) and Training Methodology (32.2%). These results are not surprising given the profiles of the respondents. Lessons Learned, also known as Reflectives, Debriefs or Post Mortems are standard practices within communities of interest such as project management. Most respondents had been trained in structured processes and methodologies that focus on the importance of reviewing various aspects of project processes – especially communication. Lessons Learned are basically a “story telling event” where group members relate their perspectives on the project life cycle.

There are many benefits to conducting Lessons Learned. Each member brings unique insights to the conversation. The conversation is a valuable knowledge sharing practice for participants. Group members recount what worked and what can be improved on future engagements. The group members’ “stories” captured in a Lesson Learned document become part of an instructional support system for future projects, helping others to apply best practices and to avoid painful pitfalls [Tobin 2007]. The process of reviewing Lessons Learned before the start of a new initiative should be a mandatory undertaking for every global work group. The value of Lessons Learned can best be summed up as: *There is no wisdom equal to that which comes after the event.* Geraldine Jewsbury – English literary critic and author (1812–1880). By conducting a Lessons Learned event, the global work group also reaches closure on the project. This is important as global work groups tend to break up as an entity and members move onto other projects. A healthy introspection by global team members allows them to acknowledge their efforts and celebrate their successes. They are now ready to move on to their next assignment [DiTullio 2007].

For the open ended question section of the survey (Questions 21–24), 87% of respondents provided detailed comments and suggestions. Many major themes emerged around the importance of face to face meetings, importance of communication, role of project sponsor and the impact of multicultural teams. Many of these recommendations from business professionals managing global initiatives, echo the findings an in-depth analysis of working patterns in virtual projects [Khazanchi, Zigurs 2005]. The following sets of maxims were derived from the central ideas provided by the respondents to specific questions on the survey: role of communication framework; role of multi-culturism in global work groups; role of sponsor engagement and ideas for improving communication on projects involving global work groups.

Maxims for the Project Leader of a Global Work Group Project/Initiative:

- I. Rotate time of virtual meetings
- II. Stress the corporate culture over local culture
- III. Encourage sharing “stories” to find a common personal bond
- IV. Communicate often at the group and individual level
- V. Clearly define roles, responsibilities and expectations
- VI. Proactively encourage regional inputs/ideas
- VII. Invest heavily in relationship building
- VIII. Communicate, engage and collaborate
- IX. Conduct “Lessons Learned” from a business and personal perspectives.
- X. Celebrate the group’s success

Maxims for the Executive Sponsor of a Global Work Group Project/Initiative:

- I. Be Committed
- II. Demonstrate support through words and actions
- III. Conduct weekly check in calls with global team
- IV. Have meaningful dialogues
- V. Run Interference when obstacles are encountered by the global team
- VI. Shield the global team from corporate politics, distractions
- VII. Keep the global team grounded and engaged
- VIII. Communicate, Engage and Collaborate
- IX. Always practice generous listening
- X. Be a Leadership Mentor/Role Model

3. Conclusions

A global work group is a living organism that is dependent on communication for ensuring viability and productivity. Communication not only provides the necessary linkages for requesting and sending information, it also acts as a conduit for building relationships, defining roles and responsibilities and sharing of the global work group’s objectives. Working in a global work environment is feasible and productive in the 21st Century due to the advances of technology. However, attitudes, behaviors and awareness of time and culture by global work group members are more critical than ever. Leaders and managers of large global initiatives need to proactively educate their work groups on the most productive ways to work virtually.

Most multinational corporations recognize that to survive in today’s competitive environment, communicating in a virtual environment across cultures must be a core competency. By synthesizing the learning of academia and industry communities of interest, most large global firms have overcome the communication barriers of the virtual world. The level of success depends on two critical strategic factors: (1) implementing state-of-the-art communication technology and (2) a corporate focus on educating employees on collaborating

globally. But working around the obstacles of time zones and cultural differences is not easy to navigate. It requires careful planning and execution.

Abstract

Today's global work groups depend heavily on timely communication, employee empowerment and cultural awareness. Global work groups, consisting of individuals who are geographically dispersed, must effectively communicate and interact to achieve strategic organizational results. This unique situation requires managers and employees to adapt to new ways of communicating. Current technology offers a plethora of solutions, tools and processes for networking. But does technology competently provide globally, dispersed teams a meaningful platform for communication? What is the optimal communication method for bridging cultural differences within a global work group? Should a global enterprise adopt a single approach to overcome the communication barriers of time and geography? Companies today constantly wrestle with these questions in their quest for global operational excellence. This research paper will explore the most effective global work group communication framework using a comparison of two global project implementations, identical in design and implementation – except for the communication plans employed. This real life case study will explore how differing communication models led to success in one project and ineffective results on the other.

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Performance Through Relationships. Towards a Cohesive Virtual Intercultural Team

1. Virtualization at Workplace

“Results through teamwork” – a slogan present at many global layers of the contemporary world. For many, this is also a core value defining the model of working, and the desired form of relationships between employees. Yet, as a result of global expansion, team members are more and more frequently dispersed in different locations, sometimes even in different time zones. In many cases, various locations mean crossing cultural borders. The world starts working in the mode of virtual intercultural teams.

Geographically distributed work is not new but it has received increased attention in recent years. Why is it becoming more widespread? There are three important trends towards explaining it. The first one: large and also smaller companies in well-developed countries have increased their outsourcing of tasks to contractors in other countries, the model which is known as offshoring. Currently, there is a trend towards offshoring knowledge-based services. The second one: multinational corporations have shifted employment within their own boundaries. They are increasing their employment in developing countries through new investments designed to provide more market opportunities. The third trend: all types of enterprises take advantage of lower costs and improved performance of information and communications technology [MacDuffie 2007, p. 550]. Next to team members themselves, technology plays a key role in communication in a virtual work environment.

The degree of diversity has probably reached its highest level ever. In the circumstances of global expansion, no other means have proven so effective as the creative use of diversity: diversity of perspectives, ways of thinking, preferences, opinions, education, and cultures. Diversity is an asset not easy to use. Like fire, it needs to be handled carefully. Used in a proper way, it will produce results that few other factors could generate.

Why would the diversity of cultures in a team be an exquisite asset? If handled with care, different opinions, preferences about ways of working, various mindsets will result in understanding various markets and diverse customers. Teams whose members have various backgrounds will be more creative, more flexible, and more responsive to the needs of the fluctuating environment. How to get and maintain these positive outcomes of teamwork? The baseline for effective and smooth teamwork of a virtual and intercultural team can sometimes be challenging to obtain: its cohesion.

2. Virtual Team Cohesion

In any environment, teamwork is fundamentally social and bases on relationships between and among team members. Cohesion is critical for team functioning in both collocated and virtual environments. How to create relationships among people who have never seen each other, never met face to face? How to have good communication, effective problem solving, proper customer care? In a virtual setting, it needs special attention – this is another reason why virtual team leaders need to develop extra competencies [as in: Chutnik, Grzesik 2009, pp. 87–89].

Building cohesion of virtual intercultural team is a process which encompasses various aspects, such as team atmosphere, learning and information sharing, self-image and team identity, personalities and habits, practical tools, team development and planning processes [Nemiro, Beyerlein, Bradley, Beyerlein 2008, pp. 93–96]. Let us have a closer look at them.

2.1. Team atmosphere

Team atmosphere is both the baseline and the outcome of team cohesion. How to establish and maintain good team atmosphere in a team whose members are working in different regions, countries or even on different continents? The process can turn out to be quite challenging. Usually, it is necessary to plan time dedicated specifically and exquisitely to team building. During team building activities team members have the opportunity to get to know each other and learn about common interests, goals, or even fears. Wisely applied, such activities will not only bring team members together on the personal level but will also enrich their cultural sensitivity. Cultural knowledge can be increased by providing information about the local customs, traditions, geography, government, economy and current events of a country. Team members should gain this

knowledge, discover common areas and become more skilled at cross-cultural communication and adaptability [Combs, Peacocke 2007, p. 28]. Understanding each other on the personal and on the cultural level can help to build good and open atmosphere among team members.

Good atmosphere in a team is also connected with trust. What is not easy to observe in a collocated team, can be even more difficult to influence, develop or just steer in a virtual setting. What is more, depending on the culture of origin, the intensity of demand for trust can also differ. Information technology used in virtual teams can change the context of human relationship and trust [Jarvenpaa, Shaw, Staples 2004, p. 250] but it would not eliminate the need for it. Building and maintaining trust in virtual teams requires much more effort than in face-to-face teams but is necessary for gaining benefits of teamwork.

2.2. Learning and information sharing

Team members as individuals and as a group constitute the biggest part of any organization's intellectual capital. This capital plays an essential role in achieving key objectives of an organization. To work well, team members need to learn good teamwork practices. If the team wants to create competitive advantage, it is necessary to use knowledge cumulated in team members' minds.

Team learning is essential to accelerating organizational results. The team learning concept is vital when [Moran 2005, pp. 459–460] diverse perspectives are needed to have the knowledge and skills to meet the deadlines, when a cross-functional team is working on a new problem outside the scope of other issues, when the deadline is tight and people have limited resources to get the project done, or when innovation is essential to design and implement new products and services.

Team learning goes hand in hand with skills such as listening, giving feedback and presenting ideas to other team members. Another desired skill is the ability to reflect on one's own and team experience. Reflection is the time for the team to share what went well and to identify changes necessary to keep the team moving forward [Moran 2005, p. 460].

Sharing information can be connected with the need to become more competitive by bringing innovative products and services to the global market better and faster than competitors. Bringing together a wide and diverse range of knowledge, expertise, competencies and skills gives opportunity to create culturally synergistic solutions and operate better than competitors.

Because of the complex nature of virtual context, the ability to communicate effectively and then sharing knowledge can become a daunting task in a virtual setting. Teams may create mutual knowledge. This mutual knowledge is an important aspect of engendering effective virtual team interactions and, ultimately, team performance [Davis, Khazanchi 2007, p. 57].

2.3. Self-image and team identity

To achieve the benefits of cohesion, separate members first need to understand themselves not only as a group of individuals working together – they need to understand themselves as a unique entity: a team. This means that the relationship to the external environment needs to be clear. A team needs to have a clear understanding how it can relate itself to the external world, how it is most likely perceived by others and – what is maybe even more crucial – how it *wants to* be perceived. Creating the team's self-image should not be a result of a coincidence but needs to be taken care of from the very first days of the team's existence. The very first step towards creating the team's self image would be to create a **name** for the team – an excellent opportunity for a discussion about how the members want to feel about their affiliation. A good team name can be a vehicle for positive identification, energy, professionalism, customer focus, etc.

The other aspect of team identity is the answer to a basic identity question: Why do we exist? What is the purpose of our working together as a team? What do we want to achieve through working together? Answering these questions could easily be compared to working out the **vision and mission** of a company – on a smaller scale. It is important that all team members agree with and accept this vision and mission [as in: Dewar 2006, p. 23]. In a virtual and intercultural context, it can mean that sometimes very long discussions are needed so that everyone's voice is heard. Ideally, a part of such discussions could be run in a face to face setting. What consumes more time and effort in the creation phase saves time and effort in the future: team members' actions are aimed at the same direction and it is easier for all to identify priorities. For members joining the team in the future, a ready vision and mission will support the enabling process and will speed up their identification with the team as a whole.

2.4. Personalities and habits

Working in a team is a challenge even in a collocated and monocultural setting. Different personalities and habits can make it difficult to remain effective or to maintain good relationships. In an intercultural setting, the cooperation becomes even more challenging. Let us consider such simple aspects like understanding of time, which has a direct effect on the approach to organizing work (are many things done simultaneously or are tasks done in sequence one after another?) or understanding of what 'punctual' or 'deadline' means in practice (Is it the first possible date of having a task ready or rather the last possible date to be ready with a task?). Simple differences can cause huge misunderstandings and tensions. In both virtual and collocated setting, this would result in communication barriers, doubts about mutual respect, and ultimately – low team performance.

Cross-cultural differences between virtual team members can also be connected with the absence of non-verbal cues. Visual cues such as a posture, smile, nod, voice and eye contact provide important indications and meaning to

understanding of what is communicated by another person. Members coming from culture which relies on body language, gestures, facial expressions and proximity can have difficulties in communicating. What is more, they can have difficulty in establishing trust and relationships with the diverse team members. It is important to know and understand these cross-cultural differences [Zakaria, Amelinckx, Wilemon 2004, p. 23].

What could clarify, or best – prevent such tensions would be working out a common understanding of crucial terms (What do we mean in our team when we say: the deadline is...?), conscious articulation of differences in personalities and habits with both advantages and risks for teamwork, and common clear rules of communication. As members of virtual intercultural teams tend to be rather independent, the recommended option for working out the rules would be to facilitate a discussion among team members and encourage them to find a way that would be most convenient and most effective for all. Good and open team atmosphere will strongly support this process.

2.5. Practical tools

Any virtual team, be it mono- or multicultural, needs to overcome the barrier of space – and frequently also of time. To do it effectively, it needs to have a whole range of communication tools at hand. Fortunately, they are easy to find and obtainable not only in modern rich corporations. It would not be justified to say that face to face communication is the only really effective one. It is more adequate to state: means of communication need to be adjusted to the communication content and context. Long discussions, especially those of strategic importance, would best be run face to face. Most updates, current project information exchange, small brainstorm and questions can be clarified via other synchronous channels: phone or instant messages. Although a conversation by phone can give more personal feeling or more instant feedback, text chatting is an excellent aid in overcoming the difficulties caused by strong accents or insufficient vocabulary in a frequent case of using a foreign language for communication. For communication loaded with data it would be more convenient to use an email or even a shared web space. So, the use of technology should be matched to the needs of the situation in a team. It means that the communications tools need to be integrated with the team's task, the type of project, the type of team and the level of technological advance of team members [Duarte, Snyder 2006, pp. 18–19].

2.6. Team development

Teams may include members who come from different cultures and organizational backgrounds or members who have no previous experience in virtual work. There are many areas for training that can support the work of virtual teams. For example, a team can need some help with learning how

to use modern communication technologies, with developing social capital, monitoring group processes or offering feedback. In addition, monitoring each member's activity in teamwork and fulfilling responsibilities for team's tasks creates opportunity for the right development of the whole team.

Creating a cohesive virtual team takes time and effort but is an important factor enabling taking the full advantage of the team's current and future development. Each of team members is interested in their development and career planning. Promotion and career development policies and actions fair to people who work in a virtual setting help to reinforce the perception that working virtually is an accepted career option [Duarte, Snyder 2006, p. 11]. If virtual team members see that they have promotional opportunities, they will become more involved in teamwork. The development process should be connected with the team diversity.

2.7. Planning process

Planning starts from the very beginning: from the moment when a team has been established. What is needed first are basic ground rules, which will help the team members to get some orientation and will be a springboard for future stabilization. Ideally, team members should be very clear about the team's goals, norms, decision-making processes, problem solving practices, etc. They all would be established via dialogue, asking for possibilities, norms and habits of individual members, and on the other hand, by a guiding voice of the leader in care of whom one is. In the team formation process team members' cultural differences, which directly influence work cycles such as deadline adherence or project management style, need to be made transparent to the team and a synergistic team approach to each concern should be mediated and agreed on [Zakaria, Amelinckx, Wilemon 2004, p. 19]. Developing and implementing standard team processes can help reduce the time for team startup and may eliminate the need for unnecessary reinvention of operating practices each time a team is chartered. Standard technical processes might include the following: definitions of requirements, estimates of costs, procurement, team charters, project planning, documentation and document sharing, reporting, controlling [Duarte, Snyder 2006, p. 17].

A success of a virtual team requires establishing clear communication etiquette. It defines ideal behavior concerning audio and video conferencing, meeting facilitation, the ways of using email and technology. The communication etiquette should be seen as one of the most important factors for a virtual team's success [Combs, Peacocke 2007, p. 27].

