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Dear Colleagues,

after a first pilot issue earlier this year and some constraints and ameliorations we are glad to present to you below

the “real” 1st issue of EWOPinPRACTICE:

Welcome, enjoy, and send in your contextual comments to the authors and formal comments and own contributions to us.

First of all, we would like to thank those colleagues and also the EAWOP Executive Committee who sent us their engaged feedback on the “zero” number of EWOPinPRACTICE. As you know, we had been curious about whether we met your expectations and what we can do to improve and tailor this journal to your needs. Feedback was positive and encouraging – and critical in the sense of giving us hints and offering support how to go on. We would like to especially mention our colleague Mart Murdvee from Tallinn/Estonia who offered his technical support the result of which you are able to salute in this issue showing a more elaborate and professional make-up of the articles.

Based on your feedback you will find the style guide outside the journal on the e-journal chapter of the EAWOP website so that it is at hand when writing your contribution. It consists of two parts: the written explanation and a formatted and guiding form to just put in your text.

After the splendid start with Kristiina Fromholtz-Mäki’s paper about “Challenges for the HR in global companies” in the “zero” number this issue Number 1 firstly acquaints you with a paper on excellence of managers. Troy Jensen presents his study of personality and reasoning in 800 senior managers: “High flyers: What sets them apart?”. This study will be illuminative to many of you who are involved in selecting, assessing, coaching and/or developing employees. It describes the relationship between personality factors, reasoning abilities and the speed at which individuals move into senior management positions in organizations. Troy suggests that “high flyers” are elevated on many indicators of effective social functioning, as well as on breadth and creativity of thinking.

In order to promote knowledge about the state of Work and Organizational Psychology (WOP) across Europe, this issue contains a sequence of papers deriving from an Invited Symposium on “WOP in Eastern Europe” from the International Congress of Applied Psychology in Athens, Greece, 16 – 21 July 2007. The session was organised by Prof. Barbara Kożusznik from Poland and described vividly different priorities, concerns, and topics of WOP in Central and Eastern Europe including:

- presentation of a series of activities to professionalise WOP in Ukraine (Lyudmila Karamushka);
- presentation from Estonia (Mare Teichmann) looking at a comparison of work Locus of Control between Eastern European Managers and Western Managers;
- presentation from Poland (Barbara Kożusznik) looking at the psychological problems of Polish Organizations in transition);
- presentation from Romania (Zoltán Bogáthy, Coralia Sulea, and Catalina Zaborila) examining the role of emotions in organizational behaviour);
- discussant’s paper (Ute Schmidt-Brasse) exploring the different stages and needs of WOP science and practice in the CEE countries.

Finally, we have to inform you of two bereavements WOP has suffered recently. On May 27, 2007, Frank Heller died. We all remember him as an outstanding colleague closely attached to the famous Tavistock Institute in London. His work is inseparably related with research on exercise of power and the consequences of sharing power, mainly in work settings.
To use Bernhard Wilpert’s words: “We all will miss Frank’s human warmth and wit, his commitment and contributions to the advancement of social science and his untiring work for a better world.”

Sadly, Berhard Wilpert himself followed Frank Heller on August 20, 2007. After working for the German Development Service, Bernhard became an internationally renowned and appreciated professor of WOP Psychology at Berlin Technical University emphasising research on leadership, participation, and system safety. His professional commitment for WOP included the foundation of ENOP, and from 1994 –1998 he was the President of IAAP. He also played a significant part in the development of EAWOP. We all appreciated his profound professional knowledge, his matchless way to put people at ease, his readiness to help and his fine humour.

Returning to the present we hope that you have enjoyed the holiday season, restarted work recuperated and joyful and are now gladly preparing for the Holiday Season. We send you

Seasons Greetings

and wish you success in your endeavours and hope that you will have many projects worth reporting to the EWOPinPRACTICE community.

We would ask you to actively engage with the e-journal; there are e-mail addresses for all the authors and they would very much like to hear your comments and contribution once you have read their article. These we can summarise and feedback to you on the web site to develop a dynamic and interactive journal.

Happy reading the No. 1 of EWOPinPRACTICE!

Looking forward to your comments and contributions deadline for No. 2 is March 31, 2008.
High flyers: What sets them apart? A study of personality and reasoning in 800 senior managers

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High flyers: What sets them apart? A study of personality and reasoning in 800 senior managers

Troy Jensen is currently working as a business psychologist for Kaisen Consulting where he carries out assessment, coaching and leadership skills development with an array of managers and leaders. He has profiled over 200 senior leaders. Prior to training as an organizational psychologist he spent a number of years in the telecommunications sector in the US where he worked in regulatory management, human resources, organizational development and new business start-up roles. He has completed degrees in History from Southern Methodist University, Psychology from the University of Hawaii at Hilo, and Organizational Psychology from the California School of Professional Psychology at Los Angeles (now Alliant International University).

Abstract

This study explores the relationship between personality factors, reasoning abilities and the speed at which individuals moved into senior management positions in organizations. The sample consists of 800 senior managers. The sample was separated into two groups based upon the amount of time it took the individuals to attain a senior manager role. Psychometric data from the two groups was then compared using independent samples t-tests and chi-square analyses. The results show that ‘high flyers’ are elevated on many indicators of effective social functioning, as well as on breadth and creativity of thinking. Further inquiry will be beneficial for more accurately identifying ‘high potential’ employees, as well as for building a business case for the importance of ‘soft skills’ development in organizations.

Introduction

In general the terms ‘high flyer’ or ‘rising star’ are used in the literature to indicate that an individual has been selected by their organization to participate in a formalised programme of training and accelerated placement. Such programmes are intended to ensure that the organization has a cadre of replacements for derailed or retiring senior leaders, (McCall, 1998; Walker, 1998). Our working definition of a high flyer is someone who has risen through the ranks to take on a senior position more rapidly than their peers.

There has not been a great amount of organizational research on large-scale programmes to develop ‘rising stars’ in recent years. A few of the reasons for this may be that ‘high flyers’ programmes have recently become seen as populated by people who have difficulty interpersonally (Newell, 2002), have trouble learning what they do not already know (Argyris, 1991), or are somewhat dependent upon organizational context for their ‘stardom’ (Groysberg, Nanda, & Nohria, 2004). Furthermore, due to the declining long-term stability of organizations (McCann, 2004), formalised ‘high flyer’ programmes have become seen as somewhat archaic, more suited to the large-scale bureaucratic organizations of the 1960’s and 1970’s (Larsen, et al., 1998; Liebman, Maki, & Bruer, 1996) and not flexible or quick enough to deliver leaders in a fast-paced, turbulent environment (Walker, 1998). In addition, the ‘personalised’, self-directed nature of many leadership and high potential employee development programmes may not lend itself to large-scale, high-visibility programmes that can be more easily studied (Walker, 1998; Hughes, 2004). Overcoming business challenges has been identified as a major contributor to building leadership capability (McCall, 1998). Couple this with the increasing mobility of professional managers, and the result is that many ‘high flyer’ employee programmes have been transformed into efforts to create talent pools comprised of people who are believed to be potential leaders. Another alternative approach has been to create ‘pipelines’, or groups of
talent pools at various levels in order to identify potential leaders at all levels of organizations (Charan, Dodder, & Noel, 2000).

In this environment of self-directed development programmes, talent pools, and increasing job mobility there are a growing number of popular leadership and personal development books, covering everything from ‘making a powerful impression’ (Maysonave, 1999) to ‘winning at office politics’ (McIntyre, 2005). In general, the books purport to explain to an audience of aspiring senior leaders ‘how to make it to the top’. Whilst many such books are undoubtedly strong sellers, many rely primarily on anecdotal evidence. These promises to show people how to make it to the top, spurred us to question whether we could discern any differences amongst senior managers who have risen through the ranks more quickly than others.

As business psychology practitioners engaged by clients to help identify future leaders and ‘high-potentials’, we decided to question whether there were any psychological factors that could separate those who have quickly risen to senior manager status from those who have taken longer to arrive in senior management roles. Therefore, we took the opportunity to analyse our database of psychometric information on managers whom we have assessed during the course of many years of consulting work. We are fortunate to have psychometric data on over 11,000 managers and senior managers (the specific psychometric instruments used in this study are detailed in the methods section).

The purpose of this paper is to describe the results of analysis we conducted to explore if there were any differences in psychological factors between high flyers and those who we felt to be more average in their development as managers. As stated, our objective was to determine whether we could find any significant differences in the psychometric data between those who reach senior positions quickly and those who take longer to reach the top of their organizations. Thus, this study does not compare senior managers with middle managers or supervisors, but ‘fast rising stars’ against their senior manager peer group.

Research objective

The study was designed to explore the relationship between the personality traits and reasoning abilities, which were measured by our psychometric tests (see below), and the speed at which individuals were able to move into senior management positions in organizations. The objective was to identify whether there are any psychological differences between those who reach senior positions quickly and those who rise to senior positions at a more moderate pace.

Methods

This section describes sample selection, the psychometric instruments used in the study and analyses conducted.

Sample

For this study we selected ‘managers of managers’ i.e., senior managers, whose career trajectory we knew from our database. Because our clientele request different psychometrics, the sample for each test is slightly variable; however, the overall sample size for the study was approximately 800 ‘managers of managers’.

We conducted the study by identifying a group of approximately 800 senior managers whose career path was known to us. Using this group of managers, we identified the top quartile who attained a senior position rapidly from the rest of the sample of senior managers in order to examine any differences between this group and others that rose to seniority less quickly. It is also important to note that we did not use inclusion in any formal ‘high flyer’ programme as a criterion for separating the groups; in fact, we were blind to the managers ‘high flyer’ programme status in this study. In terms of methodology it was not our intention to conduct an in-depth piece of research at this stage; we were simply keen to establish whether there was ‘anything of interest’ which in due course might warrant further investigation. It was our intention to cover a wide range of work roles and organizations from a number of sectors.
Psychometric measures

For the purposes of this study we have used five psychometric tests of reasoning and personality profiles. These are listed below:

GMA (A)  A measure of convergent thinking and the ability to identify patterns or systems.

