2010

Common experiences of courage among executives associated with merger cultural integration

Jeanette C. Kephart

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

COMMON EXPERIENCES OF COURAGE AMONG EXECUTIVES

ASSOCIATED WITH MERGER CULTURAL INTEGRATION

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Jeanette C. Kephart

July, 2010

Doug Leigh, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Jeanette C. Kephart

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

_____
Doug Leigh, Ph.D., Chairperson

_____
Robert C. Paull, Ph.D.

_____
Diana B. Hiatt-Michael, Ed.D.

                                    _____
                                    Eric R. Hamilton, Ph.D.
                                    Associate Dean

                                    _____
                                    Margaret J. Weber, Ph.D.
                                    Dean

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the man who inspired it, Steve Atkins. Thank you for believing in me and supporting me from beginning to end.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have been blessed to have had many courageous people in my life, each of whom contributed to this effort. My father, John Hough gave me the courage to pursue a doctoral degree. My mother, Annette Tehan gave me the courage to pursue my interests which ultimately led me to the field of Organizational Leadership. My friend, Adam Gottdank gave me the courage to attend Pepperdine University. CMDR Chris Kenefick, my courageous exemplar, inspired me to pursue my passion, the topic of this dissertation. My children, Jennifer and Justin King, John Kephart, and Jerry Kephart gave me the courage to not give up when my educational goals seemed to be unattainable.

I would like to thank the members of my dissertation committee; Doug Leigh, Robert Paull, and Diane Hiatt-Michael. Your staying power and fortitude encouraged me to make the most of my learning experience. I would also like to thank Cooper Woodard and Lt.Col. Christopher Rate, my predecessors in courage research who laid a strong foundation for my discoveries. Thank you for the time and energy you spent sharing your ideas with me. It motivated me to strive toward excellence in my research methodology.

The people whose names I cannot mention are the ones who deserve the real credit for this effort. I cannot begin to say how I feel at this moment in regards to my gratitude and respect for your courageous behavior. You are my heroes!

VITA

Education

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership, July 2010

Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, Los Angeles, CA

Certificate in Dispute Resolution, May 2008

Straus Institute, Pepperdine School of Law, Malibu, CA

Master of Arts in Applied Behavioral Science with emphasis in Consulting and Coaching

in Organizations, December 2001

Bastyr University, Leadership Institute of Seattle, Kenmore, WA

Bachelor of Science in Business Administration with emphasis in International Business,

December 1999, Summa Cum Laude

Columbia College, Marysville, WA

Professional Experience

The Boeing Company

Business Process Analyst

Boeing Information & Technology, Functional Excellence & Compliance – Huntington

Beach, CA (05/10 – Present)

Boeing Information & Technology, Advanced Lean Enterprise – West Hills, CA (04/08 –

05/10)

Boeing Global Services & Support, Supply Chain Management – Mesa, AZ (08/06 –

04/08)

Boeing Integrated Defense Systems, Business Excellence & Integration – Long Beach,

CA (05/05 – 08/06)

Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Research Assistant

Dr. Robert Paull – Los Angeles, CA (08/04 – 05/05)

Edward Jones

Investment Representative

Branch Office – Corona Del Mar, CA (06/02 – 03/03)

The Boeing Company

Business Process Analyst

Boeing Commercial Airplanes, Process Management – Everett, WA (08/01 – 04/02)

Boeing Commercial Airplanes, Process Management – Renton, WA (08/00 – 08/01)

Boeing Commercial Aviation Services – Tukwila, WA (01/00 – 08/01)

Technical Support Specialist

Boeing Commercial Airplanes, Interiors Responsibility Center – Everett, WA (11/97 –
12/99)

Commerce Department, Bureau of the Census

Field Representative

Regional Office – Seattle, WA (09/95 – 03/97)

Regional Office – Los Angeles, CA (10/92 – 08/95)

Elected Offices

School Board Director

Granite Falls Unified School District (1999 – 2001)

ABSTRACT

This study focuses on executives' experiences of courage in conjunction with cultural integration following the merger of two large rival companies. Field research (Kitching, 1967) with top-level executives involved in mergers & acquisitions indicates that successful mergers involve *managers of change* who "catalyze the combination process" (p. 91). Managers are said to be the conduits through which culture is transmitted and become key drivers of cultural integration following an acquisition or merger (Bligh, 2001).

The researcher discusses common experiences of courage reported by executives who experienced cultural integration after a corporate merger in the context of categories and structures of courage. Previous research (Rate, 2007; Woodard, 2004) on the topic of courage suggests that four factors and seven components comprise all experiences of courage. Based on the parameters established by Rate and Woodard, participants demonstrated acts of courage in 31 of the 40 incidents dealing with cultural integration they reported in this study.

The results of this study indicate that cultural integration, a complex process that can take years to complete, is a specific circumstance that involves courageous behavior at work. Cultural blending, in particular, is one step of the cultural integration process that appears to be associated with acts of courage. In this study, all 10 participants' courage experience descriptions associated with cultural blending contained the three required elements of courage identified by Rate (2007); (a) external circumstances, (b) motivation toward excellence, and (c) volition. This seems to suggest that courage is a distinguishing leadership attribute for integration managers who are responsible for

developing the shared understandings necessary to engage companies in the process of cultural blending.

Four groups of cultural integration experiences were discovered based on correlations between courage categories and cultural integration process steps. These groups may represent cultural integration scenarios. Although each participant's cultural integration description contained a different set of cultural integration model factors, there were similarities found within the groups. The detection of patterns in the types of courage that occurred in certain cultural integration process steps suggests that cultural integration scenarios may be useful in determining which categories of courage are necessary for a particular situation involving merger cultural integration.

Chapter 1: The Problem

Introduction

Recent research has focused on the importance of leadership in merger success (Bahde, 2003; Bligh, 2001; Bullock, 2004; Livigni, 2002). This study will explore the leadership quality of courage in conjunction with executives' experiences of cultural integration after a corporate merger in order to identify the common experiences of courage that participants' associated with the process of cultural integration.

This study will focus specifically on a merger that combined two large rival companies. The merger of the companies attracted media attention internationally because of their size, more than 200,000 employees at the time of the merger; and because of their contradictory cultures, the companies are among the firms examined by Collins and Porras (1997) in their book *Built to Last*.

The merger was crafted with the intent of combining the two companies into a conglomerate that could compete effectively in multiple markets. The deal included provisions for the acquired company to maintain control over the business considered to be its primary contribution to the combined corporation and the acquiring company to be in charge of the business considered to be its primary contribution to the combined corporation. After the merger, all of the acquired company's programs in the business controlled by the acquiring company were cancelled. Many of the employees working in the cancelled programs were transferred to sites where the acquiring company's operations were located.