3. Conclusions

It is evident that the results of teamwork have the potential to exceed results of individual work. What teams offer to organizations is the potential for combining

various talents, skills, experiences and perspectives of individuals to achieve set objectives. The value of team performance diversity comes from increased creativity, innovation and flexibility. Whether a collocated or a virtual team, it can create synergistic solutions – and the more the diversity is recognized and valued, the higher the team's potential for flexibility and creativity is.

In this sense, the potential coming from diversity can be much higher in virtual intercultural teams. On the other hand, also the risk of mishandling this potential is much more serious than in a collocated setting. Therefore, it is worth investing time and effort to work consciously on developing team cohesiveness and to ensure team performance by taking care of relationships between and among team members. It is an activity to which the team leader and all team members bring equal shares.

The desired synergy effect is possible only when a team is cohesive enough to enable creative exchange and effective cooperation. Basing on a literature review, several areas have been suggested which could help to obtain cohesion of a virtual intercultural team. Would mastering these areas be enough to ensure the success of a virtual intercultural team? Be it so! There are still many questions open about how to build the cohesion properly.

Abstract

Virtual teams create challenges both for their leaders and members. What positively impacts such teams' performance is their cohesiveness. Team cohesion is rooted both in activities of the leader and the members. Basing on literature studies, the article presents a few ways how to build cohesion of a virtual intercultural team. Specifically, it covers aspects such as team atmosphere, learning and information sharing, self-image and team identity, personalities and habits, practical tools, team development and planning process.

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Intercultural Awareness; the New Value Chain Principle

1. Introduction

I would argue that Intercultural Awareness within a global enterprise is a critical principle to the components of the value chain and overall business success. For purposes of this study, a global enterprise is defined as one that employs individuals from multiple cultures in one location or multiple locations and interfaces with other global businesses, or, an enterprise with employees of one culture in one or more locations conducting business globally.

An enterprise cannot succeed without a highly functioning value chain and its' respective components. Industries place emphasis on varying areas of the value chain respective to need. This paper will, as an example, reference value chain components for a generic high-technology enterprise. In this high-technology enterprise, the primary activities of the value chain will consist of Research and Development (R&D), Engineering, Manufacturing, Finance, Marketing and Sales, and Distribution. These components will be discussed from the perspective of both a centralized and distributed enterprise environment and will include strategy, process, communication and messaging, employee and customer loyalty. In addition, I will introduce the \mathcal{U}^4 Principles: Innovation, Intelligence, Integrity, and Intercultural Awareness, Reidy [2009] providing emphasis on intercultural awareness.

Furthermore, it will be discussed that without the presence of intercultural awareness, businesses may experience what I term *Enterprise Ethnocentrism*, Reidy [2009] an isolation of internal organization structures, both central and distributed, leading to a deterioration of communication, trust, alignment and focus, as well as increases in conflict levels across the enterprise.

I will demonstrate support of my main argument by:

- Providing results of a Global Research Survey.
- Analyzing how this research supports my thesis.
- Describing the implications to current business models.
- Suggesting best practices for future business models.

1.1. Research Procedure and Survey Questions

To capture research data, a random blind survey utilizing Secure Socket Layer (SSL) technology to collect the data was created and made available to university alumni at two institutions and business colleagues currently employed in business or, with recent business experience, i.e., professional white-collar employees. Alumni were notified via social networking sites. Business colleagues were contacted via social networking sites or direct email. The majority of respondents (94.4%) were physically located in North America at the time of the survey though their culture may not be rooted in North America. Individuals were asked to state their organizational role as Individual Contributor, Manager, or Director/Executive. This was done to establish a baseline for subsequent survey questions. The purpose of the survey was to discover and confirm the percentage of business conducted between respondents and those of other cultures whether local or global. Additional information such as the global locales, frequency and efficiency of respondent communication, the dependencies on other global groups and the coordination needed to execute and deliver on projects, alignment to business strategies, and frequency of need for management to engage in cultural conflict resolution was collected. Finally, questions were asked regarding whether or not respondents believed their company provided them adequate training in the area of cultural awareness so that they might successfully work with individuals from other cultures.

The survey was released and remained available for 25 calendar days. During that time, 253 respondents started the survey and 226 completed the survey resulting in a respondent completion rate of (89.3%). The survey contained 21 questions consisting of multiple choice and yes/no, none of which was mandatory so as not to elicit a false response.

1.2. Global Research Survey Results

Respondents (87.7%) stated that in their physical work location there were co-workers that came from different cultures. These same respondents revealed that 79.1% worked for companies that have multiple global locations. Organizational roles of the respondents were split as follows: Individual Contributor (56.9%), Manager (26.8%), and Director/Executive (16.3%). When the respondents were asked which roles they typically engage in order to conduct business, the breakout was: Individual Contributor (53.1%), Manager (27.8%), and Director/Executive (19.2%). The majority of respondents work in the high-technology sector and

communicate most frequently with colleagues in North America (92.6%), Europe (45%), South Asia (32%), North Asia (21%), Australia (16%), Middle-East (13.1%), Africa (7.4%), New Zealand (4.1%), and Other (6.1%). Nine respondents preferred to not answer the question.

When asked if respondents found working with colleagues in global locations to be productive, a significant number (44.3%) stated “Never” or “Sometimes.” It must be noted that 141 respondents (41%) chose to not answer this question. 46.8% of respondents stated that they communicated with global colleagues daily or weekly. Another group (35.1%) cited that they “Sometimes” participate in communications with global colleagues. The survey directly asked respondents their perceptions as to the levels of communication efficiency between colleagues at global locations. 31.2% identified communication efficiency as “Poor” or “Fair.” Only 7.6% stated that communication efficiency between themselves and colleagues at global locations was “Excellent.”

Regarding work group dependence, 46.2% stated that they were “Very Dependent” or “Dependent” on other global workgroups to successfully complete strategic projects and programs. Furthermore, 49.3% confirmed that workflows are “Very Frequently” or “Frequently” coordinated across global locations at their company. When asked if global co-workers were aligned to the same business strategy as themselves 36.9% noted “Sometimes” or “Never.” Additional data acknowledged that 31.8% of the respondents felt their global colleagues would “Sometimes” or “Never” deliver on commitments that would allow the respondent to be successful in their assigned deliverable. The majority of data collected reflecting “Sometimes” for a project or program not being delivered pointed to “Unclear Goals” (60.3%), “Lack of leadership” (57.7%), “Poor project planning” (56.1%), “Poor communication amongst internal teams” (52.7%), and “Cultural misunderstandings” or “Differences” (51.4%).

In the same work location, cultural differences “Sometimes” manifested to a level where manager involvement was requested (61%). “Frequent” or “Very Frequent” management involvement was requested a lower percentage (11.7%) of the time. In global work locations, “Sometimes” or “Frequently” (76.8%) cultural differences arose. In dealing with global clients and customers respondents cited that cultural differences manifested themselves outside of the global organization (76.9%) “Sometimes” or “Frequently.” I would contend that cultural differences arise due to the lack of cultural awareness.

When asked to categorize the level of cultural awareness training provided by their company, 62% of the respondents noted “Poor” or “Fair” while 38% stated “Good” or “Excellent.”

1.3. Research Analysis

The success of a business is reliant on the strength of its value chain and the ability to deliver customer value. The level of value provides a competitive

advantage and an opportunity for increased margin. “A business is profitable if the value it creates exceeds the cost of performing the value activities,” Porter and Millar [1985]. In this study Porter and Millar further state, “a company’s value chain is a system of interdependent activities which are connected by linkages...these linkages require activities to be coordinated.” In his value chain model, Porter describes “Primary activities” and “Support activities.” “Primary activities are denoted as: Inbound logistics, Operations, Outbound logistics, Marketing and sales, and Service. Support activities include: Firm infrastructure, Human resource management, Technology development, and Procurement. The value chain for a company in a particular industry is imbedded in a larger

Stream of activities that includes suppliers and buyers known as the *value system*,” Porter and Millar [1985].

It is within this framework of primary and support activities where organizational and global interactions take place at both the organization and individual levels and that intercultural awareness plays a critical role as a key principle. As evidenced by my research study, 87.7% of respondents work in a facility where there are individuals from different cultures. 79.1% of the respondents stated that their employer company had multiple global locations. The cultural aspects are compounded by organizational challenges in that those strategic business units e.g., R&D, Engineering, Sales and Marketing, Finance, and Distribution have specialized networks and exhibit behavior unique to their individual characters and charters. The result is a lack of *Intercultural Socialization*, Knotts [1989] where one does not become aware of other culture’s habits, actions, and reasons behind behaviors. My study further substantiates that communication patterns are hierarchical e.g., Individual Contributors communicated with Individual Contributors (53.1%), Managers with Managers (27.8%), and Executives with Executives (19.2%). These map virtually 1:1 to the actual roles in which respondents categorized themselves. In an interview with T.E. Stuart [2008], Gilbert states “the *boundaryless* organization – like the paperless office – hasn’t materialized.”

When global teams consist of more than one culture, the individuals within the team bring with them preconceived beliefs about team members from the other cultures and it is these beliefs that could lead to unintentional conflict due to misunderstandings, Rothbard [2009]. Breakdowns in collaboration are more frequent outside of structured group scenarios. These breakdowns tend to appear more often in less structured scenarios between different organizational groups, Weiss and Hughes [2005]. These behaviors tend to create silos between organizations, business groups, and individuals partially due to a lack of allegiance to any other organizations but their own. This practice leads to *Enterprise Ethnocentrism*, Reidy [2009], an isolation of internal organization structures, both central and distributed, leading to a deterioration of communication, trust, alignment and focus, and increases in conflict levels across the enterprise.

According to Brett, Behfar & Kern, [2006] there are four available strategies that successful teams use in managing multicultural teams; “Adaptation, Structural Intervention, Managerial Intervention, and Exit.” Adaptation is used to combat situations where conflict arises due to differences in decision-making or misunderstandings are experienced when communication differences from one or more individuals avoids or ignores another individual or individuals due to challenges in the communication process. The adaptation solution requires cultural awareness amongst members and time to analyze the challenge and direct the individuals towards a common understanding. “Structural Intervention assists by temporarily subdividing teams to mix cultures or expertise.” When a problem/challenge appears irresolvable, Managerial Intervention may be used. The “Exit” strategy is one of last resort and usually applied to longer-term problem situations. My survey respondents indicated that global conflict manifests itself a high percentage (76.9%) of time when dealing with global clients and customers. Management intervention was required “Sometimes” (60.6%) per respondents.

To bring closure to the survey, respondents were asked to provide their opinion on the level of cultural awareness training provided to them by their employer. The majority (62%) declared the training provided was “Poor” or “Fair.” The remainder (38%) stated “Good” or “Excellent.”

1.4. Implications to Current Business Models

Businesses must develop cultural sensitivity to communications between people from different centralized and distributed subsystems and cultures. This cultural sensitivity or awareness is critical to consistency of strategy, process, communication and improved employee and customer loyalty throughout the value chain and in the reduction of barriers and the potential prevention of organizational silos. Ongoing development of cultural awareness assists in bringing together previously disparate individuals and groups, a socialization process, fostering common understanding and improved communication. This concept is important in the creation of a learning organization where individuals develop a level of trust emphasizing common values, Kahane [2006]. Without cultural awareness and trust the enterprise is subject to conflict. The environment of an organization must be such that members are comfortable developing levels of trust within and outside of their immediate reporting structures. The ability to do so is a source of competitive advantage [Barney and Hansen 1994, Lane 1998, Sako 1998] as cited by Huff and Kelley [2003]. Galford and Drapeau [2003] state that there are three different kinds of trust: strategic, personal, and organizational. Strategic refers to senior management’s ability from the employee’s perspective; personal trust references the faith in ones’ immediate manager; organizational referring to the trust one has in the organization/enterprise itself.

My survey exploits several areas of concern. First, it revealed that a majority of respondents (79.1%) are employed by companies that have multiple global locations. Further, a significant number (46.8%) of respondents communicate with global colleagues on a daily or weekly basis. Of those who answered the question as to whether or not working with global colleagues was productive, the response was strongly (44.3%) negative. These same respondents indicated that company workflows are often (49.3%) coordinated across global workgroups. They also indicated that cultural differences amongst colleagues arise “Sometimes” or “Frequently” a significant percentage (76.8%) of time. All of this data is exacerbated when one examines the responses to the level of cultural training received. A majority (62%) noted the cultural awareness training provided them was “Poor” or “Fair.” When consolidated this data suggests that intercultural awareness is severely lacking amongst the global companies represented by survey respondents.

The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) [Landis, Bennett, Bennett 2004] focuses on a continuum consisting of 3 Ethnocentric and 3 Ethnorelative Stages. Based on the survey results received from respondents regarding their companies I would suggest that the majority of respondent companies fit into the Ethnocentric Stages of the DMIS model where focus is on the immediate group and not extended to others.

In the earlier example of a value chain i.e., R&D, Engineering, Manufacturing, Finance, Marketing and Sales, and, Distribution, each contains its’ own attributes and expertise – their own core competencies. There are several principles that I believe are represented within and between each unique group. I term these the *U*⁴ Principles: Innovation, Intelligence, Integrity, and Intercultural Awareness.

R&D in and of itself relies on innovation to create ideas and envisage them as functional to enhance the overall value system. Engineering creates the means to allow consistency while Manufacturing applies innovation to skillfully reproduce and build the product(s). Innovation continues to permeate the model through the stages of Finance, Marketing and Sales, and finally, Distribution. Each provides innovative methods to support a uniform go-to-market (GTM) model. Intelligence may be seen throughout the value chain in the form of design, intellectual properties, replication, and human capital. Integrity represents quality across the value chain culminating, and in association with the product(s) and company brand. More importantly, for purposes of this paper, Integrity is required in the ability of enterprise representatives to commit to the successful ongoing integration of Intercultural Awareness throughout the value chain. Each organizational component of the value chain is chartered to execute on the corporate strategy segment they are chartered to fulfill.

Intercultural Awareness is the fourth of the *U*⁴ Principles and in my opinion considered a core competency for today’s global enterprise. It is paramount in

order to facilitate enterprise success and deter *enterprise ethnocentrism* whether value chain components are centralized or distributed. Core competence consists of several factors, i.e., the ability to communicate, engaging in organization activities that drive goals, and being passionate in extending communication within immediate organizations as well as across other organizations. These activities are not only for executives, but also for managers and individual contributors across the enterprise regardless of their experience, skill sets, or knowledge levels. When these core competencies develop there is an expansion of learning and appreciation of other organizations and the skills that these previously ignored organizational teams can deliver on. Prahalad and Hamel [1990].

The Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) was created to explain observations and experiences of people in intercultural situations. The first three stages are known as the “*Ethnocentric Stages* where one moves through Denial, Defense, and Minimization” as part of the “experience of difference.” In the first three stages culture is experienced through the lens of one’s own culture. The second three stages are known as the “*Ethnorelative Stages* of Acceptance, Adaptation, and Integration.” The Ethnorelative Stages reflect a “World view” position for individuals and it is where cultural awareness and sensitivity begin. In the Adaptation stage one begins to recognize cultural contexts and is able to begin to apply them. It is in the Adaptation stage that intercultural awareness and competence develops.