Consequences  A test of divergent thinking which measures the ability to generate creative alternatives in problem solving situations.

NEO PI-R  A 240-item paper and pencil personality inventory based on the five-factor model of trait personality. The five domains measured are Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness.

Hogan Development Survey  A personality inventory based on identifying 11 patterns of dysfunctional interpersonal leadership behaviour.

Myers Briggs Type Indicator™  A measure of ‘psychological type’ which profiles people on four dimensions of personal preference, Extraversion-Introversion, Sensing-Intuition, Thinking-Feeling, and Judging-Perception.

Analyses

We first determined that the top quartile of senior managers had reached their senior position within eight years of beginning their career. Then, we separated the senior managers into two groups: those who had reached a senior management position in less than nine years and those who had taken nine or more years to reach a senior position. Next, we conducted independent samples t-tests to determine if there were any significant differences between the two groups on our battery of instruments. Finally, because the theory upon which the Hogan Development Survey is based states that only high levels of a specific trait are likely to manifest themselves in dysfunctional behaviour, we conducted Chi-square tests on the results of the Hogan Development Survey in order to determine if any of the high levels of dysfunctional behaviours were significantly over or under represented in either of the two groups of senior managers.

Results

This section gives the details of our sample, as well as the results of the analyses for each psychometric instrument. Table 1 overleaf shows the trends and significant results that were found.

The gender split in the total sample was approximately 20% women and 80% men. The total sample was 82% British with the remaining 18% comprising a wide range of different nationalities. The managers in the sample were drawn from twenty-one organizations across a wide range of industry sectors including utilities, telecommunications, financial services, engineering, manufacturing, health care, and professional legal and accounting practices. The majority of the managers were from international companies. The managers were from a wide range of functions including Finance, Operations, Sales / Business Development, Engineering / Technical and General Management (i.e., CEOs, Managing Directors, Regional or Divisional Heads).

The results show that high flyers do significantly differ from their senior manager peers on a number of personality, and thinking dimensions. This is shown in Table 1.

Broadly ‘high flyers’ are superior on many indicators of effective social functioning, as well as on breadth and creativity in thinking. However, there was no significant difference on the convergent thinking scores of the two groups of senior managers.
Table 1: Comparison of high flyers and senior managers on measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>High Flyer Senior Managers Mean</th>
<th>Other Senior Managers Mean</th>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NEO N6 Vulnerability</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>5.99</td>
<td>-0.67</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extroversion</td>
<td>135.18</td>
<td>129.17</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1 Warmth</td>
<td>24.35</td>
<td>23.75</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2 Gregariousness</td>
<td>20.95</td>
<td>20.11</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 Assertiveness</td>
<td>23.17</td>
<td>21.77</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4 Activity</td>
<td>23.37</td>
<td>22.13</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 Excitement-seeking</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>18.82</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E6 Positive emotions</td>
<td>23.59</td>
<td>22.86</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O3 Feelings</td>
<td>22.52</td>
<td>21.72</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O4 Actions</td>
<td>20.73</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 Straightforwardness</td>
<td>18.47</td>
<td>19.18</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>138.56</td>
<td>135.78</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2 Order</td>
<td>19.64</td>
<td>18.84</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C4 Achievement Striving</td>
<td>24.82</td>
<td>23.88</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBTI SN</td>
<td>21.08</td>
<td>24.26</td>
<td>-3.18</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw Score</td>
<td>42.93</td>
<td>40.48</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GMA-A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raw (Harsh Scoring)</td>
<td>8.19</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>N/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EQI Emotional Self Awareness</td>
<td>103.02</td>
<td>100.45</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Relationship</td>
<td>99.09</td>
<td>96.22</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimism</td>
<td>105.32</td>
<td>103.7</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001.

HDS
Chi-Squares

Careful-Cautious - Fewer @ 90%

Results from the NEO indicated that ‘high flyers’ were less vulnerable to stress and generally more extroverted than their peers. Furthermore, the high flyers were more open to new actions as well as their own feelings. Openness to one’s own feelings was also reflected on the EQI where there was a trend towards higher emotional self-awareness in high flyers. On the NEO, high flyers also scored lower on straightforwardness, indicating a greater willingness to manipulate others through selective presentation of information. The high flyer group also scored significantly higher on overall conscientiousness, as well as the order and achievement striving facets included under conscientiousness.

The results from the MBTI analysis indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups regarding any of the individual behavioural preferences measured by the MBTI; however, we can report that the ‘high flyer’ group exhibited less of a polarisation on the Sensing and Intuition dimensions.

The chi-square analyses conducted on the HDS data indicated that ‘high flyers’ were under represented in the number of managers scoring high on careful-cautious, indicating that they are less fearful of criticism being seen to make mistakes.
Finally, the results of the EQI indicated three trends that are broadly in agreement with the other analyses in the study. Specifically, ‘high flyers’ tended towards being more emotionally self-aware, more focused on maintaining effective relationships and more optimistic.

Discussion

Overall, we believe that the results of this study point to a senior manager who – in comparison with their peers - is more broad thinking, challenging of norms, more open to doing things in new ways, more capable of understanding themselves and their colleagues’ emotions, and who pay more attention to communicating in ways that preserve and strengthen relationships and that allow others to understand them more fully. Furthermore, because our sample is comparing groups of senior managers with each other, we can hypothesise that effective social and emotional functioning may be an important component that separates ‘high flyers’ from other senior managers, especially when we observe that analytical ability is similar in both groups.

Because there is general agreement that work motivation is composed of elements of direction, amplitute and persistence (O’Reilly & Chatman, 1999), we can make the case that increased assertiveness, achievement striving, energy, and decreased vulnerability to stress could indicate that ‘high flyers’ have stronger overall work motivation than their peers. This is not an especially surprising finding and generally supports others’ conclusions regarding work motivation.

Nevertheless, whilst O’Reilly and Chatman (1999) found that the interaction of general cognitive ability and motivation was a strong predictor of success in front-line managerial roles, our analysis indicated that ‘high flyers’ and their peers scored very similarly on the convergent thinking. This result was somewhat surprising in the light of many studies that have shown general cognitive ability is a strong predictor of work success (O’Reilly & Chapman, 1999). However, these findings suggest that there may be a threshold of cognitive ability that, once crossed, yields relatively little increased performance in leadership roles.

Whilst research into the efficacy of ‘high-flyer’ programmes has tailed off over the past few years, it seems that, based upon an examination of our results, there may be a case for reopening the investigation with a view towards differentiating between high-potential employees who ascend rapidly from those who are derailed or take longer to rise to senior roles. Such examination is likely to yield further information regarding the psychological skills vital for taking leadership positions in organizations. In addition, the community of practitioners is likely to benefit from a better understanding of the ‘trainability’ of such skills. This is especially important when considering that many organizations continue to limit their senior leadership selection decisions to examinations of technical expertise and past performance (Bernthal & Wellins, 2006).

Further study of individuals with high potential is likely to be beneficial for building a more robust theoretical underpinning of what factors are involved in their achievements. In addition, the findings of this study will enable a business case to be built for the importance of ‘soft skills’ in organizations. For example, our results do seem to support the observation forwarded by Mintzberg (1994) that the accelerating pace, increasing turbulence in the business environment, and changing nature of managerial and leadership roles means that whilst technical and intellectual competency are necessary for success, they are no longer sufficient and must be augmented by more skilful intrapersonal and interpersonal functioning.

Our findings may also prove useful, or interesting, in other lines of inquiry. For instance, it is possible that a stronger ability to think laterally, combined with the levels of analytical capability that we found give some individuals a stronger ability to do what Argyris (1991) termed “double loop learning”. Double loop learning is the ability to go beyond the examination of the actions and outcomes to analyse the set of assumptions that contributed to formulating the original course of action. Thus, managers would theoretically be predicted to be better at understanding their assumptions about a given problem or circumstance, as well as more able to formulate alternative plans of action. This capability may also be augmented by psychological factors such as openness to ideas, openness to actions, higher levels of personal confidence, stronger emotional insight and resilience in the face of pressure.
It also seems probable that inquiry into capability, applied across a large group of candidates, could prove useful in helping to increase the diversity of the senior leadership population in organizations, a noted key shortcoming in current succession planning efforts (Liebman, Bruer, & Maki, 1996). Increasing diversity in senior management roles would likely spur innovation, as well as help to ensure that organizations are able to more effectively tailor their products and services to fit with the expectations of an array of customers.

In summary, the findings of this study show interesting differences between ‘high-flyers’ and those who rise to the top of their organizations less rapidly. This information suggests that psychological skills are vital for achieving leadership positions in organizations. We believe that a number of these psychological skills can be acquired through training in small group settings where the participants receive personalised feedback from professionals who are psychologically trained. We invite further study into this important area of management development.

References

Summary

The following sequence of papers assembles presentations related to an Invited Symposium on “Work and Organizational Psychology in Eastern Europe” at the International Congress of Applied Psychology in Athens, Greece, 16 – 21 July 2007. The session was organised by Prof. Barbara Kożusznik from Poland.

The session described vividly different priorities, concerns, and topics of WOP in Central and Eastern Europe - from a presentation of a series of activities in order to prepare the grounds for and to professionalise WOP in Ukraine to three scientific papers which present research pieces from Estonia, Poland, and Romania. The discussant's paper tries to understand the different stages and needs of WOP science and practice in the CEE countries referring to the abstracts of the presentations originally given.

Contents

- Lyudmila Karamushka, Ukraine: Mains trends in development of Organizational and Work Psychology in Ukraine;
- Bogathy, Sulea, & Zaborila, Rumania. The role of emotions in organizational behaviour – in exchange for the original paper;
- Teichmann, Spector, & Cooper, Estonia: Work Locus of Control – Eastern European Managers versus Western Managers - Ten years later;
- Barbara Kożusznik, Poland: Psychosocial problems of managers and employees in Polish organisations
- Ute Schmidt-Brasse, Germany: Differentiating Patterns in Work and Organisational Psychology in the Central and East European Countries
On the Way to Europe: WOP in the Ukraine

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Professor Lyudmila Karamushka is the Head of the Organizational Psychology Laboratory of the Institute of Psychology (Ukraine). Additionally, she serves as President of the Ukrainian Association of Organizational and Work Psychologists (UAOWP) and is member of the Coordinational Committee (CoCo) of the European Network of Organizational and Work Psychologists (ENOP) and member of the European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology (EAWOP).

