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Strategic Management as the Ideology of Power

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to present the key themes of strategic management from the perspective of Critical Management Studies [More: Sułkowski, 2012]. Strategic management seen as the most advanced and sophisticated form of targeting reseved only for the elite top menagement is interpreted by critical scholars as an ideology of power exercised by elites. The article presents the analysis of the foundations of the CMS, and then puts these issues in the field of strategic management.
Key words: Critical Management Studies, CMS, Crtitics of Strrategic Management

Introduction

Critical management trend (Critical Management Studies) takes reflection on the functioning of key dilemmas of modern organizations. It is the orientation located in a group of alternative paradigms, criticizing the dominant neopositivist-functionalist approach [Sułkowski, 2004]. Management sciences are treated by the researchers who identify themselves with the CMS, as the discourse involved in the valuation. Undertaken critical topics concern: managerism ideology, oppressive organization, „false consciousness“, „symbolic violence“, and many other aspects of management with far-reaching moral consequences.

The purpose of this paper is to present the key themes of strategic management from the perspective of Critical Management Studies [More: Sułkowski, 2012]. Strategic management seen as the most advanced and sophisticated form of targeting reserved only for the elite top management is interpreted by critical scholars as an ideology of power exercised by elites. The article presents the analysis of the foundations of the CMS, and then puts these issues in the field of strategic management.

CMS Paradigm

Critical Management Studies are a relatively new perspective, which crystallized at the beginning of the 90's of the twentieth century. Pioneering works undertaking the issue of ideological demystifications and management functions based on domination structures appeared already in the 70s [Braverman, 1974]. However, in the last two decades, the critical management studies (CMS) took the form of institutionalized discourse, through: a series of publications, research, conferences, journals, and environmental [Alvesson, Willmott (eds.), 1992].

Reconstruction of the key tenets of the most significant assumptions of critical studies allows to find some common assumptions forming the internally differentiated paradigm of Critical Management Studies. First of all, it means treating the management science as a persuasive discourse arising from the assumptions of capitalism and aiming at sustaining the status quo based on domination and exploitation. Critical management studies trend has disclosing ambitions leading to question the seemingly "objective" and "natural" status: of corporate order, management power, institutions, practices and identity of management [Alvesson, Willmott, 2003]. This "de-naturalization" of managerialism discourse leads to a description of activities and institutions based on domination, oppressive, often harming people and society, and hiding under the guise of rationality, management sciences. The postulate of exploring the interests of different social groups executing power by controlling the discourse of science is to perform as a consequence to the criticism and changing the existing, unjust social order. As a result of the development of the critical approach disadvantaged groups, and therefore subject to possession, such as ethnic and social minorities, women, would build their awareness and would be able to express and realize their interests. Tools developed by the critical trend include: deconstruction and de-naturalization of managerial discourse, critical and reflective analysis of the language of executing power, methods of strengthening the autonomy and self-control of disadvantaged groups (e.g. empowerment) [Parker, 2002]. Key themes emerging in the critical management studies include:

– the issue of emancipation of disadvantaged groups in organizations
– revealing camouflaged relationships of domination and exploitation in the management,
– describing instrumentalism in managerial approach to a human
– indicating mechanisms of the violence and symbolic violence in organizations,
– demystification of ideological discourse functions of management, particularly in relation to human resource management, marketing, strategic management

– analysis of neo-imperial, unethical and socially irresponsible managerial practices arising from the instrumentalism of managerial reason [Grey, Willmott, 2005].

Management as legitimization of dominance

Business schools "enslave the minds" of managers and employees by providing them with sources of identity. Identification with a seemingly scientific, objective, efficient, fair, and in general, according to management advocates the only possible system of governance in the modern world, leads to false consciousness. False consciousness, according to the concepts of critical studies, is produced by the system in favor of the dominant social group. It is a tool of control and "symbolic violence". Huge masses of people volunteer their time to an absurd pursuit of new things and services giving impetus to the development of transnational corporations, owners and top managers, i.e. those at the top of the pyramid. False consciousness does not affect then managers only, giving them unjustified sense of mission and justice while exercising power in the interest of the organization, but also the employees and consumers who give in to the power symbolic violence called by S. Deetz the "colonization of everyday life by the corporations" [Deetz, 1995].

Management does not create a single paradigm, the combination of theory and methodology, but it is a kind of "jungle" of different concepts. "Life cycle" of these concepts is shortened more and more. Many of them become a mere passing fashion promoted by "management gurus", consulting firms or academic institutions. These concepts typically are not based on research, but in majority of cases on one impressive idea, which leads to the simplification of the organizational reality. Studies in the management of fashion show both the rapid dissemination of ideas and a very quick abandonment by the organization and management theoreticians [Abrahamson, 1991, p. 586-612]. Fashionable "theories" make management sciences more popular, but also less reliable. They are an excellent example of social constructivism, in which the concept impact back the organizational reality [DiMaggio, Powell, 1983, p. 147-160].

Management as ideology of power

Management sciences became in the twentieth century an influential discipline, closely linked to business and government circles. In the institutional field management sciences have developed various interest groups which force their own influence giving thus shape to the management sciences themselves. The most important interest groups will include: scientists specializing in the management, business consultants and advisers, businessmen, entrepreneurs and owners. "The stakes in the social game", whose arena are also the management sciences include: money, social prestige and power. One could also point out other social divisions such as managers in the private sector and public sector management or national divisions of workers, and other forms of "stakes in the social game" such as a sense of security. The interests of these groups intersect to form a complex constellation of more or less permanent coalitions interacting consciously or subconsciously. Often behind the veil of objectivity, the interests of social groups involved in the social game, which takes place also in the area of management sciences, can hide.

Managers are nowadays one of the most influential social groups. They control the flow of funds, goods and services on a global scale. They exercise power in the majority of social structures, small and large groups of people pushing politicians aside. As a dominating group, managers create their own ideology that allows capture the power and rationalize their own position. Managerism ideology contributes to the creation of identity and group solidarity. It finds reflection in the object concepts and management methods developed in the framework of the dominant trend.

Strategic Management in Alternatives Paradigms

Strategy is a cultural construction, which means that in its formation and implementation the culture participates together with its value system and criteria for rationalism, standards and stereotypes. The strategy must be socially explained and communicated. Strategies are social and they should be formed on the basis of the assumption of limited rationality, which results from the limited access to information as well as the significant influence of social factors, in which the organizations are immersed. For such a strategy the understanding of authority structures and communication is crucial. The organizational strategy is, then, the reflection of interdependence between the social and economic subjects. Interpretative strategy is assumed to be ambiguous, relative and ideological. It is based on creative and heuristic processes, which cannot be put into algorithms. The game metaphor, in which the element of uncertainty is important, determines the area of strategy formation which is based on the postulate of limited rationality. The war metaphor brings to our minds ideological and emotional components, while the comparison of the strategy to the language game focuses on interpretation processes of the social actors. In the understanding of a strategy, irrational elements can be found which convinces us that organizational reality is not given but it is being constructed by managers and other social subjects during their interactions. Brusson promotes the interpretative approach based on decisional irrationality, according to which rational decisions do not always support effective actions [Brusson, 1985, p. 22]. A researcher can have doubts, while a manager should quickly make his decision, communicate it without any hesitation, persuade others to do it and implement it wholeheartedly. If we stress only the rationality of decisions, then often the more important elements of involvement, communication and leadership may suffer. Clarke points out the dangers related to the formation of plans with a symbolic dimension. They can make the managers less alert, indicating that everything is recognized and under control [Clarke, 1999]. According to the social constructivism assumptions, the border between descriptive and normative understanding of strategy is vague. Management practice acknowledges that strategy is more often interpreted retrospectively than planned prospectively. Therefore, the actions are not the consequences of the planning process but they are intertwined with the interpretation processes of the organizational reality.

Strategic management as the quintessence of managerial ideology

CMS researchers take many critical topics relating to strategic management. Above all, they treat strategic management as a kind of essence of managerial ideology that rationalizes instrumental, unfair, and often socially harmful actions taken by management organizations. Among the many topics of critical perspective on strategic management there are three main areas of ethical dilemmas, namely: ideology managerism, „symbolic violence“, and the instrumentalisation of human actions.

Managerism ideology constituting the „false consciousness“ of both subordinates and managers justifies the apparent obviousness and naturalness of the existing social order and organization. Thus it constructs the identity of managers and employee acting as reflection of power relations and inequalities. It acts as a camouflage for the real, unjust social order.

Strategy becomes a tool of "symbolic violence" that instrumentally channels human activities in the organization, leading to their focus on profits, and eliminating the moral sphere of the area of interest of management [Jacques, 1996]. This means that management of organizations can rationalize the lack of sensitivity to the problems of people focusing solely on the instrumental purpose of the organization imposed by the system and the structure of ownership. The strategy can be seen through the prism of critically interpreted social practices, namely: communication activities, forms of organizational culture and demonstration of power [Vaara, Sorsa, Pälli, p. 685-702]. In the social practices belonging to the area of strategy there reveal such elements as instrumentalism approach to human domination practices through profit and commercialization, practices of domination and masculinism [Hendry, 2000, p. 955-977; Alvesson, Mats i Deetz, Stanley, 2005, p. 60-106].

Strategy understood as a discourse is developing a 'language game' based on a kind of "meta-narratives" that refers to the belief in possibilities: prediction of the development of the organization and the market operation, effective management and leadership [Cunliffe, p. 351-371, Monin, 2004]. It is therefore a kind of discourse about a self-fulfilling prophecy [Samra-Fredericks, 2005, p. 803-841]. Strategic management justifies its own value and importance in the management sciences "spinning tales" about his own greatness [Kornberger, 2011, p. 136-162]. Strategy interpreted in terms of political economy examines neomarxist- interpretive dependency between economics and politics. In this sense, it is the position of the economy rather than management, according to which engagement of the economy with politics creates and perpetuates the principles of allocation of resources, the use of profit and exploitation of people reflecting the capitalist social order and power relations [Alvesson, Willmott, 2002, p. 619-644].

Summary

The last fifteen years have seen the field of CMS grow to increasing importance as an alternative not only to mainstream research but also teaching on management and organization. A critical look at the strategic management is a crucial aspect of Critical Management Studies.

In spite of a growing interest in epistemological, praxeological and axiological issues there is still a visible lack of critical reflection in the context of strategic management.

Emerging fundamental scientific and practical problems are: instrumental and oppressive approach to people in the organization, dehumanization of management and manipulation serving to increase benefits of those in power in organizations. Strategic management is also a kind of ideology of those in power in organzations, which serves as a rationalization unethical activities and allows to get rid of ethical dilemmas.

The industrial era of dehumanization of the workforce has influenced and left management practices being incompatible with the emotional, cognitive and collaborative underpinnings of modern human capital. If management has been dehumanized, there is a need to humanize it again. Management should be returned to its roots in the humanities and the liberal arts. There is a need to re-establish people and moral purpose as the center of gravity based on which management is practiced. In order not to surrender to the negative elements in liberalism, corporatization and globalization, the need for strategic thinking in those areas of CMS is greater than ever before [more about: Sulkowski, 2013].

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Advertisement in the Perspective of World Religions – from Negation to Necessary Acceptance

Abstract: There are a few factors which influence the awareness and culture of the modern man. The most essentials include: religions, developing globalization and advertisements. The mentioned elements are related to each other and mutually restricted. Authors of advertisements still often use elements of religious life in order to encourage customers to buy particular products or make them loyal to a particular brand. Developing globalization allows for using multicultural elements, including the elements related to all major religions. We should point out that religions which promote self-restriction, renouncement and devotion remain in opposition to the developing advertising industry. In this world of advertisement, which seems unavoidable, religions have no choice but accept them. By setting forth justified ideas they make people think over the methods and limits of using religious elements in advertisements of products.
Keywords: advertisement, world religions, religious values

It is not easy to clearly identify the most vital factors which shape our culture and affect everyday relationships, contribute to an individual's self-realization and successes in his personal life as well as effectiveness and failures in professional life. These factors greatly depend on the individual's personal traits. Thus, it is difficult to present one systematized and reliable list approved by many analysts and observers of current social life. In order to carry out a further analysis let us identify a few such factors. They are wide-spread all over the world and can hardly be negated. The first factor which is definitely more and more affecting our culture and mutual relationships is rapidly developing globalization. First and foremost, thanks to modern and electronic media we are aware that we live in a "global village" and our everyday life and activities influence different cultures and communities living on distant continents. World globalization, mostly driven by economy, are accompanied by social, cultural and political changes. These changes lead both to a closer relationship between nations and units, which till now remained divided, and also to serious confrontations [Sułkowski 2012, p. 20]. Another factor which affects our life, closely connected with human economic activity and globalization, is undoubtedly advertisement. It permeates all public life. It is visible everywhere – on the radio, in the press, on television, along roads and even in parks and gardens. While giving places which play an important role in our social life we should point out schools, hospitals, parks and even places of religious worship. Advertisements placed on buildings which serve religious purposes encourage passers-by to get involved in spiritual activities of a particular religious community, give information on the time when the services are performed and even persuade the reader that they are attractive. We remember that religious communities run their own schools. When they want to attract potential candidates and make them choose their school, they also have to use advertisement.

The phenomenon of permeating not only economic life by advertisement can be easily observed in the definition of advertisement. Modern advertisements no longer solely inform about an interesting product, encourage potential buyers to purchase the product or make him become loyal to a particular brand. Advertisements also serve entirely different purposes, essential in proper functioning of the society. They encourage people into getting vaccinated, getting involved in social and professional activities or protest against widely spreading pathologies. Visible changes in the attitude towards advertisement and various techniques which are used by people creating advertisements make us classify advertisement into social and political. According to the Code of Ethical Advertising economic advertisement can be clearly differentiated from social and political. The code states that social advertisement aims at " promoting behaviour which expected in a society whereas political advertising is an element of an election or referendum campaign". It contains instructions "how voters are expected to behave in an election or referendum" [*Kodeks Etyki Reklamy* 2012, p. 2].

In discussions run by culture experts, educators and sociologists certain significant problems arise. Let us briefly present the most important one. It seems obvious that almost every advertisement should contain easily understandable images and catchphrases. Only then it becomes effective and gets to a potential customer. In this meaning advertisement reflects the culture which the recipient is surrounded by. Until recently all those interested in this topic have held a debate whether advertising affects our culture and thus our lifestyle, values and their instilment in life [Czarnecki 2008, p. 206. Nowadays it seems undoubted that advertising not only generates a certain "consumption culture" but also effectively influences our personal and social life.

In this article we will present relationships between advertisement and various religions. It should be emphasized that we cannot omit this issue in our discussion. Despite rapid laicization, major religions, especially those present in societies of so called "western culture", still influence social and cultural aspects of our life, thus, the economic aspect, too. Globalization has definitely a strong influence on religious life, as well. Cultural changes contribute to meeting of world religions. As a consequence of this phenomenon, people not only adopt other people's customs and ways of performing religious acts but also accept or deny values. This article particularly deals with the issue of advertising in the religious perspective. First and foremost, as we observed earlier, worshippers and religious leaders use advertisement in order to disseminate their methods of performing religious rituals, doctrines or ethical values. However, it is not surprising that followers of particular religions appreciate commonly used marketing techniques and widely implement them in this commercialized modern world. On the other hand, it seems necessary for religious leaders to use not only advertisements and media which are used for disseminating particular values. Experts on culture, ethics and religion should analyze in their discussions the problem of the influence of advertising on the life and identity of an individual. It seems surprising that the issue of the close relationship between advertisement and religion is hardly ever discussed, even in the most important articles on the condition of the modern world. Here, a question arises: Why are experts on religion not as interested in the issue of advertisement as educators, sociologists, psychologists or, obviously, marketing specialists?

Let us point out the visible combination of religion and advertisement. Advertising particular products by people dressed in clothes normally worn by religious leaders etc. is an example of such a combination. Actors employed to play roles of the leaders do not only advertise alimentary products. The advertisements are connected with cultural life, serious social problems and problems directly related to economy, too. Despite that fact that Catholicism is a dominant denomination, authors of advertisements also use the image of Buddhist monks. Such an image appears in the advertisement of mBank – the first Internet bank founded in Poland. In this advertisement a young Buddhist worshipper, in a soft voice encourages a male customer to use services offered by the bank. He points out benefits of those services [*Mistrz buddyjski reklamuje mBank (wideo)*]. We can say that the idea of presenting a religious leader in advertisement is no longer as controversial as it was some time ago. It does not evoke so many emotions and negative reactions as before. However, we can set a question whether the picture of a monk placed on bottles of beer (e. g. on labels of imported alcohol) or even on other everyday products is a proper and effective element of the advertisement which will attract a potential buyer. We can suppose that effect will be quite opposite. Another question arises: How does the image of people dressed in characteristic religious clothes and clearly identified with ecclesiastical life influence the institutions they belong to?

The next question of the article will refer to the attitude of world religions to advertisement. Should we think that religions generally are not in favour of advertisements, which aim at attracting customers and in specialists' opinion, contribute to consumption - unfavourable and even hostile to religious values. In articles on Hinduism, which is still widely practised in India, authors made observations that authors of advertisements have to stick to certain regulations which are really restrictions set to protect a customer against being mislead. Moreover, advertisements should contain elements of renouncement, which is so characteristic in the Hindu culture. According to Hinduism worshippers modern advertisement creates an atmosphere in which "traditional renouncement and self-restriction are no longer highly valued" [Menski 2007, p. 66].

Let us look at advertisements from the perspective of religions, which are present in our social life The observations made here are general. The author bore differences between religions in mind but emphasized common characteristics in other issues. To solve any and all modern problems, Judaism implemented such solutions which followed the Bible and advice given by rabbis [Wigoder 1996, p. 340]. Thus, Jewish religion has always stressed the necessity of delivering reliable information so its attitude towards mass media has been positive. Judaism worshippers are allowed to use media even during the Sabbath. This religion is also in favour of entertainment and using entertainment is often a method of communication between the recipient of an advertisement and its author. This oldest monotheistic religion condemns advertisement only when it is a source of gossips and unconfirmed information. It is one of the most important criteria for the evaluation of mass media as Judaism is strongly against disseminating slanders and misinforming recipients of information. We should also say that those who deal with analyzing modern advertisements stress there is no reliable information on the advertised product or services. So what is and is not allowed in advertisement according to Judaism? Even the Talmud allowed craftsmen to paint patterns on ceramic products to make them more attractive for a customer. However, it was strictly prohibited to cover old ceramics with pictures to make them look brand new. Thus, it is not allowed to present a false image of a product or try to persuade the customer the product has some features which it actually does not have [Lawton 2007, pp. 222–223].

Is Buddhism critical of advertisement? It is assumed that there are around five hundred Buddhism followers in the world. They are more and more often met not only in distant Asia but also on other continents, such as North America or Europe [Gadacz, Milerski 2001, pp. 309–313; Kowalczyk 2011, pp. 15–17]. Similarly to other religions, also Buddhism has a lot of forms. Of various features of Buddhism we can mention practicality and renouncement of the world. The latter feature involves having a proper internal disposition. It can be concluded that advertisement remains in opposition to almost all values in which Buddhists believe [Morgan 2007, p. 124]. I will try to present the most important in details. Like followers of other religions, also Buddhism points out a great responsibility for what its individual followers do. Involvement in social issues must result from righteous intentions initiated by a particular person. Thus, a Buddhism follower is not allowed to depend on any forms of pressure from his group or manipulated in any way. Those who want to live in accordance with Buddhist values in lay society are expected to adopt certain guidelines which are supposed to facilitate the realization of their own religious ideas. They are encouraged to abstain for a short period of time not only from dancing and singing but also from "wearing wreaths, using perfumes, fragrant lotions and other things which are meant to make the person more beautiful", which obviously is against advertisement and purposes it serves.

Islam is also critical of advertisement. All Muslims definitely claim that their religion does not allow them to separate the religious walk of life from the lay one – unlike it is demanded by people brought up in the western civilization. We should also add that economics is not a separate, lay science. It must be treated as "an element of Quranic teachings and not as a scientific discipline, according to the western civilization" [Krawczyk 2013, p. 269]. Islam is considered the youngest of all major religions of the modern world. It has spread all around the world. The majority of Muslims still live in Asia and Africa [Netton 2008, pp. 155–156]. However, the number of the Islamic religion followers is growing in Europe and North America. In what way is Islam against advertisement? Muslims emphasize that advertisements not only encourage customers to purchase a particular product but also persuade that the product is good. Alcohol might be a negative example as this religion strictly prohibits consumption of alcohol [Nanji 2009, p. 148]. Islam also points out the way in which a woman is presented. Her role is limited and she is supposed to care about her physical appearance only. On the other hand, advertisements are positive as their recipients are informed on new inventions, which facilitates broadening their minds and promotes creativity. Like in other religions, also Muslims stress the necessity of conveying reliable information. Even Mahomet insisted on telling the truth, keeping balance and giving up excessive attitude while advertising products. Aggressive advertising might contribute to gaining customers but would probably "decrease blessing you will be given" [Mashuq ibn Ally 2007, p. 342]. This religion emphasizes a great role of free will in making commercial decisions. According to Islam the man has free will but at the same time he is weak, unreliable, mean and impatient and often changes his views and opinions. The Quran confirms that an individual is composed of two elements – material and spiritual. Both these aspects are treated as opposing to each other but complement each other. In other words, neither aspect can outdo the other one. Islam does not deny human material life [Nanji 2009, p. 143]. In this aspect it seems to be closer to advertisement than other ethical systems. There is one more positive element in advertisement. Success, which is reflected by material goods, should deserve appreciation. It serves the development of the individual and society [Galata 2007, p. 81].

It is not possible to present a general attitude of Christianity towards advertisement in such a short paragraph. We all know that there are a lot of denominations and within them there are contradictory communities. Nevertheless, we can say that Christians commonly accept mass media and take a proper advantage of them. Advertising is a way of attracting customers' attention to certain invaluable products. On the other hand however, it makes people buy products which they do not really need. All advertisements which persuade customers they will become more feminine or masculine, depreciate a human being and his system of values from the Christian point of view.