Mergers & Acquisitions

Merger & acquisition failures have been analyzed from several perspectives (Badrtalei & Bates, 2007; Ginter, Duncan, Swayne, & Shelfer, 1992; Levinson, 1970; Marks, 1982; Marks & Mirvis, 1986; Sinetar, 1981). Research indicates that most mergers & acquisitions are unsuccessful because of people issues (Bodam, 2000; Cho, 2003; Davies, 2003; Whittle, 2002). A merger is typically viewed as a negative event by most people involved in the process, particularly by the acquired company's employees (Whittle). Some of the outcomes that result from mergers & acquisitions are lay-offs, job transfers, and reduced benefits. In the face of these kinds of changes, many employees lose hope and cease trusting organizational leaders (Ozag, 2001). A lack of employee commitment can cause mergers & acquisitions to fail.

Kitching's (1967) field research with top-level executives was the first to look at merger & acquisition results. According to Kitching, "the element critical for success is not the potential amount of energy to be released in combining two companies. Rather, it is the existence or absence of *managers of change* – men who catalyze the combination process" (p. 91). These catalysts of change have been referred to as *integration managers* (Ashkenas, DeMonaco, & Francis, 1998; Ashkenas & Francis, 2000; Shrallow, 1985) and *boundary spanning managers* (Aldrich & Herker, 1977; Bahde, 2003; Katz & Tushman, 1983; Spekman, 1979; Tushman, 1977; Tushman & Scanlan, 1981a, 1981b) each with distinct roles in the post-merger integration process.

The results of a recent case study confirm that the success of mergers & acquisitions is largely dependent on managers (Fleischer, 2003). Managers are the conduits through which culture is transmitted and become key drivers of cultural

integration following an acquisition or merger (Bligh, 2001). During the merger &

acquisition process, the cultures of the companies follow one of three paths: (a) cultural

separation, (b) cultural dominance, or (c) cultural blending (Schein, 1999). Each of the

three paths offers a measure of success, but cultural blending is most often attributed to

successful mergers & acquisitions.

Cultural Integration or Blending

Cultural integration (or blending) is the process whereby multiple cultures

assimilate and become a single combined culture (Wolf, 2003). Cultural integration is

necessary to prevent conflict when merged companies start working together

(Shrivastava, 1986) and yet sometimes it is overlooked as a success factor for leaders

involved in the merger & acquisition process (Dixon, 2002).

One of the reasons cultural integration is difficult is that it is a complex process

that can take years to complete (Shrivastava, 1986; Whittle, 2002). "It is influenced by a

variety of partially controllable variables, such as the firm's environment, technology,

and size. Top management values, and social and cultural norms also play a strong role"

(Shrivastava, p. 67). In essence, cultural integration is the combining of two identities

into a single identity that contains elements of both.

Courage

The qualities of effective leaders can vary greatly depending on such things as

gender, organizational responsibilities, and the nature of the industry (Greenberg &

Sweeney, 2005; Johnson, 2005; Segil, 2005). Some leadership qualities are considered to

be more important than others when it comes to organizational effectiveness. Discussions

about courage in the workplace have begun to emerge in recent years (Berstene, 2004;

Byrne, 2004; Deutschman, 2004; Farson & Keyes, 2002; Furnham, 2002; Goldsmith,

2007; Harvey, 2002; Jentz & Murphy, 2005; Klein & Napier, 2001; Lanphear, 2003;

Lawford, 2002; Marques, 2008; Salter, 2004; Sekerka, & Begozzi, 2007; Smith,

Simpson, & Huang, 2007; Spargo, 2004; Walston, 2003). One author (Reardon, 2007)

suggests that; "In business, courageous action is really a special kind of calculated risk

taking" (p. 60). Furnham (2002) believes that business courage is not that different from

battle courage and identifies three types of business courage necessary for managing

change: (a) the courage to fail, (b) interpersonal courage, and (c) moral courage.

Courage has been linked to organizational change and identified as an important

quality of leaders who effectively manage transformational change (Anderson, 2000;

Aprigliano, 1999; Gibson, 2003; Johnson, 2007; Levine, 2000; Raelin & Raelin, 2006;

Tushman, Newman, & Romanelli, 1986; Ulrich, Kerr, & Ashkenas, 2002). The

slowdown in earnings growth in the late 1990s resulted in record level mergers &

acquisitions (Byrnes, 1998). The experience of cultural integration following an

acquisition or merger is an example of a transformational change that may induce

business leaders to act courageously.

Statement of the Problem

Cultural integration following an acquisition or merger is one circumstance that

may involve courageous behavior at work. Thus far, the topic of courage and cultural

integration following an acquisition or merger has not been explored. Specific

circumstances in the workplace that involve courageous behavior have not been looked at

to determine what the common experiences of courage are among executives associated

with merger cultural integration. Although courage is considered to be a characteristic of

4

effective leaders, an investigation into the common experiences of courage among executives who have undergone a merger cultural integration experience has not yet been conducted.

Statement of the Purpose

This study will increase the understanding of courageous behavior in organizations by providing a context for courage that can be linked to leaders' behavior at work. Kavanagh and Ashkanasy (2006) believe, "Mergers represent a very difficult organizational change process. . . . In spite of a large body of literature on the subject, we still know very little about approaches that lead to success during organizational change as prompted by a merger" (pp. S82-S83). Through personal interviews with executives, the researcher will explore the leadership quality of courage in conjunction with experiences of cultural integration after a corporate merger in order to identify the common experiences of courage that participants' associated with the process of cultural integration. Additional knowledge about the development of business courage and its benefit to organizations may also be discovered through this research.

Specifically, the purpose of this study is to identify the common experiences of courage among executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies. In addition, this study will examine the extent to which, if at all, executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies report experiences of courage that involve (a) endurance for positive outcome, (b) dealing with groups, (c) acting alone, and (d) physical pain/breaking social norms.

Research Questions

This research study will explore:

1. What are the common experiences of courage among executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies?

2. To what extent, if at all, do executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies report experiences of courage that involve (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms?

Definition of Terms

1. Acculturation – a change in the cultural behavior and thinking of a person or group of people through contact with another culture (Lustig & Koester, 1999).

2. Acquisition – a business transaction in which one company purchases another. The company initiating the transaction may or may not integrate the operations of the acquired business to form a single entity (Bullock, 2004).

3. Boundary Spanning Manager – managers who cross organizational boundaries to facilitate organizational communication (David, Pearce II, & Elliott, 1982).