Development of Work and Organisational Psychology in the Ukraine

Work and Organizational Psychology (WOP) is a relatively new field of psychological science in Ukraine which has been intensively developing over the last years. The development of WOP in Ukraine is necessary due to:

a) rapid socio-economic development that requires prompt, adequate, and agreed organizational responses;

b) complex tasks which call for joint intellectual and emotional efforts by managers and employees of organizations as well as for strong work motivation;

c) need for collective cohesion and individual self-realisation of managers and employees.

Figure 1: Ukrainian Flag
Figure 2: Emblem of UAWOP

The Institute of Psychology as well as the Ukrainian Association of Organizational and Work Psychologists (UAOWP) play an important part in promoting WOP across the Ukraine. The association was founded in 2002 and has 19 branches in all regions of Ukraine with over 200 members. Promotion as the main mission of UAOWP is to be seen clearly in the context of European Integration. In May 2005 at the XIth Congress of the European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology in Istanbul UAOWP was given the status of a constituent of this European professional body.

Range of activities – steps towards professionalism

During 2002 - 2006 UAOWP has organised a range of activities which include:

- Working out the “Programme of development of WOP in Ukraine in the context of European integration” (2002 - 2012). In the course of implementing the programme
UAWOP joined the European Association of Work and Organizational Psychology (EAWOP) and held a number of all-Ukrainian conferences and seminars. This included:

a) the first Ukrainian international scientific-practitioner conference ‘Organizational Psychology: Innovative Approaches and Technologies’ (September 20, 2002, Kyiv);

b) the international conference ‘Cross-Cultural Communications: Dialogue and Cooperation’ (May 26-30, 2003, Alushta, Crimea);

c) a conference on ‘Conflict Management in Organizations’ (October 22-26, 2003, Kyiv);

d) the conference ‘Burnout Syndrome and Professional Career in Organizations: Gender Aspects’ (June 17-18, 2004, Kamyanets-Podilsk); and


Many of the conferences were attended by researchers from outside the Ukraine:
The International Workshop ‘WOP in Ukraine in the Context of European Integration’ was held under the auspices of the European Network of Organizational and Work Psychologists (ENOP) May 23-24, 2004.

The 2nd International Workshop on ‘Training in Social Sciences in the Netherlands and Italy after the Bologna Agreement’ (July 6, 2005, July) was attended by professors from Trento University (Italy), Rotterdam University, (Netherlands) and Utrecht University (Netherlands).

Finally, an international workshop ‘Team Building in Organizations’ (November, 20-21, 2005, Kyiv) was organised in cooperation with PSYCON (Germany).

Ukrainian psychologists have taken part in several conferences in the last few years. These are: a) the 12th European congress of EAWOP with 38 abstracts and six presentations (May 2005, Istanbul); b) the 30th Congress of IAREP with 11 abstracts and 28 presentations (September 2005, Prague); c) the IXth European Conference on Organizational Psychology and Health Care (October 2005, Dresden) with three presentations; and d) the 13th European Congress of EAWOP with 25 abstracts and 10 presentations (May 2007, Stockholm).

UAOWOP has been working with Belarussian psychologists developing an agreement on cooperation. They also held a joint conference ‘Psychological Foundations of Training of Organization Managers, Personnel and Psychologists’ (June 1-4, 2005, Uman). In addition, Ukrainian psychologists contributed 22 abstracts and seven presentations at the 1ST and 2ND International Congresses on Business Psychology and Sociology (Minsk, Belarus, December 2005; and April 2007).

Thanks to support from UAOWP a new discipline ‘Organizational Psychology, Economic Psychology’ has been approved and registered as a PhD specialty by the Central Attestation Commission of Ukraine and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine.

In order to promote European standards of education UAOWP, with support from ENOP, has translated and published the ‘ENOP Reference Model And Minimum Standards’.

UAOWP has started a journal ‘Organization Psychology. Economic Psychology’ (with 19 issues already published).

A series of training courses has been developed for organizational psychologists and organization managers in areas of organizational psychology such as: psychology of management; team building; burnout prevention and coping; leadership; gender psychology; preventing and coping with communication barriers in organizations; and economic psychology.

UAOWP members have written a number of text books that are recommended by the Ministry of Education and Sciences of Ukraine for use in training students at institutes of higher education and at institutes of post-graduate education. These include: “The Psychology of Management”; “Basics of Psychological Managerial Counselling”; “Burnout Syndrome and Professional Career of Employees in Educational Organizations: Gender Aspects”; “Educational Management”; “Psychology of Educational Management”; and “Work Technologies of Organizational Psychologists”.

Future steps

UAOWP is keen to continue this development and in the near future will be holding the Xth European Conference on Organizational Psychology and Human Service Work “Work and Organizational Psychology in Human Services Organizations: Different European Perspectives” (3-6 October, 2007, Kyiv, Ukraine). We welcome your attendance at this conference.

Should you like to discuss any of these developments or find out more about WOP in the Ukraine please contact Lyudmila Karamushka at LKARAMA01@yahoo.co.uk.
The role of emotions in organizational behaviour

Zoltán Bogáthy, Coralia Sulea, Catalina Zaborila

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Abstract

The paper explores the main implications of the current approach to the study of emotions in organizations (the bi-dimensional approach) and the relation between the emotional experience and the behaviour displayed at the workplace (organizational citizenship behaviour and counterproductive behaviour). The authors claim that a focus on the change of individual models of adaptation to the demands of the environment would bring more efficiency to consultant's activities of diagnosis and intervention in organizations.

Introduction

A recent review of job performance literature indicates that there are three distinct components of work behaviour in the job performance sphere. They have been identified as: a) task performance; b) organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB); and c) workplace deviance behaviour (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002 after Dunlop & Lee, 2004). The importance of the two categories of non-task behaviour in relation with overall job performance is also well documented in literature. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994 after Dunlop & Lee, 2004) found that OCB plays a comparably important role as task performance when it comes to determine employees’ overall job performance. Similar findings were reported with respect to counterproductive citizenship behaviour (CWB) by Rotundo & Sackett (2002 after Dunlop & Lee, 2004).

According to the fact that employees’ performance at the workplace is likely to be influenced by task performance and by non-task performance, there is increasing attention to factors that determine counterproductive work behaviour and citizenship behaviour in research literature. In the following paragraphs we will explore the role of emotions as one of the important predictors of behaviour.

Counterproductive and citizenship behaviour

Workplace deviance is defined as “voluntary behaviour of organizational members that violates significant organizational norms, and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organizational norms and/or its members” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Workplace deviance is conceptualised also as counterproductive work behaviour.

On the contrary, organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) refers to extra-role behaviour that promotes organizational efficiency but it is not explicitly recognised by an organizational reward system (Organ, 1988, 1990 after Bennett & Robinson, 2000). OCB has been defined as “individual contributions in the workplace that go beyond role requirements and contractually rewarded job achievements” (Organ & Ryan, 1995 after Lee, 2002). Examples of such
behaviour include helping newly hired employees or employees with heavy workloads, making constructive suggestions, volunteering for tasks that are not required and so on.

Organizational deviance is a voluntary behaviour that has the potential to harm the organisation, while organizational citizenship behaviour reflects pro-social voluntary behaviour beneficial for the organisation.

Organ and colleagues (Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) reported two dimensions of OCB, namely an interpersonal dimension (OCB-I) (example: volunteering to help a co-worker) and an organizational dimension (OCB-O) (example: praising the organisation to outsiders) (after Dalal, 2005). This taxonomy was formulated aiming at the target of behaviour: individual employees or the organisation as a whole, respectively. On the counterproductive (CWB) side, Robinson and Bennett (1995) made a similar distinction between interpersonally directed and organizationally directed aspects of what they called workplace deviance. Examples include gossiping about co-workers (CWB-I) and taking overly long breaks (CWB-O). Therefore both, OCB and CWB, can be separated into behaviour that is directed toward other employees and behaviour directed toward the organisation as a whole (after Dalal, 2005).

**CWB - OCB and emotions**

Counterproductive work behaviour and organizational citizenship behaviour have been studied extensively across international research in relation with various predictors (such as job stressors, organizational constraints, personality, and affectivity). Emotions the employee feels at work have been found to have an important role in the dynamics of organizational behaviour. An increased amount of negative affectivity (NA) has been found to be related to setting minimal goals, to an increased potential to involve in withdrawal behaviour, as well as to an increased level of hostility and demands (Necowitz & Roznowski, 1994 after Aquino et al., 1999). Hostility and sadness play an important role in explaining deviant behaviour at the workplace; attention plays an important role in prediction of citizenship behaviour, self-confidence (that can be associated with boldness and even aggressiveness) predicts counterproductive behaviour. Fox and Spector (1999) found that hostility correlates more strongly with self-ratings of counterproductive behaviour than fear does. Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) found that employees who reported to experience more negative emotion at work also reported to have engaged in more counterproductive behaviour.

Miles, Borman, Spector and Fox (2002) suggested that perceptions of the work environment relate to positive emotion, which is positively correlated with the occurrence of OCB. Also, negative perceptions of the work environment relate to negative emotions, which are positively correlated with the occurrence of CWB.

Spector and Fox (2002) argued that affect is associated with general physiological arousal and induces “action tendencies” that engender behaviour via the formulation of behavioural intentions and/or the initiation of readiness to act (Dalal, 2005). The same authors asserted that behaviour may take the form of either constructive action (meaning OCB) or destructive action (CWB). Although the relationship between affect and behaviour is rather complex, there is some evidence that CWB is designed to ameliorate NA whereas OCB is designed to maintain positive affect. In general, these authors predicted strong PA-OCB and NA-CWB relations. Moving forward, it could be argued that people scoring high on PA would typically engage in OCB and those scoring low on PA may or may not engage in CWB. Similarly, it could be argued that those scoring high in NA would typically engage in CWB, but those scoring low on NA may or may not engage in OCB.