No matter what denomination is considered, the Christian point of view on advertisement is clearly expressed in a document *"Ethics in* advertising" [1998], issued by the *Pontifical Council for Social Communications*. According to the authors of this document advertisement is neither good nor bad. It is simply a tool which might be used either in a positive or a negative way. The authors confirm there are various kinds of advertisement: commercial, social and political. They believe that advertisement can have a positive or negative effect on some walks of life: economy, politics, culture, moral and religious life. The positive effect means creating honest and reliable competition. Advertisement contributes to economic growth and progress. Thanks to it people are informed about new and existing but improved products. All this enables customers to take reasonable decisions and contributes to lower prices. The authors of the document believe that advertisement boosts economic development and this in turn, favours the development of production and trade. Advertisement can also promote democracy by giving information on political parties and candidates, including candidates who are new and unknown to public". With regards to culture, advertisement can also "promote the production of programmes which are highly intellectual, aesthetic and moral". It can also promote religious values, call for tolerance, sympathy, altruism and mercy towards people in need. The authors of the Vatican document make observations that advertisement has a negative influence, too because it can turn into a tool used in creating consumption mentality. The document criticizes potential practices of misinforming recipients by authors of advertisements. Such practices can have a negative effect on economy. It happens so when the advertisement is not informative but uses elements persuasion and irrationality. It can call for remaining loyal to a particular brand, prestige or fashion. In politics such misinformation practices might lead to presenting a false image of the political rival and his views or undermine his reputation. High costs of advertisements might inhibit honest competition. With regards to culture, misinformation involves replacing highly appreciated and respected artistic values with "superficial, vulgar and immoral practices". The Vatican document criticizes advertisement and mass media by accusing them of ignoring educational and social needs and only being interested in deriving financial profits. Finally, with regards to religion, the negative influence might involve an instrumental use of religious elements or just treat them with contempt.

We should generally conclude that no religion is openly against advertising. It somehow introduces certain limitations. The mentioned Vatican document points out attempts of treating religious elements in advertisements in an instrumental way. Many people responsible for creating advertisements believe that elements of religious life are tricky factors which can be effectively used in order to gain a customer for their advertised products. It is not easy to determine when the author of the advertisement is against religion and religious feelings, depreciates them or treats them with contempt. The question of showing disrespect is highly subjective and greatly depends on a particular religious follower and him being a member of a more radical or more tolerant community. The Code of Ethical Advertising does not appear to be highly useful, as according to it, "advertisements cannot contain elements discriminating sex or nationality or be anti-racial or anti-religious" [*Kodeks Etyki Reklamy* 1012, p. 4]. Another restriction which refers to standards of advertising beer is also rather general. We read that "advertisement cannot be religiously offensive". Both the limitations, the one which refers to discriminating elements and the one on the protection of religious feelings are very general and confirm the fact that the interpretation of a particular advertisement is exclusively subjective. Thus, cultural conditions and personal views of the recipient make up a negative interpretation of the particular advertisement.

As we observed before, advertisements reflect the culture which created them. Culture in turn, is shaped by many factors. One of them is religion. In these circumstances, a need to conduct studies on the influence of religion on advertisement seems to arise. Let us make a different conclusion. The modern word of advertising, in which youth is glorified, old age depreciated and people constantly strive to gather more and more material goods, remains beyond any religion. Should we not conclude that in this confrontation religions must accept the fact that our life is dominated by advertisement? If there is no point in combating advertisements, they must be accepted. Making authors of advertisements constantly aware of introducing certain limitations can help them to think over the huge potential they have thanks to the advertisements and values which they create.

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Culture and Project Management

Abstract: Project management in every situation is based on planning, organizing, motivating and controlling resources for the attainment of certain goals. This essentially means that the success of the management of a project will depend on the results achieved as well as the resources committed in achieving such results. Irrespective of the objectives of a project, one fundamental fact remains significant, that is, the fact that projects are geared towards the improvement of conditions in a particular society. This article is interested not only in the art of project management but also the factors which could influence the success or failure of these projects. In this article, the influence of the culture of the society for which a project is meant will be examined to find out whether it influences the conception and implementation of the project in any way.
In this regard some case studies of projects will be studied to find out the extent to which the cultural context of the society played a significant role in particular projects. The other case which will receive attention in this write up will be the significance of culture at each stage of the project. These elements will be discussed paying particular attention to the dimensions of culture proposed by Hofstede and how they influence the project management process.
The conclusion of this article will propose an approach to project management which takes into consideration the cultural context in which the project will be realized and the stages of the project management process which should involve more cultural orientation
Key words: Project Management, Culture, Lifecycle.

Introduction

Over the years, the art of business has developed into a complex system which is not just interested in the earning of profit but doing so in an efficient manner.

Businesses have therefore adopted different ways of achieving its goals and one if such ways is project management. In the words of Ranf Diana Elena [2010, pp. 657], "in tough economic times and under global competition, management by projects is now regarded as a competitive way for managing organizations", this option offers organizations the opportunities to decentralize its operations into projects thereby reducing the size of the institutions which has to be run into smaller units for better monitoring and controls.

Although projects have been carried out for thousands of years, Project Management, as a unique way of management, is a recent discipline [Frame, 1995, pp. 1-288 and Dvir & Lechler, 2004, pp. 1-15]. To a large extent, it is a consequence of mayor projects conducted during World War II, the best known being the Manhattan Project [Frame, 1995, pp. 1-288]. Most authors agree that projects are unique endeavors [Andersen, 1996, pp. 89-94] with a finite duration, and that they involve the coordinated undertaking of interrelated activities in order to reach a defined goal [Frame, 1995, pp. 1-288]. Turner and Müller [2002, pp.1-8] argue that the traditional definition of project is incomplete, and propose the following definition: "A project is a temporary organization to which resources are assigned to undertake a unique, novel and transient endeavor managing the inherent uncertainty and need for integration in order to deliver beneficial objectives of change" [Turner and Müller, 2002, pp.1-8]. This view of a project as a temporal organization has recently become popular and more and more researchers adopt it and develop it [Turner, 2006a, pp. 1-3].

Turner [1993, pp. 93-102] defines a project as "an endeavor in which human, material and financial resources are organized in a novel way, to undertake a unique scope of work, of given specification, within constraints of cost and time, so as to achieve beneficial change defined by quantitative and qualitative objectives". This definition in other words captures the different specializations within large corporate organizations which are run independently as if they were separate organizations. In recent times, the complexity of projects has increased drastically thus requiring a team of talented individuals who can be integrated into an effective group – project team. The success of the various stages of the project life cycle is hugely dependent on the effectiveness of the teamwork. According to Knutson [2001, pp. 16], tough global competition has created an acute need for faster, more flexible, and highly competitive operations. These needs can be met only by developing high-performing teams. Effective team building is one of the prime responsibilities of the project manager.

The most generally accepted definition of project management is that proposed by the Project Management Institute [PMI, 2000, pp. 6] which defines the concept as "the application of knowledge, skills, tools and techniques to project activities to meet project requirements". Putting this definition in simpler terms, it means achieving the project objectives with the resources available. There are however different aspects of project management and one of the most famous if the 'iron triangle' of cost, quality and time proposed by Atkinson [1999, pp. 337-342]. Other authors have chosen to concentrate on other aspects of project management, but this article will be looking at the influence of culture on the project management process. This is because projects are implemented in societies, implemented by persons and these persons and societies have certain thoughts and mindsets which influence whatever it does; therefore any factor which might seem important in the project management process is ultimately influence by this concept of culture.

Culture has been defined diversely by different authors, one of such definitions is the one proposed by Schein [1985] which says "culture is the way in which a group of people solves problems and reconciles dilemmas"; this however appears too simplistic and not tailor-made for this publication. This article will be adopting Hofstede's definition of culture shared by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner. It can be assumed that 'national culture' refers to a particular pattern of thinking and acting espoused by people in a society, modeled around collective values, beliefs, symbols and practices, and inherently different from the systems of other groups of people and societies;[Hofstede, 2001; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997]. The influence of national culture on a number of business processes has been proven by researchers over the years with the pioneer of such researches being Hofstede. In the field of project management, not so many publications exist about the influence of culture on project management and the few which exist concentrate mainly on the cultural differences in the practice of project management in multicultural settings. This publication will seek to make the point that it is important to give cultural considerations to every stage of the project management process/ phase. Results from studies conducted will be used to support these positions. The question to be asked now is why culture out of all the factors which could have an influence on project management?

Culture

In one of the most comprehensive surveys of project management conducted by the 'FELLNER Executivetraining und Consulting' and 'Project Management Austria' which involved about 250 project managers, identified the key factors which are truly critical for the success of projects as well as the role of social competences for project success. From their findings the most critical factors emerged as the relationships and social competences within the teams. These among others include team building; atmosphere at work; relationship with the owner of the project as well as the involvement of the clients. Factors which over the years have received attention as the 'most critical' to the success of projects did not make a cut at the top-most positions; time, money as well as the project management methods did not emerge as the most vital success indicators.

From the findings of this survey, it is clear from the persons who oversee projects that the success factors of every project are connected with human relations, comfort and the extent to which to which the stakeholders identify with the said project. All these factors highlight the human element and every human entity/grouping is identified by a set of values and convictions – which brings us back to the definition of culture. The results of the survey are presented in the chart below;

Figure.1. Key Success Factors of Project Management.

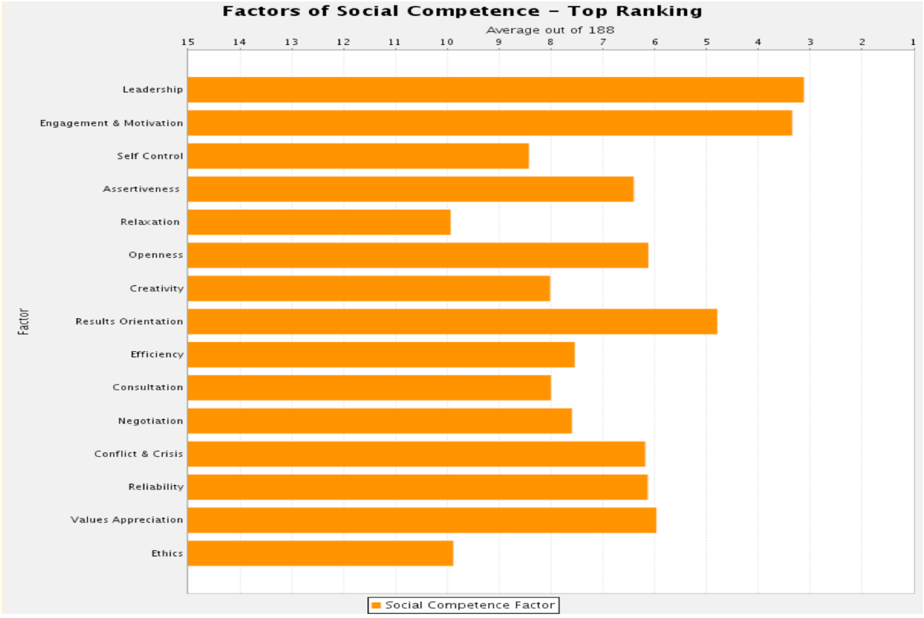
FELLNER Executivetraining und Consulting [2008]

Apart from the results of the critical success factors of project management, this survey also investigated what skills a project manager should provide to make him or her successful at the art. The competences taken into consideration in this survey are the fifteen (15) social competences listed on the IPMA competence baseline. These social competences are believed to be what every project manager needs to manage projects successfully. The competences which emerged as the most required for all managers were leadership; commitment and motivation as well as result orientation. The rest of them were rated evenly.

A quick glance at the second aspect of the survey gives the impression that everyone agrees that the input of a manager is key in the success of projects. The only question under discussion here is which attributes possessed by this individual are most useful in the supervisory process?

Going by the model proposed by Hofstede [1980], which proposes that individuals have a personality, live as part of a collective group and so have a culture which is part of the universal entity. The interaction of personality, culture and the universal group lead to a mental programming of the individual which in any situation results in a behavior (and for the purpose of this article, competence). This by inference means ever behavior or competence has a cultural background to it. The following table presents results of competences from the survey;

Figure.2. Social Competence Factors.



FELLNER Executivetraining und Consulting (2008)

Hofstede [1984] identifies the dimensions of culture and their ranking in forty (40) countries around the world. These dimensions of culture as identified by Hofstede include; Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity/Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance and the last one Long term Orientation which was developed much later in the 1990s after his research with Chinese employees originally known as Confucian dynamism. The scores for these dimensions were different in every country thereby suggesting that the conduct of business or any activities in any of the countries should be done acknowledging these peculiarities. He defines these dimensions as follows;

PDI – Power Distance: This dimension deals with the fact that all individuals in societies are not equal – it expresses the attitude of the culture towards these inequalities amongst us.

IND – Individualism: The fundamental issue addressed by this dimension is **the degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members.** It has to do with whether people's self-image is defined in terms of "I" or "We".

MAS – Masculinity/ Femininity: This dimension indicates that the society will be driven by competition, achievement and success, with success being defined by the winner / best in field – a value system that starts in school and continues throughout organisational behaviour.

UAI – Uncertainty Avoidance: This has to do with the way that a society deals with the fact that the future can never be known: should we try to control the future or just let it happen? This ambiguity brings with it anxiety and different cultures have learnt to deal with this anxiety in different ways.

LTO – Long Term Orientation: The long term orientation dimension is closely related to the teachings of Confucius and can be interpreted as dealing with society's search for virtue, **the extent to which a society shows a pragmatic future-oriented perspective rather than a conventional historical short-term point of view.**

Looking at the results of the results from the key success factors of project management and comparing them with the dimensions of culture proposed by Hofstede, it is crystal clear that all these critical success factors are in a way or the other linked with the dimensions of culture. Narrowing the lenses on the three topmost critical success factors; working atmosphere, team building, objectives and milestone, this assertion is further supported. For example the dimension of power distance is key in determining the work atmosphere; individualism and uncertainty avoidance are key in the team building process; and masculinity and long term orientation are also vital in the setting of objectives and milestones for a project. It is therefore no surprise that this article has chosen to discuss the influence of culture on project management since the top three critical success factors of project management are closely linked with the dimensions of culture.

The social competences of a project manager required for the success of a project is no exception to the influence of culture on project management. All the 15 project management competences are also closely associated with the dimensions of culture. The adjudged most significant social competence; leadership; is determined to a great extent by the cultural dimensions of power distance and individualism. The competence of engagement & motivation are strongly influenced by the dimensions of long term orientation and masculinity whilst the competence of results orientation is determined by the dimensions of long term orientation individualism.

Having established that all these key success factors and competence factors of project management could be influence by culture, it will make sense to assert that project management in any culture will require different set of competences to tailor the project and its implementation projects to suit the culture and to achieve the right results and feedback. The question at this stage is, what are the phases of project management and how can the concept of culture be inculcated in each of the phases?

Phases/Stages of Project Management.

Depending on which author is writing this aspect of the article can be referred to as 'phases of project management' or as the project 'management lifecycle' but essentially the two notions convey the same meaning. Even in the case of the use of the term 'lifecycle' there are two different meanings.

According to the New York State Project Management Guidebook, the project lifecycle describes the tasks that must be completed to produce a product or service whilst the project management lifecycle defines how to manage a project. This means that whilst the project lifecycle might be determined by each project, the project management lifecycle remains the same irrespective of the project life cycle being employed.

According to Pathak [2012], there are different schools of thought when considering a phased approach to project management. Some may claim there are 3 phases to a project while others say it is 5. All in all it is reasonable to adopt the most suitable approach depending on Industry type or project scope. The management of a project is solely based on the basic idea that a project goes through a number a phases characterized by a distinct set of activities or tasks that take the project from conception to conclusion. Projects may be big or small, constrained by cost and time often complex and therefore it is important to take a structured and defined approach to managing them through their entire lifecycle.

The Project Management Methodology Guidebook [2009] is of the opinion that during the lifecycle of any project, proven and tested project management processes or best practices should be initiated. The types and extent of processes initiated depend on the nature of the project, that is, size, probability of failure and consequences of failure. Strong and effective leaders apply processes to protect all projects.

The Project Management Institute [PMI, 2000] provides guidance for project management in the Project Management Body of Knowledge (PMBOK).

Every project has a life cycle, with a beginning, a life and an end (defined by accomplishing the objective).

The division of a project into phases/lifecycles makes it easier to give the project the best direction and the various phases divides the work load into smaller units and components thus making performance monitoring much easier. The generally accepted phases of project range between four (4) and five (5). The first set of phases include; Initiation, definition/planning, execution and closure. This work will be adopting the second set of phases proposed by the New York Project Management Guidebook as; conception, initiation, planning, execution & control and closure. These phases are explained in detail in the following paragraphs.

Project Conception Phase

This phase generally starts with the manifestation of an opportunity or requirement which might be in the interest of a particular organization. This is synonymous to the sight of a business opportunity for an enterprise. This phase should go through certain stages.

The first of such stages is, defining the requirement of opportunity. This in other words refers to the criteria which qualify this concept as a business opportunity. Initially all business opportunities might appear vague but an analysis of the facts available and the challenges associated with the original idea clarifies whether or not the idea qualifies as an opportunity. In this instance, the said organization should be concerned about its performance thus far and the forecast of future scenarios.

The second stage of the conception phase is the preliminary formulation of the alternatives. This stage involves the analysis of the idea presented and how viable it is as the organization's option for investment. The organization also assesses its resource base both material and human to ascertain whether it has the resources required to be able to convert the opportunity into a viable investment.

After the alternatives have been identified, the stage three makes comparative analyses to select the most beneficial and to reject the least attractive. The selection process employs a basic feasibility analysis of each alternative the establishment of criteria that will allow the identification of the most attractive options. At this point, further consideration of the rejected alternative is terminated along with the need to prepare elaborate definitions for them. The cost, schedule, profitability, and other salient advantages and disadvantages of each of the selected alternatives are assessed in terms of order of magnitude. Difference among the options is sought still without establishing precise project parameters.

The dimensions of culture proposed by Hofstede are important during this phase of project management because, this is when the project is conceived. Key question are raised here that is, what idea is available? Which group of people is this idea meant for? What human resources will be required to convert this opportunity? And what amount of resources will have to be committed?

These dimensions of culture allows for the understanding of the group for which this idea is meant thereby shaping the idea to meet their needs, it also helps in determining what resources should be committed to achieving the goal since paying particular attention to the dimensions of power distance, long tern orientation as well as uncertainty avoidance.

A research conducted by Horii et al [2004] on the cultural differences in values and practices between American and Japanese teams came out with the following findings;

Table.1. Summary of cultural differences

		Culture A (American)	Culture J (Japanese)
Practices	Centralization	Decentralized authority	Centralized authority
	Formalization	Medium level formalization	High level formalization
	Organizational hierarchy	Flat level of hierarchy	Multiple levels of hierarchy
Values	Decision Making	Individual decision making	Consensual decision making
	Communication	Individually-based	Group-based

Horii et al [2004]

Value differences are related to national culture [e.g., Hofstede, 1991]. Hofstede's work provides a useful set of dimensions against which value differences can be measured. At the project level, when participants make decisions or coordinate with each other, their behavior is driven by their values. This confirms the fact that if an idea in a conceptual phase were to be assessed in the two cultures, different parameters would be required for success.

Project Initiation Phase

This phase marks the stage where the project is formally started, named and defined at a broad level. This is where the stakeholders of the project as well as its sponsors decide on whether or not to undertake a project or alternatively the choice of one project over another. One of the purposes of this phase is to develop a risk assessment plan for a proposed project as well as assessing the project viability.

The most important issues raised in this phase are who should be responsible for undertaking the project? Why the project (justification)? Is the project feasible or not? Who are the partners of this project? What are the expected results of the project? And what boundaries should guide the activities of the project?

It is important that during this phase participants identify, assess and develop an opportunity with the objective of ascertaining its benefits and how perfectly it fits into the broader organizational picture.

In this phase, the project stakeholders often enter a relationship with each other and in order to prevent the rise of false expectations, it is better to agree on the type of project being started.

The choice for a particular type of project largely influences its results. A project in which a prototype is developed delivers all of the functionalities of an application, but they need not be suitable for use in a particular context. A project that delivers a working product must also consider matters of maintenance, instructions and the operational management of the application.

Many misunderstandings and conflicts may arise because the parties that are involved in a project are not clear on these matters. Customers may expect a working product, while the members of the project team think they are developing a prototype. A sponsor may think that the project will produce a working piece of software, while the members of the project team must first examine whether the idea itself is technically feasible. It is therefore important that the stakeholders of a project understand what exactly the scope of the project is.

The dimensions of culture in this phase are again are very important in that before the manager of the project is chosen, that individual should possess the skills and competences which will allow them realize the project. This is also when objectives are set, and relationships between stakeholders defined. The cultural dimensions of power distance, long term orientation, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance are indispensable in the process in the project will have to be successful. It is important here to understand the cultural dynamics of the stakeholders as well as the targeted group before these decisions are made.

Definition/Planning Phase

This phase of the project management cycle concentrates on providing additional information on the project justification, work scope, estimate & work breakdown structure, detailed designed drawings & specifications, estimates of accuracy, master schedule, key performance indices, delivery method, contracting philosophy/strategy, execution plan as well as identification of key personnel. Modes of communication with stakeholders and risk management planning are also handled in this phase.

The key element in this phase of the project management lifecycle is communication and this is basically because all the agreed decisions will need to be communicated. Here again, the mode of communication is not indifferent when different cultural settings are under considerations. A research by Turner and Muller discovered different preferences for communication by different countries making it yet another prove that if the dimensions of culture are taken into consideration in project management, more results and efficiency can be achieved. It will be highly ineffective to apply inappropriate communication methods to cultures which prefer different communication methods. The following table presents findings from this research.

Table.2. Countries and Project Communication Preferences

Country Group	Preferences
Japan, Taiwan and Brazil	Face-to-face, analytical at milestones
Hungary and Indian	Written status reports, fixed intervals
The Netherlands and Germany	Detailed progress reports, fixed intervals
Australia, United States, Canada, New Zealand, United Kingdom and Sweden	Continuous phone updates with written backup.

Source: Ralf Mueller and Rodney Turner [2004]

Project Execution and Control Phase

According to the Project Management methodology Guidebook, "Project Management is 20% planning and 80% tracking and control. The project manager is like a lifeguard looking for someone to save. The project manager must monitor the project team at all times, because even the best team member can drown. Executing, monitoring and controlling project progress is important to detecting issues, problems and solutions early enough to quickly get the project back on schedule so the objectives are still met. While it is impossible to foresee and plan for every issue, project managers can regulate work as the project progresses, and still deliver a finished product that meets the objectives and requirements laid out in the initiation and planning phases". The purpose of this phase of project management lifecycle is for all the targets set earlier to be achieved within the right results, in the designated time, and within the budgeted cost and materials allocated. In order for all these expectations to be achieved, there is the need for continuous monitoring of the progress of the project.

This phase also deals with measuring the project performance and progression with respect to the project management plan. Scope verification and control check and monitor for scope creep, change control to track and manage changes to project requirement, calculating key performance indicators for cost and time are to measure the degree of variation if any and in which case corrective measures are determined and suggested to keep project on track.

For this execution and control to be done successfully, the feedback will depend on the power distance between the superiors and subordinates as well as the extent to which the stakeholders identify with the objectives of the project and once again the cultural dimensions are indispensable. The cultural orientation of persons working in the project will determine the extent to which they are committed to the objectives or the extent to which the project's objectives are in line with their own aspirations.