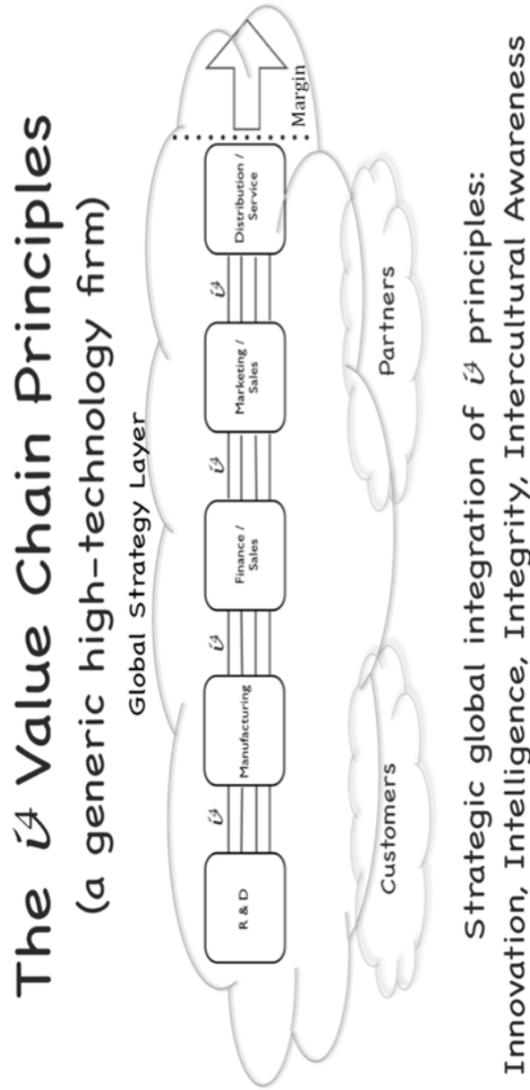
I believe that Intercultural Awareness addresses culture at many levels, i.e., the enterprise, the organization, and, the individual. Utilizing the theory of “Objective Culture” and “Subjective Culture,” Brislin, R.W. (n.d.) as cited by Bennett, M.J. (n.d.), where Objective Culture, or “Big C” refers to areas such as music, dance, literature and Subjective Culture, or “Little ‘c’” represents values, behavior, and verbal and non-verbal communication styles; I believe that companies must develop and focus on their cultural awareness training strategy in the area of “Subjective Culture” and would suggest that areas of objective culture also be included.

One approach would be to develop a cultural training strategy via a “Shared Vision” [Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith 1994]. In their work the authors describe the fundamentals of the learning organization as one with a “deep learning cycle.” Senge et al refer to this as the “Domain of Enduring Change.” One begins in this “Domain of Enduring Change” with certain “skills and capabilities.” It is here we are told that the “Evidence of new skills and capabilities deepens our confidence, as real learning occurs.” Based on development of these new skills there is a “new awareness” in “System Thinking” and we begin to “see” what “drives behavior.” This “new awareness slowly shifts attitudes and beliefs representing change at the deepest level in an organization’s culture.” In my opinion, business enterprises interested in meeting the demands of today’s

global business environment must develop and expand Intercultural Awareness and knowledge via the creation of “deep learning.”

Based on the learning organization concept of a “Shared Vision” as it relates to the strategy of a business I would like to suggest that the previously noted Value Chain with \mathcal{U} Principles is deficient in that there remains an opportunity for isolation between organizations to exist. I believe this would be remedied if each organization in the enterprise shared one common vision (figure 1).

Figure 1. Value Chain with \mathcal{U} Principles and Global Strategy Layer [Reidy 2009]



The addition of a “Global Strategy Layer” promotes enterprise strategy e.g., intercultural awareness, and provides the opportunity for goals and objectives across the enterprise as well as within each organization to be assigned, executed, and inspected in a uniform and efficient manner. I would also suggest that companies engage and encourage their customers, sales partners, vendor partners, and distribution partners to share in their strategy and appreciation of intercultural awareness and cultural sensitivity through best practices. It is through this shared vision and best practices model that enterprise ethnocentrism can be reduced and/or eliminated resulting in improvements in organizational/enterprise communication, processes, trust, loyalty, and intercultural sensitivity.

1.6. Best Practice Suggestions for Future Business Models

Today global enterprises are compelled to educate and train employees to develop a worldview of culture and to build their levels of cultural competence. The following are suggested “best practices” for the global enterprise.

1. Develop and implement a well-defined business strategy that encourages and supports intercultural awareness across workgroups, organizations, and the enterprise.
2. Implement mandatory intercultural awareness education/training across all enterprise roles and geographic regions.
3. Design and utilize communication mediums that are multifaceted i.e., not only email, in order to establish business relationships and build trust.
4. Designate executive and manager role models to continually demonstrate intercultural awareness and competency in practice.
5. Create global corporate communication plans that include intercultural awareness and competency best practices.
6. Ensure bi-modal communication model for employees.
7. Insist on continuous inspection and reflection. Operate via Deming’s circle of quality, e.g., “Act, Plan, Implement, Check,” Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars [1997].
8. Create an atmosphere conducive to cultural adaptation and confidence.
9. Establish intercultural awareness best practices with business partners and customers.
10. Encourage all employees to develop an appreciation for diversity via company-sponsored programs.

2. Conclusion

The survey results and research analysis prove that Intercultural Awareness within a global enterprise is a critical principle to the components of the value chain and overall business success. Without the presence of intercultural awareness in the *Global Strategy Layer* companies may experience organizational

isolation of central and distributed organizational structures leading to *Enterprise Ethnocentrism*, a deterioration of communication, trust, loyalty, alignment, and focus that may lead to communication breakdown and increases in conflict levels across the enterprise. Intercultural Awareness along with Innovation, Integrity, and Intelligence (The *3rd* Principles) are the “glue” connecting “Primary activities” and “Secondary activities” throughout the value chain. When combined with a *Global Strategy Layer* that permeates throughout the enterprise to engage employees, customers and partners, organizational silos are less likely to form. The result is improved communication efficiency and strategy execution.

Appendix A

Survey Questions

1. In the building I work in I have co-workers that were born and/or raised in a different country than I was?
2. My company has multiple business locations around the world?
3. My geographic location is best described as:
4. My organizational role may best be described as:
5. I primarily work with the following types of organizational roles within my company:
6. The colleagues I frequently work with are located in: (Check all that may apply)
7. I find working with colleagues in global locations to be productive.
8. I communicate with global colleagues:
9. My company has business clients/customers in locations around the world.
10. Which Industry segment best describes your company?
11. In general, how would you describe the level of communication efficiency between colleagues at global locations?
12. How dependent is your local work group on other global workgroups to successfully complete strategic projects and programs?
13. How frequently are workflows coordinated across global locations at your company?
14. Do you believe that you and your global coworkers are aligned to the same business strategy, goals, and objectives?
15. How often are managers at your company required to become involved in work issues caused by cultural differences?
16. How often do colleagues in global work group locations deliver on their commitments so that your work group can be successful?
17. In business activities with colleagues at your work location how often do

cultural differences manifest themselves?

18. In your business activities with work colleagues in global locations how often do cultural differences manifest themselves?

19. When a project or program at my company is not delivered on schedule it is usually because of:

20. In your business activities with global clients/customers do cultural differences manifest themselves?

21. How would you categorize the level of cultural awareness training provided by your company to allow you to successfully conduct business with individuals from other cultures?

Abstract

The business environment continues to evolve and companies are dynamically working to adjust strategies to meet the global challenges of market share, customer retention, competition, and continued growth. Many believe they have successfully met these challenges. Inability to develop a robust business strategy creates poor communication and lack of business alignment that causes constantly shifting strategic priorities and supporting tactical initiatives holding little value. This lack of focus and alignment causes confusion amongst investors, employees, and management.

To avoid this dilemma, a balance is required between outside forces and the need to nurture and communicate internal strategy, processes, and customer orientation to support the value chain. In the quest to conquer "outside forces" managers must not lose sight of key values and principles from which business is created, developed, and trust is formulated.

Successful enterprises weave principles such as innovation, intelligence, and integrity into their value chain and business infrastructure. Today, companies that wish to succeed must also adopt intercultural awareness as a key principle.

This paper will discuss the importance of intercultural awareness to support building consistency in strategy, process, communication and improved employee and customer loyalty throughout the value chain.

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Differences on Organizational Practices Between Polish Managers Studied in 1996/1997 and 2008/2009

1. Introduction

Taking into consideration the extensive globalization of economic institutions and the increased interdependencies among nations in the past three decades, there is an urgent need for a better understanding of cultural influences on leadership and organizational practices. As House stated “cooperative behavior across national borders is required to manage the complex technological, political, and economic interdependences of nations. Yet despite this need, there is little systematic knowledge concerning international leadership and organizational practices” [House, et al. 1997, p. 217]. This view is shared in Poland, particularly by Sułkowski, who expressed the idea that “ studies of the impact of societal culture on organizations became especially important in the face of internationalisation of business activity which resulted in development of intercultural” [Sułkowski 2009, p. 16].

Attempting to fill this gap Robert House, professor of the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania, developed the GLOBE project designed to study leadership perceptions, organizational practices and values cross-culturally. More and more people are involved in cross border operations, inter-cultural management or organizational leadership in cultures different from their own. Knowledge produced by the GLOBE study will, among other things, help in

selecting, counseling, and training individuals who work under these cross-cultural conditions [House, et al. 1997].

Based on comprehensive discussions among 84 social scholars and management scientists representing 56 nations worldwide, GLOBE researchers proposed the following concept of leadership: the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization of which they are members [Den Hartog, et al. 1997b, p. 256]. Culture, in the GLOBE research program, is defined as “shared motives, beliefs, identities and interpretations of meaning of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations” [Mączyński and Zamorska 2008, p. 34]¹.

Although some knowledge can be derived about the political and economic transformation in Central Europe, nevertheless not much is known about organizational values and management practices in Central European countries such as Poland.

As a result of the breakdown of the communist regime after nearly fifty years of rule, Poland is currently undergoing the process of transition towards a free market economy. Poland, as a member of the European Union, is also in the process of designing the appropriate institutions and legislation that are essential to a democratic system. One could expect that the political and economic transition underway will be beneficial for shaping Polish management practices and values.

Some research on leadership and organizational values has been done in Poland by Mączyński, Jago, Reber and Bohnisch [1994]. The authors conducted a study comparing the leadership styles of Austrian, American and Polish managers using data collected before the transition in Poland, showing that Polish managers were relatively autocratic. Jago, Mączyński and Reber [1996] presented data gathered from Polish managers before (in 1988) and after (in 1993 and 1994) market economy reforms, revealing that management practices remain relatively autocratic, although they discovered an incremental change towards greater use of subordinate consultation. Mączyński et al. [1993a, 1993b, 1994] stated that centralised planning caused a lack of responsibility in behavior and decision making revealed by both managers and subordinates. “Factors such as the centralised control of economic undertakings, highly directive systems, excessive bureaucracy and a passive attitude of employees all contributed to managerial autocracy” [Hartog, et al. 1997].

¹ A more comprehensive discussion of contemporary approaches to the concepts and definitions of “corporate culture”, can be found in an extensive paper written by professor Łukasz Sułkowski [2009, pp. 5–20].

2. Problem

The overall purpose of our research presented in this paper was to compare Polish managers investigated in 2008–2009 and their counterparts studied during 1996–1997 on dimensions of organizational culture and on manager's beliefs concerning attributes and behaviors that distinguish effective from less effective managers.

Data analyzed in this paper concerning Polish managers studied during 1996–1997 were drawn from extensive international research under the auspices of the GLOBE project, which was developed by House [1997] to study societal, organizational and leadership differences more extensively through the use of multiple methods and at multiple levels of analysis [House, et al. 1997]. In turn data concerning Polish managers during 2008–2009 were collected by the students of the Management Academy in Legnica (Bożena Cichočka, Sylwester and Damian Cichocki) while working on their M.A. dissertations.

Based on the GLOBE data [Hartog, et al. 1997]. Polish managers scored higher than for example Dutch managers on power distance, and lower than Dutch organizations on future and humane orientation. Taking into consideration the profound changes in social, economic and organizational arrangements in Poland after the collapse of the former communist system, we had hypothesized that the changes undergone in organizational values between the years of 1996/1997 and 2008/2009 have advanced to an even greater extent. That's why we predicted that the newer generation of managers would score at least lower on Power Distance and Individualism, and higher on Future Perspective and Humane Orientation than managers investigated during 1996–1997. In other words we could speculate that enormous changes in political, social, and organizational systems under the current transition period should diminish Power Distance in organizational practices, and lead, among other aspects, to a more negative attitude towards the autocratic leadership style of the newer generation of Polish managers.

3. Method

Middle Polish managers (defined as managers having at least two hierarchical levels below and above them) of randomly selected industrial organizations participated in the study. Managers filled out a questionnaire measuring organizational culture as it was seen at the time of the study in the organizations. All managers under study also answered questions about their beliefs regarding attributes that distinguish effective from less effective managers. 134 Polish managers, tested during the years of 1996/1997, completed the organizational culture questionnaire developed by GLOBE Project.

In the years of 2008/2009, a follow-up study was conducted among 100 managers representing several industrial organizations (employing at least 100 people) located in the Western part of Poland. Middle Polish managers tested

in the years 2008/2009 filled out identical questionnaires as their counterparts studied in the years of 1996/1997.

The culture measurements asked managers to describe their organization as it was seen at the time of study as a whole, according to the dimensions that are presented below:

Achievement orientation: the extent to which organizational members are encouraged to improve performance and excel.

Future orientation: the extent to which organizational members are encouraged to plan, invest in the future, and delay gratification.

Individualism/ collectivism: the degree to which people are integrated into groups instead of differentiated individually.

Power Distance: the degree to which organizational members expect power to be concentrated in the hands of a few instead of shared equally.

Humane orientation: the extent to which organizational members are encouraged to be fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and kind to others.

Uncertainty avoidance: the extent to which organizations use social norms and procedures to avoid uncertainty and make future events more predictable.

Gender differentiation: the degree to which work roles are differentiated by gender.

The measurement of beliefs about attributes that distinguish effective from less effective leaders asked managers to rate 17 attributes according to the degree to which they either help or inhibit someone from being an outstanding leader. Thus, a high attribute score indicates that the attribute is perceived to be necessary for leadership effectiveness.

All scales used in this study are based on an extensive pilot study [see House, et al. 2004). Questionnaire items were translated from English to Polish and then translated back into English. Back-translations were checked by the US coordinating team.

Data analysis: T-tests were performed to assess whether differences between means of the Polish managers during 1996/1997 and 2008/2009 on the scale of culture dimensions and leadership attributes are significant.

4. Analysis of Research Results

Table 1 presents mean organizational culture scores separately for Polish managers during the year 1996/1997 and the year 2008/2009.

Table 1. Differences between the Polish managers of 1996/1997 and 2008/2009 on organizational practices

Practices	Polish managers of 1996/1997		Polish managers of 2008/2009		Sign. level
	Mean	St. dev.	Mean	St. dev.	
Achievement Orientation	4,62	1,15	4,55	1,72	n.s.
Future Orientation	4,08	1,21	3,88	1,53	p < 0.05
Individualism vs. collectivism	4,33	0,60	3,94	1,51	p < 0.01
Power Distance	4,21	1,04	4,69	1,56	p < 0.01
Humane Orientation	4,36	0,92	4,10	1,54	p < 0.05
Uncertainty avoidance	4,81	1,14	4,77	1,74	n.s.
Gender differentiation	3,77	0,55	3,38	1,43	p < 0.01

The results presented in Table 1 show that Polish managers investigated in 2008/2009 in comparison to their counterparts from 1996/1997 are significantly more individualistic, more power oriented, more gender differentiated (differentiate more between work roles according to gender) and less future and humane oriented.

Preliminary research results (not shown in this paper) indicate that the relatively high level of power distance reported by the Polish managers studied in the years of 2008–2009 is also in line with findings connected with attributes necessary for leadership effectiveness.