In 2005, Dalal put into effect a meta-analysis concerning the relation between OCB and CWB. These constructs were found to be relatively distinct factors in their own right. Also negative affectivity in relation with CWB seems to be much stronger than its relation with OCB. This findings support Spector and Fox’s (2002) result that NA is more strongly related to CWB than to OCB. Regarding PA the situation is less clear. A fairly substantial discrepancy in the obtained PA-OCB results was observed between Organ and Ryan’s (1995) results and the results Dalal presented (2005). The results appear to not support Spector and Fox’s (2002) claim that PA is more strongly related to OCB than to CWB (Dalal, 2005).
Bogáthy, Sulea, Zaborila (2007) have investigated the impact of the interaction between personality and emotions and supportive vs. abusive leadership on employees’ citizenship and counterproductive behaviours. Regarding the relevance of emotions, the results were as follows:

- Feeling “repulsed” is positively related to organizational counterproductive behaviour.
- Feeling “happy” is positively related to organizational counterproductive behaviour. This finding draws attention to the fact that even a positive affect can drive an employee to involve in undesirable behaviour. Consistently, happy emotion is negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviour.
- If the employee feels “relaxed”, there is a good chance that he will not involve in organizational counterproductive behaviour.
- The employee who feels “warmth” will be inclined to involve in organizational citizenship behaviour.

The above analysis highlights the importance of emotions in non-task behaviours, meaning CWB and OCB. The importance of these behaviours is undisputable, due to their connection with overall job performance. The emotions felt by the employees at work also influence their well-being. The way they are expressed or suppressed can impact on the employees’ state of health.

The healthy function of emotions in organizational life

Discrete emotions diversely colour peoples’ existence, both at work and at home, and their experience cannot be analysed only from a bi-dimensional perspective on affective states (positive versus negative) (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Gabriel, 1995; Lawler & Thye, 1999; Lawler, 2001; Poon, 2001; Weiss & Brief, 2001).

Recent studies on discrete emotions (Kiewitz, 2002; Oatley & Jenkins, 1992) point to the fact that decisions regarding behaviour displayed in dangerous situations are made on the basis of:

- the evaluation of the significance of danger coming up to a person (a spontaneous, often subconscious process aimed at identifying the source and the magnitude of the danger – e.g., the evaluation of a threat in case of fear);
- the person's experience (the adaptation models acquired during childhood);
- characteristics of the situation (characteristics of the environment where the emotion is experienced that encourages/inhibits the emotional response through norms and rules for the emotional display).

Clinical psychology literature shows that many of the adaptation problems of an adult to events and relationships are linked to early adaptation models. These models have once proved to be efficient for survival in a hostile environment and can become very dysfunctional in the here and now reality, by making difficult or blocking communication, by inhibiting performance and other behaviours (Deffenbacher, 1999; Joines & Stewart, 2002; Greenberg, 2002; Schiraldi & Hallmark Kerr, 2002).

Taking into consideration that defence mechanisms are activated regardless of the nature of danger (real, perceived or imagined), and that each of us has a unique style of adaptation to environmental demands and constraints, we can expect for any interaction context to become a field where defence reactions trigger the vicious circle of interpersonal conflict.

The investigation of the dynamics of emotional response to the experience of anger and fear in organizations could have an impact on the efficiency of organizational development programmes, HR practices and procedures, leadership and followership.

Application of this work to organizational life

Organizational consultants and scholars should first identify the organizational sources of emotions with negative valence. Then they should help managers to recognise the negative impact of keeping the organizational practices that generate such emotions, and raise
awareness on employees’ responsibility in maintaining or changing the unproductive models of communication and problem solving.

The organizational consultants who use this diagnosis/intervention framework report remarkable results in the work experience with their clients, and offer support for the relevance of the study of discrete emotions in organizations (Frost, 2003; Raz, 2002; Ryan & Oestreich, 1998). Such an approach to organizational diagnosis and intervention is powerful enough to contribute to work quality and productivity by setting free the organizational climate from the toxicity of negative emotional responses.

It is well known that repeated experience of anger or fear has long-term effects on the physical health of an individual (in terms of such conditions as heart diseases, diabetes and ulcers) (Pope, Smith & Rhodewalt, 1990). These effects are not only connected to the emotional experience, but also to the emotional response. For example, it is proved that anger expression has positive effects on physical health, while anger suppression contributes to heart disease (Pope et al., 1990).

The role of managers in promoting healthy organizational behaviour

Managers and supervisors play an important role in discouraging workplace deviance and also in promoting organizational citizenship behaviour. Managers who model an ethical behaviour and other types of related behaviours can greatly influence employees’ behaviour in this direction. Litzky, Eddelston and Kidder (2006) also suggest that managers at all levels in organisation need to model ethical behaviour and must take a firm stance against deviant behaviour if they expect the same from their employees. Managers should explain to employees what would be considered as workplace deviance and describe the boundaries of behaviour considered to be appropriate and inappropriate within the organisation.

Role clarity was also found to be an important predictor for organizational behaviour. If managers succeed to establish clear tasks and procedures for employees, this would decrease a lot the chances for those to involve in counterproductive behaviour. A trustworthy and honest relationship between managers and subordinates will also encourage healthy organizational behaviours. Also managers should look for groups that encourage workplace deviance and rotate members in order to avoid a strong “nest” that promotes deviance within organisation. Different types of organizational training, for instance in social skills, stress management, interpersonal communication, and coaching can also be very helpful in reducing interpersonal deviant or aggressive behaviour. Managers should also communicate clear expectations toward employees, not only about the work they have to do, but also what conduct is accepted and encouraged within the organisation.

Related to organizational citizenship behaviour in organizations, researchers found that organizational commitment, job satisfaction and procedural and distributive justice have positive effects to this type of organizational behaviour (Erturk, Yilmaz & Ceylan, 2004). One important finding is also that employees put more emphasis on the fairness of managerial practices, particular on the perceived equity of managerial practices in reward distribution. In this context, we emphasize the importance of the managers’ attitude and behaviour to encourage organizational citizenship behaviour. Also, it is important that when managers provide guidance regarding appropriate workplace behaviour there is sufficient explanation of these behaviours and feedback to the employees to appreciate how their behaviour s received. It is critical that managers become more aware of their role and how much their behaviour and attitudes influence employees’ behaviour.

Romanian perspective

From the perspective of Romanian organizations, research has shown that if the supervisor’s behaviour is perceived as supportive then the probability for the employee to engage in interpersonal citizenship behaviour increases. A way to decrease interpersonal counterproductive behaviour could be influenced by change in the supervisor’s behaviour, preferably by introducing a new supportive behaviour toward the employee. Personality factors
are relevant for organizational citizenship behaviour: An extroverted employee, who has an increased activity level, will be more prone to involve in this type of behaviour.

Romania is in a continuing developmental process and this also affects organizations. If at the beginning of the developmental process the emphasis was on creating working procedures and organizational rules and procedures, now the emphasis is more on the process of transmitting those procedures, to model them. These steps, from formal code of conduct and ethical codes for the employees, for example, to actual enactment, emphasising feedback and other communication systems has started to show the signs of more efficient working climates. Also, the development of trainings, team-building and other forms of learning and connecting that are developing in the last few years, help to foster a better working environment that goes beyond written rules and procedures and is more oriented to real organizational behaviour.

References


Work Locus of Control – Eastern European Managers versus Western Managers - Ten years later

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Keywords: Work locus of control, job satisfaction, employees’ well-being, quality of life.

Abstract

The aim of our studies of work locus of control was to examine whether external work locus of control among Estonian managers had increased or decreased over past 10 years. We did not find the relationship between work locus of control and age, and gender. Managers’ internal control beliefs were associated with higher job satisfaction, as well as better physical and psychological well-being, and higher satisfaction with their quality of life. In general, Eastern European managers were more external in their work locus of control than their Western colleagues. However, our results suggested that Estonian managers work locus of control became increasingly internal over time.

Introduction

Locus of control theory is a concept which distinguishes between two types of people – internals, who attribute events to their own control, and externals, who attribute events in their life to external circumstances.

Rotter’s original (1966) locus of control formulation classified generalized beliefs concerning who or what influences things along a bipolar dimension from internal to external control: "Internal control" is the term used to describe the belief that control of future outcomes resides primarily within oneself, while "external control" refers to the expectancy that control is outside of oneself, either in the hands of powerful other people or due to fate / chance.

Work locus of control concerns beliefs about control specifically in the job domain (Spector, 1982; 1988). Work locus of control reflects the individual’s tendency to believe that he or she controls events in his or her working life (internality) or that such control resides elsewhere, for example with powerful others (externality).

From empirical findings perspective, there have been found several differences between people with internal or external control beliefs, however, empirical findings have been ambiguous.

Locus of control and age. It is assumed that as people age, they will become less internal and more external. Longitudinal data collected by Gatz and Karel (1993) imply that internality may increase up to middle age, and thereafter decrease.

Locus of control and gender. As Schultz and Schultz (2005) pointed out, significant differences in locus of control have not been found for adults in a USA population.

Locus of control and job satisfaction. Internals are more satisfied with their job than externals (Moyle & Parkes, 1999). The Collaborative International Study of Managerial Stress
showed strong relationship between work locus of control and job satisfaction.


**Cultural differences in locus of control.** The question of whether people from different cultures and economic background vary in locus of control has been of interest to researchers. There have been several studies of locus of control in cross-cultural domains, but findings have been inconsistent. Studies highlighted that, in general, Confucian Asians (such as Chinese and Japanese) are more external in their locus of control than Americans and other Western nationals (Hamid, 1994). The CISMS study pointed to quite similar findings. Evidence exists that the described situation has been changed with the enlargement of European Union. Therefore, it has been argued that people of the former Soviet block in Eastern Europe should be more external in their locus of control than people of Western nations. Arguments have been demurred that the state-dominated economic system in Eastern Europe has lead to the development of an external locus of control at work (Frese et al., 1996; Kaufmann, 1995; Tobacyk et al., 1992). After the enlargement of European Union, twelve former Soviet block Eastern European countries are now member states of the European Union. Inspection of the CISMS findings (see Table 1 below) suggests that this it was the case (Spector et al., 2001; 2002).