Project Closure Phase

During the Closure Phase, all activities are completed and all expectations are finalized. The project sponsor analyzes the project and all testing is completed. It includes a series of important tasks such as making the delivery, relieving resources, reward and recognition to the team members and formal termination of contractors in case they were employed on the project.

Final reviews and documentation are completed and the customer accepts the final project deliverable. The activities of this phase also ensure that best practices are captured and can be shared, and that continuous improvement on both team and personal levels is practiced.

The number of activities covered in this stage include; commissioning &performance testing, completion of deficient items, completion of as-built documentation, project personnel assessment & redeployment, close-out report, handover to operations, conduct post implementation review & lessons learnt, communication of project learning, and archiving of project data.

For projects to be closed peacefully without any form of acrimony, it will be beneficial if the management of this project knew the attitude of their employees to job termination. The culture in which this project operates will once again come in handy to enable the best option be chosen in resolving the operations of the project.

The following table presents a set of International development project management lifecycle phases and the critical success factors required for the successful operation of the project. This in other words is a close related summary of the various phases of project management lifecycle captured above. This was proposed by Kuhang and Moe [2008].

Table.3. The Success Factors for International Development Projects

Life-cycle phase	Critical success factors
Conceptualizing	Clear understanding of project environment by funding and funding and implementing agencies and consultants. Competence of project designers. Effective consultations with primary stakeholders
Planning	Compatibility of development priorities of the key stakeholders. Adequate resources and competencies available to support the project plan. Competencies of project planners. Effective consultation with key stakeholders
Implementing	Compatibility rules and procedures for PM. Continuing supports of stakeholders. Commitment to project goals and objectives. Competence of project management team. Effective consultation with all stakeholders
Closing/completing	Adequate provisions for project closing in the project plan. Competencies of project manager. Effective consultation with key stakeholders
Overall project success	Donor and recipients government have clear policies to sustain project' activities and results. Adequate local capacities are available. There is strong local ownership of the project.

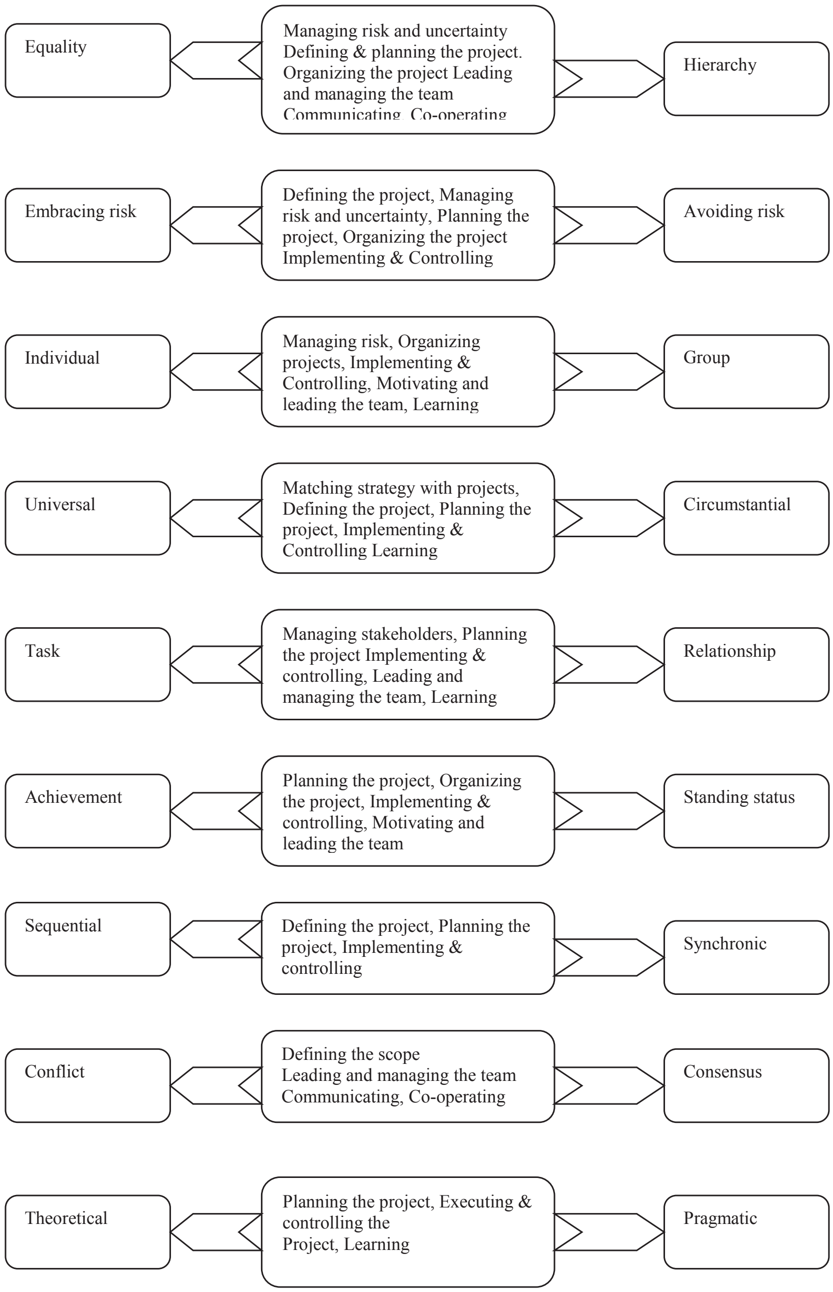
Khang & Moe, [2008]

Source: Koster, Kathrin [2010]

According to Ranf Diana Elena [2010] "Kathrin Koster has selected the most relevant culture dimensions with regard to project management and summarized them in the so-called cultural gap tool. Those are dimensions derived from business practice... it instead highlights the biggest cultural differences between major stakeholders...It also relates cultural differences to the main areas of project management, sensitizing the project manager to potential differences in the behavior of stakeholders in a project management context. Knowing about those potential differences, the project manager can plan for them".

This presents an opportunity for projects implemented in a multicultural environment to be able to find a balance between the various cultural extremes. The managers of the project do not deny the existence of cultural difference but rather they recognize the differences and take cautious steps to manage them.

Figure.3. The Cultural Gap Tool.



Conclusion

In conclusion, Project management as a discipline has development over the years just like enterprises have been developing. It is important to state that there can numerous advantages by dividing an organization's operations into projects but these advantages can turn against the organization if it fails to realize that every human entity has a set of mental programs and values which dictate its behavior. For projects to be fully successful in a society it has to learn about the culture of the society in order to tailor its services and products to the needs of persons living in this society. Even in the case of projects which cut across cultures, it is important to note that indeed there are cultural differences in societies and finding a fine balance for the project's success. The culture gap tool can be extremely helpful in this process.

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Linking diversity management and corporate social responsibility

Abstrac: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is a complex concept which embraces three organizational logics: economical, social and environmental. ADAMPOL, a Polish firm operating in Podlasie region, serves as an example of a company which declares in its documents (like the CSR report) that it has balanced CSR logics. The study contributes with insights to the organizational management of potentially opposing logics in CSR. Managing contradictions of CSR is an ongoing challenge and accomplishment influencing whether ethical, social and business logics collide or reinforce each other. The study shows – on the basis of research findings of a Danish frontrunner firm *DanCo* – that when ethics are framed as means to economic ends, some social responsibilities have a tendency to be disregarded in practice.
Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, logics of responsible management, diversity

Introduction

The aim of CSR is to analyze the interdependent relationships that exist between corporations and economic systems, ecosystems and the societies. The main objectives of this study are: firstly – presenting the conception of CSR from three different perspectives (economical, social and environmental) with main focus on social logics expressed by diversity management of the employees, secondly – showing potential relations among presented logics in the light of organizational theory, and thirdly –presenting the relations between social and economic logics of CSR in one of frontrunner Danish corporation. The scope of the study embraces the management of multiple institutional logics. The method is reviewing the literature in English on CSR and multiple, pluralistic institutional logics and presenting some results of the case study research conducted by the researchers of The Aarhus University on contradictions of corporate social responsibility.

A good number of articles, books, periodicals and papers dedicated to CSR have been published so far. Majority of them discuss different aspects of CSR and present particular actions taken by companies in the frame of the CSR concept. These actions – being in many cases treated as promotional or having in purpose creating a good image – have been usually presented in a way which was not linked with the overall institutional objectives.

Management of the institutional logics

According to the institutional theory's approach, institutions have a central logic. P.H.Thornton and W.Ocasio [1999, p. 804] defined institutional logics as *the socially constructed, historical patterns of material practices, assumptions, values, beliefs, and rules by which individuals produce and reproduce their material subsistence, organize time and space, and provide meaning to their social reality*. According to this definition institutional logics provide a link between individual agency and cognition and socially constructed institutional practices and rule structures. This approach to institutional logics integrates the structural, normative, and symbolic as three necessary and complementary dimensions of institutions. In more practical terms institutional logics are means-end relationships [Boxenbaum E., 2006], that is actions that are considered appropriate to achieve given goals. Coexisting logics can both be opposing and reinforcing, marginalized and submerged. Institutional pluralism is thus a source of coexisting, potentially contradictory logics [Thornton P.H, Ocasio W., 2008]. CSR involves ethical, social and business logics, which can be both reinforcing and conflicting depending on how they are managed and combined in everyday practice or on the character of the institutional environments.

Organizations embedded in environments with conflicts in institutional prescriptions are likely to experience institutional contradictions on an ongoing basis within their everyday working practices, policies and strategies [Pache A.C., Santos F., 2010]. Hence, managing institutional contradictions may in such cases constitute an ongoing organizational challenge and accomplishment. Institutional paradoxes are manifested as potential tensions within everyday interactions of organizational actors as well as in the organizations' interaction with their surroundings. One strategy employed to handle coexisting, yet opposing logics is to separate or 'decouple' formal organizational form from actual practice [Boxenbaum E., Jonsson S., 2008]. Institutional contradictions may potentially threaten organizational coherence and constitute a source of instability, tensions and fragmentation [Kraatz M.S., Block E.S., 2008]. In this way all organizations in heterogeneous environments are compelled to find ways to manage, exploit or resolve the institutional contradictions in which they are embedded by combining or separating, furthering or submerging institutional logics within their work practices, programs and policies.

CSR – social, economical and environmental logics

The conception of corporate social responsibility which seems to be quite modern goes back to the previous times. As early as in the 18^{th} century companies have acted in a socially responsible manner by building houses and schools for their employees and their children. Since the mid of the 1990s political and public debates about social responsibilities of firms have gained renewed force. This development reflects a broader trend to see business and society as interwoven.

Corporate social responsibly is the continuing commitment by business to behave according to the business ethics and contribute to the economic development while improving the quality of life of workforce and their families as well as local community and society at large. CSR is a process with the aim to embrace responsibility for the company's actions and encourage a positive impact through its activities on the environment, consumers, employees, communities and stakeholders. The purpose of CSR is to make corporate business activity and corporate culture sustainable in three logics: economic, social and environmental .

Economical logics of CSR consist of understanding the economic impacts of the company's operations. Economic issues have long been overlooked in the discussion on corporate social responsibility. For many years, the aspect has been widely assumed to be well managed. However, it is actually the least understood and underrepresented by many of those shaping the corporate and public policy agendas. The economic aspects is often mistakenly considered to be synonymous with financial issues. However, the economic responsibility is not simply a matter of companies being financially accountable, recording employment figures and debts in their latest corporate responsibility report. The economic dimension of the sustainability agenda should rather consider the direct and indirect economic impacts that the organization's operations have on the surrounding community and on the company's stakeholders. That is what makes up corporate economic responsibility [Uddin M.B., Hassan M.R., Tarique K.M., 2008, pp.204–205].

Social logics of CSR is the newest of the three dimensions of corporate social responsibility and it is getting more attention than it has previously had. Many organizations are becoming increasingly active in addressing social concerns social responsibility means being accountable for the social effects the company has on people – even indirectly. This includes people within the company, in the supply chain of the company, in the community the company is in and as customers of the company which means the stakeholders. It refers to the management's obligation to make choices and take actions that will contribute to the well fare and interests of the society as well as those of the organization [Uddin M.B., Hassan M.R., Tarique K.M.**,** 2008, pp.205–206].

Environmental logics of CSR is a key pillar of the corporate social responsibility. Environmental and ecological issues have been an important topic of discussion for the past thirty years in the business world – the longest time of the three dimensions corporate social responsibility. The knowledge and issues within the dimensions have progressed across a landscape of changing business realities. Environmental aspects put in place in the 1970s with the first real understanding of the environmental impacts of business [Uddin M.B.,, Hassan M.R., Tarique K.M.**,** 2008, pp.206–208].

Organizations must balance multiple, potentially opposing logics of CSR as an ongoing accomplishment in their intra organizational interactions as well as in interactions with their external environment.

Managing diversity as a social logics

Research on CSR issues focuses mainly on economic and environmental issues. Therefore corporate social responsibility is not a threat to the achievement of economic goals of a corporation; CSR is rather an opportunity and can be the basis of economic development of firms in terms of competitive advantage in the global market. When dealing with the social aspect of CSR, most works focus on philanthropy and volunteering – activities that might contribute to the reputation and public relations, but are not viewed as core business practices. Majority of managers, even those managing CSR and diversity, don't always see the connection between the social aspect of CSR and responsibility for people. Good governance and reputation management are no longer optional for organizations of any size and with that now also comes the management of business practices such as CSR and diversity. Shareholders require companies to behave responsibly and ethically, and companies need to understand how giving back to the community is critical to both the bottom line and to the growth and health of their workforce. Managing CSR should mean managing diversity of the employees. It should embrace diversity of the employees which is in the frame of it. What are the corporate social responsibility issues that need to be managed by organizations which have diverse employees in the workplace? Those organizations need to reply to the following questions:

- Does the company respect all current and potential employees by valuing them for themselves, and avoiding placing artificial barriers or distinctions based on any aspect of the differences between them?
- Does the company apply basic minimum standards – the respect for human rights and dignity – in all countries where it operates and does business?

Although local working conditions may vary depending on the culture and practice of the country concerned, do the core values still apply in how the company responds to these?

Managing diversity is considered to have been one of the most popular HRM strategies of the 1990s, and has since become widely accepted as an important and powerful management tool [Mazur B., 2009, p. 55]. Literature on diversity management emphasizes its two-fold purpose: to identify and correct discriminatory practices in the workplace and to help organizations gain a competitive advantage through the positive effects of diversity on a team and organizational performance. Diversity can make teams more innovative and flexible and in that way increase their productivity, which can in turn be translated into increased overall organizational performance [Cox T., Blake S., 1991, p.47].

Diversity management positively values difference and thus provides a radically new approach to the question of the "different" at work. Managing diversity seems to be a proactive strategy with the aim of maximizing the utilization of employees' potential [Mazur B., 2009, p.56]. The literature on diversity management suggests several economic advantages of diversifying the workforce [Cox T., Blake S., 1991, p. 47]. These advantages include a better understanding of local markets and customers, increased ability to attract and to retain the best people, greater creativity, better problem-solving abilities and greater flexibility. Another argument is that valuing differences enhances people's impression that they are valued for what they are, which in turn leads to higher productivity. These arguments suggest that the diversity perspective justifies the integration of minority groups more on the grounds of economic rather than legal or social reasons.

CSR logics as potentially reinforcing

It has been already said that CSR involves ethical, social and business logics, which can be both reinforcing and conflicting depending on how they are managed and combined in everyday practice. Nowadays many organizations declare successfully managing all CSR logics. They undertake the effective actions in the arena of environmental, social and economic responsibilities. Such actions seem to reinforce each other creating an image of sustainable managing of CSR logics.

ADAMPOL SA – a small firm which operates in the field of international and domestic car transport might serve as an example of such reinforcing CSR logics management. It is situated near Bialystok, the capital city of the Podlasie Voivodship (Poland). Multinational character of the region provided solid background for the creation of distinct systems of values and attitudes, characteristic of representatives of different denominations inhabiting the north-east of Poland. The employees represent mainly two Christian denominations – Catholic and Orthodox – coexisting for centuries in the Podlasie region. For this reason it seemed to be an obvious choice for studying the CSR and diversity management issues. ADAMPOL SA is a business which is continuously learning and applying this knowledge to best management practices of corporate social responsibility management.

In 2012 ADAMPOL SA, a member of UN Global Compact, presented the second report on CSR which shows, the economic, environmental, and social aspects of the company's operations in 2011. Providing innovative technological solutions to customers, the ethical activities of its employees, and a gradual introduction of a green office by limiting the consumption of paper, energy, and water are only some of the activities being undertaken by ADAMPOL SA which belong to the scope of CSR.

For the company, CSR means the implementation of a management strategy in which the company is a participant in community life: *if we wish to achieve market success, we always need to consider the good of our environment. ADAMPOL SA has been respecting the social responsibility principles in its business concept for many years and requires the same from its stakeholders: it supports those customers who heed the ethical aspects of offered goods and services, and those who care about ecology and presenting a good image*.

The CSR team in ADAMPOL SA is responsible for all CSR activities, as well as coordinating the CSR reporting process at the company. All stakeholders may contact this team at: csr@adampolsa.com.pl.

In regard to managing diversity of the employees as a CSR social logics symptom the Vice-president of ADAMPOL SA, when interviewed, agreed that the region is vividly ethnically diverse and he agreed also that *without knowing the religion you are not able to understand the employees of the Podlasie region*. In his opinion each group represents unique mentality. He also confirmed that he noticed different ways of thinking of both groups of their employees in the workplace. He added that *the pluralism of denominations and religions requires knowledge to enable better understanding of all employees at work. Such knowledge is also very useful for a better organizing of the work process which leads to success on the market*. He also added: *Managers should know religious backgrounds of the employees because due to different Christmas and Easter terms they are able to make the work process fluent. Mysticism and rites are more important for Orthodox believers than for Catholics and it should be respected. Orthodox are valuable in our firm because they speak Russian and many of them speak English as well.* Therefore, *they are irreplaceable in business trips both to the West or East*. They have no problems when communicating.

Economic and social logics as opposing in practice

Danish society constitutes a specific sociocultural context for diversity management [Boxenbaum 2006]. During the past two decades, the impact of migrants on Danish society and policies has been a significant issue. For illustrating in what way the CSR logics actually coexist in an organization, the research of one of Denmark's largest and most successful corporations with a solid reputation for CSR engagement was undertaken by two Danish researchers representing Aarhus University [Bjerregaard T., Lauring J., 2013]. They have noticed that the company's Web page *DanCo* states that *Social responsibility is more than a virtue – it is a business imperative*. Accordingly, the *DanCo* management discursively associated CSR with economic, social and ethical logics of doing business. They have also assumed that in this line of thinking CSR was linked to the ability to balance the potentially opposing logics of business and ethics. It was stated that the CSR program was targeted at increasing the employment of talented minority-group members. As explained to one of the researchers by a top manager: *We want to attract and retain qualified employees. That means extending the pool of potential employees to ensure that we use all of the available resources in our increasingly diverse society*' [BjerregaardT., Lauring J, 2013]. A similar statement was expressed on the Web page: *We need to recruit the best people and provide them with equal opportunities to develop and apply their skills*. Accordingly, the ideal of being a socially responsible corporation was closely linked to business strategies.

The department from which they collected data was a business unit dealing with international marketing. This setting provided interesting examples of some of the institutional contradictions inherent in managing CSR: for example when ethics was formally formulated as being economically viable, then some social responsibilities might have a tendency to be disregarded in practice. Hence, social logics might then be submerged by the business logic in the ongoing management of the pluralistic CSR logics [BjerregaardT., Lauring J., 2013].

They used different tools when conducting the *DanCo* research: participants observations, interviews, and documents. The findings of their research showed the contradictions of CSR logics. The management of the department expressed a need for ethnic and cultural diversity to facilitate strategies of international product promotion, pricing, planning of international conferences, sales and market analysis. This meant that, apart from dedication to the logic of social responsibility, the business (economic) logic was strongly present in the recruitment of foreign nationals. As it was stated in a departmental management presentation*: Our employees come from many countries and many cultures, speaking many languages, with many different professional backgrounds.*

Only when we treat all of our employees with respect can we take advantage of the unique and diverse talents that they bring. And only when we treat our employees with dignity can we attract and keep the very best talent [Bjerregaard T., Lauring J., 2013]. Hence, Human Resource (HR) officials and managers were expected to focus on the professional qualifications needed in the different teams in line with the business logic, while simultaneously considering equal opportunities maintaining the ethnic or gender-wise balance in accord with the social logic of CSR. Although it was an important element in the official corporate policy, debating CSR was perceived to be unnecessary. While the general opinion was that equal opportunity policies were not necessary, a number of individuals noted that very few employees really stood out from the crowd. With the exception of a small group of Chinese employees, foreigners generally came from Europe or North America, and very few were dark-skinned or dressed differently. This made some managers consider the possibility that recruitment practices maybe had developed to "*mirror ourselves*". Or as a Danish team member argued: *We claim that we are open, but, anyways, there are some countries and some colors we are not entirely open towards* [Bjerregaard T., Lauring J., 2013]. Accordingly, the practice of including diversity had to balance an efficiency logic and a social responsibility logic with practical implications for the demographic composition of department members. Yet, the two coexisting, potentially opposing logics were managed in the actual practice of HR work by submerging the social logic to the business logic. Rather than embracing both logics simultaneously, the management of the opposing logics was in practice achieved by attending to the business side of the institutional oppositions. In consequence, on a practical level business logics seemed to submerge ethical logics. This way of managing coexisting logics also prevented actual employee diversity.

Conclusions

As presented *DanCo* study proves, it happens that the company in the sphere of declarations and documentation refers to the concept of CSR, being convinced that it realizes it, while in the management practice business logic prevails, placing the realization of economic objectives of the company in the first place. This demonstrates the need for a systematic study of relations between various logics, especially social and economical ones, in business management. This would allow, in the supremacy of one of them, to take action to balance the different logics of CSR in the organization. Only then it will be possible to develop such a comprehensive institutional logic which would balance the responsibility of the company in the social and economic area in the place of the domination of the business logic. A systematic audit would be a mean for achieving this goal. As for the other company – ADAMPOL SA – it seems necessary to conduct a more detailed study, similar in form and content to a Danish company, as only that would allow a final confirmation of balance of CSR logics in its activities. Conducting a study of employees of different levels and different faiths seems to be the most important in this case. Only then will it be possible to put a definitive diagnosis of the relationship – supporting or weakening – the CSR activities in the studied company.