Our overall findings indicate that Polish managers of 2008/2009 in comparison with Polish managers of 1996/1997 reported lower levels of Future Orientation, Humane Orientation and Gender Differentiation, and higher levels of Power Distance and Individualism. No significant differences between compared groups of managers have been found on Achievement Orientation and Uncertainty Avoidance scales. Lower scores on Future Orientation of Polish managers studied in the year 2008/2009 (in comparison with managers studied in 1996/1997) might reflect more and more unpredictable economic environments. In the current turbulent and highly uncertain economic condition of the world, Polish managers of 2008/2009 might find themselves too preoccupied

struggling with the immediate and difficult day-to-day requirements of running the business.

Higher scores on Power Distance of Polish managers studied during 2008/2009 than their counterparts investigated in 1996/1997 was unexpected, since many favourable changes in Poland associated with transition from a command economic system to the new free market economic system and above all, the process of joining European Union in 2004, took place. Therefore we have assumed that enormous changes in political, social, and organizational systems, under the current transition period should weaken Power Distance in organizational values and practices and lead to a more negative attitude, among other things, towards the autocratic leadership style of the newer generation of Polish managers.

Furthermore our findings with respect to organizational culture scores reveal that there is a close relationship between Power Distance and Humane Orientation. The higher the managers scored on the Power Distance scale the lower they scored on the Humane Orientation scale.

Preliminary research results (not shown in this paper) indicate that relatively high level of Power Distance reported by the Polish managers studied in the years of 2008/2009 is also in line with findings connected with attributes necessary for leadership effectiveness. A particularly autocratic style is more strongly associated with leadership effectiveness by Polish managers of 2008/2009, who also describe their organizational cultures as higher on Power Distance and lower on Future Perspective and Humane Orientation.

Interpreting our findings in this light leads to the conclusion that Power Distance is still a persistent phenomenon deeply embedded in Polish culture, which has a profound effect on leadership style of Polish managers. That is why Polish managers of 2008/2009 have a considerably less negative attitude towards autocratic behavior than do their counterparts investigated during 1996/1997.

It might be worth mentioning that Zamorska's [2007; 2009] findings concerning mobbing behaviors of Polish managers also correlates with still pretty high scores on Power Distance, reported by Polish managers being studied in the years 1996/1997 and 2008/2009, in comparison with Western managers [Mączyński et al. 1994].

Zamorska [2009] recommends that in order to diminish Power Distance and autocratic leadership behavior, a kind of organizational culture is required, which reduces the feelings of anxiety in the relationships between managers and their followers, and respects the right of employees to freely express their views about the organizational undertakings.

5. Conclusions

Our findings point to the conclusion that the introduction of a market economy in Poland has shown little effects so far on the leadership behavior of Polish

managers. It would mean that profound changes in political, social, economic and institutional systems are not sufficient factors that would modify organizational values and subsequent attitudes and behaviors. It means that deep changes in the mentality of people are needed to make necessary, beneficial changes in the cultural values.

Our research results presented in this paper confirm the views expressed by Hofstede [2000] and Martan [1993] that changes in mentality require a very long time. So we can conclude that the process of changing the mentality of Polish managers, despite the fact that the former command political and economic systems in Poland have ceased to exist, is indeed very slow and difficult to advance.

We believe that comparing some of the results from the GLOBE project concerning Polish managers investigated during 1996/1997 with current studies revealed some interesting aspects about leadership in Poland. We hope our research results will contribute to a deeper understanding of culturally driven differences in leadership and organizational practices in Poland, and help Polish managers overcome dysfunctional organizational values and practices, in order to cope successfully with the current global economic crisis.

Abstract

This paper presents a comparison between Polish managers tested in 1996/1997 and 2008/2009 on their perceptions of organizational culture and their beliefs concerning attributes necessary for leadership effectiveness. As was unexpected, our results show that the Polish managers of 2009 score significantly higher than managers of 1996/1997 on Power Distance, Individualism, Gender Differentiation and significantly lower on Future Orientation and Humane Orientation.

Our findings suggest that the more individualistic orientation in Polish organizations is still necessary in order to survive and be effective during the present turbulent and highly uncertain economic and business conditions. In addition, Polish managers of 2008/2009 under current conditions are not prone to be especially considerate toward subordinates. Relatively higher scores on Power Distance and lower scores on Humane Orientation on the part of managers being studied in the year of 2008/2009 are also in line with findings concerned with attributes necessary for leadership effectiveness. Mean comparisons on beliefs concerning attributes necessary for leadership effectiveness show that Polish managers of 2008/2009 believe more strongly than do Polish managers of 1996/1997 that an autocratic style, diplomacy, risk avoidance and administrative skills are more strongly associated with leadership effectiveness. As mentioned earlier, managers of 2008/2009, in comparison with managers of 1996/1997, also describe their organizational cultures as higher on Power Distance, Individualism, and lower on Future and Humane Orientations.

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The Role of Intercultural Dialogue in the EU Policy

Culture and creativity are important drivers for personal development, social cohesion and economic growth. Today's strategy promoting intercultural understanding confirms culture's place at the heart of our policies.

José Manuel Barroso,

President of the European Commission, on 10 May 2007¹

The European Union cultural policy is based on respect for cultural, religious and linguistic diversity – “unity in diversity”. The Article 151 of the EU Treaty states that: “...the Union shall contribute to the flowering of the cultures of the Member States, while respecting their national and regional diversity and at the same time bringing the common cultural heritage to the fore” and that “action by the Community shall be aimed at encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, supporting and supplementing their action in the following areas:

- improvement of the knowledge and dissemination of the culture and history of the European peoples;
- conservation and safeguarding of cultural heritage of European significance;
- non-commercial cultural exchanges;
- artistic and literary creation, including in the audiovisual sector”².

¹ <http://productivityofculture.org/symposium/cultural-policy-2/>.

² <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/en/treaties/dat/11997E/htm/11997E.html#0173010078>; about cultural policy see more: K. Waluch, 2001. *Polityka kulturalna Unii Europejskiej*. Pock: Wydawnictwo Naukowe Novum.

Additionally, on an agenda for culture announced by the Commission in May 2007 we can read that: "...culture lies at the heart of human development and civilisation. Culture is what makes people hope and dream, by stimulating our senses and offering new ways of looking at reality. It is what brings people together, by stirring dialogue and arousing passions, in a way that unites rather than divides. Culture should be regarded as a set of distinctive spiritual and material traits that characterize a society and social group. It embraces literature and arts as well as ways of life, value systems, traditions and beliefs"³.

Therefore, to help construct a European cultural space, based on a common cultural heritage as well as on national and regional diversity, the EU realizes special programmes which support many cultural actions and projects. It is worth noticing that the Commission pays special attention to safeguarding the position of Europe's small cultures and less-widely spoken languages.

The EU's current Culture Programme (2007–2013) aims to achieve three main objectives:

- to promote cross-border mobility of those working in the cultural sector,
- to encourage the transnational circulation of cultural and artistic output,
- and to foster intercultural dialogue⁴.

Why do EU members put so much effort to help intercultural dialogue develop? The answer is easy – because culture can unite people as well as divide them. Cultural differences can cause conflicts in workplaces, schools, local communities and at a country's level. And why is the dialogue needed? Because Europe's cultural face is changing very fast.

In their books, Michelle Lebaron and Venashri Pillay pose a question how culture shapes and reshapes conflict. They think that "culture frames the outer boundaries of our mind's vision, so that the cultural outsiders' terrain that lies beyond our horizon is difficult to recognize". They also stress that "culture tells us subtly why we do what we do, rendering us unfamiliar with the lives of cultural outsiders". Authors add that "culture also carries shared memories and expectations across historical periods and geographic areas by means of symbols that touch our heart and mind" [Lebaron, Pillay 2006, p. 93].

Apprehension of cultural differences can lead to the simplification and false statement that we and our values are good while they (strangers, migrants) and their values are worse. We promote tolerance in all aspects of our life, but nowadays more and more Europeans experience fear of "strangers".

³ *Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on a European agenda for culture in a globalizing world*, SEC (2007) 570. Available at: <http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2007:0242:FIN:EN:PDF>.

⁴ http://ec.europa.eu/culture/pdf/doc611_en.pdf.

Our continent was always multicultural, but historical and social diversity of Europe increased after the Second World War, when over 20 million people had to change their place of residence. During next decades Europe became a continent of immigration which resulted from the disintegration of former colonial empires – the British, French, Dutch and Portuguese ones. The cultural face of Europe changed also the needs of European economies greatly damaged during the war (*Gastarbeiters*) [Nowak, Milczarek (eds.) 2006, p. 334]. Nowadays, the multicultural diversity increases especially as a result of the enlargement of the European Union, the free movement of workers and globalisation.

Europe is today home or host to over 40 million international migrants, who represent about 8.9% of its total population. More than half of them have come from countries outside the EU. The other 45% have moved between the countries of this region. In the meantime, Europe has become one of the main destinations on the world map of international migration. The most important causes of immigration are related to the considerable economic, social, and political differences between relatively rich, democratic, and stable European societies and much poorer, often unstable, less free, but also much younger and demographically growing societies in neighbouring and other world regions. It is clear, that migration occurs from more disadvantaged to less disadvantaged countries which offer better opportunities [Münz, Straubhaar, Vadean, Vadean 2006; Düvell 2006, p. 224].

Immigration increases diversity – Europe becomes new home for more and more people of different nationalities, religions, cultures. Fears that the influx of migrants will disrupt the social system and dilute national identities are more and more frequent. There is a concern that increasing numbers of immigrants will fragment communities into smaller pieces. Nowadays, many European cities are multicultural and cosmopolitan. This mosaic of cultures changes cities, landscapes and lifestyles as well as food habits – “ethnic” food is more and more popular [Vertovec, Wessendorf 2004]. But there is a long way from the popularity of kebab or Peking duck to the acceptance of minorities.

According to Eurobarometer survey on discrimination in the European Union, ethnic origin is a dominating reason for discrimination [*Discrimination in the European Union...*]. However, other survey shows that in 2000 two out of three EU citizens (64%) consider it a good thing for any society to be made up of people from different races, religions and cultures [*Attitudes towards minority groups in the European Union...*].

The clash of cultures became a serious problem for all the Member States. But we must remember that relocation to a new country and culture can be difficult for immigrants too. Challenges relating to languages, religion, culture, way of thinking, habits and customs are huge, especially when the local community has problems with understanding and accepting new people and their differences. But what makes life even more difficult for immigrants is racism

and discrimination. Immigrants also often experience misunderstanding and lack of acceptance. The challenges, which they have to face, can be strengthened by the fear of residents, who worry about what those unknown and different people might do. The local community can manifest their prejudices and show discriminatory behaviour towards immigrants very clearly. Very often we do not understand religion or culture of other nations. Strong adherence to their religious beliefs, regular religious practises and manifestation of symbols of their ethnic or religious identity arouse fears [Lebaron, Pillay 2006, pp. 121–123; Buijs, Rath 2002]. However, immigrants are not always flexible and do not adapt quickly to new and different living and working conditions in a new country. Many immigrants have also problems with sociocultural and psychological integration. The low level of their skills and lack of language proficiency cause that they have no chance on the local labour market, so they get unskilled or low skilled jobs without any good earning opportunities. They try to find help and support in the previous generation of migrants from the fatherland, so they integrate, but only with their countrymen. They tend to live with their ethnic communities, which can lead to isolation and creating ghettos. And isolation often means social marginalisation. At work many immigrants experience negligence, the lack of training possibility, unequal treatment and time and pay discrimination. Mostly, they have no chance to get a good job already at the beginning of the application process. In spite of their – sometimes very high – qualifications, their place of birth eliminates them.

Furthermore, also gender as well as the cultural background seems to be an important determinant of employment and reason for discrimination too. It is necessary to stress that migrant women experience discrimination in the labour market more often than men. It is very common that migrant women from middle and low-income countries are likely, even more than men, to remain outside the labour market and spend most of their time at home. Such a situation leads to serious social problems – due to difficulties in acquiring language skills and establishing social networks, women more often do not integrate with their host local society. In the era of globalisation and free workers' movement in Europe, discrimination in the labour market is an important social problem and it can lead to wasting human capital, knowledge or work experience [Kraal, Roosblad 2008, pp. 5–10; Münz, Straubhaar, Vadean, Vadean 2006, p. 35].

In addition, global migrations are taking on new forms. Due to the safer, quicker and cheaper transport and information technology, people have become more geographically flexible and mobile. The legal status plays a crucial role in integration. Only immigrants with legal resident status are included in the intercultural dialogue.

However, we can observe in Europe inter-religious and intra-religious conflicts and clear manifestations of anti-Semitism and discrimination, especially against Romanians and Muslims. Especially after the terrorist attacks of September 11

and later bomb attacks in Spain in March 2004 and in the UK in July 2005, significantly larger number of Europeans treat Muslims and Islamists with distrust. Also events such as the assassination of the Dutch film maker Theo van Gogh provoke aggression against Muslims. For many people it is difficult to understand that most minorities do not want to achieve religious domination, but they only want us to respect the symbols of their religion and want freedom for their religious practices [*Inter-religious dialogue...*].

Anyway, in European multicultural societies, the diversity of religious beliefs and convictions can lead to misconceptions and fears, and the lack of the ability to communicate in foreign languages hampers integration and cooperation.

The mix of cultures may affect the economic and social development and political stability of the EU. However, it can also develop European cultures, stimulate the reflection on cultural identity and build openness and respect for others. Therefore, an effective and constructive dialogue between people and cultures is necessary for any multicultural society to function. Intercultural communication helps to understand other cultures better, leads to wider recognition of cultural heritage, tolerance and full respect for different cultural, linguistic, ethnic and religious groups. For these reasons, the promotion of an intercultural dialogue is one of the main objective of the EU cultural policy. This dialogue plays a fundamental role in building Europe where people live together, not just co-exist. It helps prevent racism, isolation and discrimination of immigrants.

To make the dialogue successful, the Commission has implemented a wide variety of cultural projects and programmes. Only a few of them are described in this article. In Spring 2007 the Commission ordered a poll on culture and values within Europe with a view to fostering intercultural dialogue. The survey was carried out in all the Member States [*September 2007 – Eurobarometer... p. 1*]. Its results show that the large majority of Europeans think that culture plays an important role in their own lives. Indeed, this analysis shows that culture is important to them personally. Most of them also agree with the opinion that most of the European countries have the same cultural roots. There is another aspect of this research. It shows that many people see an important role of education in the intercultural dialogue. They think that developing foreign language teaching in schools as well as increasing exchange programmes for students and teachers could help Europeans know each other better [*September 2007 – Eurobarometer survey... pp. 3–4*].

It is undeniable that school can play a very important role in the intercultural dialogue. In a multicultural society proper education can help to avoid conflicts and fragmentation in the society itself. According to Marie Marcey, who analysed Britain's experience of multiculturalism in education, cultural differences are viewed by the British society as a problem rather than a resource or as a cause

for concern rather than celebration. She explains that Britain has a long history of ethnic diversity, but significant immigration from outside Europe began just after the Second World War with the recruitment of workers from colonies and former colonies for reconstruction. At the beginning, it was assumed that they would return home, but they stayed and settled down. So, the question about the integration of immigrant children in British schools has appeared. Firstly, they tried to absorb immigrant children into the British way of life as quickly as possible. But this only increased hostility to immigrants and led to restrictive immigration law. Next, the government promoted integration, but at the meantime it ignored the problem of white racism for too long. No earlier than in late nineteen seventies, the government took a strong stance against racial discrimination and started to promote cultural pluralism in education and society. However, neither multiculturalism or antiracism eliminated racism, because there were too many mistakes in educational policy. Part of the educational programs claimed that there was a genetic explanation of educational underachievement of ethnic minority children – black intelligence is different from white one. Such programs ignored the problem of poverty and poor education opportunities. Other programs did not take into account the relationship between socioeconomic status and education, but they all ignored the fact that middle class children succeed in school whether they are black, brown or white. In conclusion, Marie Macey stresses that ethnic segregation is dysfunctional for both majority and minority groups and leads to tension, conflict and even violence. Racism and ethnocentrism are widespread and can significantly increase at time of rapid change, insecurity and uncertainty (economic crisis, terrorist attacks). However, she thinks that schools can influence society, both structurally and ideologically. She stresses that “...schools may not be able to change social hierarchies, but they could change the membership of them through ensuring genuine equality of opportunity, irrespective of social class or ethnicity” [Macey 2003, pp. 181–187].