**Table 1. Managers Work Locus of Control in Eastern versus Western Europe**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eastern European Countries</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Work Locus of Control</th>
<th>USA and Western European Countries</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Work Locus of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>45.3 (h)</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>37.5 (mn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>47.1 (f-h)</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>40.4 (kl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>48.0 (e-g)</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>41.5 (jk)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>488</td>
<td>49.1 (d-f)</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>43.4 (ij)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>52.6 (b)</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>45.1 (hi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>53.3 (b)</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>46.6 (gh)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>46.8 (f-h)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Lower scores of Work Locus of Control represent internality

Note: Within the columns, different letters indicate significant mean differences among samples for work locus of control. If samples are sharing the same letter they are not significantly different. For example, Bulgaria and Ukraine are not significantly different from one another.

Likewise, having already internal or external locus of control the question arises how stable this construct is. It is a critical question for Eastern European countries. We failed to find longitudinal research providing an answer to the question of stability of locus of control.

**Method**

**Country-specific background**

Estonian society is undergoing a transformation of industrial structures from labour-intensive to knowledge-based society. The economy benefits from strong electronics and telecommunication sectors. Estonia is building up a modern market-based economy with strong ties to the West. Estonia is a WTO and EU member. Estonian GDP has increased 4 – 6% per year during the past decade and GDP real growth rate is 9.8% (2006). The economic development does not automatically improve the quality of life of the population or person’s
perception of their quality of life. GDP composition by sector is: agriculture (3.4%), industry (28%), and services (68.9%). The population of Estonia is 1,315,912 (June, 2007) and unemployment rate is 4.5% (2006). In a small high-tech country such as Estonia, the internet is vital – 65% of population using internet every day, as virtually is offered the large scale of services by public and commercial organizations.

Participants and Procedure

Sample 1. Our first study was held in 1995-1996 (Teichmann, 2003, 1; 2003, 2). It was part of the CISMS conducted as a cross-national research of 24 nations. The data were collected from 163 managers; 58% were males and 42% females. The mean age was 38.6 years (SD = 6.4). 10% of the participants were college graduates and 72% were married.

Sample 2. The data were obtained from managers (N = 164) in 2002. The average age of the sample was 40.42 years (SD = 11.42); 129 were males (79 %) and 35 females (21%). No questions about other demographic parameters were put to this sample.

Sample 3. The data was obtained from managers in Estonia in 2004 – 2005 participants were managers randomly selected from the member organizations of the Estonian Chamber of Commerce and Industry, a total of 309 people. They were all managers, ranging from the first level to the top of their organizations. The total sample consisted of 190 males (61%) and 119 females (39%) with an average age of 39.1 years (SD=10.37). The participants' educational level was: primary education 1 (0.3%), secondary education 28 (9.2%), vocational education 32 (10.5%), college graduates 243 (79.9%). Their marital status was: single 49 (15.9%), married 187 (60.5%), cohabiting 55 (17.8%), separated 4 (1.3%), divorced 9 (2.9%), and widowed 5 (1.6%).

The majority of the managers were male, educated and married. Since there were demographic differences between the three samples, we checked to see if these differences affected the results as is described in the results section.

All participants were personally contacted by masters or doctoral students of Tallinn University of Technology. Each manager was asked to complete an anonymous questionnaire and return it in a prepaid envelope within two weeks. All participants completed the questionnaire voluntarily and for no compensation. The answer rate of the survey was 100%; in all three samples, there were a few incomplete questionnaires.

Instruments

Occupational Stress Indicator – 2 (OSI-2). For the purposes of the current study, we used three OSI-2 measures (factors), namely job satisfaction, psychological well-being, physical health and two sources of pressure in job (personal responsibility at work and not enough recognition at work) in order to describe achievement motivation. Job satisfaction was assessed by 12 items that asked respondents to indicate their satisfaction with each item, with six response choices ranging from “very much dissatisfaction” to “very much satisfaction”. Psychological well-being was assessed with 12 items that asked about psychological distress at work. All items had six response choices varied across items. Physical health was assessed by six items asking response choices ranging from “never” to “very frequently”. All of the scales were responded to on a 6-point Likert-type scale. The reliability of OSI-2 has been reported about in various CISMS publications.

Work Locus of Control Scale (WLOC). WLOC (Spector, 1988) assesses the employee’s beliefs about their control at work in general. WLOCO is a 16-item scale. Half of the items indicate external locus of control, whereas the other half indicates internal locus of control. For all the items, six response choices range from “I strongly disagree” to “I strongly agree”. High scores represent externality and low scores, internality.

WHO Quality of Life Instrument (WHOQOL-100). We used the quality of life research instrument cross-culturally developed by the World Health Organization (WHO, 1997). The total of 96 WHOQOL-100 questionnaire items were employed, but for the current paper we picked out seven of the subscales focusing primarily the person’ s work context, namely, positive and negative feelings, self-esteem, thinking, learning, memory and attention concentration abilities, work capacity, financial resources, opportunities for acquiring new information and skills. Four
items were included for each subscale. All items were rated on a five-point scale (1-5), but the choices varied across the items. The WHOQOL-100 questionnaire produces scores related to the following six broad quality of life domains: physical health, psychological well-being, level of independence, social relationships, environment and spirituality/personal beliefs. As a result, it produces an index representing the overall quality of life (the WHOQOL Index). Each domain has several subscales. Four items were included for each subscale. All items were rated on a five-point scale (1-5), but the choices varied across the items. In the WHOQOL Index and in all six domains, the high scores represent higher quality of life whereas low scores represent lower quality of life. WHOQOL-100 reliability has been tested and reported about in previous publications (Teichmann et al., 2006). Additional questions on demographic parameters were added.

The data analyses employed various standard techniques including frequency distributions, means, ranges, standard deviations and significance tests such as Chi Square and t-Test. A statistical analysis was conducted using the SPSS software program. The significance of correlations was calculated by using the two-tailed t-test. The paired t-test was used to assess the differences between specific parameters.

**Results and Discussion**

Three Estonian samples were compared on their work locus of control scores. To test how stable the work locus of control is, we used the data of all three samples and estimated the mean scores of work locus of control. We took the mean score of Sample 1 as a standard and compared it with the corresponding mean scores of the other samples to see if there was any significant difference. Inspection of results reveals an important finding.

Table 2. Mean Scores of Work Locus of Control of in Samples 1, 2 and 3

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work locus of control</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>45.9 *</td>
<td>45.1 *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significantly different from the Sample 1 at p < 0.05

Across the three samples of the Estonian managers, internal work locus of control has become more influential but not significantly so comparing the respective mean scores of Sample 1 with those of Sample 2 and Sample 3). The means became increasingly internal over time (see Table 2). Therefore, the difference between Samples 2 and 3 was not significant. Thus, we can conclude that the managers’ work locus of control has been changing towards internality but these changes have taken place slowly over 10 years.

**Work locus of control and age.** Since there were some demographical differences between the three samples, we checked to see if age and sex affected the results. Significant correlations were not found between work locus of control and age. Only in Sample 2, there was a tendency (not significant) of the younger Estonian managers to have higher scores for internality and internal way of thinking and acting than the older managers.

**Work locus of control and gender.** Significant correlation between work locus of control and sex were not found.

**Work locus of control and job satisfaction.** What is intriguing about findings regarding job satisfaction is that Estonian managers show a specific tendency of their responses. Managers show higher satisfaction with their managerial work itself than with organising work. For example, in Sample 3 the mean of satisfaction with the managerial job itself was 27.2 (SD = 3.6) and the mean of satisfaction with organisation of work was 24.6 (SD = 4.4). A similar tendency existed in all samples. On the other hand, correlations between work locus of control and job satisfaction were significant, negative in all three samples meaning that locus of control, specifically, internal work locus of control occupy an important influence in relationship with the job satisfaction (see Table 3 below).
Table 3. Correlations between Work locus of Control and Job Satisfaction in Samples 1, 2 and 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job satisfaction</td>
<td>-.24 *</td>
<td>-.23 *</td>
<td>-.30 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subfactor: Satisfaction with job itself</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td>-.24*</td>
<td>-.30*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subfactor: Satisfaction with organisation of work</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td>-.17*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05

Thus, we found that the relation between work locus of control and job satisfaction was consistent across all three samples in our study. Internal control beliefs or locus of control were associated with higher job satisfaction.

Work locus of control and physical health and psychological well-being. The correlations between work locus of control on the one hand and physical health as well as psychological well-being on the other hand were computed in the scores of OSI-2 as well as WHOQOL-100. We found, that the relation of work locus of control to physical health as well as to psychological well-being was consistent in all three samples using OSI-2 method (see Table 4 below).

Table 4. Correlations between Work Locus of Control and Measures of Well-being in Samples 1, 2 and 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical health</td>
<td>-.15 *</td>
<td>-.16 *</td>
<td>-.22 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological well-being</td>
<td>-.28 *</td>
<td>-.23 *</td>
<td>-.29 *</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05.

There was no difference in our findings when we used the WHOQOL-100 instrument (see Table 5). The inter-correlation between the OSI-2 physical health factor and the WHOQOL-100 physical health domain was high (r = .52; p < 0.001). The inter-correlation between the psychological well-being factor in OSI-2 and the WHOQOL-100 psychological well-being domain was also high (r = .56; p < 0.001). Our findings support the contention that internal work locus of control is an important parameter in physical health and psychological well-being.

Work locus of control and quality of life. When focusing on the work locus of control relation with quality of life as it is measured by the World Health Organisation WHOQOL-100 instrument, all six domains of quality of life had significant negative correlations on work locus of control, meaning that internal work locus of control is associated with higher quality of life (see Table 5). Furthermore, managers with internal work locus of control have better physical health, better psychological well-being, higher level of independence, better social relationships. They are more satisfied with their environment, and their spirituality/religion/personal beliefs help them to cope with the difficulties of life.