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Crossing the frontiers. Peer coaching and self-managing in the process of the professional development in multicultural environment

Abstract: Our effort focuses on the development of a process of cross-cultural peer coaching through which we have sought to grow as reflective practitioners and strengthen authentic conversations between two individuals, from Poland and the United States. By building a theoretical framework around peer coaching, intercultural interaction, and auto-ethnography we have worked to make explicit our development as educators working to enrich the process of the organizational learning and to make education more open, democratic and human. As Kottler [1997] claims, it is possible to find stages that a tourist goes through during the process of recognizing and knowing another culture that was used to mirror the sensation of the professional growth. The findings shed light on how peer coaching might be strengthened, as well as the development of an observation protocol to structure such reflective and, ultimately, life changing work.
Key words: Peer coaching, professional development, intercultural interactions

Introduction

Starting from the conviction that organizational learning starts with individuals' learning and personal mastery we have tried to describe and to understand the professional development process that we had participated in. This paper describes our effort to develop a process through which we have sought to become mature teachers, develop as reflective practitioners and strengthen authentic conversations between authors: two individuals working at universities in Poland and the United States. By building a theoretical framework around peer coaching, intercultural interaction, and auto-ethnography we have worked to make explicit our development as professors, teachers and educators.

The authors have been involved in a professional dialogue for years. When a chance appeared we agreed to visit each other's classrooms for two semesters and try to help ourselves in the professional growth that eventually should impact also organizations, which we were working for. The basic question for development efforts of individuals within organizations should focus (besides needed competencies) on increasing the feeling of the ownership, belonging and responsibility. Through description of our professional development and analyses of it within the framework of intercultural relations we wanted to present the stages of every professional development initiative (with a special focus on initiatives in multicultural environment).

We want to stress the belief that modern and successful organization should search for ways of supporting the participatory management within its structures and should accept that people are free and it is more important to focus on their potential than on their deficits. We agree that participation is connected to professional development and also arises from balance between responsibility of employees and relations within group. To participate we need to understand the situation and be motivated to be a part of it [Stocki, Prokopowicz, Żmuda, 2008]. Only authentic and critical reflection leads us to that level of professional maturity.

We decided that we will focus on two critical issues. First, our ability to create an open and democratic classroom during our daily practice and second, on our professional dialogue in the form of peer coaching method.

Framework for study's methodology

Peer Coaching

Peer coaching is the process of helping people enhance or improve their performance through reflection on how they apply a specific skill or knowledge [Clifford, Thorpe, 2007]. It is a strategy for educators to consult with one another, to discuss and share teaching practices, to observe classes, to promote collegiality and support, and to help ensure quality teaching for all students. The relationship is built on confidentiality and trust in a non-threatening, secure environment in which they learn and grow together [ASCD, 2007].

It is targeted to meet individual needs [Clifford, Thorpe, 2007]. It is designed to improve teaching through feedback, support, and assistance that allows refining present skills, learning new skills, and/or solving classroom-related problems [Dalton and Moir, 1991]. One of the models describe five functions of successful teachers' peer coaching that we tried to address:

– Companionship: Teachers talk about their successes and failures reducing their sense of isolation;
– Feedback: Teachers give each other objectives, non-evaluative feedback about the way they are executing skills;
– Analysis: Teachers help each other extend their control over a new approach until it is internalized, spontaneous, and flexible;
– Adaptation: Teachers work together to fit a teaching model to the special needs of students in the class; and
– Support: The coach provides whatever support is needed [Showers, 1984].

The process of critical reflection might be inspired and enriched by the discussion with another professional. In that way the process of learning and developing is a process of social construction of meanings and understanding, and in our case the process of constructing knowledge about teaching and learning.

Structure for the coaching process and observation

We agreed that we needed a structure of the peer coaching process in order to focus our attention on the most important issues. We created an observation protocol that tries to document how our behavior influences students' involvement in the classroom. We created an observation sheet that helped us to frame the process of observation, and provided us with notes that could be used to structure debriefing discussions afterwards.

Each peer coaching session began with the peer attending the class in order to collect observations. These observations were focused using a frame centered on a key question of how an instructor's actions worked to involve and engage students in the class. The data collected during observation served as support for the peer coaching discussions. In those discussions we trusted each other what is a crucial factor in the success of peer reflection. Nobody is able to reach for deep and useful insight in a situation in which more important than somebody's personal development is their sense of security and their professional image [York-Barr, *et. all*, 2001, p. 23].

All our coaching sessions created space for analyses on two levels. First, was the procedural level, which allowed us to improve our practice and let us reflect on how we work and how to improve it. Second, was the theoretical level, that inspired us while visiting our classrooms to think about what we were observing in a much broader sense of educational philosophy and the development of democratic educational environments.

Interdisciplinary Reflection

While we were thinking about our experience during these peer coaching activities we came to understand that we could use the metaphor of *tourist*[1] to explain our role in the other person's classroom (reality, culture, world). The sensations that we experienced during visits in each other's classroom were similar to those that we feel when we travel to another land. This similarity brought numerous questions that enriched our peer coaching relationship, about: host and hospitality, responsible traveler, and the images and stereotypes that we look for. It appeared that two semesters of peer coaching allowed us to see ourselves through different lenses, to question our beliefs and habits, to think deeply about the relationship with student, subject and teaching process.

Being aware how multidirectional might be a process of the professional development we tried to implement a multidisciplinary approach in our self-inquiry. To build a sense of multiple perspectives in education we used Kottler's approach to cross-cultural meeting, contact and work. We were trying to refer to that cycle in all our attempts to understand situations in our classrooms and, what is critical here, the dynamic of our relationship as peer coaches. We suggest that these two human activities: travelling and visiting classrooms for coaching purposes are similarly structured and paced.

Stages of Travel

Kottler [1997] described the process of adjustment to another culture during travel[2]. It is possible to find five stages that a tourist goes through during the process of recognizing and knowing another culture. We decided to use it for thinking about us, in our classrooms, as a structure enabling understanding our emotions and behavior:

1. The stage of recognizing. In this moment we are excited and confused. Colors, places, smells, tastes, people, faces, food make us happy and almost unconscious.
2. The stage of irritation. Created by cultural shock, when the new experiences do not cause joy or astonishment but anger and depression what may lead to an emotional crisis and aggression.
3. The stage of adjustment. Negative feelings become weaker and we are able to act according to rules within certain cultures.
4. The stage of reflection. We compare values and beliefs, behaviors and

[1] We understand the controversy around that term but we decided to use it and to think about the person who travels rather than the person who is sent on a "package" tour to a chain hotel in a walled in resort.

[2] The similar issue was a point of discussion in G.V. Doxey: *A Causation Theory of Visitor-Resident Irritants. Methodology and Research Inferences. The Impact of Tourism.* Sixth Annual Conference Proceedings of the Research Association, San Diego 1975, s. 195-198.

customs, usually we have to make a painful evaluation of our own culture. In other words, it is a process of acceptance.

5. The stage of adaptation. If we are in certain cultural frames long enough we are able to reach the stage of adaptation.

We were hoping that the theory and practice of peer coaching enriched by a perspective of the intercultural communication would allow us to take off a pressure from the process of being observed and judged.

Theoretical context and beliefs

To become a teacher it takes much more than to learn how to pass information, introduce new skills or implement appropriate teaching techniques. The process of becoming 'A Teacher' includes a complex process of building understanding of the world, developing respect and awareness of students as human beings, and reflection on individual development. It takes time and courage to open minds and hearts for creating relationships based on mutual recognition.

The professional development of teachers needs to enrich their vision of their role in the classroom and support the conviction that it is crucial for every student to be active and heard [Freire, 2001]. Unfortunately existing practice within formal systems of schooling brings threat and fear into our classroom [Harber, 2004; Palmer, 1998] something that is difficult to overcome with traditional means of school improvement and reforms. We need new kinds of teachers with new approaches to teaching, learning and students. bell hooks [1994] writes about *engaged pedagogy* demanding from teachers involvement in a process of self-actualization that promotes their own well-being, something which enables teaching in a manner that empowers students and allows the experience of education as the practice of freedom [Freire, 2001, Ayers, 2004].

How to build a learning process for teachers that would allow them to notice connections between life practices, habits of being and the roles of educators? Unfortunately the idea of the intellectual questing for a union of mind, body and spirit through education had been replaced with the notion that being a smart and good teacher means being able to survive in the classroom [hooks, 1994].

Teachers need to build respect for the autonomy of the learner [Freire, 2001, p. 59, Shor, 1992] and this respect might be developed through mutual relations with others in an atmosphere of understanding, openness and tolerance. It is extremely difficult to build and maintain this atmosphere especially for those who are "products" of closed and anxious societies governed by hidden rules that hurt numerous "invisible" groups and minorities [Bauman, 2005]. One of the possible directions in the change of teachers' and professors' professional development initiatives might be increasing their peer interactions. Our tendency to reduce teaching to questions of techniques is one reason we lack conversation and professional reflection [Palmer, 1998]. We need to create opportunities for deliberation about critical moments in our lives and in our teaching that will use both: metaphors and real life examples. We need to create opportunities for observing each other's teaching, not only through reports or students' surveys but also by watching other teachers work in classrooms [Day, 2008, p. 165]. We need to create a community of learners that would start a common journey to developing better teachers and trust. Trust ties us together in learning communities [Sztompka, 2007]. Teachers build or diminish the amount of trust in the world. Coming to trust another person is the most fragile of human projects. It requires knowing someone over a period of time and seeing their honesty modeled in their action [Brookfield, 1995].

Findings: searching for things to borrow and lend

By working to debate and define the key evidence of each stage we came to a clearer understanding of each others cultural and classroom context and practices.

Traveling to a Different Land: Entering Another's Classroom

We believed we were working to make our classrooms more democratic what should be visible through: space for multiple perspectives, multiple voices, shared power relationships and focus on the construction of knowledge. Grzegorz began teaching a course on action research and the first class was like meeting a stranger in the foreign country. Maybe it is the same for every teacher everywhere. When we meet our students we are excited and do not know that will happen.

The main concerns about the class at the very beginning were very general in nature. Thanks to the debriefing conversation after class we were able to think about more specific issues. Both approaches: very general, connected to a value system and very specific, connected to the teacher's behavior helped to increase understanding of this that was seen. Our debriefing discussions after class often were echoed in logs.

> *Grzegorz: I left too short time for their introduction. I need to remember about not monopolizing the whole space during the class. It is obvious that they are not sure what to think about me.*

When traveling, the stage of recognition is the first we encounter. This was true for everybody involved in this class and in this process. We became quickly aware that we were going through this stage.

At the same time, John began his "normal" fall schedule of undergraduate classes with students studying to become Social Studies teachers. The first visit and observation in John's class left Grzegorz with the impression of a good climate, friendly relations with students and the idea that everyone in this class is seen and cared about. There were significant differences between John and Grzegorz's class. In John's class participants and the teacher were less concerned about what they participated in, less fear of the unknown. And yet something was similar – only a smaller, identifiable group of students actively participated in the class discussion.

> *John: …The presence of a peer in the classroom does seem to alter what I do. I spent more time on the debriefing than normal (he even said I should have spent more). I do find myself more concerned about my communication when he is here.*

It took a while but we came to realize that Kottler's [1997] stages are a permanent element of almost every human relationship. That although one may go through the whole cycle and adjust to new culture this process inevitably will happen again when there will be conditions for this. Agreeing with this statement leads us to conclusions that every classroom will go through those stages regularly in the spiral of cycles influenced by age, moment of the school year, demographic of the class.

From recognition to irritation

> *Grzegorz: Discussion with students about observations, findings and conclusions was interesting and eye opening. I could see that they understood why I asked them to do it. …***I am not sure how can I help** *in the process of the problem formulation. Now they understand what this is, but it looks that they are overwhelmed.* **I am afraid that I am loosing my contact with them***, because they avoid honest declaration about their struggle.*

During the debriefing session John mentioned how obvious their body language was when Grzegorz talked about their fears – they were silent and withdrawn. It was visible that it is difficult also for Grzegorz – the supportive content and openness in this speech were in opposition to style of the communication. John noticed that Grzegorz was in a different place, standing and speaking with different tone than usual. It was a critical moment. From that point the relationship in this class became easier.

Adjustment and Reflection

In an invisible way through the process of irritation we moved slowly to stage of adjustment and reflection. During conversation with John, Grzegorz found out that John believes that there was a significant problem created by Grzegorz's communication style and intercultural misunderstanding. The peer coaching session raised doubts.

Grzegorz: I am not sure if it is a "real thing" or something created by our conversations. If I would not know it would it be easier or not? I feel that I am going through frustration phase again. I need to do something different in the next class.

Over the course of the semester we did not always agree with each other, we did however raise issues, debate philosophies, argue strategies, furniture, position in the class and yes, even dress. What does it take to create a democratic classroom, with active participants who feel challenged and yet supported in their aim to learn?

The Cycle of Travel begins Again…

A year later, John arrived in Poland. He was nervous. He was aware of his lack of real knowledge about the students' program of study and unsure of what to expect as he proceeded to craft two syllabi for classes at the university. John chose to focus on issues related to school reform in different parts of the world.

John: We worked on education definitions. …I then introduced bell hook's piece. At the end I tried to have a discussion—although there was a lot of silence. I decided to try and see how long the wait time of the group would be. Who would wait whom out? I am not sure who won…

Suddenly, Grzegorz had understood that relationship between John and him had changed direction. He became a host, a person "responsible" for failure or success of John's teaching in Poland and also for well-being of John (and his students too). Everything that was easy to struggle when it was Grzegorz who struggled became difficult when it was John who supposed to overcome: bureaucracy at university, housing arrangements, shopping without knowing language and the most important relations with students.

Irritation

Teaching together and visiting each other's classes created new phenomenon – we were so focused on the practice of our teaching that thinking about it started to be "disturbing". We became aware and self-reflective but also self-oriented, more interested in analyzing ourselves than students' learning.

When we realized that, it struck us in a very unpleasant way – our irritation rose from our own actions. So, we tried to be better teachers through peer coaching and reflection but we lost (for a moment) our students in that process.

Adjustment

After moments of doubts when we saw how deeply we were involved in self-evaluation while loosing sight of student benefits, we moved to the next stage in our teaching – we increased the level of trust we had in them (again).

John: On that day they were really ready. Many had things to read, everybody spoke… The power points were on target and they had synthesized the articles down to their essence. It was clear they had worked…

Grzegorz next spoke and slammed them on presentation style… and not one positive comment… I feel much more appropriate giving comments on drafts and their work in progress.

Grzegorz: When does teaching, understood also as giving feedback, stop? Today I watched John's class presenting their mid-term projects, they did quite good job but their presentations were not the best – all of them had some minor mistakes. When I decided to point some of them John was not glad and this brought this question to me: when does teaching stop? John saw it as irrational criticism coming from Polish culture and tradition.

Adaptation

It was obvious for us that we are more and more confident in our capacity to cooperate and to teach. Moments of potential conflicts, (like different styles of communication with students) did not bring anxiety anymore but rather new perspectives, new contexts of classwork.

John: In the course that we taught together which started later during semester, we had a syllabus in place that we hoped would flow in a conceptual manner from education to globalization to democracy to leadership. First class began by having them 'interview' each other. Their interview sharing was interrupted by Grzegorz asking clarifying questions, pointing out themes and also sharing his impressions. It was interesting to watch that Grzegorz is more aggressive "so, what did you hear, tell us again" appeared to really show that we were listening and wanted them to listen.

Stage of Reflection

One of the most important benefits of our cooperation was the time of common reflection, a luxury that usually teachers do not have in their professional life [Yero, 2002]. This lack of the reflection might be caused by different reasons: deficits of time, preparation and training, awareness or need, understanding of the role of reflection in the development of human beings.

What does it mean to teach? It is learning about others and yourself. It is creating an understanding of points of view, places of departure, different goals and needs, various levels of being here. Teaching is an awareness of the diversity and of the learners' freedom – freedom of choice of the career path, of the course or of the level of participation in the class. Teaching is a process of thinking about others and about us in that way that allows different points of view. The metaphor of playing jazz in a band of the great musicians comes to our minds when we think about good teaching and learning process – we keep the rhythm, we enjoy playing together, we are going with the melody and from time to time we share responsibility – when it is time to do it those musicians who feel like it play a solo, enriching our performance.

Conclusions

Negotiating from Tourist to Member of the Learning Community

Quality of teaching and learning depends on communication styles, teacher student interaction, language issues, moving beyond surface level and more. As we traveled in and out of each other's classrooms and countries we felt again and again these travelers' companions: frustration, recognition, adjustment, reflection and adaptation. Thinking about visits in classroom as about an „exotic" journey helped us to develop more open attitude and approach enabling learning instead of evaluating.

How might we structure such experiences for others? What might be done to achieve the goal of a well constructed, well-developed professional development process for teachers and education for all students? When we think about successful professional development through peer coaching there are few conditions that should be secured for the benefits of the process.

Firstly, peer coaching implies equality. Even when there is a possibility of different experiences or different levels of education all actors involved in the process have to represent honest attitudes and readiness to be treated in the exactly same way.

Secondly, the input of the real work has to be similar on all sides involved of in the process. Collaborative work helps to make it more authentic and rewarding. It cannot be done by someone and used by others.

Thirdly, as educators we need a professional development process to be continuous and ongoing. If we are to improve this process, it must become a habit of mind, more permanent and more ongoing.

Three conditions do not create a closed list of factors enabling teachers' transformation into members of the learning community but may make it more possible. As tourist, through authentic involvement, respect and understanding, might become a valuable member of the local community instead being annoying external visitor, so teacher instead being detached "expert" might share learning experience with all involved.

Reflecting on teaching

We learned a lot about our teaching. It is difficult to describe something that appeared as an emotional, hard to grasp definition, that is flexible as a liquid – our approach to teaching. This process of growing served as one step in a movement toward self-actualization.

We have understood that personal feelings and deep understanding of very personal issues are more important for our teaching (and learning) than technical procedures or methodological tools. We realized that we needed theory as a platform on which we built our teaching not as an abstract idea. We realized that we need methods to check, discuss and criticize them in order to build our personalized approach to teaching. We realized that we needed our peer to hold a mirror for us in which we could see our mistakes, failures and successes and to support us with discussion that deepened the ability to teach.

It is possible to draw a scheme with three areas determining our teaching style, effectiveness and professional development.

First area is an understanding of the teacher's role and aims of teaching. We do not want to tell how it should look, but we are saying that in the process of professional development, using the model of peer coaching, it is inevitable to create a ground that enables peers to discuss these issues. Without understanding of our personal beliefs that exist with our pedagogical assumptions it is impossible to develop and to teach. For us it appeared that we see teaching as guiding others, so we really need to focus our attention on students and the relationship with them. Focusing too much on the act of teaching may, instead, disturb learning.

Second area is our ability to interact with our students, our peers and the world. Interaction means meeting the other and the difference. As teachers we need to be able to do it appropriately – we need to prepare ourselves for dialogue with others even if it is frustrating and not comfortable. Communication styles are different but it does not mean that we cannot communicate. Without that skill, teaching and learning will not happen. For us it was obvious that we are allowed to feel anxiety and frustration, but we were able to transform it into strength. When teachers feel uncomfortable they do what students (who also fear the classroom reality) expect (or what they think students would expect).

Third area is our ability to manage and facilitate the process of learning with different approaches, methods and techniques. We need to be ready to teach every student and to work with every teacher, so our resources in this matter should be really broad. The ability to flexibly use different approaches creates and supports a democratic environment. It is the teacher's responsibility to solve potential problems in cooperation with students and teachers' professional background helps them to do it. This responsibility brings on anxiety, anxiety that might be healed if we work in all three of those areas.

How do we strengthen professional development models such as peer coaching? Our experience over the last two years shows that structured, but contextual models can work. Teachers need to enrich their vision of their role in the classroom as Freire [2001] said and develop classrooms and educational environments where students are active and have voice. Teachers must become more self aware and conscious of their possibilities and responsibility to make educational settings more humane and democratic and less threatening for students [Harber, 2004; Palmer, 1998; bell hooks, 1994]. Our travel allowed us to see more questions than answers. Questions about the value of change, about the quality of education and the quality of teaching as a universal and unique value, and about decision-making process. You cannot be a teacher if you do not ask these questions.

Reflecting on professional development as organizational learning

Every initiative of the professional development brings change, both for participating individuals and their organizations. This is a dynamic process that change work conditions and attitudes of the employees. That process conducted in the multicultural environment demands openness and readiness for constant adjustments of the behaviors and procedures. There are no chances for safe functioning in well-known and stable environment but rather promise of rapid changes of emotions, ideas, decisions and directions but in very creative atmosphere.

The only conditions of success is acceptance of the processes we are going through and securing time for growth while passing the inevitable stages of the development process. Using metaphor of border crossing it is useful to remember that guards are usually slow and very careful in their checking procedures – it is impossible to skip it and jump forward in the line. The same is true in the professional development.

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A Phenomenological Study of Employee Perceptions of Managerial Behaviors as Personal Enactments of Organizational Culture

Abstract: Using a phenomenological methodology, this research study examines the phenomenon of organizational culture through the perceptions of those who experience it. Rather than studying how organizational culture affects organizational behavior and success, the researchers focus on employee perceptions of culture as a consequence of experiences with managerial behaviors as personal enactments of culture. The notion of personal enactments is drawn from the work of Edgar Schein. Schein [1985] has identified three levels of organizational culture: artifacts, values and beliefs. Among artifacts, Schein identifies the personal enactments of organizational values by senior managers as one of the more important.

The researchers derived the data describing these personal enactments from 20 volunteer subjects reporting in self-administered questionnaires their experiences with managerial behaviors. Respondent perceptions are described in their own words, conveying their understandings, feelings, emotions and behaviors. Responses are categorized into units of relevant meaning, organized into clusters of similar meaning and then into themes. From these themes the researchers draw some insights and understanding of how system actors both live and experience culture in an organizational setting.

Key words: organizational culture, managerial behaviors, employee perceptions, organizational phenomenology, organizational ethnography

Introduction

Organizational culture researchers have historically focused their research attention on the macro level of analysis examining how various aspects of culture influence both system success and the behavior of actors in those systems. One research area that has not been addressed is a micro level analysis of how those system actors engage with and experience organizational culture and how those experiences influence their work lives. Also, researchers have become increasingly aware of the need to join the micro and macro levels of analysis to improve our understanding of organizational phenomena [Franklin J. L., 1973, 1975; Likert R., 1961, 1967; Moss-Kanter R., 1983; Mudrack P.E., 1989].

This paper reports on the preliminary results of a qualitative study that addresses that need by examining engagements with organizational culture from the perspective of those engaging with the culture. Examining such a phenomenon requires a methodology that focuses on the cognitive experiences of the organizational actor, denuded of any preconceptions or biases of the researcher. Simply, let the words of the actors describe how they experience organizational culture and how that experience shapes and defines their work life.