Young people are our future, so the Commission thinks that we should encourage and involve them in shaping the future of the EU. They should also take part in the intercultural dialogue.

Many children of immigrants were born in Europe, grew up and were educated here, and they intend to spend the rest of their lives in Europe. Do they consider themselves to be Europeans? What does Europe mean for today’s young people? These are the questions posed by the project **Born in Europe**. It tries to generate an important intercultural debate with discussions on immigration, integration, cultural identity, mutual understanding and acceptance. The project also touches such topics as European citizenship and the role of women in the society or family structures⁵. Another project, **Bosnian Triptych**, is, by reflection on the tragedy in Srebrenica, aimed to integrate children from different national and

⁵ See more: <http://www.born-in-europe.de>.

religious groups in Bosnia and partner countries. The children explored together the diversity of their cultural backgrounds, and worked to develop mutual acceptance. The project stressed that the tragedy of Srebrenica should not take place anymore, and that it should be a lesson for Europeans. The project drew attention to the role that cultural dialogue and exchange can play in uniting people of different religions, nationalities and ethnic origins⁶.

The young are addressees of the programme **Youth in Action**⁷. This programme promotes mobility within and beyond the EU, encouraging learning beyond traditional classrooms, the mix of cultures and the inclusion of all young people, regardless of their educational, social and cultural backgrounds. Moreover, the Comenius programme, which focuses on the first phase of education, aims to increase knowledge and understanding of the diversity of European cultures and languages. The mobility of students and academic staff is promoted by Erasmus. Studying abroad helps students to develop academically and personally, to build vital life skills and to stimulate interest in other cultures.

The Commission thinks that the effective and constructive dialogue between people and cultures is necessary for any multicultural society to function. The intercultural dialogue is a process that can help all people living in the EU improve their ability to deal with a more open, but also more complex, cultural environment. What's more, intercultural dialogue is an opportunity to contribute to and benefit from a diverse and dynamic society, not only in Europe but also around the world. Therefore, it is necessary to promote the intercultural dialogue and intercultural competence. Promotion of intercultural competences is important because they give us ability to communicate successfully with people from other cultures. They allow us to think without any prejudices and to understand other cultures. They are also essential in the context of the global economy. The employability, adaptability and mobility of artists and people working in the cultural field as well as the mobility of works of art are important for the cultural development as people from all the EU can benefit from an easier access to culture and cultural works.

To stress that Europe's great cultural diversity is a unique advantage, the European Parliament and Council established the year 2008 as the European Year of Intercultural Dialogue. The aim of this initiative, with € 10 million budget, was to encourage all people living in Europe to explore both the benefits of European rich cultural heritage and the opportunities to learn from different cultural traditions. The project shows that the intercultural dialogue is a fundamental part of European citizenship – active and open to the world,

⁶ See more: <http://www.pogranicze.sejny.pl/?s=tryptyk&a=main>.

⁷ See more about programme: http://ec.europa.eu/youth/youth-in-action-programme/doc100_en.htm.

and should be an important part of European policies towards neighbouring countries and external relations further afield [*Highlights of the European Year...* p. 3]. There was a special focus on eight major topics during the 2008 European Year of Intercultural Dialogue: culture and the media, minorities, migration, religion, education/science, the workplace, multilingualism and youth. The Year involved a large number of events and initiatives such as information and promotion campaigns, debates connected with the subject of intercultural dialogue, the photo competition “Cultures on my Street”, the European Festival of Intercultural Dialogue, concert “Together with Diversity”, Couleur Café Festival, mini football games “Football in the Park – Football for Diversity” or conference “New Perspectives for Intercultural Dialogue in Europe”. There were ambassadors of the European Year of Intercultural Dialogue, also from Poland (Agnieszka Holland and Adam Michnik), who tried to show benefits of cultural diversity and promote the intercultural dialogue in the world. The Commission also co-financed seven European-wide flagship projects: **DIVERSIDAD Building the Bridge Between European Urban Cultures**, which offered European artists from different urban cultures opportunity to meet, share their ideas, and create a lasting bridge of exchange; **iyowe SHARE THE WORLD**, which aimed to increase primary school children’s awareness of intercultural dialogue by encouraging exchanges between artists from a range of cultures, thus creating a chain of diversity and developing a network of experiences; **Alter Ego**, which aimed to promote the intercultural dialogue, cross-cultural understanding and the active European citizenship of young people through collaborative art projects that would encourage them to reach beyond their normal social circles; **Cultures from around the Block**, which offered the participants a wide spectrum of creative activities, such as shooting a documentary film, creating a website informing people about the process of local integration, and finally presenting the results arising from the local projects; **Tatapume Intercultural Dialogue Radio Campaign**, which aimed to raise awareness of the extensive migratory movements in Europe and their impact on today’s society; **Meeting the Other**, a multidisciplinary project with a special emphasis on cultural expressions created by migrants, which covered several areas including journalism, research and cultural production and **the StrangerFestival**, the biggest event for young people, which promoted artistic expression through video-making [*Highlights of the European Year...* p. 3].

The mentioned debates show that there are still many barriers to intercultural communication with migrants and minorities. The lack of language skills deprives migrants of opportunities for dialogue and prevents them from relations and contacts with their neighbours and the authorities. So, the participants of debates called for active strategies for integrating immigrants with local communities in the host countries. But on the other hand, due to dramatic falls in birth rate,

Europe needs migrant workers. And they stress that they consider themselves to be Europeans and that they do not seek cultural domination, but want language training, better relations with their neighbours, the access to education for their children and attainability of the legal status [*Integrating conversations...*].

Moreover, the Commission considers intercultural dialogue as one of the main instruments of peace and conflict prevention. The Commission is also involved in the project of the Anna Lindh Euro-Mediterranean Foundation for the Dialogue between Cultures, and the creation of specific debate on culture within the political dialogues with third countries. The Commission thinks that culture is a key factor in the international relations.

In addition to this, the Commission has focused its action on promoting support for human rights, including the protection and promotion of cultural rights, as well as the rights of persons belonging to minorities [*Communication from the Commission...*].

To support the intercultural dialogue, the Commission promotes many language projects, especially due to the fact that knowledge of languages has become a key factor of employability and mobility for people and gives an opportunity to understand cultural diversity better.

To sum up, making people aware of the cultural diversity as well as the need for intercultural dialogue are the most important issues. The role of such a dialogue in the EU cultural policy is crucial – it is one of three main objectives of the current Culture Programme. Nowadays, a true dialogue is urgently needed at all levels and in all fields, especially due to the fact that for migrants it can be a significant element of integration. But it will succeed only if we respect such values as pluralism, tolerance, solidarity and non-discrimination. Apart from this, we cannot forget that intercultural dialogue should take place in the streets, in shops, at schools, so anywhere where people meet and interact.

To be successful, the dialogue should avoid classifications of migrants and minorities according to the legal status, nationality, religion or ethnicity, because such categorisation can build stereotypes and prejudices.

Abstract

The European Union cultural policy is based on the respect for cultural diversity – “unity in diversity”. Furthermore, the enlargement of the European Union, the free movement of workers and globalisation have increased the multicultural character of many member states. In those multicultural societies, the diversity of religious beliefs and convictions can lead to misconceptions and fears, and the lack of the ability to communicate in foreign languages hampers integration and cooperation.

The mix of cultures can develop European cultures, stimulate reflection on cultural identity and build openness and respect for the others, but also may affect economic and social development and political stability of the EU. The effective and constructive dialogue between people and cultures is necessary for any multicultural society to

function. Intercultural communication helps to understand better other cultures, leads to wider recognition of cultural heritage, tolerance and full respect for different cultural, linguistic, ethnic and religious groups. For these reasons, the promotion of intercultural dialogue is one of the main objectives of the EU cultural policy. This dialogue plays a fundamental role in building Europe, where people live together, not just co-exist. It helps prevent racism, isolation and discrimination of immigrants.

To support intercultural dialogue, the EU Commission is promoting many language projects, especially due to the fact that knowledge of languages has become a key factor of employability and mobility for people and gives an opportunity to understand cultural diversity better.

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A Woman in a Working Place. Part I. French Case

1. Introduction

“Les faiblesses des hommes sont la force des femmes”. (“The weaknesses of men are the strong points of women”). This sentence of Voltaire is just one of many possible interpretations of a perception of a woman by a man. However, knowing the history and the personality of Voltaire, while giving him his due as a great thinker, one may say that there are as many points of interpretations as there are human perspectives. However, considering the very title of this article, which more anthropological ambitious, that the prescriptive one, we may admit that the very concept of a “woman at work”, can differ considerably. Say a woman and it sounds beautiful. For some other people, due to their life experience, the image of a young, blonde girl driving the tractor through the fields in the “fight for a happier, socialistic countryside” may occur. Some would think of an African woman with children walking several hours to get water, others of a woman in an Israeli army uniform. The connotations may be numerous. However, the question is if it is possible to draw a certain profile that would help to understand the position of a woman in a working place. Part I of this attempt is concentrated on the situation of a French woman. The method is purely anthropological – the use of direct observation as well as the propositions of interpretation offered by certain historical and statistical data. Finally, some specific cases will be analysed. In the paper the problem of a working woman in France is being studied from several perspectives – as far as the legal aspects are concerned, and from psychological and sociological perspectives. The paper does not pretend to give the final answers. It is rather an attempt to show some elements of the phenomenon of a woman in business life of contemporary France constantly bearing in mind the very truth included in a French proverb – “Souvent femme varie” (“A woman changes rapidly”). It needs to be added that the conditions in which she works changes rapidly too.

2. Legal Aspects and Some History

In common perception there exists a stereotype of the emancipated French woman – she smokes very strong cigarettes, has sex without any restraints as she was sexually liberated and could express herself freely. As with every stereotype, it is nothing else but perceptual error as described in the most classical books of modern psychology. Probably the roots of this stereotype should be searched in the images from the times of French bohemia, Quartier Latin, Juliette Greco, Simon de Beauvoir or may be even in the times of George Sand. That muse and mistress of Frederic Chopin was famous of her “masculine” look. It was understood as a very strong act of rebellion and the fight for women’s rights. Some of the traces of this “masculinisation” as a sign of rebellion may be still found nowadays in language and in ...driving of the French ladies. In fact George Sand was not “that” rebellious. The law in mid XIX century prohibited women from wearing the “male look”. If a lady wanted to wear trousers she had to ask the prefect for agreement. So did George Sand. This law was twice amended by the verge of XIX and XX century, when women were allowed to wear trousers only while bike and horse ridding. The law still exists nowadays. So that majority of female members of French Parliament wearing trousers violated the law. This example could be interpreted both ways – from the point of view of incompatibility of the legal aspects to the changes in contemporary life, which is not a subject of interest from the perspective of this paper and from the point of view of a fight of a woman for her rights. Her priorities have changed – not wearing trousers but career development counts. However, the English woman at the BBC while being addressed with a title of “a manager” revolted. She wanted to be named not in a “masculine” way, but with the title that corresponds with her gender – “a manageress”. The French woman in similar professional position revolted while hearing the title of “a manageress”, as she thought to be a signal of her social inferiority, therefore she demanded to be called “a manager”. The same title as her male work male. “Am I worse than him that you call me a different title”? she asked an imprudent speaker. It reflects the problem that will be discussed later on in the chapter on “sex and language”. However, it may be stated so far, that the need to emancipate may go various ways – either by rebellion against the existing law, or with rebellion of the “fortress build by men”. By the beginning of the XXI century not very much has changed in this mechanism.

The stereotypes are generalizations based on the most catchy or unusual features. Thus the image of a French woman as an emancipated person. However if a Polish single woman has got a right to vote in 1918, a Turkish on in 1930, the French woman obtained this right in 1944. Twenty years earlier it happened to women in Albania, Mongolia, Great Britain or Belgium. Paradoxically women in France could vote in the Middle Ages (1). This right was suppressed in 1498 but till the times of the French Revolution a woman could vote in local elections if

she was a head of the family. But the very change came with Napoleon Bonaparte. Probably in his times the roots of certain aspects of a modern French woman should be sought. The Codex of Napoleon brought serious consequences as far the perception of a role of a woman in French society. It should be seen from two perspectives – a perception of a woman's role by French men and the self – perception, in other way how the women see themselves. The first influences the latter. The result of how women perceive themselves can also take few dimensions. A woman may act according to what she thinks is expected from her, so in consequence she models her role to a pattern that in fact may be not real. A woman may try to take man's position and pick up his behavior as the one that is wanted and expected by the society. Third, but not last option is that she would act contradictory to "male" pattern in order to underline difference of her gender. These consequences of Napoleonic Codex are seen in contemporary business environment in France. How huge was the influence we can imagine studying few facts. Codex of Napoleon requires that a woman must live in her husband's house. This law was cancelled in 1975. A woman cannot administrate her property – this regulation became invalid in 1965. In the same 1965 a woman could finally engage in professional life without the permission of her husband. Napoleon Codex assumed that a woman should be treated as a minor, as a child, thus a man, her father, later her husband should make all important decisions in human life. This attitude had to have an influence on the behavior of a woman in a contemporary society as well as on the woman – man relations in the working place. In 1874 France introduce the first law that protected a working woman. She was prohibited from working in the mines and on Sundays. In 1935 the time limit was introduced, she could work for not longer than 11 hours a day and could not work in the nights. This law is valid until now. However, working for French Radio, very often I had the pleasure to work with female studio producers and technicians. In 1907 the law allowed a woman to collect her salary. In the 80' one of the Polish immigrants married to the French man told me the story that still in the 70' she was to present her husband's permission to open her own bank account despite the fact that the law that a French woman can work and open a bank account without her husband's permission was introduced in 1965. This show to what extent the sex discrimination works despite the law against it. In 1983 sex discrimination became punishable. In 2009 it still exists. In 1946 according to the French Constitution a woman and a man in a working place are equal. However when it comes to money, they should wait till 1972 to get the guarantees that man will get the same money as the woman doing the same job. It was still the law on paper. In reality, in November 2009 the French government proposes to punish the companies that would not reduce the divergences between the wages of a female and male employee. Usually a woman gets from 16% to 27% less than a man doing the same type of job with the same responsibilities.