Table 5. Correlations between Work Locus of Control and Quality of Life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work LOC Index</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Locus of Control (Work LOC)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHOQOL-100 Index (Index)</td>
<td>-.39*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical health</td>
<td>-.31*</td>
<td>.73*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Psychological well-being</td>
<td>-.35*</td>
<td>.81*</td>
<td>.59*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Level of Independence</td>
<td>-.24*</td>
<td>.71*</td>
<td>.57*</td>
<td>.60*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Social relationships</td>
<td>-.26*</td>
<td>.74*</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>.59*</td>
<td>.43*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Environment</td>
<td>-.38*</td>
<td>.67*</td>
<td>.49*</td>
<td>.58*</td>
<td>.48*</td>
<td>.46*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Spirituality/Religion/Personal beliefs</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td>.64*</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>.35*</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.27*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .001
The inspection of correlations between work locus of control and the quality of life domains shows that the highest correlations was found with the quality of life domains of environment, psychological well-being and physical health. This is an important finding because it shows that work locus of control contributes to quality of life mainly through the domains of environment, psychological well-being, and physical health.

The results show clearly that work locus of control occupies an important place in the managers’ perception of their quality of life. The findings provide support to the idea that the person’s internal control beliefs are important not only for one’s psychological and physical well-being – but also for the relations with others, as well as persons satisfaction with the environment.

To further investigate the relationship between work locus of control and the quality of life, we calculated the WHOQOL Index and correlated it with the work locus of control score. The most consistent correlation was between work locus of control and overall WHOQOL Index (see Fig. 1 overleaf).

Fig. 1. Work Locus of Control and Quality of Life

Summing up, the results support the idea that internal control beliefs are associated with managers’ satisfaction with their quality of life.

To further investigate the relationship between work locus of control and some work related measures in managers quality of life, we picked some directly work related subscales from the WHOQOL-100 instrument and correlated work locus of control score with the scores of subscales, namely self-esteem, thinking, learning, memory and attention concentration abilities, work capacity, financial resources, and opportunities for acquiring new information and skills (see Table 6.).

The correlations were between -0.23 to -0.36, and each was significant. Our results suggested that internal work locus of control has stronger relation to managers’ financial resources, and opportunities for acquiring new information and skills. This is an important finding because it shows that internal control belief contributes to different work related effects.
Table 6. Correlations between Work Locus of Control and Work Related Measures of Quality of Life

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHO Quality of Life Instrument (WHOQOL-100) work related subscales</th>
<th>Work Locus of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem - .23 *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking, learning, memory and attention concentration abilities - .25 *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work capacity - .23 *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial resources - .29 *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunities for acquiring new information and skills - .36 *</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05.

Conclusions

**From theory and empirical findings to practice.** Our study focused on work locus of control and its relation with different work aspects, e.g. job satisfaction, physical health, psychological well-being, and quality of life, as well as cultural differences of work locus of control. In the present paper, we attempt to present a brief overview of three studies carried out in Estonia in 1996, 2002 and 2004. There are some final considerations that are relevant for practitioners in the field of work and organisational psychology, as well as to managers, especially managers from Eastern Europe.

**Locus of control and age.** On the base of previous research findings in literature we expected a significant relation between work locus of control and age, that older managers have more external work control beliefs than younger managers. Thus, we failed to find a significant correlation between work locus of control and age. Only in Sample 2, there was a low tendency (not significant) for the younger Estonian managers to have higher scores for internal work locus of control.

**Work locus of control and gender.** There were no significant correlation between work locus of control and sex. This finding is in harmony with relevant literature.

In summary, our findings demonstrate that person’s age and gender are not relevant to predict internal or external work locus of control. It is just widely disseminated myth, especially in personnel selection processes, that younger male managers are more internal in their control beliefs than older managers.

**Work locus of control and job satisfaction.** It was found that external control beliefs at work were negatively related to job satisfaction across all samples of managers. These results corroborated previous studies (Spector, 2006). The reasons why internals are more satisfied with their job than externals are not well delineated. For example, Spector (1982) hypothesised that one reason for the higher satisfaction of internals is their higher job performance. Persons who perform better might be better rewarded and thus like their jobs better. Our results partly support this hypothesis; internals had higher work capacity, financial resources and better opportunities for acquiring new information and skills.

**Locus of control and physical health, psychological well-being, and quality of life.** In health psychology, there is some agreement to link internal locus of control with improved physical health, mental health and quality of life. These issues are important because the close relationship with occupational stress and even physical or mental illness.

The relation of work locus of control with physical well-being, however, failed to show up in the CISMS study. Moreover, the physical well-being results were an unpredictable variable across nations. In fact, Eastern European samples did not differ from the United States in CISMS study. Our results demonstrate a strong relationship between managers work locus of control and physical health, as measured in OSI-2 and WHOQOL-100. This issue is particularly important since it is the physical well-being that relates perhaps most closely with employees physical health and illness.

The CISMS study found a relation of work locus of control with psychological well-being. Our results fully support this finding. Both research methods (OSI-2 and WHOQOL-100) we used...
show constant negative and significant relationship between work locus of control and psychological well-being. Thus, we can conclude that managers with internal control beliefs at work have better psychological well-being. There is some evidence in literature that the level of psychological well-being is determined more by non-work, rather than by work domains of persons' lives (Hart et al., 1995; Hart, 1999; Hart, Cooper, 2001). The inspection of our data shows the similar tendency - the correlations between psychological well-being and quality of life of non-work domains, as measured by WHOQOL-100, were significantly higher than correlations between psychological well-being and work domains. Clearly, more research and analysis is needed to determine how psychological well-being of employees relates to work and non-work domains. This is of extremely practical impact for the organisational health perspective.

Accordingly, by integrating the concepts of locus of control and quality of life into a broader view of employee well-being, it may be possible for practitioners to demonstrate a strong link between employees' well-being and performance. Our results show that work locus of control occupies an important place in the managers' perception of their quality of life. Work locus of control contributes to quality of life mainly through the domains of environment, psychological well-being and physical health. These findings demonstrate that internal work locus of control associated with managers' satisfaction with their quality of life. Additionally, our results hint at internal control beliefs having a strong relation with manager's work related domains like higher work capacity, higher self-esteem, better thinking, learning, memory and attention concentration abilities, financial resources, and better opportunities for acquiring new information and skills. That is, stimulating internal control beliefs among managers is not only a healthy organisational strategy but also a strategy for having an efficient and productive organisation.

Cultural differences in locus of control. As noted, according to the CISMS study managers vary in work locus of control across the cultures. Managers from Asian countries were more external in their work locus of control than USA and Western managers (Siu et al. 2001; Spector et al., 2002; Siu et al., 2002). In the European Union enlargement situation our main interest, however, is on the differences between Western and Eastern European managers in their work locus of control. Inspection of CISMS findings shows, in general, that Eastern European managers are more external in their work locus of control than their Western colleagues. When focusing Eastern European managers, the question of stability of managers’ work locus of control arises immediately. There are at least three really practical reasons for focusing this phenomenon.

First, Rotter (1966) believed that internals tend to be higher in achievement motivation than externals. This assumption has generally been accepted as “given” in literature despite contrary evidence being found.

Second, if the locus of control is a personality construct, then it has to be quite stable and the development or change of persons’ locus of control is difficult or even not possible. Certainly more studies are needed to determine why personality relates to job satisfaction, moreover, personality relates to well-being and quality of life. Otherwise, if the internal control beliefs were mainly influenced by an environmental factor e.g. a plethora of cultural, economic and social factors, then the change of thus factors or some of them leads to change of internal/external control beliefs. Our results suggested that Estonian managers’ work locus of control became increasingly internal over time. On the other hand, our study is not without limitations. The results presented here might be specific to Estonia and not be generalised to other European countries. In this direction more cross-European longitudinal studies with the focus of Eastern European countries are needed. Finally, we analysed the data of three different random samples of managers over 10 years. Clearly, longitudinal study is needed for these purposes.

Third, empirical findings suggested the strong link between internal locus of control and employee well-being as well as quality of life. As already noted, if the control beliefs are causal agents in producing the employee’s well-being, the opposite is also possible. It may be that employees who are well adapted to their culture have experienced certain successes that enhance beliefs about control. These successes contribute to well-being so that control beliefs are the effect rather than cause.
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Psychological Problems of Polish Organizations in Transition

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is identification of psychological problems, diagnosis of workers’ ideas and initiatives aimed at solving those problems, and diagnosis of readiness of workers to change. There is an assumption that organizational behaviour is multilevel, involves multiple variables, and requires multivariate measurement. In this paper I ask questions about the level of different psychosocial and emotional dimensions, the main problems experienced by organization members, and the greatest barriers in the process of change. I also examine what should be done to solve existing problems.

I constructed and used the Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ) that is composed of 15 sections and 190 questions covering different sectors of organizational functioning. The OAQ was completed by 432 workers from organizations in the highly industrialised Upper Silesia region of Poland.

On the basis of OAQ, interviews and discussions with employees I divided the results into positive and negative factors. Positive factors are those that can be treated as opportunities; employees’ emotional engagement and self-perceptions of competence and ambition. Negative factors were psychological barriers in the process of organizational transition; functioning in area of HRM that badly need to be changed. In conclusion I proposed some solutions in the area of Human Resources, management trust and workers’ self-assessment.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to: a) present the results of my research on the psycho-emotional status of companies in the process of transition and change; b) describe psychological, emotional and social factors influencing workers’ behaviour measured on psychosocial and emotional dimensions; and c) propose practical solutions of psycho-social and psycho-emotional problems to organizations.