Methodology

Among these qualitative methodologies are organizational ethnography and phenomenology. While ethnography is based on data collection through physical presence of the researcher and as such represents his or her perceptions [Eberle T.S. and Maeder C., 2011, p. 54], we have chosen a phenomenology perspective because it explicitly focuses on identifying perceptions that real members of an organization create as they experience a phenomenon in a given situation [Lester S., 1999, p. 1]. Moreover, as Husserl [1970] notes, in phenomenology's purest form, it attempts only to describe and not explain phenomena and consequently is free of researcher influence.

While the authors have adopted a phenomenological approach as their primary research methodology they have adapted to some extent that technique for the purposes of this research project. Specifically, they have altered both the traditional phenomenological interview technique as described by Hycner [1985] for obtaining data and the methodology of categorizing subject perceptions.

Traditionally, a researcher interviews subjects and those interviews are recorded. Recordings are then transcribed and „units of general meaning" and „units of relevant meaning" identified to provide an in depth understanding of the perceptions, thoughts and meanings ascribed to the phenomenon by the subject [Hycner R.H., 1985, pp. 280-290]. Hycner [1985, p. 282] defines units of general meaning as „words, phrases, non-verbal or paralinguistic communications which express a unique and coherent meaning clearly differentiated from that which precedes and follows". Units of relevant meaning are identified by addressing the research question to the units of general meaning to determine whether the subjects' responses illuminate to any extent the research question [Hycner R.H., 1985, p. 284]. These units are then aggregated into clusters comprising units of similar meaning.

In contrast, the authors of this study have employed a written self-report technique requiring subjects to complete an in-depth questionnaire rather than using the traditional interview technique. A quantitative technique, content analysis, was then used to both categorize and quantify in an Excel spreadsheet various subject responses to the phenomenon under study. Lester [1999] explains that a major difficulty in phenomenological research is that large amounts of data are created for analysis. Consequently, he suggests creating some form of database to allow for easier manipulation of the data [Lester S.,1999, p. 2].

Following a traditional phenomenological research approach, the verbatim responses were deconstructed to identify units of general meaning and then units of relevant meaning [Hycner R.H., 1985, pp. 282-286]. These were entered into the database and then organized into clusters for explication. Employing a content analysis technique proved less cumbersome and time consuming for analyzing subject responses than other techniques we explored.

1. The study's self-report survey instrument comprised 10 content questions and eight demographic questions. For the purposes of this preliminary report only two questions that addressed managerial behaviors as a reflection of personal enactment are reported in this paper. The analysis of the entire study will be reported in a future article. The two questions reported in this study are:Please think about your manager and his or her personal behavior on the job. Then describe these behaviors and your thoughts and feelings about them.
2. When you first began your current job, please recall the way you got familiar with (1) how the organization functions; (2) rules of formal and informal relationships among employees; and (3) your new work areas, work duties, tasks, and responsibilities that needed to be accomplished.

Using a codebook, the researchers independently coded the verbatim narratives to the first question as either positive or negative. If there were disagreement as to coding, the researchers would review their findings and work toward consensus. There were no coding disagreements. Each was also coded for having a positive or negative effect on the respondent and whether that effect was cognitive, resulting in new knowledge or understanding; affective, creating feelings and emotions; or behavioral, motivating action. Responses to the second question were categorized simply by calculating frequencies of those identified as agents for information transfer.

Research Question

The purpose of this study was to understand the phenomenon of how organizational actors experience and give meaning to culture as they observe and interact with managerial behaviors. Schein [1985] has identified three levels of culture existing in an organization: artifacts, values and basic assumptions. This paper examines engagements with one dimension of the artifacts level that of managerial behavior or what Schein [1985] refers to as „personal enactment". While Schein uses the phrase „personal enactment" to refer to the behaviors of senior managers that reflect specific aspects of organizational culture [Nelson D.L. and Quick J.C., 2000, p. 533], we also apply the term to managers at the subsystem level of the organization. It is our belief, described in our Competent Culture model [Michalak J.M. and Ristino R.J., 2012], that subsystem cultures have a symbiotic relationship with organizational cultures and that managers, through their behavior, significantly influence either positively or negatively those subsystem cultures.

In addition, as role models managers play an important system function as transmitters of culture to organizational members [Nelson D.L. and Quick J.C., 2000, p. 534], a role that Vygotsky [Trevarthen C., 1988] would describe as „agents of culture." In his pedagogical theories, Vygotsky argued that a child's behavior occurs within the framework of the caregiver's cultural knowledge [Travethern C., 1988]. Just as caregivers transfer cultural knowledge to the child, so managers transfer cultural knowledge to those who work under their supervision. Simply, an agent of culture is any system actor responsible in an organizational domain for controlling information production, access and distribution [Ristino R.J., 2008, p. 60]. Through their personal enactments as agents of culture, managers both reflect and help shape employee perceptions of organizational culture. This leads to our **research question**:

„What are the cultural perceptions and behavioral outcomes of organizational actor experiences with managerial behaviors?"

Sampling Methodology

To address this question, we selected a small group of volunteers to serve as our sample. Neither the size of the sample nor the technique used for recruiting the sample are methodological issues since the validity of data is in the content itself and not a function of either the number of cases examined or of how the cases were selected. In fact, a phenomenological study could involve just one subject and still be considered valid since the results of that study remain true for that individual as sample size is „irrelevant” [Englander, 2012, p. 20].

According to Boyd [2001] between two and 10 participants are more than sufficient for a meaningful phenomenological study while Cresswell [1998, pp. 65 and 113] agrees that 10 should be the upper limit. However, as a minimum, Englander [2012, p. 23] recommends at least three subjects. That number would itself generate a considerable amount of interview data. Experience has shown that when additional cases are added to the study the data becomes redundant and superfluous. However, since our data collection methodology differs from standard phenomenological practice, affecting perhaps negatively the volume of data, we opted to collect self-assessments from 20 subjects to ensure sufficient data for analysis. Furthermore, as Englander notes, a greater number of subjects may give you a „better appreciation of the variation of the phenomenon” [Englander E.M. , 2012, p. 21].

In a phenomenological study the only constraint on subject selection is the requirement that the subject have experience with the phenomenon under study. This required that all volunteers in the study be currently or recently employed. Moreover, since the results of phenomenological studies are not intended to be representative of the population as a whole, nonprobability-sampling techniques are used. Consequently, we chose two well established nonprobability research sampling techniques: convenience and snowball sampling. With convenience or accidental sampling the researcher merely chooses subjects that are easily at hand and that are willing to participate in the study. Snowball sampling uses research subjects to identify or recruit others with similar characteristic or knowledge of the phenomenon to participate in the study [Bailey K. D., 1978, pp. 81-83].

Our convenience sample comprised volunteers from a group of some 60 part-time graduate students at a Central European university, as well as a small number of other graduate students recruited using the snowballing technique. All of the subjects were currently or had recently been employed. Subjects ranged in age from 24 to 37 with 14 female and 6 male. They represented nine countries and were employed at companies ranging in size from between five to 500+ employees. Eight of the companies were international in scope.

Ethics

Both researchers in this study were very sensitive to the ethical requirements involving human subjects. To address ethical concerns, we used informed consent to ensure that all participants were well aware of the purpose of the study and the credentials of the researchers [Bailey K.D., 1978, pp. 384-385]. While we did not administer an Informed Consent Form, we did ensure through an oral presentation that all participants were aware of all of the following:

1. An understanding of the purpose of the study, how it would be conducted, and identification of those who would be administering the survey instrument.
2. A description of the benefits to be obtained from the research for those employed in organizational settings.
3. An offer to answer any questions concerning the procedures at any time.
4. An instruction that participation is purely voluntary and subjects can withdraw from participation at any time during the study without prejudice.
5. A reassurance that the identities of all participants would be kept absolutely confidential and that demographic data would be kept general and non-specific to avoid identifying participants.
6. Explanation of how the results of the research project would be used and made public.

Explicitation of the Data

The term „explicitation" we borrow from Hycner [1999, p. 161] who warns against use of the phrase „data analysis" since „the term (analysis) usually means a „breaking into parts" and therefore often means a loss of the whole phenomenon…[whereas „explicitation" implies an]…investigation of the constituents of a phenomenon while keeping the context of the whole." Consequently, in the explicitation we will avoid analyzing or interpreting what the data is telling us but rather convey the data as explicitly stated by the respondents. We will, however, aggregate and relate that data when relationships are apparent. When we complete the explicitation of data, we will share our observations and thoughts on the results of this study.

Units of Relevant Meaning, Clusters and Themes

Our review of the 20 cases identified 104 units of relevant meaning for Question 1. These were organized into five clusters: (1) Management Style, (2) Communication Style, (3) Personality Traits, (4) Decision Making, and (5) Organizational Climate. This is the step in the phenomenological process that is far more art than science. The cluster with the largest number of units of relevant meaning was Management Style with 46 followed by Organizational Climate with 23, Personality Traits, 19, Communication Style, 12 and, finally, Decision Making, 4.

Naturally, organizing these clusters involved our own judgment and creativity. Coailizzi [1978, p. 59]. explains how the phenomenological researcher is „engaged in something which cannot be precisely delineated, for here he is involved in that ineffable thing known as creative insight". Nevertheless, we believe that most researchers reviewing our data would have arrived at a similar number of like clusters.

Our next step was to see if the clustering of units of relevant meaning led us to some naturally occurring themes. One that immediately appeared was that „Management Style," reflected in both behavior and affect, appears to be the most potent influencer of employee perceptions of managerial behavior. A second theme is the effect that „Management Style," in concert with both „Communication Style" and „Decision Making" informs employee perceptions of „Organizational Climate." The last theme refers to the disturbing finding that negatively viewed managers rarely are identified as being significant transmitters of organizational knowledge to their employees.

While most of the cluster titles are self explanatory, „Organizational Climate" can be interpreted and defined in innumerable ways. So for the sake of clarity we use Moran and Volkwein's [1992, p. 20] broad and inclusive definition for organizational climate:

> *Organizational climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of an organization which distinguishes if from other organizations: and (a) embodies members collective perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as the basis for interpreting the situation; (d) reflects the present norms, values and attitudes of the organization's culture; and, (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior.*

In summary, we view climate as a metaphor for the extent to which an organization is perceived as supportive of its members. It represents the psychological environment of an organization. It is a product both of the organization's culture and the interaction of system actors as they experience that culture. Moran and Volkwein [1992, p. 39] sum up the culture-climate relationship by describing climate as a „created response which an interacting group of individuals, who are informed and constrained by a common organizational culture, make to the demands and contingencies arising in the organization's internal and external environments".

Respondents comments appear to indicate that perceptions of management behavior described in the „Management Style," „Communication Style" and „Decision Making" clusters, influence the state of the organizational climate in their units, resonating either positively or negatively with the organization's culture. Moreover, these perceptions also influence the respondents overall view of the organization's culture as reflected in the organization's climate.

The „Communication Style" cluster is descriptive of the degree to which managers are open to communicating freely with their employees, referred to as two-way communication. It implies a readiness to share information; to listen and be responsive to employee concerns, issues and suggestions; and, as reported in the „Decision Making" cluster, to share power in decisions that influence their work lives.

For example, in Case 2, the manager's leadership style was described as „doesn't like to interact with team members" and the climate characterized as „miscommunication can affect our job satisfaction." In Case 3, the respondent described the manager as always giving „clear and direct instructions" and the climate was described as „felt comfortable working there." In Case 11, the manager was described negatively as „rather emotional" and that „she should be more of a decision-maker." Such relationships among and between clustered units of relevant meaning were consistent throughout the data. In other words, positive perceptions of management behavior were reflected in positive perceptions of organizational climate and negative perceptions of management behavior were similarly reflected in negative perceptions of organizational climate. These findings would not have been possible if we had selected a smaller number of subjects. The size of the study allowed us to see variations in the data that were only apparent with a larger sample size, as Englander noted [2012].

When we examined the Management Behavior Experience (MBE), coded as positive, we see a natural relationship between positive MBE and positive clusters of units of relevant meaning. The data appears to support the intuitive belief that employees have positive experiences with manager behaviors when they view the manager's management style and personality positively. These positive perceptions are framed in comments such as „best manager I ever met," „behavior was ethical," „he generally helps me at every inquiry at work," „patient and caring," „attentive to me," „open attitude," and „well educated and eager to help everyone."

The relationship between „Management Style" and „Personality Traits" is also informative. When you find respondents characterizing managerial behaviors in positive language, such as „charismatic," it was often associated with the respondent reporting positive „Personality Traits," such as „very enthusiastic, caring, and self-confident."

The same also holds true for negative MBE and negative clusters of units of relevant meaning. In fact, of the 20 cases, 11 were coded as negative experiences. Typical negative comments included such phrases as „she does not care for her employees," „most of the time at her office," „doesn't like to interact with team members," „very authoritative," „communication with him was very difficult," „my manager is a hothead," and „unequal treatment of employees."

As agents of culture, managers transfer through their behaviors the organizational culture to members of their work team. This role was addressed in our second question regarding „Knowledge Transference" in the organization. The data generated by this question suggests that when managerial behaviors are viewed as negative, their role as transmitters of knowledge to team members is either greatly diminished or non-existent. In eight of the 11 cases in which employees reported negative management behaviors, respondents did not identify the manager as their source for information about the organization. Instead, most identified either „co-workers," „employee handbook," or „oneself" as the source of information. Similar responses were recorded for transference of knowledge for organizational rules, and job duties and responsibilities.

When it came to discussing specific aspects of culture in responding to question one, such as values and beliefs, respondents only identified one value and only in three of the cases. Only when specifically asked about organizational values, did they respond to the issue of values. However, in cases in which they alluded to values, the one identified was „respect." The term, it should be noted, was used mostly in the context of „respect" for employees. What is interesting to note is that in all cases when „respect" was identified, it was in the context of a positive description of experiences with managerial behaviors. For example, Case 16, in which the respondent reported, „He treats his employees with respect."

Discussion

In reviewing the data, it is apparent that managers play a significant role in influencing employee perceptions of organizational life. It is also apparent, and a bit disconcerting, that so many employee experiences with managerial behaviors tend to be negative. Moreover, it appears that rather than fulfilling one of their most significant organizational roles - transmitting and nurturing organizational culture at the subsystem level - they have abdicated that important role to other sources.

As we read the verbatim comments from the respondents, there is a sense that good managers have an intuitive understanding of how to make connections with people; how to communicate openly and honestly; how to manage and mentor those around them; and how to create a wholesome and uplifting organizational climate. But poor managers, and from this study, too many abound, seem completely lost at sea, unable or unwilling to deal with the turbulence of organizational life. They tend to insulate themselves from their staff, communicate poorly, lead indifferently, and often reflect the very worst image of an organization. These behaviors, no doubt, reflect and help create a culture that can either be supportive or destructive. If a manager is open and engaging with her employees or closed and aloof, what does it communicate to their staffs about the organization's norms, values and beliefs?

The last implication of this study is that in work environments managers can and often do play a significant role in creating a wholesome organizational climate. When that climate is positive and supportive it further nurtures and reinforces organizational culture. When negative, the opposite is true. From our study we can assume that managers, through their specific managerial behaviors, reflect and reify the culture of the organization. If they respect their employees, then employees will see the organization as having respect for them. It is interesting to note, as reported earlier, that only in Cases 3, 16 and 19 did respondents identify a specific value – respect – when commenting on „Management Style." In all those cases the experience with manager behaviors was viewed as positive as was the climate. It is likely that the employee will continue to believe that the organization follows and supports its own values when its managers do. Such employee experiences serve to strengthen organizational climate and culture. In an earlier paper we identified such cultures as competent, having congruency between system and subsystem cultures. This congruency leads to intra-organizational cooperation and effectiveness by creating environments that nurture organizational success [Michalak J.M. and Ristino R.J., 2012].

A Final Observation

Based on the study's results, we posit that senior management can only ensure the competency of its organizational culture by hiring and promoting to management positions only those who have, in author Tom Wolfe's words, *the right stuff*, not only to lead but to believe in and nurture the organization's values and beliefs. This means not only seeking individuals who have the right education, training and experience in management, but who have the right psychological makeup: self-confident, outgoing, engaging, optimistic, communicative, thoughtful, fair and levelheaded. Identifying those with the *right stuff* may be senior management's most important and challenging task of the future.

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International mobility of Polish managers

Abstract: Due to the internationalization of Polish enterprises, it is appropriate to look at the tendency of managers to take up business and compete in the global labor market. The purpose of this article that is of theoretical and empirical character, is, therefore, an attempt to evaluate the mobility of Polish managers, or their willingness to change their place of work outside the home country. The matrix is a theoretical discussion of the importance of mobility for today's corporations. Empiricism refers to the author's own research (these are telephone interviews with 15 managers and two expert opinions) carried out for such this article, and also presented the results of the exploration of other researchers addressing these topics.
Key words: mobility, migration, Polish manager, expatriate

Introduction

The issue of mobility can be found in many areas and disciplines of social sciences (sociology, anthropology, social policy), where mobility is a social notion meaning movement of people. Some authors interchangeably use the terms "spatial mobility" and "migration". [Kawczyńska-Butrym Z., 2009]. Mobility also attracts interest of researchers in management sciences, not only in its sociological meaning [Kowaleski J., 2000; Sienkiewicz Ł., 2009], but is also considered a personality trait [Mendenhall M.E et al., 2011] and criterion for selection of an employee who wants to work in international corporate structures. In the management practice of international companies, mobility is a challenge to their business operations on the global market.

In the last two decades of market economy (a relatively short period with regard to world standards), few Polish managers have had the opportunity to develop their career internationally[1] and gain substantial experience in management. W. Rozłucki [2010] lists two reasons for such situation. Firstly, frequent changes in key positions in Polish companies were a characteristic feature of the transformation period connected with privatization and transformations. Secondly, in line with global trends, the average length of the period of managerial office has reduced. Currently, it is two times shorter than 10 years ago. In addition, shareholders and investors expect immediate results, which sometimes makes it impossible for the managers to prove their skills in a long term**.**

As Polish companies become international, it is a good idea to look into the managerial staff's willingness to take up activities and competition on the global labour market. The aim of this theoretical and empirical article is an attempt to evaluate mobility of Polish managers, i.e. their willingness to go and work abroad. Discussion on the significance of mobility for today's corporations constitutes a theoretical basis for this article. Empiricism relates to the author's own study (interviews with 20 managers and two expert opinions) conducted for the purposes of this article. The results of studies by other researchers on this subject have also been presented.

Importance of mobility in the area of international activity

Spatial mobility or migration means a relatively constant change of one's place of residence in a geographical space [Kawczyńska-Butrym Z., 2009; Kubitsky J., 2012]. It also means willingness to take up work in another place, region or country. The available literature on the subject also distinguishes professional mobility meaning the willingness to change one's profession. Migrations have been known to mankind for ages[2], although they have had various forms over centuries and people have migrated for various reasons. Data of the World Bank on international mobility shows a growing tendency in this area. In 1990, 80 million people all over the world changed their place of residence; in 2005 there were 191 million and in 2010 – almost 214 million [for:Murdoch,2011]. It is worth to mention that the issue of taking up work abroad is composed of various external and internal factors [Przytuła S., 2012, pp.43-58].

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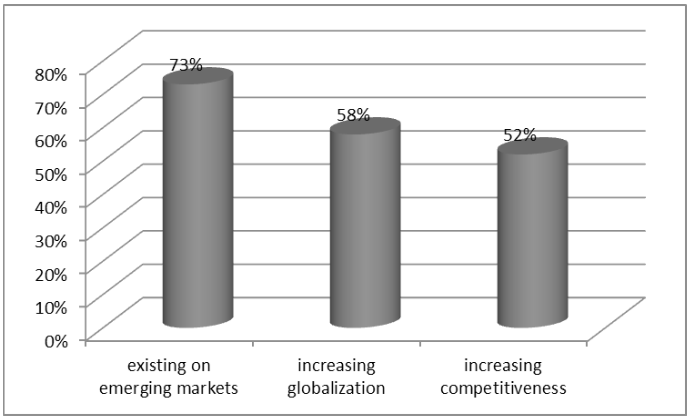
1 L. Czarnecki [2011] points to a dozen or so Polish entrepreneurs who have been active on the Polish and international market for a dozen or so years. What is more, many of them occupy leading positions in the European entrepreneurship rankings.

2 The first migration was expulsion of Adam and Eve from the Garden of Eden. Their migration was a punishment for eating fruit from the tree of knowledge of good and evil. A consequence of this forced migration was knowing good and evil – one of the causes of human personality development [for: Kubitsky J.,2012; Kuc B., Żemigała M., 2010].

The studies by Delloitte company [*Strategic Moves*,2012] show that the three major strategies and challenges that organizations face today are: entering emerging markets, increasing globalization and growing competition (Figure 1).

Figure 1. The most important challenges for global corporations



Source: *[Strategic Moves 2012]*

According to 98% of the respondents, the most effective tool that can be used to face such challenges is global staff mobility. However, the same studies show that only 2% of the largest global companies admit that they use mobility strategy in HR management with success, allowing them to conduct activity in various geographical areas, cultural and business environments [*Strategic Moves*, 2012].

The strategy of HR mobility is connected mainly with identification of some qualifications (understood as psychological qualities, knowledge and skills) of the workers that make them good candidates for work abroad. In the first place, it is about personality traits, such as achievement motivation, openness to cultural diversity (cultural flexibility), stress resistance, cultural empathy and adaptive skills [Rozłucki W., 2010, p.78], as well as mobility, sociability and cultural flexibility [Mendenhall M.E. et al., 2011] and finding out if they affect international career. Results of studies conducted by psychologists on linking personality traits with mobility are quite contradictory. Van Vianen's studies do not confirm the hypothesis that any of the Big Five[3] personality traits affects professional mobility. However, it turns out that the level of neuroticism, agreeableness and openness to experience affects seeking new job to a large extent. Contrary to a popular belief, extravert persons are less willing

[3] Big Five traits: extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism. More in: [Przytuła S., 2009].

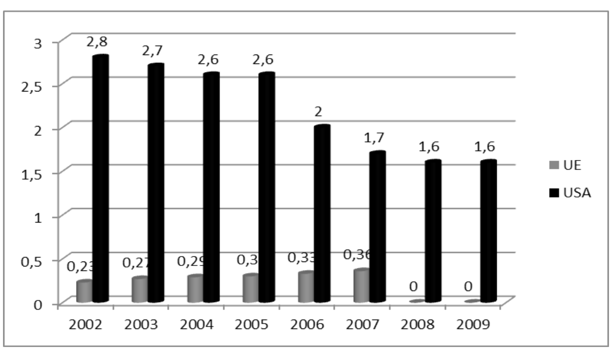
to leave their organizations as they tend to be more satisfied with their work. According to Vinson, the most important predictors of professional mobility include conscientiousness, extraversion and openness to experience.