4. Business courage – types of courage unique or specific to the workplace.

5. Chronicle – an account of events presented in chronological order (Encarta Dictionary, n.d.).

6. Courage – a complex multi-dimensional construct composed of the following seven major components (Rate, 2007).

a. External circumstances – objective conditions or facts that determine or must be considered in the determining of a course of action.

b. Cognitive processes – perception of danger, awareness of risk, appraising/assessing risk, problem solving, and identifying alternatives.

c. Motivation towards excellence – one's actions are directed toward the good of others, a noble purpose, or worthy aim.

d. Affect/Emotion – the presence of emotions such as fear.

e. Volition – an exercise of one's will.

f. Behavioral response – reactions due to specific stimuli (such as external circumstances or emotions such as fear).

g. Characteristic/Trait/Skills/Ability – ability, capacity, and disposition to be courageous.

7. Courage category selection – selection of a courage category that best describes a participant's acts of courage. The courage categories used in this study are: (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, (d) physical pain or going against social norms, and (e) other.

8. Courage element-identification – identification of the seven major components (Rate, 2007) of courage (see Courage definition for a listing of the seven major components of courage) using data coding guides and data coding process instructions.

9. Courage structure – the specific components of courage evident in a participant's narrative description of an act of courage. Two characteristics are necessary for identified courage structures (a) the presence of three required courage elements; external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition; and (b) identification of the courage elements by at least two courage element-identification raters.

10. Cultural integration – the development of a new organizational culture from two previously separate entities consisting of a common frame of reference that ensures that the same basic assumptions and consistent mental maps are being used by all organization members (Shrivasta, 1986).

11. Executive – manager with senior leadership responsibilities including the strategic alignment of corporate administration initiatives with short and long term company objectives. There are six levels of executive management, L1 through L6 with L6 being the lowest level and L1 the highest level of executive management in the research participants' company.

12. Incident thread – narrative description of an act of courage that has a beginning and ending point.

13. Integration Manager – manager responsible for implementing the change strategy and integration process following a merger (Bahde, 2003).

14. Merger – a business transaction in which two companies agree to combine to form one entity (Bullock, 2004).

Key Terms Related to Cultural Integration

The following terms pertain to the researcher's cultural integration model (See Figure 1). The definitions were derived from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 as well as the researcher's post-analysis consideration of participant interview content. The definitions were not used during data coding or analysis.

1. Behavior change – a change in identity that is reflected in one's behavior; a modification in behavior that results from a perceived change in an organization's identity (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994).

2. Continuity – resistance to changes in identity; in regards to mergers, even if the merger offers clear benefits for the entire company, a desire for continuity may cause employees to feel the need to fight a threat to their identity (Sidle, 2006).

3. Conflict resolution – a process of change that results in a different attitude or belief; a conflict resolution approach that supports productive dialogue and focuses attention on the unifying aspects of the disputants' relationship (Walton, 1987); building coalitions in order to forge positive working relationships (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

4. Creating new cultural frameworks – forming conceptual models and behaviors that reflect a new identity; moving beyond the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of an initial cultural framework to incorporate other cultural realities (Kim & Ruben, 1988).

5. Cultural adaptation – reducing conflict through behavior change; changes induced as a result of the diffusion of cultural elements (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1998).

6. Cultural anxiety – form of emotional coping; an individual experiencing cultural anxiety emphasizes cultural qualities different from their own while similarities are ignored or simply taken for granted (Styhre, Borjesson, & Wickenburg, 2006).

7. Cultural leadership – establishing new mental models in order to change an organization's culture; the promotion of cultural learning and development of shared understandings in organizations (Schweiger & Goulet, 2002).

8. Cultural relativism – utilizing a behavior approach that is consistent with the cultural context; the viewpoint that there is no right or wrong when it comes to culture (Hofstede, 1994).

9. Culture clash – extreme cultural differences; stressful reactions that result from the combining of organizations (Marks & Mirvis, 1985).

10. Human integration – creating a shared identity by exposing organization members to different ways of doing things; the introduction of new concepts that enable organization members to make sense of things (Schein, 1999).

11. Intercultural communication – communication that crosses cultural boundaries; the influence of culture on the contextual meaning of messages (Samover, Porter, & Stefani, 1998).

12. Loyalty – preference for a particular way of doing things; the psychological strength of an individual's attachment to an organization based on the content of its organizational culture (Lahiry, 1994).

13. Mental programming – learned ways of thinking that result in unconscious behavior patterns associated with a particular culture; cultural mores are derived from the common mental programming of a particular group (Featherly, 2006).

14. Prejudices – incorrect interpretations of behavior based on cultural differences; prejudices develop from ethnocentrism and stereotypic thoughts (Matsumoto, 2000).

15. Resistance to change – a perpetuation of established ways of doing things; negative viewpoints about change that can lead to missed opportunities (Atkinson, 2005).

16. Role modeling – the development of culture through social interaction and behavior (Trice & Beyer, 1991); role modeling appropriate behavior is a means of communicating the values and beliefs of the organization (Miller, 2000).

17. Unlearning and learning – an intentional effort to change one's own behavior; openly examining behavior in order to start reasoning in a new way (Argyris, 1991).

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made by the researcher:

1. The research participants' experienced acculturation after they relocated to the acquiring company's site.

2. The outcome of the research participants' acculturation was retention of their original cultural identity and the development of a cultural framework that included new cultural realities.

Summary

Waves of significant merger & acquisition activity have been occurring for more than a century (Bodam, 2000). Cultural integration is believed to be a critical success factor for leaders involved in the merger & acquisition process (Dixon, 2002). Leaders are the conduits through which culture is transmitted and become key drivers of cultural integration following an acquisition or merger (Bligh, 2001). The leadership attribute of courage is one that could have an affect on manager performance in a difficult circumstance such as cultural integration following a merger. This study provides an opportunity to better understand courage in the workplace by identifying the common experiences of courage among executives associated with merger cultural integration.

Chapter 2: Review of Relevant Literature

Introduction

The literature review consists of three sections covering the relevant aspects of this study. The first section, *Mergers & Acquisitions,* highlights the features of mergers & acquisitions that make them challenging experiences for employees of an acquired company. The second section, *Cultural Integration,* the researcher describes the process of cultural integration using a hypothesized four-step model. The four steps are: (a) cultural contact, (b) cultural conflict, (c) cultural blending, and (d) cultural change. The third section, *Courage,* explores the topic of courage in the context of its connection to leadership in the workplace today.