Introduction

Transformation changes in my country require a completely new type of manager: a shift from individual exertion of power towards more participative and autonomous systems of influence is requested. The new transformational manager (Bass, 1998) represents “feminine” and positive values. The new manager is cooperative, flexible, open, warm, and facilitates personal and organizational efficacy, individual growth and development as well as open learning, delegation and participation processes and teamwork (Argyris, 1976; Deci, 1975; DeCharms, 1968; Hollander, 1986; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). According to these assumptions, the human capital manager should represent a pragmatic and effective attitude which helps to create conditions and an organizational environment enabling effective work. Development of such an environment is a core task of human capital management. “Primum non nocere” is
medicine’s first commandment. The first commandment of human capital management is “not to waste”. Not to waste means - give it a chance, make it possible. Use of human capital and human capabilities has two aspects: firstly, traits and characteristics of people; secondly, external circumstances, conditions and the world surroundings. Both sides make the “fulfilment of human capital” possible. According to an optimistic and humanistic point of view, human resources management could be and should be a positive mission (a vocation similar to those of doctors or teachers). A new discipline is born, a discipline inspired by the belief that human beings should be masters of their own lives, not only their victims. Positive leadership behaviour is understood as a behaviour which allows each member self-management, autonomy and independence in formalised organizational life.

I’d like to present my research and practical work in three big Polish government owned organizations – electro-energetic, administration and university. There are problems changing organizational culture, workers and managers’ attitudes in these kinds of organizations. In today’s climate of globalisation and integration, knowledge based organizations demand new organizational behaviours based on decentralisation and a federal structure. Effectiveness of knowledge organization depends on its openness for human potential and change as well as on individual self-management.

I question, especially in government owned organizations, if we are ready to develop new forms of organization based on delegation, federation and knowledge. Are we able to develop new structures like project teams and new leadership behaviours? My research aims to:

- Identify psychosocial problems (“soft” problems generally are of psychological nature – negative and positive attitudes of workers or groups in organization, workers expectations, modes of behaviour patterns, typical experiences, so called organizational climate e.g., mutual sympathy, discipline, openness of communication etc);
- Examine workers’ ideas and initiatives aimed at problem solving;
- Diagnose the readiness of workers’ to change.

In this work I make the following assumptions:

- Organizational behaviour is multilevel and involves multiple variables; therefore the measurement of change must be multilevel and multivariate;
- Comparative assessment of change requires a standardised package of instruments;
- An assessment package should have some underlying theoretical model of organizational functioning. Here it is based on the conception that a great deal of behaviour in organizations is determined by the conscious choices of individuals based on their perceptions of the consequences of their behaviour and within the constraints provided by existing structures, technologies, or human processes.

**Method**

I constructed and used the Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ) and this was completed by 392 workers. In addition, I conducted individual interviews with 67 workers on the problems of their organizations and undertook group analysis with eight groups of workers looking at organizational problems.

**OAQ**

The OAQ is a large instrument used to diagnose different organizational aspects on the basis of employees’ perceptions. Construction of the OAQ was based on the assumption that behaviour of workers is based on their ability to make conscious choices. The OAQ consists of ten standardised question modules plus one module of open questions. There are 15 parts to the questionnaire and 190 questions covering different areas of organizational functioning. These are:

- 28 items addressing general employee attitudes such as job satisfaction, intention to turnover, intrinsic motivation, and performance outcomes;
- 14 items addressing different kinds of employees’ training and development;
• 46 items assessing employees’ orientation and perceptions of job facets and outcomes. It also scrutinises employee beliefs that especially good or poor performance will lead to an increase or a decrease in the extent to which those facets are present in their jobs;
• 2 items assessing employees’ perceptions of the characteristics of the task performed as a part of their job;
• 24 items assessing work groups in organizations with a primary focus on describing how the work group functions, its process, the characteristics of its members and their behaviour and its effectiveness;
• 16 items examining the way in which employees’ supervisors are perceived. Description of competence, style and general leadership behaviour are obtained;
• 6 items assesses the extent employees feel they can and should influence decisions made in the operation of the organization;
• 16 items assessing employees’ attitudes towards changes in organization, future of the organization, possible threats and challenges;
• 16 items assessing employees’ attitudes about their life in general and their reactions to their job within a global framework; and
• open questions dealing with problems, difficulties, emotions, opinions of employees’ not mentioned in the modules above.

In addition to the questionnaire I interviewed a number of employees.

Individual interviews
Sixty-seven workers were asked the following questions about problems within their organizations:
• What do you like in your organization?
• What is the main strength of your organization?
• What is in your organization you disagree with?
• Describe the system of motivation in your organization.
• What is the process of information like? Is it effective? What are the main barriers?
• What is the basis of the most common conflicts in your organization?
• What are the most important problems in your organization now?
• What should be done or change immediately?

Finally, I undertook some group level discussions with employees.

Group analysis
I discussed organizational problems with eight groups of employees. I used a method of “metaplan” and Lewin’s concept of “Force Field Analysis” to stimulate discussion about existing problems within the organizations and to find some solutions. Each of the groups chose one problem and worked on a solution for this problem. The most popular was the problem of motivation and communication in the organization.

The typical arrangement of two of the above-mentioned categories was:

<table>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
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Category (b) Assessment

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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3.6</td>
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<td>6.full</td>
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<td>5.full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.full</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.full</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.full</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the process of analysis I found three groups of items that I called:

- Consistent positive – employees are generally consistent and answer “I agree” or “I fully agree”;
- Consistent negative – employees are generally consistent and answer “I disagree” or “I fully disagree”;
- Divergent, in conflict – there is a high variance in the answers of employees and this probably means that employees vary in their opinions and attitudes.

Results

The following table describes the general attitudes employees express towards their work.

Table 1. A. General attitudes toward my work.

Employees agree that they get a feeling of personal satisfaction from doing their job well; they are satisfied when they do a good job and that they feel bad when doing a poor job. Employees disagree that they often think about quitting, that they are satisfied of their pay and that they generally do not like their job.

General opinions about organization and its members. Employees agree that their managers inform them poorly about their plans, that there is nepotism in hiring new workers,
that employees working badly should be fired. Further, employees feel there is no adequacy between employment and the needs of organizational units. Employees disagree that they do not understand about organizational problems.

**Opinions about training and development.** Employees agree that the access to training in organization is unjust and unfair. They disagree that employees are systematically trained, that if they wish they can take part in training, and that they do not care about training.

**Opinion about the importance of different elements of the work.** Employees agree that each element of work is important - the benefits, respect of co-workers, amount of pay, amount of freedom, chances for training, friendliness of people, chances to do something new and worthwhile doing, security.

**Opinion of satisfaction of different elements of the work.** Employees agree that there is friendliness among people they work with, that they receive respect from their co-workers and that they experience good social relations at work.

**Likelihood that there will be an effect when they perform well.** Employees agree that they will feel personally better, that they will develop their skills and abilities, and that they feel they have accomplished something worthwhile doing. Employees disagree that they will get a bonus or increased pay, that their feeling of security and safeness is enhanced, that they will get a promotion, that they will have much more freedom.

**Likelihood that there will be an effect when they perform poorly.** Employees agree that they will get no increased pay, that they will feel badly and they will feel lacking in competences.

**Opinion about work tasks.** Employees agree that they usually can predict what others expect of them in their job, that to do their job well is important for them, and that they have enough skills to do their job well.

**Opinion about the work group.** Employees agree that they look forward to being with their work group each day. Employees disagree that people they work with do not respect others, that there are constant quarrels in their work group, and that they cannot trust their peers.

**Opinion about the immediate supervisor.** Employees agree that their supervisor maintains high standards of performance, that he demands that subordinates deliver high quality work.

**Changes in the organization.** Employees agree that changes seem to create more problems then they solve, that changes should be connected with payment and motivation systems, that the information system about changes is wrong, that the system of appraisal and promotion should be changed (see Table 2, overleaf).

There is a divergence of employees’ opinion that:

- If I have a chance I would change my position in the organization;
- Managers are professionally poorly prepared for their managerial work;
- There are chances of doing something really worthwhile doing;
- Typical in my job is the lack of challenges to show my abilities and skills;
- My supervisor helps me to solve problems;
- My supervisor is very good in his work;
- My supervisor has respect for his/her workers;
- My supervisor deals and communicates well with subordinates;
- My supervisor is behaving like a partner;
- My supervisor is not interested of the opinion of other people;
- I have a lot of say over decisions which are made;
- I feel wasted in my work.

The next section looks at the changes in organizations.
Table 2. N. Changes in my organization.

Employees think that the following is true:
- I get a feeling of personal satisfaction from doing my job well (6.60);
- I feel very good if I do my job well (6.53);
- I feel bad when I do a poor job (6.10);
- Likeness that I'll feel satisfaction for a well done job (5.91); and
- I know what others expect me to do on my job (5.98).

Employees think that the following is false:
- I do not care about training (1.65);
- Training is systematic (2.81);
- Able to take part in different trainings organised by the organization (2.79);
- Likelihood that I will get a bonus or pay increase for a well done job (2.07);
- Likelihood that I will be promoted for a well done job (2.08);
- The amount of money depends on the work I have done (1.96);
- I have no skills or education to do my job well (1.57);
- There are conflicts in my work group (2.11); and
- Employees are informed well (2.15).

The next section looks at employees’ opinions.
Table 3.

Discussion and Conclusions

On the basis of the OAQ, interviews and discussions with employees, I divided the results in two groups: positive factors which can be treated as opportunities and negative factors which are the barriers for Polish enterprises in the process of transition.

The negative factors were:

- It is possible that workers do not realise that the situation badly needs to be changed;
- There is a low level of human resources management, lack of a good motivation system and lack of effective systems of appraisal and recruitment;
- Good communication and information systems are lacking;
- There are expectancies and habits that someone will do something for me;
- There are divergences in the assessment of managers and in the opinion of employees;
- There is a perception that managers have no managerial competencies; and
- There are deficiencies in systematic training and development of employees.

The positive factors were:

- Employees expect changes in the area of HRM, the motivational system, payment, assessment and recruitment and selection;
- Employees expect that the change process be just, based on effective information and done by competent people;
- Employees are emotionally engaged in organizational change; and
- Employees’ self assessment of their resources is high – workers perceive themselves as competent and ambitious.