However, in the opinion of Salgado, turnover is most likely with persons exhibiting lower emotional stability, conscientiousness and agreeableness. Moreover, it turns out that age and sex determine professional mobility to a larger extent than personality. Mobile persons are usually young males [Godlewska-Werner D., 2005, p.593].

Polish companies delegating their managers to foreign subsidiaries took the following qualifications into account: technical and essential competences (80.7%), language competences (71.93%), previous professional achievements (70.18%), experience in work in an intercultural environment (56.14%) and personality traits (50.88%) [Pocztowski A., 2012, p.76].

The level of employee mobility varies from country to country and from one geographic region to another. The studies confirm that the Europeans are much less mobile than the Americans. In the area of spatial mobility in 27 EU countries, the percentage of residents who move between countries is less than 0.5%, whereas in the USA it is three times higher and ca. 1.6% of the population move from one US state to another permanently (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Employee mobility in the UE and in the USA in the years 2002-2009 (in %).



Source: [Bukowski, 2011]

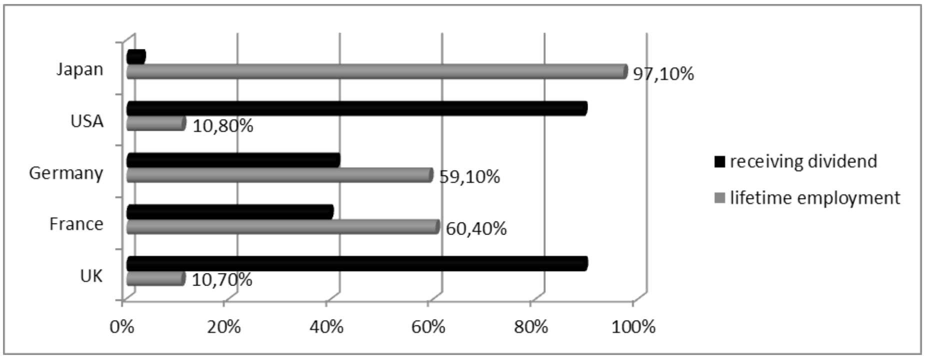
According to the available literature, low mobility in Europe is caused by language and cultural barriers, as well as institutional and legal factors, especially differences in the labour law, social security systems and formal recognition of employee qualifications [Bukowski M., 2011](Figure 2).

Taking into consideration domestic movements as well, only one person in a hundred in Europe moves to another country, whereas most of the European countries have a smaller area than many US states. However, the reasons for mobility in Europe and America are different. According to the American studies, seeking or taking up work in another state is not the main reason for move (only 1/5 of moves), much important are factors related to finding a place to live. In Europe, however, economic factors are prevailing [Bukowski M., 2011].

According to W.Rozłucki [2010, p.79], mobility trends among employees of international companies result from the culture of a given nation, e.g. the Germans and the Poles value stabilization and security. In the USA, bonds with companies are generally weaker, so the willingness to change the place of work is higher, regardless of whether a given manager has already worked abroad or not.

Similar dependency was also noticed by J. Miroński [2004]. For example, the average length of employee service in a Japanese company was 13 years, whereas in the USA, this figure amounted to 3.6 years. Ensuring a long-term employment has become a priority in over 97% of companies in Japan. It is apparent in international comparisons: in France or Germany, this percentage amounted to 60% and in the USA and UK, most of joint-stock companies attached greater importance to payment of dividends than to permanent employment [Przytuła S.,2011, p.98] (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Priorities in international companies



Source: [Miroński, 2004, p.85]

The research by the Public Opinion Research Center (CBOS) [2011] shows that Poles exhibit relatively low professional and spatial mobility (domestically). The percentage of employees who have never changed their employer is one of the higher ones in the EU[4]. On international level, such mobility is rather average – 38% of the respondents is ready to take up work abroad, but it concerns mainly young people [Sienkiewicz Ł, 2009, p.78].

[4] According to the declarations, in the last 10 years, 11% of adult Poles have worked abroad. 1% declare that they are currently employed abroad. [CBOS,2011, p.2].

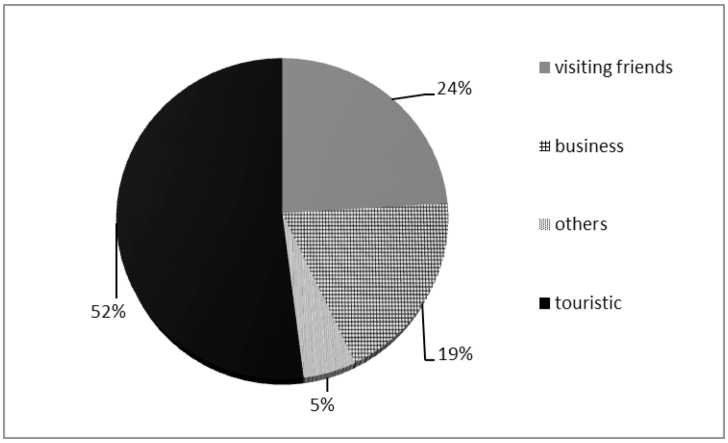
To sum up, it could be said that in the face of internationalization of economic activity, the issue of mobility is becoming a key challenge for international companies, although not many of them can successfully acquire "mobile workers". Therefore, it seems that employee staffing and adjustment of their qualification to job requirements is an important area of personnel function.

Polish companies enter international markets more and more often[5], although the main destinations for Polish foreign investments are located within European countries. From this perspective, it is worth to look into the reasons for geographical migration of the Polish managerial staff able to manage Polish subsidiaries and compete with other managers on the global labor market.

Reasons for taking up work abroad by Polish managers

According to the studies by Intur company, almost 20% of all foreign travels in Poland are business trips (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Motives of going abroad according to Polish citizens in 2010



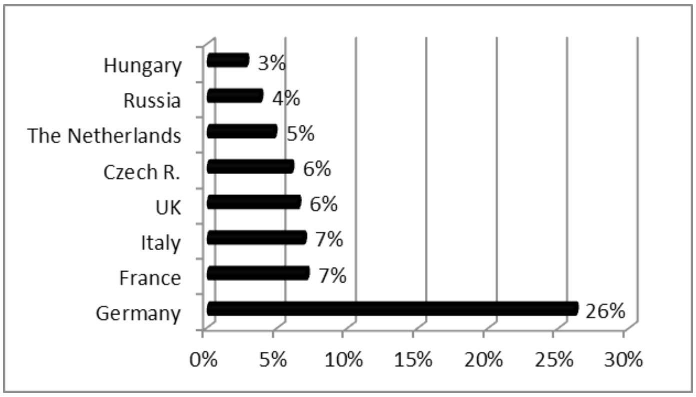
Source:[www.intur.com, 2013]

Countries most frequently visited by Poles for business purposes include Lithuania, Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands. Those are also the main destinations for Polish export and direct investments. The main export partner of Poland is Germany. In 2009, value of Polish export to Germany amounted to USD 35 679 million, making up 26.1% of Polish export. Another key destinations for Polish export include: France (7% of export value), Italy

[5] The report of the Central Statistical Office (GUS) shows that Poland-based companies invested their capital in 96 countries all over the world, http://www.gus.pl

(6.8%), UK (6.8%), the Czech Republic (6.4%), the Netherlands (4.2%), Russia (3.7%), Hungary (2.7%), as well as Sweden, Spain, Ukraine, Belgium, Slovakia, Austria and Norway. Polish export to the above 15 countries makes up 79% of the total value of domestic export [Ageron Polska, 2011] (Figure 5).

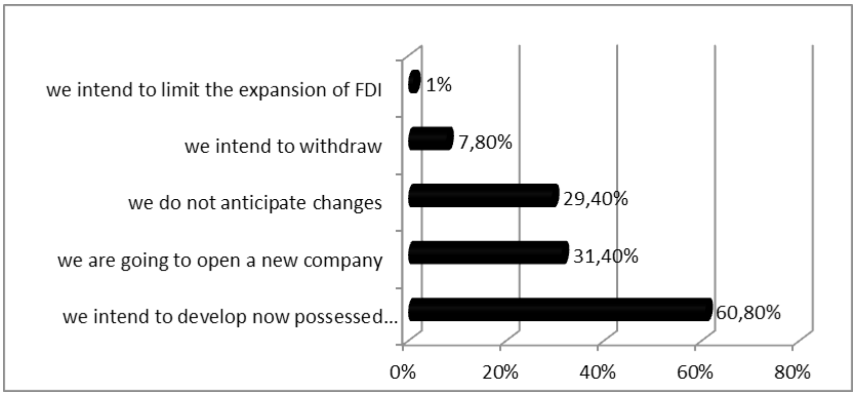
Figure 5. Export partners for Poland



Source: [Ageron Polska, 2011]

The majority of investors participating in the study plan to develop their foreign companies and subsidiaries (61% of the respondents) and many of them also plan to take up new enterprises in the form of foreign direct investments (31%) (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Decisions of Polish investors



Source: [Ageron Polska, 2011]

The main destinations of future foreign expansion in the form of FDIs of Polish companies participating in the study were mainly EU-12 counties, as well as other Central and Eastern Europe countries, whereas the most commonly mentioned countries for investments included Romania and Bulgaria (in the group of EU-12 countries), as well as Ukraine and Russia (in the group of other Central and Eastern Europe countries). Only 1% of the companies planned to limit expansion in the form of FDIs and less than 8% planned to withdraw from such expansion [Karaszewski W. et al, 2010, p.25].

In the studies by A.Pocztowski [2012, p.20], the most common reason for Polish expatriates' assignments was expansion of the companies to new markets (84.21%), transfer of new solutions (50%) control over subsidiaries' activities (45.61%), as well as facilitation of communication between the main office in Poland and subsidiaries.

It can be stated that the main destinations for Polish investments are Eurocentric, although Polish entrepreneurs are becoming more and more expansive each year when it comes to foreign direct investments .

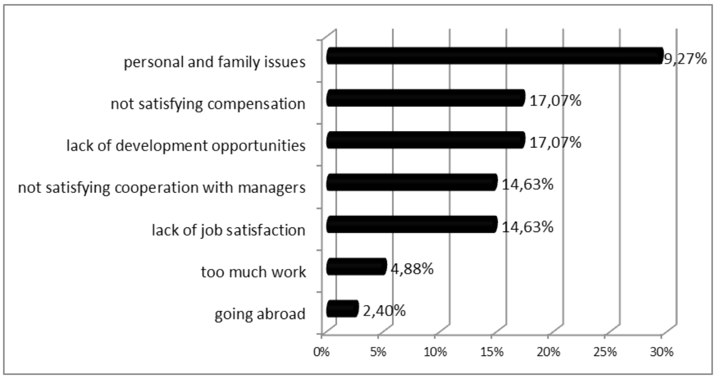
Apart from the above listed reasons for taking up work abroad of external nature (market, costs, supplies), internal motives related to personal development and individual needs of Polish managers should also be mentioned. In other studies [Pocztowski A., 2012, p.22], in the opinion of Polish companies, the most important factor for success in working abroad, was managers' motivation for leaving their home country.

In the poll studies conducted on the group of 65 Polish middle and top managers, the respondents were asked to explain their motives for taking up jobs in foreign subsidiaries. They pointed to higher salaries, opportunity to improve language skills and establish international relations, gaining experience in work with foreigners, a broad range of non-financial benefits and various compensations [Lachiewicz S., 2007].

According to A.Maciejewski and R.Nowakowski [2011], in Poland, there is a group of managers, who can adapt to and feel comfortable in international environment. For them, promotion to the position of a president of a Polish company is less exciting than being a manager in the region of Central and Eastern Europe. They are comfortable with the style of life and work "on the road" even though it entails some limitations.

Studies on staff turnover in Polish companies provide information on the reasons for changing work or workplace. For many persons, the most important was working their way up the career ladder and earning more money by changing their place of work. It should be noted that employees of companies with foreign capital less frequently changed their employer than the employees of domestic companies (Figure 7).

Figure 7. Reasons for changing work of managers



Source: [Grzegorczyk, 2012]

Although the main reason for turnover in non-managerial positions was low salary, in managerial positions, the reasons for changing place of work were completely different [Karaszewski W. et al., 2010] (Figure 7).

In the opinion of experts obtained for the purposes of this article, attractive perspectives outside Poland are fading. Many new business opportunities have appeared on the Polish market and the market itself has become dynamic and full of potential. On the other hand, even high salary for work abroad, taking into consideration higher and higher rates on the domestic market, does not compensate for sacrifices resulting from the decision to go abroad.

There is also a group of managers who go back to their home country after termination of foreign contracts. Many of them are surprised that there are no new, progressive offers or more responsible positions for them utilizing their newly gained experience in their mother companies. They are not overwhelmed by job offers from other companies either. However, it does not mean that there are no attractive job opportunities on the Polish market for managers with international experience. Competences acquired abroad are more universal than those gained in the home country. Such experience can be useful for Polish companies, often large ones and present on the stock exchange, planning to go international.

Mobility of Polish managers – results of studies

The level of mobility of Polish managers was one of the highest among 30 European and non-European countries in 2011 despite the fact that the overall level of mobility of Poles in comparison with other nations is quite low. Results of studies by *Ernst & Young* in 2009-2011 also confirmed high spatial mobility of the so called *C-suits* (CEOs, COOs, CFOs).

Polish presidents and board members find employment in various subsidiaries of international companies in Central and Eastern Europe. They hold a considerably lower amount of such positions in the countries of Western Europe. The reason could be that they have gained managerial experience on the developing Polish market and such experience is especially important and useful on such developing markets . Poles go to subsidiaries of their companies in Russia, Ukraine, the Balkans, China, India or even South America. Sometimes they get promoted in the main office, being sent to one of the countries of Western Europe, rarely USA [Maciejewski A., Nowakowski R.,2011].

According to D.Czarnota [for: Leśniewska Z.,2000], the times when foreigners prevailed in managerial positions in foreign companies are gone – Polish managers are better and better educated, more and more competent and their employment is definitely cheaper, as costs related to renting a house and providing for their family can be omitted.

Similar opinion was expressed by K.Obłój [for: Błaszczak A., 2010] „*Careers of Polish managers are usually about international corporate policies, which have changed dramatically over the last 10-15 years. Global companies, or at least most of them, start sucking out good employees from peripheral markets as those people are usually innovative, creative, bold and not set in conventional patterns. However, political correctness also counts – today, if a global company is creating a management team for Europe, it is customary to have a manager from Eastern Europe in it. Promotion of Poles up to the top level of global corporate ladders could be possible only when a stronger Polish alliance emerged in such companies. A support group must appear consisting of sufficient number of Poles who support one another*".

In the opinion of Polish managers employed in international structures, personality traits of a mobile Polish manager include: openness to changes, resourcefulness in unstable conditions, excellent adaptive skills. Sense of humour and emotional intelligence are minute. In addition, Polish managers stress the importance of very good understanding of practical business and excellent language skills, primarily in English .

A „fly in the ointment" in this positive image are studies by W. Iszkowski, who notices that behaviour of Polish managers still displays many habits and attitudes shaped in the conditions of centrally planned economy [Iszkowski W., 2000].

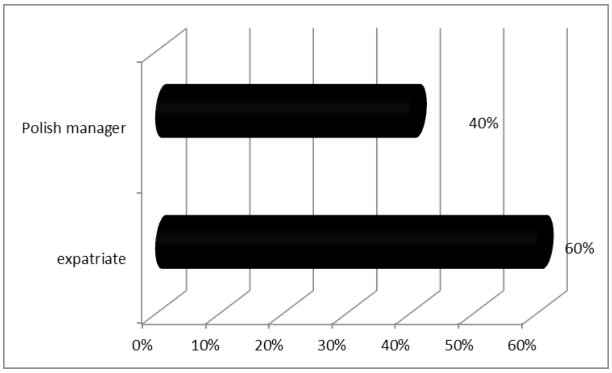
Other qualifications highly valued in international career include international education, impression management skills and ability to cooperate with people from various cultures – a problem for many Polish managers. "*We are not international enough and we rarely participate in international recruitment challenges. It all starts with education that should be international, too. And we usually study in Poland together with other Poles, then get married and work in our home countries. We should study abroad more often*" [*Polski menedżer…*, 2012].

Similar opinion was expressed by an expert in this area of management: „Among from the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (Romania, Hungary or the Czech Republic), Poland adapted to the world of capitalism best. Poles are ambitious, they do not have the „prima-donna complex" (they require much from their employees while working hard as well). Therefore, Polish managers are perceived very well by their Western colleagues. However, Polish managers have some flaws in their professional development, e.g. in the area of impression management or ability to promote themselves and their achievements. They can talk about their activities and tasks in an interesting way, but not about how they achieved them, often after a hard work. Therefore, they wait for promotion to higher corporate positions longer than managers of other nations. This is definitely the weak point of the Polish managerial staff".

Qualifications of Polish managers have been evaluated by B. Kuc i M. Żemigała [2010, p.144]. Less than 20% of Polish managers present high level of cultural intelligence. It presents an image of a manager poorly accustomed to cultural diversity. Although over 90% of them use English and almost a half of them know at least one other foreign language, 90% of managers do not have any contact with other cultures and over 80% of them have experienced cultural clash. The examined group is poorly prepared for taking up activities in global economy. Cultural differences are a problem that can only get worse without a complex education scheme.

The author's own research conducted in the form of 20 interviews with Polish managers employed at Polish subsidiaries of foreign corporations shows that despite good qualifications and substantial managerial experience, they are not appreciated by foreign staff. The top positions in such subsidiaries are held by foreigners (Figure 8):

Figure 8. Who is taking the highest position in Polish subsidiary?

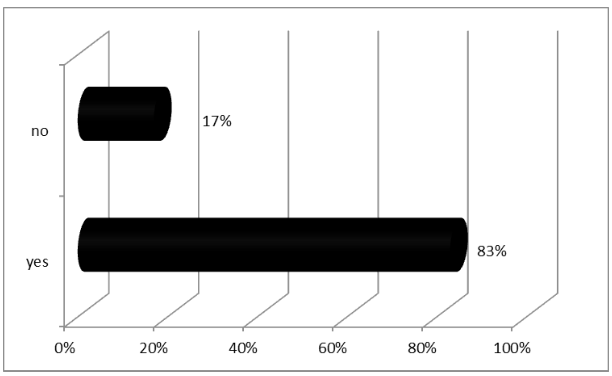


Source: own research

In the opinion of one of the Polish managers of a German production company: "*I have the impression that there are positions that will always be occupied by expats, e.g. plant managers. In France or Italy, our subsidiaries are mature companies operating on a mature (Western) market and local employees are promoted to top positions much faster there. In Poland, the corporation has been operating for 11 years and we still see no Polish successor for the position of president*".

On the other hand, however, as many as 83% of Polish managers admitted that expats are needed in Polish subsidiaries (Figure 9).

Figure 9. Are the expatriates needed in Polish subsidiary?



Source: own research

In their opinions, Polish managers usually pointed to added value brought in by expats in the form of international experience and knowledge:

– „it is worth to know management strategies used in the corporation (*business experience diversity*)",
– „they have experience in work in various countries – sometimes they are our instructors and trainers (*effective experience*)"
– „they facilitate global thinking and implementation of simple processes used all over the world"
– „they allow us to share experiences between company's subsidiaries in the whole world",
– „as they have a network of personal contacts, they make it easier for us to enter international market".

Similar positive opinions on expats were expressed by Polish managers in the study by M. Rozkwitalska [2011, p.173].

According to A. Maciejewski[6], „*expats are necessary in Polish subsidiaries as*

[6] Andrzej Maciejewski's opinion expressed during a telephone interview. A. Maciejewski is a managing director of the Polish subsidiary of international consulting company – Spencer

there are still many areas of competence where we lack suitable groups of managers".

The above mentioned studies show a dual perception of managerial qualifications of Polish management staff. On the one hand, they blame foreigners for their lack of trust in their competences as local staff. On the other hand, however, Poles admit that expats are desired in Polish subsidiaries because of their experience, knowledge and cultural awareness, which actually proves low self-esteem of Polish managers with regard to their own qualifications and competitiveness on international labour market.

Conclusions

- The issue of mobility understood as qualification requirement is a challenge to today's companies entering international market.
- The willingness to take up work abroad by Polish managers depends on a host of external factors (social, cultural and economic), as well as internal factors, related to individual motives and needs of managers.
- Polish managers exhibit mobility on international (European) level, but it is mainly driven by pull factors in the form of Polish foreign investments in various countries, to which managers are delegated.
- Taking managerial positions in foreign companies by Poles is apparent, but not yet common.
- We can see a limited trust of foreign investors and managers in qualifications and experience of Polish staff. The reason could be that market economy has a short history in our country and rich experience in management is therefore limited. Another reason is that Poland has a rather poor image in the world and Poles are perceived as workers. The main conclusion drawn from the existing studies on the image of Poland [Ageron Polska, 2011, pp.24-41] is the lack of a clear and coherent image of Poland abroad. And although our country's image has been gradually improving and perceived not only in the light of negative associations since Poland's accession to the EU, Poland and Polish economy are perceived in a neutral way and on some markets, image and reputation of Poland are negative. Poland is perceived by most of the world as an Eastern country (except our Eastern neighbours, for whom we are a more "Western" country) with relatively high position in the region of Central and Eastern Europe. In a general ranking from 2009, Poland was in the 27th place – between India (26) and Mexico (28) in comparison with 30th place in 2008.

Stuart. He has over 20 years of experience in *executive search* and *expatriate assignments* in the region of Central and Eastern Europe. He is the founder of the Polish Association of Executive Search Consultants (SDP) and a member of the Polish Business Roundtable Club.

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The world coffee sector under conditions of the second wave of the economic recession

Abstract: This article is devoted to research of tendencies and activities of the world coffee market. The author has described factors that influence the conjuncture of the coffee sector. It's been found out that coffee market, comparatively to other markets, had had less impact from the economic recession. Made forecasting global consumption of coffee in 2015/16 harvest year.
Key words: world coffee sector, production, consumption, forecasting, resources, price fluctuations, economic recession.

Introduction

It is difficult to overestimate the value of the coffee market significance for the vast masses since this product has become a usual part of a common diet. Coffee is an important export product for more than 50 countries. Moreover it is of great economic importance for millions of people who directly or indirectly depend on its production and sales as their main means of leaving.

The world coffee sector is quite a specific market and a whole complex of variable factors and causes influence the current economic state and activities in the market thus changing its conjuncture. And the harvest cyclic recurrence that is made conditional on coffee tree production is just one particular example of such factors.

In terms of understanding the trends of the global food market, the problem of food security and stability of agricultural markets is extremely important and relevant.

Based on the foregoing and given the enormous economic importance of coffee, the study of selected issues is highly actual and timely.

Researches of the world coffee market are regularly made by analysts, marketing specialists from different countries as well as by experts from the International Coffee Organization (ICO). The market monitoring data are continually published in the Internet and the press. At the same time the specific actuality of this research is conditioned by necessity of identifying characteristic features and peculiarities of the coffee market functioning within conditions of the current world economic recession.