Mergers & Acquisitions

The Impact of Mergers & Acquisitions on Organization Members

Greenspan's (2007) *The Age of Turbulence* provides an inside look at the economic conditions that have been shaping the U S and Global marketplaces since the 1960s. *Creative destruction*, a theory articulated by Harvard economist Joseph Schumpeter (1941), suggests that markets are revitalized when old failing businesses are replaced with newer, more productive ones. Mergers & acquisitions are a force of creative destruction in that the acquiring firm is expected to improve its operating efficiencies through the extermination or absorption of another company (Ginter et al., 1992).

Mergers & acquisitions have been occurring in waves since the late 1800's (Bodam, 2000). Economic factors affecting individual businesses and industries can drive companies to pursue an acquisition or merger as a means of survival (Bahde, 2003;

Greenspan, 2007). Market consolidations that result from mergers & acquisitions may eliminate competitors, but the merger & acquisition process presents new challenges in the form of organizational change and cultural integration (Bodam, 2000). Human capital is a key intangible resource that is impacted by mergers & acquisitions and it must be managed effectively for the merger & acquisition process to be successful.

Merger survivors often experience a drop in morale due to a fear of the unknown surrounding merger activities (Davies, 2003). The emotional turmoil that follows a merger is described by Marks and Mirvis (1992) as *survivor sickness*. Dealing with lay-offs, misaligned functions, and inadequate cost cuts can be challenging when emotions are running high. "Anxiety, confusion, and political in-fighting linger long after the deal has been made. . . . Fear is commonplace, fueled by the rumor mill" (Marks & Mirvis, pp. 18 & 20).

Employees of an acquired company may have reduced job satisfaction even though their career prospects have improved. One explanation for employee dissatisfaction is a loss of identity (Ozag, 2001). Pepper and Larson (2006) discuss some implications relative to cultural identity in a study that examines problems associated with cultural integration following a corporate acquisition.

> Issues like loyalty, affiliation, and attachment to core company values are not as easily acquired and integrated as are inventory systems, invoicing procedures or packaging requirements. When one company purchases another company, two corporate cultures confront each other, and new identity tensions are created. (pp. 50-51)

A strong attachment to previous organizational elements such as coworkers, work routines, application of personal skills, and career goals may cause a merger survivor's commitment to their new organization to be at risk.

One of the effects of the identity loss of employees of an acquired company can be a sense of deprivation (Cho, 2003). A reaction to a perceived injustice that causes one to assume that they have not gotten what they deserve is known as "relative deprivation" (p. 14). An example of a circumstance that produces relative deprivation is the destruction of cultural artifacts like the company's name, job titles, or work locations. A study about employees reactions to a merger & acquisition showed that "when their cultural artifacts were neglected, they felt their status was degraded, which produced feelings of relative deprivation" (Cho, p. 20). A negative result of relative deprivation is the blockage of an employee's identification with the new company.

The loss of identity experienced by merger survivors can be like a death to them (Cho, 2003). The death metaphor has been used to describe mergers & acquisitions because of the similar emotional experience people have in both situations (Ginter et al., 1992). The process of adapting to a new culture can take several years. Typically, five to seven years is needed for employees affected by mergers & acquisitions to feel assimilated into the combined company (Whittle, 2002). Even as many as 20 years later, there can be residual anger from the impact of a forced union of diverse cultures. Five of the factors that negatively impact an employee's cultural adaptation experience are: (a) a loss of status and former sphere of influence, (b) a lack of transparency about the company's intentions, (c) a fierce fight for survival, (d) an increased workload because

some people leave, either voluntarily or involuntarily, and (e) a spillover effect on people's personal lives.

The Impact of Mergers & Acquisitions on Managers

Middle managers are typically engaged in implementing change and are held accountable for results. Most radical change is accomplished by middle management because they understand the organization and know what needs to happen to make things change (Koutsis, 2004). Koutsis' analysis of middle managers' organizational change experiences during a merger suggests that "The more complex, intense, and disruptive the context for change, the less middle managers, know what to do because the old certainties about change break down and one simply reacts out of primitive paradigms" (p. 131). Koutsis reports that, "population ecology has suggested that organizations only rarely make major adaptive changes, and that changes in organizational populations is disruptive" (p. 13). One of the things Koutsis discovered was that as the context of change becomes more disruptive of the status quo, change efforts become more protracted, more comprehensive, and ultimately more traumatic.

Dominant cultures are usually the ones to survive mergers & acquisitions if it becomes an either or situation (Pruett, 2003). Cultural integration can only occur if the dominant culture allows the opposing culture to survive. Managers who are forced into a new culture as a result of a merger that are in the yielding or subservient culture must adapt if they are to survive. Cultural conflict between *in-group* and *out-group* members can escalate when out-group members appear to threaten in-group welfare (Pruitt & Kim, 2004).

16

One of the enduring negative impacts of mergers & acquisitions is premature departure of top managers after mergers & acquisitions (Fleisher, 2003). Studies found that a substantial number of the acquired company's top managers departed within two years of a merger and that turnover is the greatest during the first year. Fleisher offers three explanations for top managers departing their organizations after an acquisition or merger; uncertainty, culture and control.

> If managers cannot reduce or tolerate the uncertainty they may depart. . . . If the organization's actions toward objectives are different from what the manager has been accustomed to, then the alternative may be departure. And finally, managers who have been used to being in control may now find themselves in a position of less control. Others make decisions that the manager had made in the past. Where some of these decisions require the manager to act on behalf of other's needs or wishes, this can create inner conflict and cause the need to depart. (Fleisher, p. 41)

The extent of an individual's or company's uncertainty avoidance, ways to deal with the anxiety and stress of uncertainty, varies from culture to culture (Matsumoto, 2000). Cultural differences in uncertainty avoidance are directly related to concrete differences in jobs and work-related behaviors. Organizations high in uncertainty avoidance tend to pursue less risk-taking ventures and have more ritualistic behavior.

Management Roles in Mergers & Acquisitions

A phenomenological study of the leadership experience of executives in mergers & acquisitions (Bullock, 2004) showed that "mergers and acquisitions present a significant challenge for leaders" (p. 31). The ability to adapt is one of the characteristics of successful merger & acquisition leaders (Gadiesh, Buchanan, Daniell, & Ormiston,

2002a, 2002b). A management role identified by GE Capital and other enlightened companies to facilitate acquisition integration is the integration manager (Ashkenas & Francis, 2000). The integration manager is a new type of leader; "someone who can jump into complex situations quickly, relate to many levels of authority smoothly, and bridge gaps in culture and perception" (p. 108).