3. Some Statistics

Women in France they make the majority of part time workers. In comparison to other European Union countries the situation is neither dramatic nor depressing. The average for the UE part time working versus full time working is 18.2%. In France is 16.9%. In Germany it is even 25.9%. Then French women are one third of the part time workers, whereas in Germany the numbers go almost to the half. But paraphrasing Goethe we may say, that “the only numbers are grey”. We need to have other data to be able to interpret the statistics. Majority of French part-time female workers are the employees of huge chains of stores. They usually are employed to do the job on the basic level of the hierarchy of the company. After interviewing women working at the cash desk for few of the largest chains of hypermarkets we can draw the following conclusions. The women are always in inferior position in the structure of the company in comparison to men. They get the considerably little money. Many of them work part time but it means staying in the shop for the whole day. They start at the opening hours. Work for hour and a half. Then they an hour and a half break, too short to have time to go home. Then an hour of work during rush hours. Break. And hour of work during the evening rush hours. They stay the whole day at work, in their shop, but are paid only for few hours. In services in France 61.8% of a working force is a woman. In education, health services and social services women are in vast majority (74.9%). However the stereotype works both ways. A Parisian, nine months pregnant, in one of the local clinics confessed that she was shocked when she saw that at the birth of her child the man, not a woman, would be present. Then she learnt that he was perfect professional. Seeing through the perspective of gender stereotypes could be echoed on both sides of the wall of sexes. A surprisingly high number of female employee works in finance and house estate – up to 58%, in energy 20%, what could be explained by the fact that so far this domain has belonged to public sector that in general is much more open in employing women. On the other hand however, the public sector is highly “over bureaucratic”, has got its administrative part developed. And in this domain women are more likely to be employed. (Does it mean that they cope better with paper work than men? This is just a question). Consequently to common expectations women deal more in social aspects of a human life which is in agreement with the research of many psychologists, who, like McClelland stated that a need – for affiliation is the main engine of motivation. 99% of kindergarten teachers, 97% of secretaries, 91% of nurses, 64% of teacher, in principle in primary and secondary schools, and 39 % of female managers (manageresses) are female.

4. Special Case – Army

French Army is assumed to have the largest number of the women – soldiers in the ranks in Europe. The women are 14% of the military staff. It means the French forces include 36 000 female soldiers. Majority of them serve in

administration and in health services. Minority serves in infantry, marines, as tank/car mechanics and in Air Force. The most “male” fortress of the French force is the “gendarmerie”. This part of the army is very hostile toward women. It may be understood by their self perception. “Gendarmerie” perceives itself as the elite of the French forces. Getting into its very closed circle is difficult for a woman.

In France a woman can serve in almost every unit apart from the submarine. It is assumed that the lack of space in this particular man-of-war is an additional stress factor. The tension among the crew is easier to create in abnormal conditions that are created by the very logic of the ship – small space that for many days is submerged under water. This is a technical reasoning. Behind it we may find logic of female inferiority while a human being faces a major challenge in an extremely stressful situation. In this assumption probably is reflected the same attitude that comes out of the Napoleon Codex that a woman should be treated as a minor. In XXI century a typical French woman – soldier¹ joins the army at the average age of 29.4 years. 70% of them have got higher education which is probably also due to the fact that a modern army requires highly qualified staff. The technology has changed so drastically that a soldier must be a well-educated person. The modern strategy is not the battle field, but a fight for the control over the towns. 41% of French women soldiers are mothers, and 66% live in a couple. 75% are married to a military man and the same number of questioned female soldiers claims not to have problems with separating their private life from their professional life. There are, however, some problems due to sex differences and a perception of the position of a woman in French society, in general, not only in a very specific place that is army. The majority of female French female soldiers (86%) think that they are treated in the same way as male soldiers, on the other hand, 12.6% have problems with male soldiers due to the sex differences. The interrelations within the units are one thing, whereas the other is a “glass ceiling” phenomenon. In this respect army reflects general situation in French working environment. 70% of French woman soldiers assume to have problems with getting to the higher commanding posts which in civil business correspond to higher managerial positions.

5. A woman at work without the military uniform

According to Dares² more than half of working women in France have jobs in 10 categories of employment among the 84 professional categories which exist in this country. If a woman is in 39% present among the managers and only 20% among computer programmers than 99% of kindergarten teachers, 97% of secretaries, 91% of nurses, 87% of nurses in maternity clinics are women. Now

¹ Information provided by the French Ministry of Defence.

² Dares – Direction de l’animation et de la recherche des études et des statistiques, 2002.

the question is if this is a result of a “female predispositions”, i.e. higher need for affiliation and lower need for power or is it a result of a pattern of roles in the society due to the gender. In the first case a woman chooses to become the nurse or secretary because this perfectly fits her personality and the system of needs. In the other case she is socially and culturally “forced” to choose her professional future. The second leads to many stereotypes and prejudice in both senses. It leads to thinking that “a woman is not apt to become a manager or leader” but it also creates prejudice that a man may face. This is a case of a pregnant mother who on her arrival to the maternity clinic noticed with disappointment that the nurse is not a woman but a man. She thought that “he would be unable to feel what a woman giving birth to a child feels”. Later on she changed her negative opinion about a male-nurse that stemmed from the stereotype.

6. Motivation and behavioral changes

Among the main motivational factors that make a French woman to join the army are also the ones that could be applied to civil professional life. A French woman becomes part of the military because of the social pressure to recognize the opening of different professions to women. This social pressure comes from the European Union legislation as well as from the new generation of politicians who are less hostile towards women doing jobs assumed to be “traditionally” male. It also reflects the changes within the society, but it is difficult to statistically evaluate if this relates to all French or if it is culturally determined. The “ethnic” statistics is prohibited in France. Therefore it may be only presumed that these changes in mentality are not very popular among several millions of immigrants who originate from North Africa and Black Africa. Among those social groups the more traditional model of family, in which father works and mother rear children, seems to dominate. Sally Adamson Taylor (4) considers the role of a woman in the French working place more conservative than in the USA. She underlines that the male head of the family is still the norm and that “the authority carries through into the business world”. The existing stereotypes and prejudice are still omnipresent. Pineau and Kelly [Pineau, Kelly 1991] quote the example of Chiara Rosen, a woman who moved from Israel to France. In Israel she quit a very good and challenging job. In France she could not get a new one despite her professionalism and fluent French. She was called back for many interviews during which one question was always repeated – how old is she and how long has she been married. The interviewers just assumed that she would be pregnant within a short time. And then one interviewer, an executive of a well-known Fortune 500 company asked about her husband’s job. When she said that her husband is a radiologist the interviewer expressed his surprise that she wanted to work, as the wives of radiologists play tennis and do not work [Pineau, Kelly 1991, p. 46]. The relations between a woman and a man in the working place are predominantly based on submission-dominance polarization despite

the fact that more professions are accepted to be done by a female employee. The fact that a French woman is increasingly present in the working environment not only in retail and services but also in finance and law is mentioned by John Mole in his book "Mind your manners". However author stresses the big differences between Paris and other regions in France which seems to be a result of contrast between the more cosmopolitan capital of France and more traditional areas especially rural ones [Mole 1999]. The social pressures, that is visible also in French Medias, to recognize the opening of different professions to women leads to some behavioral changes³. Looking again at the case of a female soldier one may state at least three domains in which changes in behavior may be observed i.e. self identity (or self perception), language and changes in hierarchy of needs. A working woman tries to adopt the "role pattern" to the "male world". She tries to imitate a man-worker. Female managers at Radio France Internationale⁴ wanted to prove that they fit in the "male positions", so they tried to adapt to what they imagine would be a "male role". It was visible in their language. Similarly to female soldiers, they did not lower their voice, wanted to create an image of a "tough" and "decisive" leaders. The relation between the "sex markers in speech" has been studied thoroughly within the last few decades [Scherer, Giles 1979]. Philipp M. Smith [Scherer, Giles 1979] distinguishes differences in pronunciation, grammatical form, in choice of vocabulary, speech style, code and dialect differences, and non-segmental differences. In the latter case Smith analyses the problem of patterns of intonation and loudness, which is the subject of linguistic aspects of behavioral changes in case of female employees on higher level in some professions⁵. The changes may be also observed in the hierarchy of needs. The increasing presence of a need for achievement seems to be one of the results produced by the changes in the French society toward more egalitarian position of a man and a woman in a working environment.

7. Conclusions

In 1946 the French Constitution introduced the equality of a man and a woman in a working place. But a French woman was to wait for almost the next 30 years (1972) for the law that would introduce the equal salary for a male and a female employee doing the same job. In reality a woman gets from 16% to 27% less than a man for the same type of work. In 2009 French Government proposed to introduce punishment for the companies that would not reduce the divergences in wages between both sexes and would not reduce discrimination. That step as well as European legislation may lead to improvement of the situation

³ Information provided by the French Ministry of Defence.

⁴ The observation made by an author after 21 years of working at RFI.

⁵ It was also observed by author during few days of interviews with candidate for the post of the president of France, Segolene Royal.

of a working woman and to the narrowing of gaps between law and reality. Consequently, the presence of old stereotypes also decreased, as well as that of prejudice and perceptual biases. The situation of a working woman in French society is a complicated matter that may be studied from different perspectives – sociological, psychological, anthropological and legal. The changes that have been observed in a French society in recent years create new opportunities but also new challenges for women who want to work and not only earn their salaries but also make careers and fully use their psychological as well as professional potentials.

Abstract

The situation of a working woman in French society is a complicated matter that may be studied from different perspectives – sociological, psychological, anthropological, cultural and legal. The changes that have been observed in French society in recent years create new opportunities but also new challenges for women who want to work and not only earn their salaries, but also have careers, and fully use their psychological as well as professional potential and skills. The historical aspect of the situation of French working women and French women in general within French society has been studied in order to have a better look at the roots of the contemporary situation of a working woman in France. Statistical data as well as the results of the French Statistics Institute were presented. In the paper the position of a female soldier in the French armed forces is being presented in order to see the “glass ceiling” problems in career development as well as the perceptual errors i.e. prejudice (on both sides), stereotypes and biases. The important influence of the problems with self-identification of a woman working in a «male created working environment” is pointed out. The paper is an attempt to underline the potential problems that may occur in a business/working environment due to the presence of representatives of both genders side by side. The problem is analysed from cultural, psychological and anthropological perspectives, as well as their consequences.

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The Invisible Power

Volatile and turbulent business environment poses a real challenge to sustainability and success of companies, their structures, business and organizational practices together with underlying concepts that people adopt as true and valid and as such use as guidelines in their behaviors. Naturally, leadership came under scrutiny of scholars and practitioners who heroically announced „we don't need another hero” [Badarraco 2001, pp. 120–126] and called for a more flexible, participative and relational type of leadership that would help transform organizational structures into learning organisms that are able to inspire their employees to creatively and effectively react to the turbulences of the global economy.

Being superior to old paradigms, transformational leadership „is expected to create conditions under which collective learning and continuous improvement can occur”, which „depends not so much on technical expertise [...] but on what is commonly called emotional and relational intelligence” [Fletcher 2003, pp. 204–210].

Attention given recently to transformational leadership exposed salience of specific attributes, often underestimated before, that enable a leader to achieve success, transform the situation through individualized consideration given to followers, their needs and development through motivation and intellectual stimulation [Bass 1996, pp. 5–34]. Relational skills, collaboration, caring, support, mentoring based on openness towards the needs of others, empathy and active listening skills seem to be commonly associated with traditionally perceived women's traits. Such authors as Sally Helgensen, who wrote „The Female Advantage: Women's Ways of Leadership” [Helgensen 1995, p. 5] or Marilyn Loden in her „Feminine Leadership or How to Succeed in Business Without Being One of the Boys” [Loden 1997, p. 79] strongly advocate that what leadership needs today are feminine qualities or feminine principles.

Is it really true, however, that the current redefinition of leadership has changed and still will substantially change the situation of women in management? Does this new perspective constitute a real turning point for women who have become more visible as leaders? Numerous observers of management practice and statisticians would probably confirm that view claiming that the proportion of women in US management has changed positively from 21% in 1976 to 45% by the very end of 20th century and two further percents in 2002. The American management has now a “female face” [Powell, Graves 2003, pp. 133–156], almost half of the time. This view might be further supported by the reduced number of respondents that describe a manager as a person who has predominantly male attributes. The period from 1977 to 1999 accounts for a substantial decrease of typically male traits in the descriptions of a good manager. The research conducted by G.N. Powell together with D.N. Butterfield and most recently J.D. Parent [Powell, Butterfield, Parent 2002, pp. 177–193] with the application of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, BSRI, in various groups of respondents i.e. male MBAs, female MBAs, male undergraduates and female undergraduates confirms a positive trend in perceptions of attributes necessary for a good manager.

A closer analysis of the situation proves, however, that women are still underrepresented in top leadership positions. In 2002 in US 500 largest companies women accounted for 16% of the corporate officers, with 71 of the 500 companies not having any women corporate officers at all [Catalyst, 2002]. In addition, recent studies on turnover among women of Fortune 1000 companies [Krishnan, Park 2005, pp. 1712–1720] indicate that the rate of turnover among Top Management Team women officers is almost twice a rate of men on TMTs, which indicates that it is still much more difficult to hold a visible position of responsibility for a woman than for a man. It is true, contrary to the fact, as it was proven by Krishnan and Park [Krishnan, Park 2005, pp. 1712–1720], that representation of women in general has positive impact on TMT performance since it contributes to diversity that is necessary in order to adapt and succeed [Palmer, Varner, Iris 2007, p. 20]. The visibility of women holding top executive positions is lowered due to their concentration in so called „velvet ghetto” of non strategic departments of human resources, education and accounting that are considered as low profile influence in the organization and have low revenue-generating impact [Bowles, McGinn 2005, pp. 195–196].

The situation does not differ positively in Europe, especially in countries that have not functioned too long in the market economy, including Poland. The average rate of employment in EU countries in 2004 differs from 70.9 for men to 55.7 for women and indicates unequal access to work for the two sexes, with Poland having lower rate of 46.2 rate than Czech Republic with the rate of 56 and Slovakia with the rate of 50.9 in women’s employment. In Europe women earn less by 15 % than men, which is close to the Polish index of 16%, but much lower than in Czech (19%) or Slovakia (23%) [Eurostat, 2004, Report 13, pp. 14–

17]. In 2003 there were on the average only 30% of women holding managerial position in EU, which is close to Polish and Slovakian indices of respectively 33% and 34% with a little lower index of 28% in Czech. The biggest percentage of women holding managerial positions was observed in Ireland (39%) and Latvia (38%) [European Commission DG EMPL, Report 13, p. 14].

If it is true that transformational leadership is what we need today and the skills and traits associated with it are possessed and used by women more eagerly or naturally than men, how can we explain the fact that organizations find it so difficult to acknowledge these truths and allow women to become more visible as leaders? In spite of substantial changes in the proportion of women holding managerial positions and the changes that really have taken place for the last three decades, gender-triggered stereotypes are still in operation at the workplace and heavily influence perceptions of both sexes. As Virginia Schein [Schein 1973, pp. 95–100] proved by her studies of gender, leader and the relationship among sex role stereotypes, both women and men believed in the 70s that middle managers should expose attributes perceived as typically masculine. The perceptions of women managers changed in more recent studies and today they ascribe both female and male attributes to good managers. However, the perceptions have not changed among men managers who still choose predominantly masculine characteristics while describing managerial roles [Deal, Stevenson 1998, pp. 287–300]. As recently indicated by Schien, similar perceptions are shared across cultures i.e. in Germany, UK, China and Japan [Schein 2001, pp. 675–688]. The surprising sustainability of stereotypical gendered-biased thinking is confirmed by Sandra Bem, who used a concept of androgyny, combining both male and female characteristics. The concept was tested against masculine, feminine and undifferentiated attributes in different groups of male and female MBAs and undergraduates while researching their perceptions of effective managers by Schein, Butterfield and Parent [Powell, Butterfield, Parent 2002, pp. 177–193]. The research was conducted in 1976–1977 and repeated in 1984–1985 and 1999, the period that noted subsequent increase of women in management from 21% to 35% and to 45%. Contrary to Schien, Butterfield and later Parent expectations, the demographic changes in real management were not followed by the change of „stereotypically masculine management face”. Although the change was noticeable, its scale was minimal over the period of thirty years, which proves how resistant to change stereotypical perceptions are.

A question might be asked here if stereotypes really matter considering the fact that changes take place in spite of them. Even if stereotypes may partially contradict the reality they are important because they create constraints on female managers' behavior. Contributing to the incongruity between a female role and a leader role of women managers, stereotypes support double standards in women leaders' evaluations. When a woman acts close to a typically feminine stereotype, she is criticized as not displaying leader traits. When she highly

conforms to the stereotypically perceived role of a leader she fails her feminine role violating the norms of niceness [Branson 2002, pp. 12–17; Rudman, Glick 2001, pp. 1004–1010]. Thus, organizations in which men are in majority and have power to create organizational culture exert pressure on women to conform to a masculine stereotype of a leader, simultaneously reinforcing this stereotype.