The aim of this article is a research of the main tendencies of the world coffee market, defining important factors that influence conjuncture of the market most of all, as well as valuation (estimation) of the world financial recession impact on the index numbers of world coffee production and consumption, and set future prospects consumption of the drink.

Results

Coffee beans of hundreds brands are sold around the world. And each brand depending on the location where it was grown differs on taste, aroma, caffeine content and minerals composition. Nevertheless coffee is divided into two main brands, namely Arabica and Robusta. Thanks to long lasting selection the Arabica coffee beans are considered to be a product of higher quality. This sort is more demanding is cultivation and growing. It is grown on higher (from 600 up to 2000 m) comparatively to Robusta (from 0 up to 600 m) altitude above sea level. Arabica is milder, has greater aroma and is better balanced than Robusta. Coffee from a Robusta tree contains more caffeine and has stronger flavour.

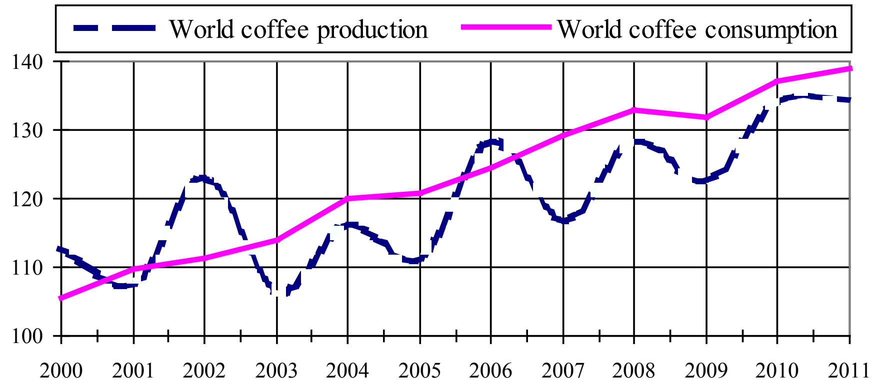
Statistic data as for coffee production on different continents show a dominant role of South America countries where in 2011/12 harvest year some 58 765 thousand bags have been gathered (that is -6,6% comparatively to 2010/2011 harvest year). That means that the main coffee continent produces 43,7% of all coffee beans. Thanks to good harvest in Vietnam and Papua New Guinea and relatively good harvest in India, the Asia and Oceania regions have produced 30,5% of the world coffee harvest (that is 35 956 thousand bags). Mexico and Central America with their result of 19 959 thousand bags are third in the world supplier of the coffee beans (14,8%). The least coffee is produced in Africa. Its part in the world production makes 11,0% or 14 805 thousand bags. Though it should be mentioned that 2011/12 harvest year has not been very successful for African coffee producers – general productivity on the continent has been reduced almost 8,7% in comparison to the previous year.

It is necessary to note that coffee production is a highly concentrated type of activity. The first five producers (Brazil, Vietnam, Indonesia, Columbia and Honduras) provide more than 66,7% of the total coffee production.

According to the data from the International Coffee Organization coffee consumption constantly grows. For instance in 2000/01 people around the world consumed 105,5 million bags of coffee. And ever since then coffee consumption has only been increasing. And in 2008/09 it reached the level of 132,9 million bags which is 20,9% more than it was consumed in 2000/01. We shall note that even the world economic recession could not make a dramatic impact on the coffee market. The consumption was decreased only 1,1 million bags comparatively to the previous year (that is less than 1%) and in 2010 it was already 4% increased. The world leaders in coffee consumption among all countries-consumers in 2011/12 are the USA – 22,0 million bags, Brazil – 19,5 million bags, Germany – 9,4 million bags, Japan – 7,0 million bags and France – 6,0 million bags.

Comparison of coffee world production and consumption from 2000/01 till 2011/12 is illustrated in Graph 1.1.

Graph 1.1. World coffee production and consumption during the period from 2000/01 till 2011/12 harvest years, in million bags. [1, 6, 7]



The research shows that during the last decade there is a clear misbalance between demand and offer. Consequently only in 2000, 2002 and 2006 coffee production was greater than demand. All other years the demand on coffee was greater than the harvest. Even though the average coffee production for the period from 2000 till 2012 harvest years made almost 120,2 million bags and exceeded results of the previous decade this increase was not enough to satisfy the growing world consumption of this drink. The average deficit of coffee production in comparison to its consumption during the period being researched made 3,0 million bags that is 2.2%. In other words the demand on coffee was growing faster and was more stable than its general production that is receives bigger and more and more dramatic impact from the global warming.

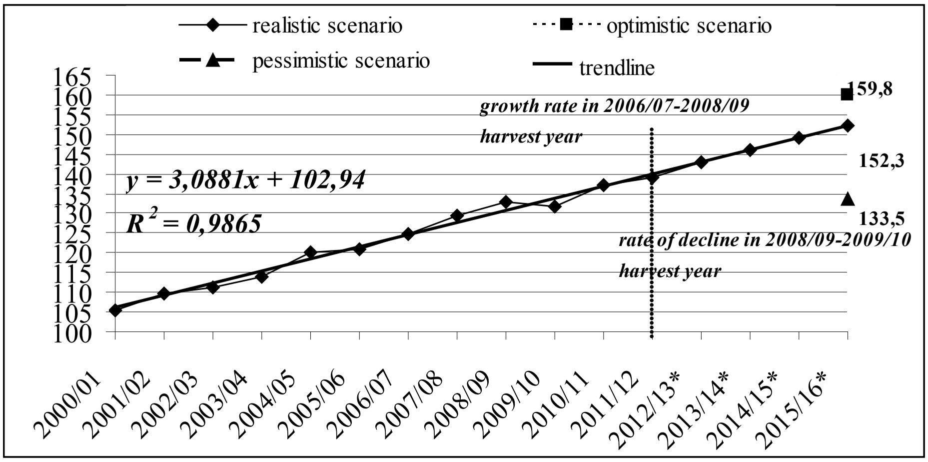
In order to establish the future prospects of coffee consumption in the world, based on existing data consumption of coffee harvest in the last years, with economic and mathematical model, we construct a trend line and calculate the predicted values of consumption of the beverage. At the same time, develop three forecast scenarios, namely realistic, pessimistic, optimistic. Accordingly, we first construct a graph on predictive values of the variable Y. In our case – schedule of coffee consumption according to time. Building a trend line by setting all necessary parameters (number of periods to forecast - four (2015/16 harvest year), title, summary equation of a trend line and coefficient of determination R^2). Note that the coefficient of determination characterizes the degree of closeness trend lines to the original data. It can take values from 0 to 1, and the higher the value, the better the trend line describes the data. This study will use a linear (arithmetic) approximation - a straight line that best describes the data set and is usually used when the data points are close to the line. It is described by the following equation:

Y = kx + b (1.1),

where x – independent variable (our factor – time); k and b – calculated line parameters (parameter k determines the slope of the line; b – point of intersection with the axis Y).

The results forecast consumption of coffee in the world by 2015/16 harvest year are shown in Graph 1.2.

Graph 1.2. Scenarios of world coffee consumption during the period from 2012/13 till 2015/16 harvest years, in million bags.



Own research

Thus, the optimistic scenario, the consumption of coffee in the world in 2015 will reach almost 159.8 million bags, or increase, in comparison with 2011 by 14.5%. In a realistic scenario, the consumption of coffee in 2015 to nearly 13.3 million bags more than the true value of consumption in 2011 and will reach 152.3 million bags. Pessimistic scenario coffee market shows that in 2015 the consumption of this product will be reduced to the level of 133.5 million bags, which is less than in consumption in 2011 by 4.1%.

In our opinion, the consumption of coffee in 2015/16 harvest years will be in the range between optimistic and realistic scenarios, thus, will gravitate to the results of the latter.

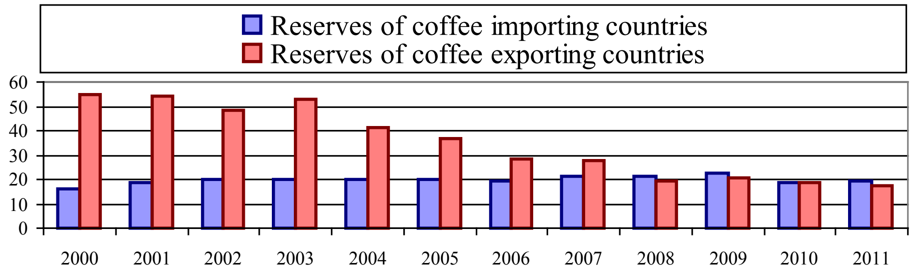
As in any consuming market the index numbers of the available reserves are exceptionally important for its stable functioning. The available reserves to a greater extend define price fluctuations as well as its dynamics on the consumption market. During instable periods they protect both the market and consumers in particular from long lasting and heavy crises of prices.

Taking into consideration the instability of coffee beans production with constantly growing demand the certified reserves play more and more important role in the stability of offer and define the price trend that rules the market.

The sales of coffee in the world are mainly made on FOB (free on board) or CIF (cost, insurance and freight) basis. New York is the world capital of coffee sales. Nevertheless big amounts of coffee are stored in European ports such as London, Amsterdam, Hamburg, Bremen and Rotterdam. Correspondingly the two biggest and most important coffee exchanges are located in New York and London. In New York coffee is measured in pounds (lb), 1 pound = 454 gr and in London it measured in tons of coffee.

Coffee reserves are divided into gross reserves of coffee exporting countries and reserves in traditional coffee importing countries (EU, the USA and Japan). Their general dynamics during 2000-2011 is shown in graph 1.3.

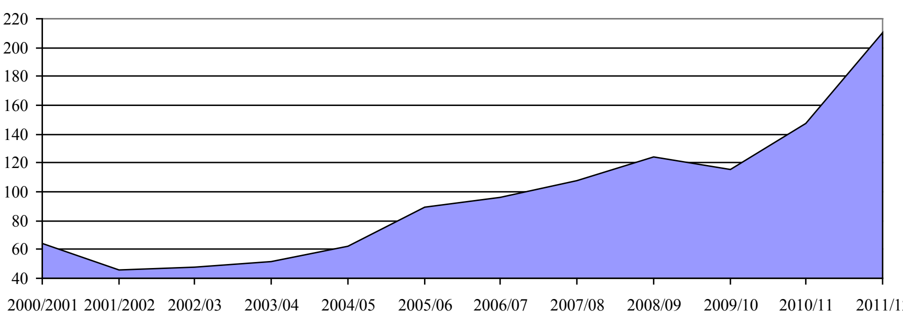
Graph 1.3. World dynamics of coffee reserves fluctuations during 2000 – 2011, in million bags. [16,17]



During the period being researched there is a strong tendency of decreasing the available gross coffee reserves. Thus in 2000 general reserves made 71,1 million bags of coffee, in 2005 they were 57,2 million bags and in 2010 they were reduced to the level of 36,9 million bags which is almost twice less than the same index in 2000. And if in traditional coffee markets the reserves are more or less stable and during the last decade they very between 16,0 and 22,4 million bags of coffee, then in countries that export coffee there has been a dramatic reduction of reserves from 55,0 down to 17,5 million bags of coffee. The fact of the matter is that during the last decade the ratio between the demand and offer was not to the favour of the latter. In other words coffee consumption exceeded the production and it influenced the general level of coffee reserves in exporting countries. In conditions of existing high prices which took place from the end of 2009 till 2011 the exporting countries considerably increased dispatching of expensive coffee beans and thus decreased their own reserves but increased export incomes into their economies. On the contrary during the same period the importing countries due to constantly growing demand on coffee increased their own reserves and starting from 2008 the reserves in traditionally importing countries began to exceed the reserves of the exporting countries.

The research of composite indicator price (ICO) from 2000/2001 till 2011/2012 showed that during that period there was a strong tendency of increasing average annual composite indicator price for coffee beans (Graph 1.4.).

Graph 1.4. Dynamics of average annual composite indicator price for coffee beans during 2000/01 – 2011/12, indicated in US cents per pound of coffee beans. [14]

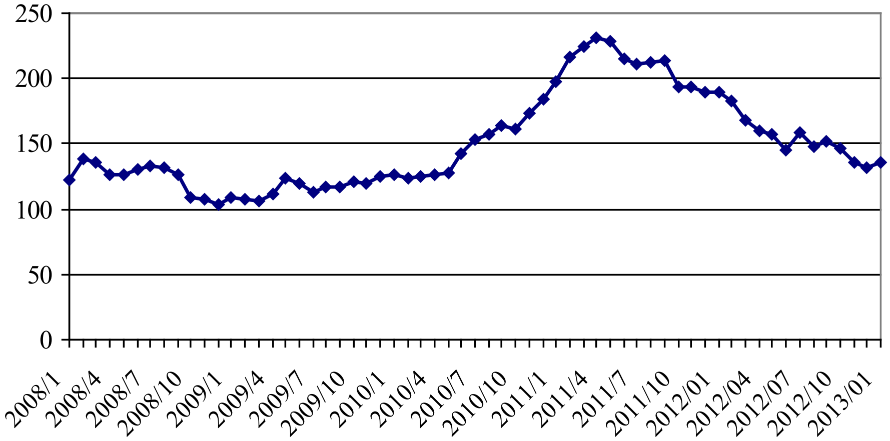


Thus the average annual composite indicator price for coffee in 2001/2002 made 45,59 US cents per pound of coffee beans. And during the following years it has gradually being increased until it reached the point of 124,25 US cents per pound of coffee beans in 2008/09.

Nevertheless at the end of 2007/08 harvest year the world financial recession began. And till the time when the information about the depth of the impact on the world economy by the recession was not made public by the press the prices for coffee continued to grow. However in the second half of 2008 when the next drop-down of the recession began to sharpen and stock markets were considerably being shaking with fever, the coffee market like other sectors reacted with significant decrease of prices in the forth quarter of 2008.

Dynamics of prices fluctuations starting from 2008/09 harvest year and till January 2013 is indicated in graph 1.5.

Graph. 1.5. Dynamics of composite indicator prices from January 2008 till January 2013, in US cents per pound of coffee beans. [14,15]



As shown above the drop-down of average monthly composite indicator prices starting from July 2008 till December 2008 made more than 26%, that is from 131,14 down to 103,7 US cents per pound of coffee beans.

Therefore we can agree with the conclusion of ICO experts regarding the drop-down of prices for coffee beans not being connected to the changes of balance between demand and offer. From our point of view the main reason of such reduction of future contracts popularity as well as total fixing of profits in coffee sector because absorbing recession and credit collapse decreased demand on food staffs and this correspondingly forced investors to withdraw capitals from consuming markets. And consequently the price for the product was corrected.

Experts also indicate the following negative factors which influence the world coffee sector during the economic recession [22]:

– strengthening of US dollar comparatively to the currencies of coffee producing countries;

– decreasing of bank credit expansion that in middle term period will cause reduction of investments into production and possibly influence the total offer of coffee in the market;
– increasing of the inflation rate both in coffee producing and coffee consuming countries.

However in the beginning of 2009 (in January) the coffee market showed sure increase on 5,2% having cut off descending of prices that was indicated in the second half of 2008. Having said so, prices for Columbian and Central American coffee were especially increased (supplies of that coffee had dramatically been influenced by the climatic – long lasting rains – as well as other problems). Information about possible reduction of coffee production in Brazil together with low level of reserves have also played a significant role on ascending price dynamics. In February, comparatively to January, the average price for coffee was decreased down to 0,73%. At the same time price for coffee from Columbia, Central America and India didn't decrease. To the information that had been released earlier in January the additional information that Columbian harvest was hard being hit by the plans of the national federation of coffee producers to renew coffee tree plantations [23].

In general it is necessary to indicate that economic recession made the coffee market in 2009 very resembling to the "Russian rides" due to its high unexpectedness and significant price fluctuations. And even though situation on the coffee market in 2009 was instable and average indicative price during the year was decreased from 124,25 down to 115,67 US cents per pound of coffee beans (that is -7.4%) there was not a considerable fall down of prices for coffee beans. On the contrary in October there was a new price increase. Significant support to the prices was given by the weakening of the US dollar (comparatively to the main world currencies) expected reduction of production in Brazil (due to bad harvest), low transit coffee reserves in 2009/10 which according to the data from the Ministry of the agriculture of the USA were decreased down to 30 year minimum [22] and forecasted stability of the demand on coffee in the world. Therefore in 2010 the upper indicated factors also dominated in the sector and significant price increase that began in March 2010 lasted till April 2011. Beginning from May 2011 the ascending trend was changed to the descending. Being afraid of the second wave of the world recession and taking into consideration depressing news from SU, the coffee market experienced new wave of fixing profit. Nevertheless in the short term perspective of the prerequisites to significant reduction of price so far is not observed because the market situation continues to be favourable for supporting high level of prices. According to the experts opinion we cannot expect significant changes of the prices in the nearest future and the price is somewhere between 130 –

160 US cents per pound of coffee beans. Adverse weather conditions continue to destroy coffee plantations and complicate transportation of gathered coffee beans in many coffee producing countries, thus having negative impact on short term of coffee offer. The world consumption of coffee continues to demonstrate gradual growth. Therefore we observe a common correction of record prices for coffee beans indicators down to adequate current market situation.

Conclusions

Summarizing the survey of the world coffee market we can draw the following conclusions:

1. Statistic data as for coffee production on different continents show a dominant role of South America countries. Also it is necessary to note that coffee production is a highly concentrated type of activity. The first five producers (Brazil, Vietnam, Indonesia, Columbia and Honduras) provide more than 66,7% of the total coffee production.
2. The research shows that during the last decade there is a clear misbalance between demand and offer. The demand on coffee was growing faster and was more stable than its general production that is receives bigger and more and more dramatic impact from the global warming.
3. The consumption of coffee in the world steadily continued to grow. And at the same in spite of the deepest ever since the Great Depression global economic recession, the consumption of this product has not received dramatic drop-down. It is obvious that not the least role in this situation was played by the International Coffee Organization that during almost 50 years actively promotes in the world this drink and propagandizes coffee as essential part of modern life style.
4. The results forecast consumption of coffee in the world by 2015/16 harvest year show that in the optimistic scenario, the global consumption of this product will reach 159,8 million bags, for realistic scenario – 152,3 million bags; pessimistic scenario – 133.5 million bags. But in our opinion, the consumption of coffee in 2015/16 harvest years will be in the range between optimistic and realistic scenarios, thus, will gravitate to the results of the latter.
5. In the modern world the certified reserves play more and more important role in the stability of offer and define the price trend that rules the market. During the period being researched there is a strong tendency of decreasing the available gross coffee reserves. Coffee consumption exceeded the production and it influenced the general level of coffee reserves in exporting countries.
6. The coffee sector comparatively to other markets receives (faces) less impact from economic recession. Thus under the circumstances when the economic

recession began to sharpen, the average composite price for coffee in 2009 was reduced only 7.4% in comparison to the previous year. But at the same time it exceeded the 2007 price by the same 7.4% and correspondingly was higher than all other prices during previous years of the surveyed period of time (that is since 2000).

7. The following sharpening or softening of the situation in the market depends on a number of factors such as coffee productivity, its available reserves and weather conditions as well as ration between demand and offer, interrelations between exporting and importing countries, product prime cost, US dollar exchange rate to the main world currencies or the corresponding scale of recession.
8. Taking into consideration that the increase of prices for coffee beans increases attraction of investments to the coffee sector we can expect that in medium- and long-term perspective the level of prices will face its regular decrease. And coffee production will once again correspond to the demand or might even exceed it.

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Conceptual negotiation metaphors across cultures – research findings from Poland, China, The United States and Great Britain

Abstract: Recent years have seen an explosion of interest in the cultural dimensions of conflict resolution. Books, numerous studies, and courses have offered perspectives on the nature of culture and its complex relationship to the transformation of conflict. This article focuses on metaphors concerning negotiations across cultures. The study attempts to contribute knowledge in the field of cross-cultural studies on language and culture, especially with regards to negotiation metaphors. The article attempts to answer a question how does the usage of metaphors for the process of negotiation differ across cultures.
Key Word Topics: Metaphor; Culture, Negotiation; Conflict resolution, Cognition; Communications

1.Introduction

Studies, such as the famous work of Lakoff and Johnson [1980] have encouraged interest in metaphor. Their findings have led to more thorough examination of the subject in the years since the publication of their now famous *Metaphors We Live By*. Numerous scholars still point out that inadequate attention is being directed towards the examination of metaphor [Corradi Fiumara, 1995]. There is a need to study the linkage of metaphor with culture, and with particular domains. In supporting earlier studies by Borden [1982], Schaff [1973] and Galtung and Nishimura [1983], scholars Kuroda and Suzuki [1989] reiterated the salience of approaching cross cultural studies by focusing on language. In this view, language provides an important glimpse into local cultures, and as metaphor is ever-present in language, it exhibits a great potentiality for mirroring the culture.

Corradi Fiumara [1995] believes that culture can best be communicated through metaphorical language, as "reliance on the literalness of cultural concepts may...conceal the danger of devaluing ... inner experiences..." [p. 2]. Metaphor is credited with passing cultural traditions from one generation to another and is recognized as a means, repository and agent for conditioning cultures.

Culture's impact on business and negotiations is immense. International business requires people to communicate more effectively across cultural and national boundaries. Managers in order to avoid failures need to approach negotiations from the more culturally competent point of view. For the past few decades scholars have explored the ways in which culture influences values, communication styles, and business practices. Today there is a great recognition among scholars and specialists that cultural differences affect all facets of international business. In this divergent and constantly changing environment negotiation is key area in which managers need to improve their expertise, [Loewenstein, Thomson, 2000] especially in intercultural aspects. Even those who never leave their home office have to interact effectively with people from varied backgrounds [Davison, Ward, 1999].

Metaphors become invisible through habitual use and processes that institutionalize the story behind the metaphor. However, they tell a lot about the attitude of the other side. That is why becoming culturally competent requires from negotiators also a deep understanding of metaphors used in the process of conflict resolution. Metaphors pervade the practice of negotiation and related dispute resolution processes and their use varies across cultures.

2.Metaphor

The importance of language and culture in management rests on the view that semantic distinctions reflect different interpretations of reality and normative modes of behavior. Words and especially metaphors are not just interchangeable labels denoting some given, immutable feature of the world but keys opening the door onto different configurations of the world. Metaphors are essential in human communication. They have been used and valued since antiquity. Aristotle himself once commented that "the greatest thing, by far, is to be a master of metaphor. It is the one thing that cannot be learnt; and it is also a sign of genius..." [as cited in Kittay, 1989, p. 1].