Boundary spanning managers are individuals who cross organizational boundaries and play a relational role in facilitating shared realities (Bahde, 2003). Boundary spanners rely on contextual cues when translating information across internal boundaries and use mapping constructs to make sense of socially constructed realities. Important relational aspects of the boundary spanning role are social awareness, the ability to build trust, and the use of social power. One of the roles boundary spanning managers play in merger & acquisition integration is relationship builders. They work to build relationships across the boundary of combining organizations by forming connective tissue that becomes self-generating over time. As a result of their role in filtering, interpreting, and translating information, boundary spanning managers are influential in determining how the environment is perceived, and guide the social construction of the organization. The key function of the boundary spanning role is the facilitation of a shared reality among members of combining organizations that enables them to collaborate on the identification and realization of synergies bases on a shared sense of what is real and what is possible.

Bligh (2001) studied the important influence of leadership on merging organizational cultures from the perspective of transitioning merged companies from a state of culture clash to integration. Results of the study indicated that employee

identification with the post-merger organization's culture was a key factor in the merger & acquisition outcome. It was also determined that cultural leadership had an important role in influencing whether or not employees formed identifications with their company's new cultural framework and that the process of translating new cultural frameworks is a critical element of successful cultural integration.

Obstacles to Effective Management in Mergers & Acquisitions

Middle managers are particularly important to merger & acquisition success. Their unique position between top management and front-line supervisors enables them to transmit cultural elements throughout the organization (Valentino, 2004). One of the reasons cultural integration is so challenging is that middle managers who are affected by mergers may be resistant to the new culture because they are indoctrinated in their current culture. Changing cultures is very difficult for them.

The middle manager's role of transmitting organizational culture can be hindered by resistance to cultural change. Valentino (2004) discovered that:

> Although, it appeared, the middle managers were motivated and committed to embracing new ways of acting and thinking, their inability to adapt to and take up the new merged culture into their daily routines prevented them from effectively transmitting and integrating the merged organization culture to their staff. (p. 108)

Middle managers' resistance to cultural change is based on values that have already been established that have caused them to be successful, therefore they do not want to give them up. This *cognitive inertia* can prevent middle managers from transmitting and integrating cultural elements into the emerging cultural fabric of the merged organization.

Valentino (2004) also reported that mature organizations are extremely resistant to cultural integration. The culture has been well defined and reinforced over a period of time that makes change very unlikely. Managers integrating into this type of culture will meet with a lot of resistance to change and will be more likely to fail because they will be perceived as "outsiders." Schein's (1999) view of corporate culture dynamics asserts that leadership creates culture in the early stages of organizational development. In the mature company, "*culture now creates leaders*, in the sense that only those managers who fit the mold are promoted to top positions" (Schein, p. 143).

The Daimler-Chrysler merger is one example of a merger that required significant cultural adaptation (Badrtalei & Bates, 2007; Pruett, 2003). The cultural differences between the two companies were amplified by national distinctions between German and American cultures. Similarities that would normally allow Germans and Americans to create productive, successful, and cooperative multicultural organizations were complicated by cross-cultural adaptation issues in the Daimler-Chrysler merger. The merged company's failure to produce financial benefits for its shareholders was attributed to a culture clash that hindered cultural adaptation. One aspect of the clash was stereotypical perceptions of behavior that accentuated differences between German and American managers. German managers interpreted their American counterpart's informality as irreverent. For example, "Germans had a hard time accepting the practice of being addressed by their first names. They were also surprised when Americans took off their suit jackets" (Pruett, p. 28).

A perception of extreme cultural differences can lead to culture shock (Lustig & Koester, 1999). "Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all

our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. These signs or cues include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves to the situations of daily life." (pp. 341-342). Many people evaluate the beliefs, values, and norms of other cultures negatively and have strong emotional reactions when the variations they represent challenge the basic view they have of the world. Therefore, it is not surprising that those who have the most years of service in a company will have the strongest negative reactions to the changes they observe after a merger. Obstacles to cultural adaptation can cause it to take as long as ten years for two organizations' ways of doing things to become one definable culture (Whittle, 2002).

The Effects of Mergers & Acquisitions on Organization Culture

Mergers & acquisitions are not always successful or easy and the number of mergers has been growing steadily since 1990 (Miller, 2000; "The Juggernaut Keeps Rolling," 1997). One of the reasons mergers & acquisitions are difficult is because they force people to change. The Macy's Inc and May Company merger (Hollack, 2007) brought about a large scale change effort designed to integrate two distinctly different corporate cultures. One resource the companies capitalized on was former May Company executives who had successfully adopted Macy's corporate tradition. "The leaders candidly explained the challenges they faced during their adjustments, which helped the company develop a post-merger strategy" (Hollack, p. 35).

Paul M Wiles, president and CEO of Novant Health, describes his merger integration experience as being similar to "changing the tire while driving down the road. Wiles says that he has learned that leaders must have the courage to make tough

21

decisions. He believes that organizational culture is the most misunderstood part of the entire merger process" (Dixon, 2002, p. 26).

Arthur Ryan, chairman and CEO of Prudential Financial successfully led his company through a ten-year change effort that included a series of mergers & acquisitions intended to revamp the way the company operated (Panko, 2005). During the transformation, Ryan had to *change the rules* about how things got done and to adopt a new slogan consistent with new corporate values. Prudential Financial emerged "as a leaner, more competitive and better positioned company" (p. 70).

People development solutions were at the heart of UK supermarket Asda's successful merger with Wal-Mart (Pollitt, 2004). Marie Gill, head of organizational development at Asda attributes the outcome to open communication:

> In the past we have always been up front and honest with our employees, which meant that the trust always existed between Asda staff and management. With this, we knew that our managers could lead the cultural change in a positive and effective way, and not allow rumor and speculation to come into the equation. (Pollitt, p. 18)

Cultural Integration

Four potential outcomes of the process of acculturation, a change in the cultural behavior and thinking of a person or group of people through contact with another culture, are integration, assimilation, separation, and marginalization (Lustig & Koester, 1999). The two outcomes that involve maintaining positive relationships with members of other groups are integration and assimilation. Assimilation is when one's original cultural identity ceases to exist and the individual adopts a new culture's beliefs, values,

and norms. Cultural integration occurs when an individual retains his original cultural

identity and develops a cultural framework that includes new cultural realities. Separation

and marginalization are the result of battling against, rather than working with other

cultures in the social environment. These two outcomes of the acculturation process

occur when individuals do not want to maintain positive relationships with other groups.

This study will focus on cultural integration as it relates to the transition of

acquired company employees into the acquiring company's business operations after the

merger of the two companies. The cultural integration experience will be explained using

a hypothesized four-step cultural integration model (See Figure 1) based on Bennett's

(1993) six stages Intercultural Sensitivity (IS) model and Tuckman's (1965) sequential-

stage theory of group development.