As indicated by Powell [Powell, Graves 2003, pp. 133–156] sex stereotypes have real impact on self-perceptions and lead to the situation in which women perceive themselves as having the attributes less consistent than men with a stereotypically described leader. Women internalize stereotypes and see themselves as those who deserve less than men for the same performance. Such perceptions would result subsequently in behaviors refraining women from realizing their potential as leaders even though they might in reality possess the most required skills. Consequently, they stay invisible, often not being able even to effectively claim positions of authority [Schein 2001, pp. 675–688]. Thus, sex-type images of leadership provide a real hurdle to women's prospects. What is more, the higher the company ladder, the higher the stereotypically conditioned resistance to women authority is, in other words, the resistance increases together with the increased proportion of men, who reinforce gender-biased social roles through behaviors and social interactions [Dovidio, Ellyson, Keating, Heltman 1988, pp. 233–242].

Being resistant to change, stereotypes also influence the perceptions of others, forming their attitudes and often contributing to the prejudice that women may experience at the workplace. The survey conducted in 22 countries by the Gallup Organization [Simmons 2001] indicates that in spite of the increased number of women in managerial positions people still prefer a male boss. In US 45% of men and 50 % of women preferred a male boss in the year 2000 as compared with 1975 poll in which 63% of men and 60% of women expressed such a preference. Although the negative preferences towards women as managers have been gradually changing, women are still twice less desirable in managerial positions than men by their subordinates. The results presented by the Harvard Business Review surveys conducted in 1965 [Bowman, Worthy, Greysler 1965, pp. 164–178] and 1985 [Sutton, More 1985, pp. 42–66] and measuring perceptions of male and female executives confirm that the perceptions have been changing into more favorable towards women, yet they are still substantially less favorable than towards men. The percentage of male executives that expressed negative attitude to women executives dropped from 41% to 5% whereas the percentage of males who would accept working for a woman boss grew from 27% to 47%. A question whether the business community would fully accept business top managers was answered negatively by 61% of men and 47% of women in 1965 and these numbers decreased subsequently to 20% of men but only 40% of women in 1965. Interestingly, the justification of these negative attitudes included prejudice towards women playing outside-home roles, women's acceptance of

the exclusion from managerial positions as well men's unwillingness to compete with women for managerial roles. The latter reason being especially plausible with young men who in both surveys expressed much less favorable attitudes towards women in management than their older colleagues.

Meta analytic research of laboratory studies [Eagly, Makhijani, Klonsky 1992, pp. 3–22] does further support the survey results mentioned above. Women in executive positions are evaluated more negatively than men, most negatively when they distance themselves from the female stereotype by adopting typically male style or occupying traditionally male leadership positions or when they are evaluated by men. This may prove that gender is an important negative factor in the perceptions and evaluations of women managers especially when they interfere with stereotypically understood roles and norms. Even if playing those roles female managers perform similarly to male managers they are evaluated lower due to their sex and consequently stay invisible as leaders.

In real life the separation is often „more myth than reality”, which additionally proves that stereotypical perceptions might be the source of prejudice. A more hopeful picture is represented by the results of studies based on experiences of work with actual managers. While evaluating male or female managers they have been really working for, subordinates do not differentiate between male or female bosses [Eagly, Karau 2002, pp. 573–598]. Nonetheless, it has to be noticed that the experience of having a woman manager has a positive impact on the perception of females in managerial positions only when the experience itself had proven positive.

The phenomenon of sex-linked stereotypical division of roles is, as Fletcher concludes [Fletcher 2003, pp. 204–210], connected with the separation of the social world into two spheres of activity: public sphere of paid job and private sphere of family life. We do not only evaluate them differently, public sphere as the domain of skilled work and family sphere as the domain of unskilled, personal and innate characteristics, but we also associate with them two different images of idealized masculinity and idealized femininity. „Most of us carry a sex-linked set of principles – an underlying logic of effectiveness – about how to do good work in each sphere that is assumed to be appropriate for that sphere alone” [Fletcher 2003, pp. 204–210]. Being culturally and historically deeply rooted in social life, the paradigm is powerful enough to determine our expectations, perceptions and eventually actions as appropriate or inappropriate.

No differentiation between male and female factors in evaluations of actual managers raises hope that in time the reality will positively influence human perceptions and eventually change stereotypical attributions. On the other hand, the gap between stereotypical way of thinking and the reality additionally proves the resilient nature of stereotypes that will long determine our expectations and might long negatively color our perceptions and evaluations. Women may not long receive the same opportunities to develop leadership qualifications and if „we wait

for the time to correct the problem, we will be waiting a very long time. At current rate of change, it will be almost three centuries before women are as likely as men to become top managers in major corporations [...]” [Rhode 2003, p. 161].

Numerous researchers indicate that the lack of critical management experience is as one of the most important barriers to become more visible as top leaders. As mentioned above, statistically women are present in management. Nonetheless, the level of managerial positions as well as the fact that in majority women hold managerial positions in low profile influence fields naturally deprive them of possibilities of advancement in high profile influence fields which, in turn, results in diminishing their potential visibility as leaders. Thus, the phenomenon of exclusion might be identified as the very source of the lack of access to resources necessary for acquiring more visible positions in corporations. Being classified as the other due to individual-level differences or demographic and psychological characteristics of male and female executives, women are often excluded from so called “boys clubs”. Social identity theory indicates that managers would identify themselves as belonging to an elite in-group whose members share specific attributes, as stated earlier traditionally perceived as typically male, and would be naturally socialized into that group’s norms [Kent, Moss 1994, pp. 1335–1360]. What is more, gender itself would be treated according to social identity theory as one of the salient characteristics, based on which classification into in – groups and out-groups could occur [Haslam 2002, pp. 167–168]. The exclusion from group membership equals exclusion from important decision making, and support networks, which in turn jeopardizes career advancement [Haw Siu Chow, Crowford 2004, p. 224] and makes potentially effective management players invisible due to low representation.

As mentioned above, another plausible argument used to explain the invisibility of women in management is their own acceptance of this exclusion or the lack of motivation in aggressively claiming positions of authority. The claim is supported with the qualitative research whose results indicate that women more often than men hold informal leadership roles avoiding the potential conflict and intuitively striving towards more cohesion in the team [Neubert 1999, pp. 635–646; Kolb 1992, pp. 63–91]. As a result men would more likely become group leaders whereas women group facilitators as shown by the meta – analytic research of laboratory and field studies, [Eagly, Karau 1991, pp. 685–710], which is consistent with favoring by women such terms as „facilitator” or „coordinator” over the term „leader” [Andrews 1992, pp. 74–94]. The lack of motivation was researched in the national survey of British managers’ career development, which checked motivation as a manager among women and men. The findings did not prove any negative differences in motivation among women as compared with men. What is more, women scored higher on top five motivators: challenging job, opportunity for development, autonomy, being appreciated and good quality senior managers [Alban-Metcalf 1989, pp. 95–108]. How could this

discrepancy between motivation studies and the management practice studies be explained. As suggested by Bevely Alimo-Metcalfe [Alimo-Metcalfe 1995, pp. 92–109], psychology explains a situation of cognitive dissonance, when we face two conflicting truths, as a dissonance which generates tension. The tension is usually reduced by attributing the discrepancy in cognition to a particular cause. Man's success tends to be attributed to ability, woman's success to good luck or bigger from average effort in trying to accomplish a goal. On the other hand, man's failure tends to be attributed to bad luck, woman's more readily to the lack of ability [Wallston 1981, pp. 9–41]. Thus, while we do not find differences in motivation, we create them resolving the problem of cognitive dissonance through sex differences in attributions. It is further proved by Laura Rudman [Rudman 1998, pp. 629–645] in her studies on self-promotion that contrary to the fact that both men and women articulate their professional competence successfully, women appear to be evaluated as incompetent and undesirable for the position. Again, the expectations of others play a strong inhibiting role in claiming authority as well as in women's socialization [Ridgeway 2001, pp. 637–655], which might in turn contribute to reluctance towards women's pursuing opportunities in an aggressive way.

The argument attributing lack of motivation can be also effectively refuted by the evidence concerning women leaving large organizations and opening new businesses. The evidence collected by Bowles and McGinn [Bowles, McGinn 2005, pp. 195–196] proves high dynamism of growth in women-owned businesses in US with survival rates exceeding the US average i. e. 78% increase in the period of mid 1980s to mid 1990. Whereas the biggest proportion of businesses appeared in the service sector, the highest growth was observed in the sectors of construction, transportation, manufacturing and wholesale-trade, in other words, traditionally perceived male sectors. The Krishnan's research [Krishnan, Park 2005, pp. 1712–20] on the TMT women turnover in US Fortune 1000 companies proves that 16% of TMT women who left their organizations in the three years of study (the beginning of 1998 and the end of 2000) started their own firms whereas 50% joined a rival company. In Poland the percentage of women running their own businesses accounted for 36,3% of the self-employed in 2000, which places our country among the EU leaders in that category, the ratio in Poland compares with 34,2% in Austria, 32,8% in Finland, 27,2% in Czech or 26,5% in GB [Geneva 2000, pp. 53–63]. Facing the evidence it would be hard to prove that women are not motivated in pursuing better opportunities to realize their leadership potential, even when the challenge is linked with putting at risk their current professional position.

Why do women leave their position of authority and choose to become less visible as managers? What happens if women become visible in an organization and find their place in the Top Management Teams. The above mentioned interesting study conducted by Krishnan [Krishnan, Park 2005, pp. 1712–20]

among TMT women in Fortune 1000 companies in the US shows that the turnover of women, being twice the rate of turnover of men, is especially visible among women having careers in marketing, operations or law i.e. predominantly male environment, where the turnover is 50% and compares with 8% turnover among TMT women in Human Resources, general administration or communication. Measuring environmental, organizational and individual-level factors the research showed negative correlation between environmental dynamism and environmental munificence and the TMT women turnover, and positive correlation between the size of an organization and its relative power index and the TMT women turnover. In other words, it proves that women can realize their potential as leaders in environments of relative instability that provide excess resources to support sustained growth whereas large organizational structures will trigger bigger turnover among the TMT women. The latter might be explained by the fact that large corporations tend to conform to established patterns and old routines, which may mean that they create psychological hurdles to non-traditional members [Pfeffer 1981, pp. 56–70]. The relative power ratio, defined by the age differential between women and men, appears to be one of the most important factors that has an impact on a TMT manager's decision if to stay in the company [Krishnan, Park 2005, pp. 1712–20]. The greater the differential, the higher the turnover among women who were not given an opportunity by the organization to enhance the knowledge and expertise of the corporate operations. Since women cannot enjoy expert power they often make a decision to leave and join rival companies (50% of the researched TMT women who left joined a rival), open their own businesses (16% of those who left started their own company) or join another industry (over 8% of those who left changed the industry).

An attempt to explain the invisible processes connected with high visibility of women in management was made by Kathy Kram and Marion Mc Collom Hampton and published in „When Women Lead: The Visibility – Vulnerability Spiral” [Kram, McCollom Hampton 2003, pp. 211–223]. The theoretical model they created is based on the Klenian object relation theory which claims that humans at the early age and later as adults use mechanism of splitting and projection while dealing with unpleasant emotions. The psychological mechanism of splitting is „an action undertaken in fantasy that can be used to separate things that belong together” [Segal 1992, p. 36]. The splitting self defense mechanism of separating the self from painful feelings is combined with the mechanism of projection which is understood as active placing of those feelings into someone else.

When women become visible as leaders, due to a combination of processes in action they are exposed to challenges critical to their leadership effectiveness [Cox 1993, pp. 80–120]. The first step is created by the minority status of women in organizations, which results as Kanter [Kanter 1977, pp. 110–120]

claims in heightened visibility, intense scrutiny and pressure to assimilate into the majority culture. Heightened visibility, which itself does not have to be a negative factor, is experienced by women more negatively than men due to a wide range of conscious and unconscious expectations for women's behavior and leader's behavior. Leaders are expected to defend the group especially in the moment of crises and are heavily criticized if they lose the battle. The criticism increases together with anxiety when the organization survival is put at risk. Additionally, the image of a leader clashed with the image of a woman, who is still stereotypically perceived as a weaker sex and potentially in need of support and protection because easily victimized and vulnerable. Unconscious stereotypes about women collide with unconscious stereotypes about leaders [Bayes, Newton 1985, pp. 309–322; Eagly, Karau, Makhijani 1995, pp. 125–145]. Thanks to heightened visibility and perceived potential vulnerability, female leaders raise the anxiety in an organization potentially providing higher risk to organizational survival. In the situation of increased anxiety splitting and projecting mechanisms come into action. According to the object relation theory individuals will tend to split their feelings of vulnerability and project them onto others. Thanks to sex role socialization women are prepared to experience that feeling and manage it mainly through relations with others. What is more, they will tend to easily absorb it whereas men would rather deal with it projecting it to an out-group rather than to an in-group.

In addition, the projected vulnerability of women is combined with the real vulnerability as leaders. The intense scrutiny under which women have to play the leader's role creates and intensifies real vulnerability or, in other words, risk of failure in role. The mistakes will be noticed sooner and will be criticized more often [Aker 1983, pp. 191–202]. Not-sex role appropriate behaviors will be detected readily and criticized severely resulting in negative attributions of women leaders, especially in cultures where sex roles are clearly defined. [Cox 1993, pp. 80–120]. Considering the fact that women build their sense of self esteem in the relations with others [Baker Miller 1991, pp. 11–26], their experience of inner vulnerability would be additionally intensified by close scrutiny and criticism [Eagly, Karau, Makhijani 1995, pp. 125–145]. In such a situation according to Kram and Hampton [Kram, McCollom Hampton 2003, pp. 211–223], women leaders will experience a real risk to their authority, limit potential range of leadership styles in use and eventually undermine effectiveness.

Abstract

Women have made enormous progress for the last several decades substantially marking their presence in management and making inroads in the upper echelons of corporations. Interestingly, the latest concepts of transformational leadership, participative, flexible and relational, expose the salience of attributes traditionally perceived as feminine.

Nonetheless, women tend to be overrepresented at the bottom of organizational hierarchy and underrepresented at the top. The paper explores the issue of low visibility of women in leadership positions addressing selected factors that contribute to still prevalent invisibility of women business leaders. The paper examines frequently indicated sources of women's underrepresentation: ender-triggered stereotypes in operation at the workplace, factors reinforcing stereotypes, lack of critical management experience, exclusion from decision-making and support networks and the lack of motivation to aggressively pursue existing opportunities. Social identity theory, object relation theory and visibility-vulnerability spiral are applied to gain insight into the problem of women's invisibility at the upper corporate echelons.

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Spółeczna Wyższa Szkoła Przedsiębiorczości i Zarządzania

Two Paradigms in Management Epistemology

1. Introduction

Paper present dualistic vision of management epistemology. First perspective is based can be identified as “objective”, second one is “relativist”. The axis of epistemological division within management as well as within other social sciences can be the antagonism: “hard” orientation (neo-positivistic, systemic, and functional) versus “soft” orientation (humanistic, interpretative and hermeneutic). At the first glance it may seem that this categorisation is very simplified, stereotypical and inadequate in relation to the development of contemporary management. We think, however, that contrary to this reservation, this elementary division is a basic cognitive category accepted by specialists in management.