They are a key to understanding not only frames and unconscious thinking [Lakoff, Johnson, 1999], but also "regimes of truth" as well as intentions and evaluations [Charteris-Black, 2004]. Metaphors shed light on underlying meanings promising the possibility that negotiators can find out more about what is proposed and wanted and why. They can promote empathetic connection and are a good way to relate to opposing views. Metaphor could be used to shift attention and emphasis. Conceptual metaphors may account for the cognitive and social realities that negotiations are intended to address. When thinking about complicated problems and abstract ideas metaphors are invaluable [Kövecses, 2002]. Most negotiations are quite complex and to describe them negotiators use various metaphors. Metaphors can provide clues to how a negotiator might view the business negotiation.

Currently, there is no single theory that could possibly account for the full origin, evolution and social significance of metaphor. The range of theories currently in vogue are often contradictory. Some theories suggest that metaphor is intrinsic in us, some state that they have developed over time and, thus, are not inborn. The study of metaphor is marked by numerous debates, some of which are still present today. Among these include questions about the dividing line that separates metaphorical from the literal language; the dispute between universally-valid metaphors and culture-specific metaphors; and even questions about the distinction between metaphor and metonymy.

3.Negotiations

"Negotiation" derives from the Latin word negotiare meaning "to do business, trade, deal" and this original commercial sense is retained in many modern languages so that, for instance, *negozio* in Italian is a shop, *negocios* in Spanish is business. In contemporary English "negotiate" evokes a can-do, commercial world in which pragmatic individuals exchange views in order to arrive at a mutually satisfactory arrangement.

Many scholars would date rigorous research in the field of negotiation back to von Neumann and Morgenstern's [Von Neumann, Morgenstern, 1947] classic work on games and economic behavior. From that point many various definitions and approaches were coined. Negotiating can be viewed as coordination in an environment of diverse interests and conflicts [Ahdrich, 2006]. It can be portrayed as a management process of the interrelationship among interests, rights, and power between or among parties. Negotiation refers to a process in which individuals work together to formulate agreements about the issues in dispute. This process assumes that the parties are willing to communicate and to generate offers and counter-offers. Agreement occurs if and only if the offers made are accepted by both of the parties. Regardless of definition, negotiation involves several key components including two or more parties to a negotiation, their interests, their alternatives, the process and the negotiated outcomes.

It's worth stressing that negotiations are the subject of cross-cultural research in cross-cultural management. Intercultural management, as a field of knowledge, provides guidance that can be useful in business practices and enable efficient collaboration between people from different cultures.

Intercultural management deals with the analysis of different types of cross-cultural interactions for example: organizational culture, human resource management, operations and leadership teams multicultural development of cultural competence, expatriate issues, knowledge management, cross-cultural communication, cross-cultural conflict resolution including cross-cultural negotiations.

4.Culture

The belief that a nation possesses certain collective mental characteristics isn't a new concept. In 98 CE Tacitus described the character of ancient German tribes. In the 14th century the great Muslim scholar Ibn Khaldûn described differences between mentalities of nomads and sedentary peoples [Hofstede, McRae, 2004]. Later in the 18th century, many renowned philosophers like Hume or Kant explored the questions of "national character". A lot of progress was done after World War II when the U.S. government asked anthropologists to help understand the way their enemy nations thought.

The role of culture in the world of business has been the subject of various research for at least twenty-five years. Researchers have studied the influence or the impact of national cultures on organizational behavior and the way managers from different cultural backgrounds interact with one another [Adler, 2002].

Cultures is complex and poses many problems of definition and interpretation [Sułkowski, 2009]. One of the most commonly used definitions of culture, being not a complex one at the same time, in the literature on culture, negotiations and business in general has been provided by Geert Hofstede, who was the author of the first major empirical multi-country study of consequences that culture has for the field of management. Hofstede defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another" [Hofstede, 2003].

Culture colours everything we see. It is a set of lenses through which all parties see conflict. Culture is also the medium in which behavioural patterns and values grow and are passed on one generation to the next. It is impossible to leave the cultural lenses at the door to a process. Without perspective and experiences through which we interpret and intuit the way forward, it would be impossible to transform conflicts. Cultural legacy gives people a range of behaviours from which to choose; it gives people a "common sense" of conflict and how to approach it.

Culture is always relevant. If we define culture broadly, that is, including many types and levels of difference, all conflicts are in the end intercultural. This comprehensive definition has the benefit of admitting culture as an element of every conflict analysis, even at the cost of an over-emphasis on cultural factors.

5.Understanding the role of culture in negotiations

It's obvious that different cultural systems produce different negotiating styles and the effects of cross cultural differences on international negotiation are widely acknowledged. There is a substantial empirical evidence that negotiating tendencies differ by culture [Adair, Brett, Okumura, 2001]. These styles are shaped by each nation's culture, history and other factors. Negotiators experience not only differences in language or dress code, but also in different perception of the world definition of business goals and motivation.

Culture influences negotiation in many ways. Firstly through its effects on communications and through their conceptualizations of the process, then through the goals negotiators aim, the means they use, and the expectations they hold of the other side's behavior. Moreover, culture affects the range of strategies and tactics that negotiators develop. In international negotiations people bring to the negotiating table their beliefs, values and expectations. Very often they are unconscious of them. According to these values they interpret, present, judge and communicate. Cultural factors usually complicate and prolong negotiations. However, when properly managed they can lead to increased mutual gains.

All conflicts involve interpersonal interactions that occur in the context of cultures. It must be stressed that the exact influence of culture will differ from person to person as no two individuals from the same country, region, religion, socio-economic class or gender will exhibit the same patterns of cultural behaviours and attitudes.

Culture shapes not only the possibilities for resolution or transformation, but also the naming, interpretation, enactment and course of conflicts. A satisfactory response to conflict in cross-cultural setting requires a sophisticated understanding of culture, and quite an extensive experience across borders.

Lewicki et al. [Lewicki, Saunders, Minton, Barry, 2006] indicate, despite that fact that practitioners and scientists use the word 'culture' differently, they are agreeable that this is the culture that is the vital aspect of international negotiations. Thus cultural differences may influence negotiations in a variety of ways on of them is d*efinition of negotiations*. Metaphors are a perfect tool to understand how particular cultures define and understand negotiations.

6.Metaphor in negotiations – current state of knowledge

Metaphors have always been present in business and economics [Gramm, 1996; McCloskey, 1995; Schneider, 2002; White, Herrera 2003]. According to Boers [2000] typical metaphorical themes in economics are: mechanisms and machines, animals, plants and gardening, health and fitness, fighting and warfare, ships and sailing, and sports.

Many researchers as well as practitioners of management use metaphorical representations of organisations. Some researchers even go so far as to assert that all modelling of organisations uses an implicit metaphor. The role of metaphors within the theory of organisations is cognitive, theoretical and didactic. Metaphors allow us a better understanding of the organisations we are studying.

However, metaphors have long infiltrated the other aspects of business such as workplace conditions, bargaining and negotiation and marketing as well.

Goodwin [1996] documented the extensive use of metaphors in the characterization of services offered. Walters-York [1996], on the other hand, observed the occurrence of metaphors in the sphere of accounting. Metaphors have left a deep imprint in marketing and promotion. Numerous studies have attested to the strong impact of metaphor in furthering sales [Boozer, R., Wyld, D. & J. Grant, 1992].

In the field of workplace performance, numerous researchers have indicated the potentials of metaphors in motivating employees to excel in the disposition of their functions. For instance Phillips [1998] found out that the employment of metaphors can reveal performance limitations, pressure and stress among employees. Studies by Öztel and Hinz [2001] supported the role of metaphors in organizational change.

It has been said that metaphorical language helps in problem definition, strategy formulation, organizational reforms and even the basic act of managing [Suchan, 1995].

Smith [2005] discussed the persistence of metaphors in one of business' primary preoccupations, namely negotiation. Early recognition of metaphors in the course of a deal can bring full awareness of the intentions and implied suggestions of the party sitting on the other side of the negotiation table. With the resultant knowledge of each other's positions, both parties can better explore other options and opportunities for mutual advantage or compromise.

Until now, conflict resolution specialists have dealt with metaphor in a limited way. Typically [26] they have named a metaphor source domain in general terms (e.g. sports) and then given anecdotal examples of language.

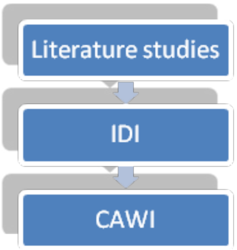
A dispute has been understood in metaphoric terms as a battle, a sport or game, and dispute resolution as cooking, commerce, or sometimes even dancing and gardening. Wilmot and Hocker [Wilmot, Hocker, 2001] discuss sixteen common metaphors that negotiators use to approach conflict or to form a perspective: war, struggle, explosions, court trial, force of nature, animal behavior, messiness, communications breakdown, games, heroic adventure, balancing, bargaining, a tide, a garden, a dance, or as quilt-making. Gelfand and McCusker [Gelfand, McCusker, 2002] cite some of these, enlarging games to include sports and adding theatre/cinema as a source domain. Haynes [1999] discusses war, competitive games, and journey metaphors.

Negotiation can be a game of poker in which players must hold the cards close to the chest. Negotiation can be viewed as football, where a "level playing field" is required; mediators are thus "umpires" or "referees.", or like basketball, where "timeouts" are sometimes taken, or like baseball where parties sometimes play "hardball" [Thornburg, 1995] [Archer, Cohen, 1998].

7.Research methods and findings

The article attempts to answer a question how does the usage of metaphors for the process of negotiation differ across cultures. The research was based on literature studies, IDI and CAWI (Fig. 1). IDIs were conducted from the beginning of May until the end of July 2012 and British sample was added from in July 2013. CAWIs were obtained in July and August 2013.

Figure 1. Research process.



Source: own study.

The main hypothesis of this study is that negotiators from Poland would be more similar to US and British negotiators in defining and understanding negotiation process than to Chinese negotiators.

In the first part of the research process literature studies and IDI served as methods for identifying and defining metaphors for negotiations. 32 IDIs were conducted. 8 with representatives of American culture, 6 with representatives of Chinese culture and 8 with representatives of Polish culture and 9 with representatives of British culture (see Tab. 1).

Table 1. Demographic differences between respondents – IDI

Country	Chinese	American	Polish	British

Sex	4 male	2 female	5 male	3 female	5 male	3 female	5 male	4 female
Age –mean	46	35	34	35	39	37	33	31
Education: Academic degree	4	2	4	3	5	3	5	4
Professional experience in conducting business negotiations in years – mean	15	9	11	13	17	13	8	6

Source: Own study.

Metaphors used for the process of negotiation and their explanations are presented in table 2.

Table 2. Metaphors used for the process of negotiation and their explanations.

Metaphor	Description
War	Negotiation is a process where you either "*win or lose*." In negotiation every move is justified. The other side is suspicious of our motives.
Marathon	Negotiations can be painful. They require time. Success needs time.
Poker	The other party will probably try to cheat us somehow. We have to be vigilant about of the possibility of unethical tactics being employed against us.
Climbing	It's a risky process, that requires a lot of preparation. Sometimes you need to resign at some level. There are many surprises waiting for you during the process, that is why you never go alone and you have to rely on others.
Journey	In this domain, as the term denotes, negotiation process is made akin to that of a journey, where there is a reference or starting point and a destination or end point. On the way there are some 'twists and turns,' sometimes you come across a "stumbling block' and you have to 'clear the way'.

Cooking	Both parties must cooperate and complete one another in order to achieve a goal.
Dance	You must be engaged in it with all your soul. You need to move with grace and flow with the melody line (the external negotiation environment you cannot change).
Sculpting	Like sculptor you need to get rid of many unnecessary layers of information and get to the core.
Golf	In golf you adhere to the rules, you display professional etiquette. From time to time you have to take risks but all the time you have to maintain focus. Trust in relationships is essential. Every shot completed gives you another opportunity to make another one. Negotiators are not in a hurry to get to the end. When the ball is in the hole, there are no more shots. Golf is often a game of luck. A bad bounce here or a good bounce there can sometimes make all of the difference in a round.
Football (soccer)	Metaphorical use of football serves to highlight the stresses of the long negotiations, the highly conflictual confrontations and the strategy to extend deadlines and buy time in the face of the inability to reach a satisfactory agreement that would (temporarily) pacify the conflict.
Playing in a band	Understanding and open communication between parties is crucial. If you want to focus attention on yourself too much you won't reach a goal.

Source: own study.

In the second part, a questionnaire was developed to explore how do respondents from different cultures view and understand the process of negotiation. In total, 261 respondents took part in the online survey. 74 from Poland, 51 from China, 75 from the USA and 61 from Great Britain.

Table 3. Demographic differences between respondents – CAWI

	Poland		**China**		**USA**		**Great Britain**	
Number of respondents	74		51		75		61	
Sex	38 male	36 female	33 Male	18 female	42 male	33 female	33 male	28 female
Age – mean	44	43	45	39	39	36	37	36
Education: Academic degree	37	36	33	17	38	27	32	26
Years of professional experience in business negotiations - mean	26	22	23	15	15	12	14	12

Source: Own study.

Respondents were asked to choose one metaphor that best describes the process of negotiation. Metaphors were selected for the questionnaire on the basis of previously conducted IDIs.

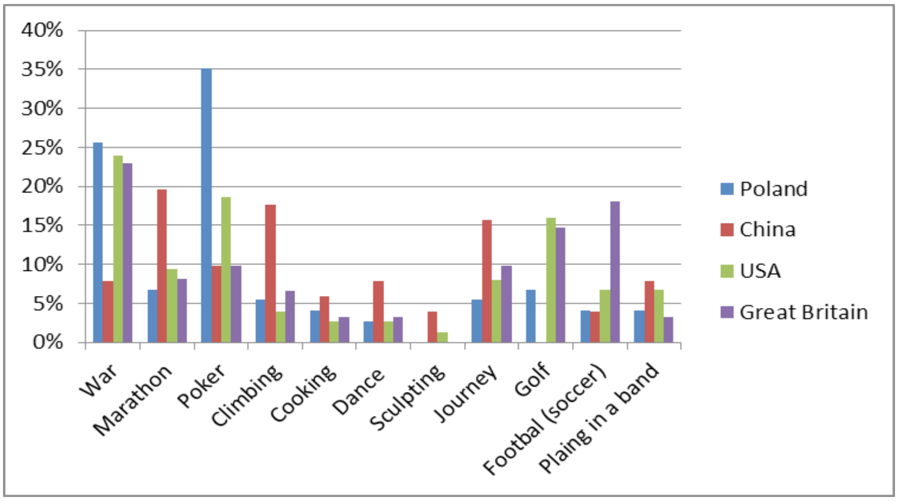
Table 4. Metaphors describing the process of negotiations.

	Poland	China	USA	Great Britain
War	26%	8%	24%	23%
Marathon	7%	20%	9%	8%
Poker	35%	10%	19%	10%
Climbing	5%	18%	4%	7%
Cooking	4%	6%	3%	3%
Dance	3%	8%	3%	3%
Sculpting	0%	4%	1%	0%
Journey	5%	16%	8%	10%
Golf	7%	0%	16%	15%
Footbal (soccer)	4%	4%	7%	18%
Plaing in a band	4%	8%	7%	3%

Source: Own study.

There were few more metaphors found during conducting literature studies but none of the respondents indicated them as relevant. Table 4 presents the results of the questionnaire.

Figure 2. Metaphors describing the process of negotiations.



Source: Own study.

7.Discussion

There is a universal model of the basic procedures of negotiation. However, this impressive consensus on the mechanics of negotiating conceals subtle, yet far-reaching differences in the way basic concepts and moves are interpreted, evaluated, and actualized.

It is clearly visible from the graph that the usage of metaphors for the process of negotiation differs across cultures. It is also visible that some metaphors such as war and sports metaphors are generally more accurate than art metaphors such as dance or sculpting in all of the cultures. The main hypothesis of this study is that negotiators form Poland would be more similar to US and British negotiators in defining and understanding negotiation process than to Chinese negotiators. It is visible that in terms of understanding and referring to the process of negotiation Polish respondents are closer to American and British respondents than to Chinese ones which proves the hypothesis.

The initial categorizations looks as follows: an American negotiator will try to control as much as possible. He is the battlefield commander, calling the shots and bringing the firepower of his intellect to bear on the opposing forces. Chinese negotiator likes to give the appearance of being able to endure any amount of pain to get to the point where he wants to be. Polish negotiator is a poker player, he expects to be cheated at some point, he is very distrustful. However, what do these approaches stem from?

Chinese culture by many researchers [Bond, Hwang, 1986, pp.213-266] [Gabrenya, Latané, Wang, 1983, pp. 368-384] has been categorized as collectivistic. Collectivism is present in many aspects of the negotiations. Both the high degree of collectivism as well as long-term orientation [Hofstede, 2003] are characteristic for Chinese culture. They are a kind of mutual exchange warranty [Williams, Nussbaum, 2001]. The relationship is formed on mutual favours exchanged among the members of the group [Tan, Snell, 2002] [Walder, Li, Treiman, 2000]. Due to Confucianism they become the social norm. The Chinese treat each person differently depending on the relationship prevailing between them. Another important concept which is important here is "guanxi". Studies show that despite the fact that guanxi is culturally and historically "built" in the Chinese way of thinking and acting [Standird, Marshall, 2000] [Wong, Tam, 2000], this concept will change in the near future. Any attempt to do business arrangements without the establishment of an appropriate harmony will be considered rude. Trust and harmony are more important to the Chinese than any document. Until recently, China's property rights did not exist. Not surprisingly, they rely more on trust than rigid contractual arrangements. Another important element here is the concept of "chiku nailao" which translates into hard work and being diligent. Hard work, even in very difficult conditions is for the Chinese ideal of itself. Here where martial arts were born, masters achieved perfection after years of painstaking work and thousands of repetitions of blocks, strikes and kicks. How perseverance and diligence translates into negotiations? Certainly when it comes to preparing for negotiations the Chinese "do their homework" more diligently than their Western counterparts. The second thing is perseverance at the negotiating table. This is what the Chinese will be normal for a European can be a very exhausting experience. Demonstrating patience is a good sign "chiku nailao". Rarely does it happen that the Chinese accept the concessions in the early stages of the negotiations. In addition, they have a huge range of tactics, with an emphasis on the extension of the negotiation process and achieve better agreement. As in China the important role in shaping the contemporary values of Chinese was played by Confucianism, when it comes to the United States it was the set of characteristics of people who settled in the new territory. Colonizers rather quickly joined some of the Anglo-Saxon values of individualism with the lack of formal rules of communication and efficient use of time. Those emigrants who left Europe and came to America, already manifested their individualism through emigration. Besides, they believed in freedom, equality, self-improvement and accountability.

Americans tend to be very meticulous. Relatively quickly threaten to appear in court under threat of penalty. Americans impose a fast pace for conversations. This could pose a serious threat to the provider and can make the he would regret that he agreed to accept some of the wording in the contract given to him by a merchant from America. Are relatively persistent and in the case of failures do not give up. They are aggressive and, at all costs, they seek to win. Furthermore, they consider that every negotiations must result in a particular set. «For the competitive Americans who hate to lose, everything in life is a game you should win»[Kim, 2001, p. 40]. Americans are energetic, expansive and assertive. They are full of faith and optimism. Americans are willing to take risks. The innovation, change and progress are highly valued.

Because of the Polish history, i.e. partition of Poland, two world wars, communist era the country did not have proper conditions to develop international trade and that is why does not have a strong tradition in negotiations. It also explains the fact why Poles tend to be so distrustful about business partners. It is still common to use bribes, kick-backs, or other inducements in Polish business life. Family and friend bonds still play a key role in Polish business culture. When it comes to other elements of negotiations it is suggested that the approach towards the negotiation process itself is rather flexible than systematic or even at time chaotic. Preparation is still a problem among Polish negotiators and they do not attach too much importance to it. Time factor does not seem to be creating much pressure.

In Great Britain there are three prevailing metaphors shaping how negotiation is conceived, two come from sports – football and golf, the third refers to war. The sporting metaphor emerges in such terms as "hole in one", "opening bid", "fair offer", "hold strong cards", "out of bounds", "rules of the game", "kick off", "moving the goalposts" , and so on. This vocabulary reflects a tendency to think of negotiation as a sporting contest governed by set of rules. After a hard fought, but fair game, there is a result and the teams go home. This metaphor makes it difficult to conceive of a negotiation as a life or death confrontation between possibly unscrupulous opponents willing to try every (dirty) trick in the book, and not played by the Queensberry Rules. The British like to be part of a team and like the team to have a companionable atmosphere. Members of a team are expected to take an holistic interest in the negotiation process, rather than confining themselves to their allocated role only. The British place diplomacy firmly before directness and will try to avoid engendering negative emotions in meeting situations etc. and they can misinterpret direct speech as rudeness, aggression and arrogance. Those explain why they need and like rules. There is a proper way to act in most situations and the British are sticklers for adherence to protocol. On the other hand negotiation was often conceptualized as 'war'. hey come to the session armed with the facts, they are ready to shoot down your argument, there are casualties. There are many injuries and, as with most wars, a victor and a loser, or two losers.

Although the literature abounds with the benefits of metaphors in business, some scholars raised the alarm over the possible downsides of using figurative language. Smith [2005] warned of the dangers of the use of metaphors. According to him metaphors tend to highlight certain areas while covering others. Because of the fact that metaphors can reduce analysis of a complex phenomenon to a simple plane, it may cause a party to approve a proposal, while not being made aware of the total picture [Smith, 2005].

8. Limitations

It should be stressed once again that the survey was a pilot study, and the results cannot be generalized. The presented results serve as a starting point for further in-depth research in this area. It is recommended that in order to gain a fuller picture of the issues underlying the findings, both qualitative and quantitative research on a bigger scale should be undertaken.

9.Conclusion

Cross cultural differences can thwart negotiators' plans. It is therefore crucial that they incorporate a cross cultural competence and global thinking approach. With the growth of international business, negotiations have become more complex. Negotiation functions therefore become far more challenging. In addition to the usual professional skills, negotiators should expand their knowledge of world cultures, languages, customs, ways of conducting business. Cultural misunderstandings occur not only when difference is noticed and misinterpreted, but very often when a surface similarity (e.g. in etiquette) obscures significant difference that exist at the deep level. Perhaps treating each negotiation as unique is the key to success.

Cultural competence includes not only knowledge of history, language, verbal or non-verbal behavior, world-views or 'do's and don'ts' but also values, norms etc. Unfortunately, much of such cultural "knowledge" stems from stereotypes or certain simplifications. Too often people attach some positive or negative value and emotional color to them. "People from different countries see, interpret, and evaluate events differently, and consequently act upon them differently" [Adler, 2002, p. 77]. They also use different metaphors to describe the process of negotiation. It is important to understand it because many people spontaneously use metaphor to influence the conflict resolution process. They seem to recognize that metaphor can work quickly and naturally to change thinking about the process.

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