Cultural Contact	Cultural Conflict	Cultural Blending	Cultural Change
• Mental programming • Prejudices • Cultural anxiety • Continuity	• Loyalty • Resistance to change • Culture clash • Intercultural communication • Cultural adaptation	• Cultural relativism • Human integration • Cultural leadership • Conflict resolution	• Creating new cultural frameworks • Role modeling • Unlearning and learning • Behavioral Change
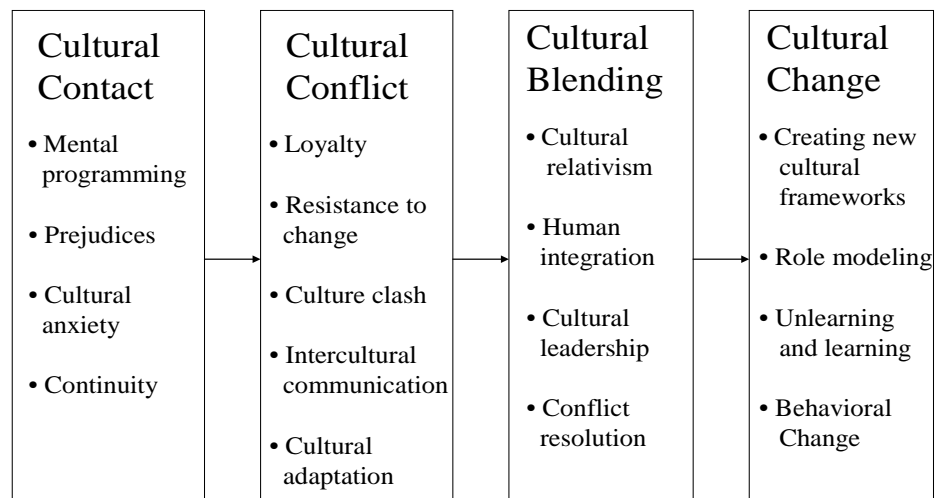
Figure 1. The researcher's hypothesized four-step cultural integration model.

Bennett's (1993) IS model identifies developmental stages that lead to

intercultural competence, "a person's overall ability to deal, work, live, and play with

intercultural and cross-cultural differences" (Matsumoto, 2000, p. 378). Bennett's developmental continuum begins with *denial*, the experience of one's own culture as central to reality and ends with *integration*, the experience of one's own culture in the context of other cultures (Bennett & Bennett, 2004). The hypothesized cultural integration model does not include the first and last stages of Bennett's IS model.

An individual in Bennett's (Bennett & Bennett, 2004) first stage of developing intercultural competence, *denial*, is characterized by not experiencing cultural differences at all or having an undifferentiated view of others. This coincides with Lustig and Koester's (1999) outcome of separation and marginalization in the acculturation process. In Bennett's (Bennett & Bennett) sixth stage of intercultural competence, *integration*, "identities become 'marginal' to any one culture" (p. 157) and individuals move between cultures, "going back and forth, in and out, of these different pluralities" (Matsumoto, 2000, p. 379). This coincides with Lustig and Koester's (1999) outcome of assimilation in the acculturation process.

Tuckman's (1965) sequential-stage theory of group development has five stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. The final stage, adjourning applies to groups that exist temporarily. This stage is not included in the hypothesized cultural integration model. The cultural integration experiences of this study's participants will involve the development of cultural competence after joining a new organization. The combination of Bennett's (1993) Intercultural Sensitivity model and Tuckman's (1965) sequential stage theory of group development in the researcher's hypothesized four-step cultural integration model (See Figure 1) reflects the focus on these two aspects of the cultural integration process.

Step 1: Cultural Contact

The first step of cultural integration, *cultural contact*, relates to Bennett's (1993) second stage of intercultural sensitivity, *defense*, in which the acknowledgment of cultural differences leads to a perceived threat to the self. In Bennett's (Bennett & Bennett, 2004) second stage people "are more likely to be protecting their cultural identities from the dominant group's pressure to assimilate" (p. 154). Aspects of this stage are evaluating one's own cultural group as superior and holding derogatory attitudes towards others. Some people reverse the two by denigrating their own culture and viewing others as superior. Tuckman's (1965) *forming stage* is similar in that cultural contact involves a period of uncertainty or unfamiliarity with one's surroundings. Factors of cultural contact are: (a) mental programming, (b) prejudices, (c) cultural anxiety, and (d) continuity.

Mental programming. Hofstede (1997) describes culture as mental programming. According to Hofstede, "every person carries within him or herself patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential acting which were learned throughout their lifetime" (p. 4). The sources of mental programs are the social environments in which one grew up and one's life experiences. Once mental programming exists, it can only be changed through unlearning which is more difficult than learning for the first time.

Cultural mores are derived from the common mental programming of a particular group. An organization's cultural mores, unspoken customs and habitual practices, are unconsciously followed by group members (Featherly, 2006). Joining a new group can be difficult if an individual's mental programming is significantly different than members of

25

the group because outsiders who unintentionally violate cultural mores hinder their acceptance by the group.

Schein describes the mental programming that guides cultural behavior as shared basic assumptions. According to Schein (2004), "the deeper levels of learning that get us to the essence of culture must be thought of as concepts or shared basic assumptions. Shared assumptions derive their power from the fact that they operate outside of awareness" (pp. 11-12). Because a company's culture essentially is its personality, what differentiates it from other organizations, "it is no wonder that two companies merging with two distinct corporate cultures could have trouble integrating" (Beard & Zuniga, 2006, p. 14).

Stereotyping and prejudice. Contact theory (Johnson & Johnson, 2000) suggests "that contact between members of different groups will result in positive relationships and a reduction of stereotyping and prejudice" (p. 439). Stereotyping, selective perception, projection, and self-fulfilling prophesy are examples of perceptual distortions that affect interactions between groups (Weiss, 1996). These barriers can prevent cultural integration. In addition to perceptual distortions and barriers, "prejudice and discrimination can also inhibit workforce integration" (p. 69).

Overcoming prejudice begins with recognition of one's own ethnocentrism and stereotypic thoughts (Matsumoto, 2000). "Recognizing one's own ethnocentrism makes it possible to recognize the existence of a separate, and potentially different, ethnocentrism in others" (p. 97). This is important because our stereotypes are based on interpretations about the underlying meaning of cultural behavior we observe through our distinct cultural filters. "When interacting with people of a culture that is obviously different from

our own, the potential for being mistaken is much larger than when interacting with someone of the same culture" (p. 98). In reality, a person's initial model of another culture is little more than an amalgam of the observer's own prejudiced presuppositions about the cultural members' observed behavior (Green, 1988).