So far the development of management sciences has not given us any hope for epistemological monism. That is why the consequence of the deepening of contrasts and incoherence between the two antagonistic approaches can be the disintegration of the subject of management, leading to the perception of this science as a conglomerate of schools, which has no opportunity to create theoretical and methodological synthesis [Przybyła 2002, pp. 135–136].

2. Functional – systemic perspective

The first perspective is called “neo-positivistic”, “functional”, systemic” or “quantitative”. Its epistemological model is natural sciences. It is a combination of influence of neo-positivistic philosophy, systemic trend with functionalism in sociology and cultural anthropology. The heritage of the Vienna Circle includes the following assumptions: verification, knowledge cumulating, search for scientific method, division into dependent and independent variables, search for mathematical modelling and quantificational methodology. Verification

allows for constant assessment of epistemological value of given statements through empirical research of the subject matter. It gives the opportunity to obtain a unanimous answer what an organisation is and what corporate qualities are and how to manage successfully. Knowledge cumulating means the belief that organisation research creates lasting knowledge which consequently develops and continually makes progress. Scientists look for a relatively reliable “scientific method”, enabling to discover and evaluate valuable knowledge. The set of independent and dependent variables enables to build cause and effect relationships and feedback derived from physical sciences, perceived according to the Newtonian paradigm. Due to the necessity of creation of precise generalisations, methodology of quantified research is better valued i.e. rather quantitative than qualitative methods. In management there appeared attempts of modelling and mathematical generalisation, which are to lead to a coherent image of organisational sciences, expressed in a universal language of nature – mathematics (e.g. operational research, forecasting and simulations). A neo-positivistic image of management remains a kind of common sense vision of this discipline [Sułkowski 2004].

The other source of orientation is a functional approach in sociology and cultural anthropology. It is based on the assumption that the social whole maintains balance in the process of exchange among the elements of social order. Majority of organisation members serves to maintain this higher order of the social system. A “function” is the input of a partial activity into the activities of the whole. Functionalism in management leads to the separation of the set of complementary organisation functions, supporting the activity of this whole (e.g. planning, organisation, motivation, monitoring). The social system in a state of functional unity means harmonious, conflict-free co-operation of sub-systems [Radcliff-Brown 1952, pp. 192–193]. Functionalism leads to deterministic methodology, congruent with the neo-positivistic spirit, allowing understanding of patterning and repetitiveness of social process in an organisation [Merton 1982]. A good analogy is systemic approach which is used in many other sciences [Bertalanffy 1960].

Hence the third area of inspiration of the trend is a systemic conception which places an organisation on the complex level of social systems [Boulding 1956]. This interdisciplinary approach assumes structural integration of sub-systems within the greater whole and the emergence of system specific qualities on further levels of complexity¹. In this sense an organisation is a complex system undergoing limited steering which maintains balance in the processes of material and information flows with the environment. What connects systemic

¹ Similar approach within praxeological organisation theory: J. Zieleniewski, 1969. *Organizacja i Zarządzanie*. Warszawa: PWN.

conception with neo-positivism is the drive to science unity and the belief that one can build a unified scientific method based on general system theory. Then, the relation to functionalism concerns such ideas as systemic integration (functional) and homeostasis.

Functionalistic – systemic epistemology combining neo-positivism, functionalism and systemic school is oriented on the creation of integrated systems, verification of truth with the help of objective quantitative methods. The analytic approach is essential and assumes the possibility of generalisation and mathematical modelling of research results.

The trends directly related to economics are most deeply rooted in this perspective and they are connected with the beginning of management sciences [see: Martan 2002]. The connections to the economics are manifested most strongly in the attempts of directing management development on the path of “enterprise sciences” [Lichtarski (ed.) 1997, p. 10]. The main subject of interest of management would be an enterprise which is active on the market. It would be analysed in terms of economics, with the additional opportunity to use the methodology derived from other sciences [Gruszecki 2002, pp. 42–43]. Systemic and functional vision of an organisation is accompanied by the image of an resourceful man, close to the categories of *homo oeconomicus*. Quantitative methodology has a significant place in such sub-disciplines of management as managerial accounting, logistics management or information management.

Critics of the functional – systemic orientation in management point out that this vision is based on the natural sciences epistemology, derived from a mechanical paradigm which was exchanged by the theory of relativity paradigm or quantum mechanics [Wheatley 1999, pp. 10–11]. Functionalism is attacked because of the static organisation image and the lack of autonomy on the part of a social subject. In the enterprise sciences this is a vision of man deemed for hyper-rationality. However, in a real organisation conflicts, disintegration processes and activity in the imbalance conditions are more frequent than homeostatic harmony. The total vision of organisational order can omit elements of sense constitution happening on the level of behaviours and interactions. We can lose the interpretation of such processes as establishing and exercising authority and ownership, communication of individuals and groups, creating culture elements or giving meaning to the organisational reality.

2. Symbolic-interpretative perspective

A competitive cognitive approach in relation to the functional-systemic one can be described as “interpretative”, “symbolic” or “qualitative”. The main sources of inspiration are social and humanistic sciences, such as sociology, psychology, political sciences and cultural anthropology. Many ideas related to corporate culture, management, human resources management, management processes or managing changes are based on epistemological assumptions of

the symbolic – interpretative approach. We can quote the following examples: “establishment” theory by Weick, corporate culture conception by Smircich or “authority net” by Pfeffer and Salancik [Weick 1979; Smircich 1983, pp. 55–65; Pfeffer, Salancik 1978]. The basis of interpretative epistemology is the assumption about a constructional and conventional character of the social and organisational reality [Hatch 2002, p. 24, 56]. Organisational order does not exist objectively but is being continuously maintained, reconstructed and modified by individuals and groups acting in and around an organisation. An organisation and management processes are created by groups in institutional, legalisation and internalisation processes and they are contractual – they are a collective consensus [Berger, Luckmann 1966]. Economic interests act just as political, social and psychological influences. A man within an organisation searches for the sense, is value oriented and involved in a research situation. A cognitive act is entangled in a language and culturally relative, it is a symbolic activity. Research results are not objective, but can only be inter-subjectively communicated. One can observe focus on every-day categories covering a kind of hermeneutic circle in the shape of: perception, interpretation, definition, making and verifying hypotheses and finally acting (epistemology of ordinary day) [Suk-Young Chwe 2001, pp. 79–82; Deschamps 1996, pp. 220–221].

3. Comparison of two cognitive perspectives

The perspectives presented here create separate basic notions and ways of organisation and management research. An organisation can be seen as an authoritatively created system – an emanation of broader economic processes (globalisation, economics, sector) or as a upwards network of meanings and interactions (communication processes, conflicts and authority), Man in an organisation can be seen as an independent individual led only by rational, conscious motivation or as a social actor acting under the influence of different, rational and irrational factors. Effects of economic activity can be considered as a desire to maintain balance or capturing control by interest groups. Within those two perspectives preferred objectives and research methods are also different (Table 1).

Table 1. Comparison of two cognitive perspectives

Criteria	Functional-systemic perspective	Symbolic-interpretative perspective
Organisation constitution	A system is created by the market sector and economy.	The net of meanings created by communication, interaction and sense making processes in groups.
Man in organisation	<i>Homo oeconomicus</i> , individual interest, functional dependencies.	Organisation members enter into complex social inter-dependencies.
Nature of organisation	Economic, objectively given, can be known	Socially created, intra-subjective perception, known in a limited degree
Effect of economic activity	Tendency to maintain balance	Tendency to gain control, tensions caused by fight between conflicting interests
Research objectives	Generalisation, verifying, analysis, predicting and change programming.	Understanding, description, synthesis, changes stimulation.
Scientist's approach to researched reality	Objective, external perspective (outsider)	Participant in the researched phenomena and processes (insider)
Researcher's attitude to values	Search for objective knowledge, free of values	Consciousness entangled in values (axiological approach)
Preferred methodology	Predicates based on abstract notion systems	Descriptive and explanatory or understanding (hermeneutic)
Preferred method	Standardised methods, quantitative, structured	Non-standardised methods, qualitative, not structured

Source: author's own research with the help of R. Swedberg, 1990. *Economics and Sociology: Redefining their Boundaries: Conversations with Economists and Sociologists*. Princeton: Princeton University Press; W. Morawski, 2001. *Socjologia ekonomiczna. Problemy, teoria, empiria*. Warszawa: PWN, p. 33.

Adopting a dichotomic perspective, we can see that in the management sciences on the epistemology level there is a process of grouping of different schools which are situated in one of the ends of the described continuum. Thus for example in relation to the school strategy: planning, positional and resource-oriented one is based rather on the functional-systemic bases, while the evolutionary school is situated rather on the symbolic – interpretative end. The

concept of the research on the influence of the national culture on management is rooted in functionalism, and the understanding of the corporate culture as a net of meanings has an interpretative character. Similar divisions can be found in the area of exercising authority, conflict, corporate communication theories. Hidden and usually unconscious assumptions concerning the epistemological foundation of management affect the ideas and theories in this area. Manicheism in the cognitive field results in an epistemological split in the whole management theory.

4. Other cognitive approaches

We think that the dichotomy of the functional approach versus the imperative one is the cognitive core of management. However, many theoreticians perceive other lines of epistemological division.

The most obvious epistemological suggestion is the division based on the subject criterion. The differentiation of management processes resulted in the concentration on different areas of management processes, which demonstrate certain differences in the cognitive field. There appeared many management schools and trends leading to the “jungle” in the organisation [Koontz 1961] theory. The chronological approach assumes the criterion of continuity of management schools development. Bielski distinguishes 14 directions within three trends (classical, neo-classical, psycho – sociological and systemic) [Bielski 1996, p. 42]. The systemic approach is based on the distinguishing of organisational models leading to the subsystems differentiation, which may require a different epistemological perspective. For example an organisational model by Leavitt includes people, structure, tasks and technology management [Leavitt 1965, p. 160]. Looking at this from the pragmatic perspective, we can take into account differentiated methods of organisational research and change. In methodology we can distinguish several cognitive areas of an organisation (e.g. strategy, marketing, human resources, financial resources, information technologies) [Armstrong 1995]. Each criterion which we present here does differentiate a cognitive approach to an organisation. We believe, however, that they can be subjected to a more general epistemological scheme. Both the schools and the methods can be classified according to the key: either functional – systemic ones or symbolic – interpretative ones.

One of the most common approaches, suggested by Burrell and Morgan, determines four basic paradigms dominant not only in the management but generally in social sciences. The distinguishing criteria of those paradigms would be: social orientation (regulation and change) and cognitive assumptions (objective and subjective). Combining those dimensions, we can create four disproportional paradigms: functional, radical, structuralism, interpretative and radical humanism [Burrell, Morgan 1979] (Table 2).

Table 2. Paradigms in management according to Burrell and Morgan

Social orientation			Assumptions concerning science
Regulation	Radical change		
Functionalism	Radical structuralism	Objectivity	
Interpretative paradigm	Radical humanism	Subjectivity	

Sources: G. Burrell, G. Morgan, 1979. *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis*, London: Heinemann.

This kind of division is clear on the grounds of sociology and anthropology, however its application in management sciences is very limited. One of the reasons for the tension between the functional approach and the interpretative one is the fact that management is interdisciplinary. However, it is very difficult to see in management an important role of radical structuralism or radical humanism. They only play a critical role in relation to the issues of inequality, domination and ideology within an organisation, but they do not create any alternative theories or epistemological perspectives. The examples of this type of approach are represented by psychoanalytical concepts by Copley, “organisational imperialism” by Chomsky, “symbolic violence” by Bourdieu, ideological visions of labour process by Braverman [Copley 1980; Chomsky 1999; Bourdieu 1998, pp. 52–59; Braverman 1974]. I think that a critical understanding of a radical change can be placed on the grounds of an interpretative perspective, thus maintaining epistemological dichotomy in management.

Morgan in his book *Organisational Images* presents a different approach to the management epistemology. The basis for the management understanding is adopting a certain organisational metaphor, which directs the activity of a participant or organisation member [Morgan 1997]. Eight metaphorical organisational images can be the basis for the pluralistic and manicheism - free management vision.

Bolman and Deal suggest four “cognitive frameworks” enabling multifaceted interpretation of organisational management processes. It covers the following approaches: structural, human resources management, political and symbolic [Bolman, Deal 2003]. The cognitive frameworks, similarly to organisational metaphors, are the approaches open to the creation of totally new interpretations.

It seems that both the metaphors proposed by Morgan and cognitive frameworks by Bolman and Deal can be placed within the dichotomy functionalism – interpretation, which is being analysed. Mechanistic and organic

metaphors by Morgan and a structural framework by Bolman and Deal can be placed on the grounds of the functionalistic perspective. Other approaches can be rather associated with an interpretative trend. Of course there is some degree of discrepancy between those three approaches.

Another proposition is the creation of a post-modernist perspective. The formation of the third cognitive perspective in the shape of a post-modern one raises many doubts [Hatch 2002, p. 14]. Hatch, perceiving incongruity of this trend, defines it once as a separated cognitive perspective, and then just as a critical thought, which questions both post-modern and interpretative approaches [Hatch, Schultz 1996]. Management theoreticians refer to radical cognitive relativism by Lyotard, Derrida or Rotry [Lyotard 1983; Bauman 1995; Kołakowski 1996] but at least so far it has not led to the development of a congruent epistemological perspective [see: Engholm 2001; Boje, Gephart Jr., Thatchenkery 1996; Welge, Holtbrugge 1999, pp. 305–322; Burrell, Cooper 1998, pp. 91–112]. Of course, we must recognise critical approaches to organisational theory, which refer to key motifs of some post-modernists, however we lack constructive offers for the theory development.

5. Conclusions

Functional – systemic approach dominates in contemporary management, however a symbolic – interpretative perspective gains more and more significance. So far it is hard to see the possibility of covering the gap between those two epistemological approaches. Other basic definitions concerning the nature of an organisation, environment, strategy, structure and corporate culture enforce those conflicts or at least the discrepancy between the analysed perspectives.

Pareto, and then Swedberg stressed that the field of economics is based on the assumption of the rationality of man and social groups, while the sociological dispute is based on the assumptions that people undertake many activities which are not motivated rationally [Swedberg 1990, p. 11]. Separation of those rational and irrational parts is a significant simplification, but in a great degree it overlaps with a suggested division of cognitive perspectives in management. The problem is that management sciences deal both with rationally and irrationally motivated managerial and organisational actions. People in organisations evaluate the usefulness of their actions, but they also strive for self-realisation, create social bonds and give meaning to their existence. Epistemological manicheism which may lead to the negation of the value of antagonistic perspective or it creates a kind of epistemological pluralism allowing the co-existence of the two ways of cognition. Pluralism enables to use the theory and methodology of varied disciplines. This pluralism often changes into methodological eclecticism, because the methods borrowed from different cognitive bring incomparable research results.

The dichotomy presented in this article is not the only possible way of ordering epistemology. However this approach is deeply rooted in the awareness of specialists from the area of management. Some perceive the scientist's role as that of a researcher for tangible, quantitative, "hard" results, while the others stay in the circle of qualitative results, interpretative and "soft" ones. The opportunity to exceed the manicheism of such perspective on management is the negation of apparent obviousness of their own vision of the organisational world, leading to the formation and interpretation of other cognitive positions. On this stage sciences of management need epistemological reflection which will lead to the development of the researchers' self-awareness.

Abstract

The dichotomy presented in this article is not the only possible way of ordering epistemology. However this approach is deeply rooted in the awareness of specialists from the area of management. Some perceive the scientist's role as that of a researcher for tangible, quantitative, "hard" results, while the others stay in the circle of qualitative results, interpretative and "soft" ones. The opportunity to exceed the manicheism of such perspective on management is the negation of apparent obviousness of their own vision of the organisational world, leading to the formation and interpretation of other cognitive positions. On this stage sciences of management need epistemological reflection which will lead to the development of the researchers' self-awareness.

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