It is possible to organise these results of this study into three areas: a) Trust; employees do not fully trust their supervisors; b) Self Assessment; employees perceive themselves as competent and motivated; and c) Social Resources; employees perceive their work groups as important resource in the organization.
We can observe the “vicious circle” of problems in large, government owned organizations (e.g., electro-energetic, administration and university) in Poland suggesting that there is a problem changing organizational culture and attitudes of workers and managers. A sequence of problems occurs which leads back to the original problems. There is a kind of blindness of employees: suggesting they feel “this does not refer to me” which is combined with a high self-esteem. Additionally, there are expectations that “someone do something for me” and that managers are responsible for everything. Simultaneously, there is a lack of good HRM in these organizations that triggers incorrect managerial activities as they are not professionally prepared. This helps to maintain the “vicious circle”. In the face of the challenges of the global and European market this vicious circle should be broken. But, how do we break a vicious circle? Based on my research, some practical interventions were undertaken in the three organizations. These interventions were executed in the form of workshops, lectures, HRM projects, and individual consultations. This work aimed to develop better information systems as well as improved work motivation and human resources management, advanced managerial competences and enhanced trust in top management.

References

Differentiating Patterns in Work and Organizational Psychology in the Central and East European Countries

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Ute Schmidt-Brasse, owner of PSYCON® Psychologische Unternehmensberatung in Wildeshausen, Germany, is an experienced work and organizational psychology consultant, based in North West Germany and working throughout the Federal Republic and Europe, with some stress on CEE countries. Her main areas are organizational, team, personnel development, coaching, and inter-cultural consulting.

Abstract

As a means of differentiation, after some words on the role of discussant, the paper presents the concept of "Civilisational competence" (Piotr Sztompka 1993; Frane Adam, 2005). As a background the paper uses four components of civilisational competence: a) work and vocational ethic; b) capacity and motivation for collective action and self-organisation; c) internalisation of formal-legal and bureaucratic discipline; and d) basic functional knowledge. The paper highlights furthering and detrimental aspects for Work and Organizational Psychology (WOP) from literature and experience and then looks for examples for these aspects in the presentations of this symposium before inviting the audience for discussion.

How I understand my role of discussant

Accepting Barbara Kożusznik’s invitation to the role of discussant of this Invited Symposium gives me the most welcome opportunity to underpin the congenial cooperation with academic and practitioner colleagues from Central and Eastern Europe during the last 15 years. Coming from Western Europe, I will look at the presentations of the symposium from an outward position. I will try to identify aspects of development of WOP in Central and East European (CEE) countries which emerge across the abstracts and arrange the papers in a broader context. My role will be rather structuring the contents of the presentations from a meta-level than sharing findings.

“Civilisational Competence” as a concept of differentiation

WOP in Central and Eastern Europe – to me that means general common grounds of WOP, but also differences. At first glance, the similarities are connected somehow with the past because of the communist historical backgrounds. But, significant differences are due to different pre-communist legacies and different types of central planning.

Looking for a means of differentiation I came across the concept of civilisational competence, first outlined by the Polish sociologist Piotr Sztompka (1993) and later operationalised by the Slovenian cultural scientist Frane Adam. He (2005, p. 80 ff) understands “civilisational competence … as a psycho-cultural and socialisation pattern which has been sedimented and transmitted from generation to generation, which may be accumulated, and which is in certain circumstances open for innovative change (invention of tradition). It is a latent structure of cognitive, normative, expressive and motivational elements which enables individuals and social communities to orient themselves in the different subsystems of modern (or modernising) societies. In this context, one could employ the term cultural map”. Greater civilisational competence thus results in a more elaborate map enabling people affected to deal with “the labyrinths of new demands and social changes” more easily than others. Weak or missing
civilisational competence makes it more difficult and time-consuming to adapt, it costs more and
tends to waste resources. Adam identifies four important dimensions of civilisational
competence which can help to distinguish the different kinds of development in the CEE
countries: a) work and vocational ethics; b) capacity and motivation for collective action and
self-organisation; c) internalisation of formal-legal and bureaucratic discipline; and d) basic
functional knowledge.

**Work and vocational ethic**
Concerning the CEE parts of Europe Adam (p. 82) states that the “Czech lands and later
(interwar) Czechoslovakia as the most industrialised region formed and inherited well founded
work and vocational ethics which was later undermined in communist planned state-owned
economy. Because of less rigid and less collectivist character of Yugoslav and (later) Hungarian
communist regimes accompanied by more private initiative and autonomy at the work place, it
can be assumed that Slovenia and Hungary have some advantage in work and vocational
ethics as well as in managerial competencies”.

**Capacity and motivation for collective action and self-organisation**
Due to tradition dating from Austro-Hungarian monarchy times, people in the Czech Republic, in
Slovakia and Slovenia tend to be quite strong in all forms of organised sociability. According to
Adam (p. 82) “this can be explained by the impact of in-herited civic participation from earlier
periods” whereas communism subverted self-control and self-initiative.

**Internalisation of formal-legal and bureaucratic discipline**
Much the same, the regions belonging to the Austro-Hungarian monarchy conserved somehow
more appropriate patterns with regard to formal-legal and bureaucratic discipline than other
CEE regions. Also the national independence achieved in this part of Europe after World War I
had positive impacts, “especially in the case of (interwar) Czechoslovakia, which was able to
preserve its democratic and “Rechts-staat” character until the communist takeover in 1948”
(p.83).

**Basic functional knowledge**
Also regarding basic functional knowledge (it “allows individuals and communities an elemental
understanding of social changes and enables them to adapt more easily to them”, p.83), again
“the regions under the Austro-Hungarian rule inherited relatively good dispositions ... Under the
communist regime the educational system expanded but its quality and openness toward new
ideas was in many aspects questionable” (p. 83).

**CEE WOP aspects from experience and literature**
After these general and basic explanations and differentiations, it is now time to look at special
WOP issues which have to be seen relative to the respective background.

In general, there seems to be an excellent scholarly basis with long-standing tradition,
especially in work psychology. The range of topics is dynamically spreading into other fields of
WOP common in the West as well, e.g. organizational and management, personnel psychology
and economical psychology. Consistently, there is an enormous increase of interest in seeking
information and collaboration since the early 1980s especially with Western researchers and
practitioners (e.g. ENOP, EAWOP, German experience exchange groups across boundaries).
This development is backed by rapidly growing language skills towards Western languages.

Different from Western usances and doubtlessly due to very low university wages, many
researchers are parallelly working as independent freelance consultants, concretely applying
results and cross-checking feasibility of their research work in down-to-earth projects. This very
often gives at least part of their work a pragmatic touch off the “ivory tower”.
Another development to be observed is the proceeding professionalism of WOP in CEE countries by founding professional associations, installing curricula, editing journals, holding conferences, and trying to have a professional impact on legislation.

**Detrimental aspects**

Very often, the allocation of university funds and promotion are unreliable and not transparent. This suggests in a way that old research elites, political party cronyism, and personal relations still are playing an important role. Accordingly, for special demands or projects, the CEE WOP colleagues are depending on foreign money and sponsoring.

As we have already seen before, due to political circumstances organizational psychology is a young field of research and application in real day-to-day work is partially still is in a learning phase. This leads sometimes to the fact - especially since 1990 - that Eastern-Western research collaboration is sought much more often than the “old” Eastern-Eastern collaborations. This bears the danger of excluding non-EU countries due to rare funding possibilities as well as to be geared to Western patterns and to underrate peer research in the CEE countries. WOP colleagues observing this tendency are consciously trying to alter it by many formal and informal means; but lacking infrastructure to organise their efforts is a severe obstacle.

**Examples for these aspects in the papers of this symposium**

We will now turn to the five presentations of the symposium - referred to mostly by the abstracts - and scrutinise them for the dimensions and aspects mentioned:

**Lyudmila Karamushka, Ukraine:**

*Mains trends in development of Organizational and Work Psychology in Ukraine*

Karamushka introduced us to *Organizational and Work Psychology as a relatively new and dynamically developing field of psychological science in Ukraine*. She described the whole systematic process of initiating and planning, implementing, networking, and professionalising and understood all this in the context of European Integration - not forgetting about their Eastern European neighbours (e.g. supporting Belarus development).

**Zoltán Bogáthy et al., Romania:**

*Managerial Competency and Efficiency in Romanian Organisations (in this issue substituted by Zoltán Bogáthy et al. 2007: “The Role of Emotions in Organizational Behaviour”)*

One key sentence in Bogáthy et al.’s contribution for me was: *Romanian managers are not well prepared to perform as managers.* And well matching the aspects discussed a little while ago, this is explained partly by political party cronyism for managers before 1989. A second explanation is the field of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Development being new and still without a tradition of seeking advice and applying WOP research and experiential results to “normal” companies. Thirdly, Bogáthy points to a lack of Human Resources and supporting infrastructure. And there is a warning, too: Do not just impose foreign structures, it won’t work!

**Mare Teichmann et al., Estonia:**

*Eastern European versus Western Control Beliefs at Work*

Teichmann’s contribution is an impressive example of the collaboration with Western researchers. Comparing control beliefs at work, she found that – congruent with the findings on Eastern European history influence - *all samples of Eastern European managers have more external work locus of control than Western ones* and that in the follow-up 8 years later in fact *internal work locus of control has become more influential but there was no significant mean difference*. There is a perspective, though: Younger Estonian managers have more *internal work locus of control and internal way of thinking and acting.*
Barbara Kożusznik, Poland:

**Psychosocial problems of managers and employees in Polish organisations**

A “Company in the process of transition and change”, What are the “psychological, emotional and social factors influencing workers’ behaviour”? and the proposal of “practical solutions of psycho-social and psycho-emotional problems …” were the issues of Kożusznik’s hands-on contribution, offering a tool how to analyse and means how to break the vicious circle in this company by enhancing the information system, improving work motivation and human resources management, developing managerial competences as well as trust in the top.

**References**

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And now:

Your contributions and opinions, please!

Please send your comments and points of discussion about the material to the individual authors of each paper (their e-mail address is on the first page of the article) and send your general comments and opinions about the e-journal to:

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We are also waiting for your contributions!

Thank you!

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