Cultural anxiety. Negative attitudes that are developed about an alien culture can be viewed as a form of emotional coping with what is ambiguous and unfamiliar (Styhre et al., 2006). The uprooting of a predominant culture justifiably generates cultural anxiety due to the forced re-evaluation of established values, norms and beliefs. Individuals experiencing cultural anxiety emphasize cultural qualities different from their own while similarities are ignored or simply taken for granted. Individuals can avoid conflict and overcome cultural ignorance by addressing perceived cultural differences. Styhre, Borjesson, and Wickenburg suggest that, "In most cases, being able to take the role of the other enables a better understanding of alternative perspectives" (p. 1294).

Even CEOs of the companies setting the rules are subject to the anxiety associated with cultural change. Smith (2005) describes the experience of Phillip Purcell, CEO of Dean Witter after their merger with Morgan Stanley:

> At Dean Witter, Purcell had presided over a culture that permitted him to be remote and autocratic. Morgan Stanley's culture was a collaborative one where the previous CEO kept his door open, walked the corridors, and often modified his decisions according to what he heard from senior executives. Morgan Stanley's rainmakers not only bristled at Purcell's high-handed ways, but some walked out the door. Their departure threatened the firm's revenues. In June, Purcell left. (¶ 4)

Continuity. The origins of modern management philosophy can be traced back to the eighteenth century teaching of Adam Smith who argued for specialization of tasks and division of labor (Foster & Kaplan, 2001). Drucker's (1946) *Concept of the Corporation* reinforced the idea of perpetual continuity. The vertically integrated manufacturing companies of the 1920s and 1930s were protected from all but incremental change by an economy that moved at a fraction of the speed it does today (Foster & Kaplan, 2001). Foster and Kaplan caution corporations to avoid the trap of perpetual continuity. They describe the result of Sterling Drug's half-century-old behavior as *cultural lock-in*. "It had locked itself into an ineffective approach to the marketplace despite clear signs that it needed to act in a new way" (p. 16).

Continuity can be a critical concern of employees affected by mergers when it comes to identity. "Merging organizations means merging together two sets of people whose individual identities are connected to their respective organizations. Employees want to experience continuity when it comes to their identity and may resist when a merger threatens that identity" (Sidle, 2006, p. 115). Inter-group dynamics between the employees of the two companies makes cultural integration more challenging and can impact the success of the merger. Even if the merger offers clear benefits for the entire company, employees may feel the need to fight a threat to their identity. "In short, people don't give up their identities very easily" (p. 117). Research by Sidle found that members of the acquired company in a merger preferred an approach that offered a measure of protection from total domination by the acquiring company. An example of this approach would be one in which the top management team consists of members from both organizations.

The financial acquisition of a company does not guarantee cultural dominance after the companies are combined as was shown in the case of the merger between Dean Witter and Morgan Stanley. The cultural outcome of an acquisition is usually determined by other factors (Harding & Rouse, 2007). Harding and Rouse suggest that the question about whose culture will the new organization adopt should be answered before the merger is finalized. The *cultural acquirer* will set the tone for the new organization after the deal is done. "When deals are very large, the identity of the cultural acquirer may vary across business units" (Harding & Rouse, p. 126).

Step 2: Cultural Conflict

The second step of cultural integration, *cultural conflict*, relates to Bennett's (1993) third stage of intercultural sensitivity, *minimization*. In Bennett's (Bennett & Bennett, 2004) third stage, "the power of the dominant group tends to be exercised through institutional privilege" (p. 155). During this stage, "an extreme emphasis on corporate culture creates strong pressure for culture conformity" (p. 155). Tuckman's (1965) *storming stage* of group development is very similar to the cultural conflict step of cultural integration. In the storming stage of group development, "Members often confront their various differences and the management of conflict becomes the focus of attention" (Johnson & Johnson, 2000, p.31). Factors of cultural conflict are: (a) loyalty, (b) resistance to change, (c) culture clash, (d) intercultural communication, and (e) cultural adaptation.

Loyalty. Organizations that have existed for long periods of time develop ways of doing things that reinforce their cultural preferences (Torres-Kitamura, 2004). Mergers sometimes force companies to choose between two ways of doing things and each may

think their way is the best. A study about organizational culture and commitment (Lahiry, 1994) found that the psychological strength of an individual's attachment to an organization is related to organizational culture. One finding supports the premise that not only the strength, but also the content, of organizational culture is related to organizational commitment. Implications of the study suggest that changes to the content of organizational culture make a difference in employee commitment.

Resistance to change. Human inertia causes people to cling to certainty and oppose interruptions to the status quo (Conner, 1992). "It does not matter whether the change is originally seen as good or bad; when people's expectations are disrupted, the end result is always some form of resistance" (Conner, 1998, p. 220). Conner (1998) identifies seven stages of resistance to change that is perceived to be negative:

1. *Immobilization* is the initial reaction to a negatively perceived change (shock).

2. *Denial* is characterized by an inability to absorb new information into the current frame of reference.

3. *Anger* involves frustration with the change and often includes irrational and indiscriminate lashing out.

4. Afterward, people resort to *bargaining* to avoid the negative impact of change.

5. *Depression* is a normal response to major, negatively perceived change.

6. *Testing* helps people to regain a sense of control and to free themselves from feelings of victimization and depression.

7. *Acceptance* involves realistically facing the change, but this is not necessarily synonymous with liking what has happened. (p. 220-221)

"The nature of resistance is that, generally speaking, we do not experience it actively and publicly. Its presence is often displayed covertly, even passively" (Atkinson, 2005, p. 15). The challenge in overcoming resistance to change is being able to go beyond negative viewpoints to open up opportunities for perceiving possibilities for those undertaking the change.

Schein recognizes learning anxiety as the basis for resistance to change (Quick & Gavin, 2000). Schein believes learning anxiety is produced merely by the prospect of having to learn something new. Learning anxiety causes people to react defensively to change and to rationalize that change is not necessary. "We realize that new learning may make us temporarily incompetent, may expose us to rejection by valued groups, and, in the extreme, may cause us to lose our identity" (Quick & Gavin, p. 36).

Culture clash. Among the many mergers & acquisitions failures that have been attributed to cultural conflict is the Daimler-Chrysler merger (Weber & Camerer, 2003). The lack of successful integration was blamed on "the entirely different ways in which the Germans and Americans operated. In addition, the two units traditionally held entirely different views on important things like pay scales and travel expenses" (p. 401). Extreme cultural differences make it difficult for members of merged organizations to see things the same way and can prevent the organizations from creating the shared understandings necessary for effective communication.

The culture clash between Chrysler Corp and Daimler Benz managers resulted in a significant loss of Chrysler executives (Badrtalei & Bates, 2007); "after a year, only a third of the top executives of Chrysler remained with the merged company" (p. 310). Chrysler's management expertise in mass car building was essentially eliminated as a

result of the cultural dominance of Daimler Benz chairman Jurgen Schrempp over the Chrysler management team. An October 2000 interview with Schrempp indicated that the outcome of the merger was intentionally skewed in favor of the preservation of the Daimler Benz culture. "Schrempp seemed to boast of deceiving the Chrysler management into thinking that the merger was to be of equals and the two companies would be integrated" (Badrtalei & Bates, p. 311).

Daimler Chrysler's continued poor performance after the merger caused Schrempp to give up his position as chief executive at the end of 2005 ("Extinction," 2005). Mr. Schrempp's successor, Dieter Zetsche has been taking steps to change the culture in the former Daimler Benz portion of Daimler Chrysler ("In Tandem," 2006). His actions to dismantle remnants of the superstructure that survived the integration of Mercedes-Benz into Daimler Benz about nine years ago is a sign that the German side of Daimler Benz will undergo the same kinds of changes that the Detroit side has been going through for the past five years.

Marks and Mirvis (1985) describe the result of culture clash as *merger syndrome*. "The merger syndrome encompasses executives' stressful reactions, the development of crisis-management orientations, and the clash of cultures in combining organizations. It is triggered by the often unavoidably unsettled conditions in the earliest days and months of the combination" (p. 268). Marks (1997) distinguishes four stages of culture clash that correspond with cultural integration:

> Culture clash follows some predictable stages in a combination. First as people
> notice differences in how the other side approaches work, they come to revalue
> their own ways of doing things. Next, people begin to evaluate differences

32

between the companies; and they come to view their way as superior and the other as inferior. Then, people begin to attack the other side and defend their own. Eventually, one side "wins" as their way is adopted in the post-combination organization, leaving the other side feeling like losers. (pp. 269-270)

Group cohesiveness can affect the outcomes of culture clashes. Group cohesiveness affects group behavior in three ways (Pruitt & Kim, 2004). It encourages conformity to group norms. It promotes vigorous action in pursuit of goals and convinces members of the rightness of their cause and the effectiveness of their intended actions.

Intercultural communication. Communication involves both intentional and unintentional communication behavior (Samover et al., 1998). "We intentionally send messages to change or modify the behavior of other people, and therefore we select our words or actions with some degree of consciousness" (p. 23). On the other hand, some scholars admit that messages can be conveyed unintentionally as well. "Scholars who support this approach believe communication takes place whenever people attach meaning to behavior, even if the sender of the message does not expect his or her actions to be communicated" (p. 23).

Communication is a dynamic ongoing process (Samover et al., 1998). The context of communication is influenced by culture and the meanings we attribute to messages are drawn from a reservoir that has accumulated throughout our lifetime. One of the functions of communication is to make meaning of the world around us. "As we move from word to word, event to event, and person to person, we seek meaning in everything" (Samover et al., p. 29).

Culture makes communication easier (Samover et al., 1998); "it serves the basic need of laying out a predictable world in which each of us is firmly grounded and thus enables us to make sense of our surroundings" (p. 34). Culture as a dynamic system is subject to change. Extended and intensive firsthand contact between cultures causes cultural change.

Cultural adaptation. Culture makes organizations unique and bonds members together. Mergers & acquisitions generate the potential for conflict by obligating two cultures to come in contact with each other. When two cultures come in contact, adaptation becomes a way to reduce conflict (Lui, 2001).

> Adaptors/manipulators are nonverbal behaviors we engage in to help our bodies adapt to the environment around us. . . . Nonverbal behaviors are just as much a language as any other. Just as verbal languages differ from culture to culture, so do nonverbal languages. (Matsumoto, 2000, pp. 339 & 357)

Nonverbal behaviors are controlled by the unconscious mind, outside of our awareness. "Misunderstandings in relation to the interpretation of nonverbal behaviors can easily lead to conflicts or confrontations that break down the communication process" (p. 374).

Acculturation, changes induced as a result of the diffusion of cultural elements, occurs at both group and individual levels (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). "Although acculturation is considered to be a balanced two-way flow, members of one culture often attempt to dominate members of the other" (p. 81). The acquired firm in a merger may be forced to give up essential elements of its cultural identity, such as its name and trademark, its buildings or geographical location, and key leadership positions that allowed it to control its future direction. Ginter et al. (1992) say, "For this reason, we

have chosen to describe acquisition as a form of organizational death because the effects

on employees are often identical to those experienced in plant closures or other

organizational fatalities" (p. 26).

Step 3: Cultural Blending

The third step of cultural integration, *cultural blending*, relates to Bennett's

(1993) fourth stage of intercultural sensitivity, *acceptance*. Ethnorelative development

begins in the acceptance stage of intercultural sensitivity. In this stage, "cultural

differences are not only recognized and acknowledged, but respected" (Matsumoto, 2000,

p. 379). A major issue that emerges during this stage is "how to exercise power in terms

of one's own values without imposing on the equally valid viewpoints of others"

(Bennett & Bennett, 2004, p. 155). Tuckman's (1965) *norming stage* involves reaching

consensus about a set of group norms for appropriate behavior. Cohesion and

commitment increase during the norming stage of group development. Factors of cultural

blending are: (a) cultural relativism, (b) human integration, (c) cultural leadership, and

(d) conflict resolution.

Cultural relativism. Hofstede's (1994) explanation of cultural relativism

emphasizes the fact that there is no right or wrong when it comes to culture. A behavioral

approach is considered to be effective as long as it is consistent with the cultural context.

The importance of practicing cultural relativism is that it enables methods to change

depending on the situation in which one finds oneself.

Companies operating in the same industry will often have different corporate

cultures. Hon (2002) studied organizational culture perception in a same industry merger

and found that members of the merged companies desired a post-merger culture that was

balanced between the two previous types of cultures. Schein (1999) describes cultural blending as taking the best of both cultures and creating and standardizing new procedures across the resultant organization.

Walt (2005) advocates for post-merger cultures that combine the strengths of both companies. According to Walt, "it's wise to assume that both businesses, not just the one being bought, are going to change significantly, and that some elements of the target's culture will be better suited to help the combined company operate in its new market environment" (¶ 24). Atkinson and Clarke (2007) suggest that the only way to make merger & acquisition activity to work is to invest the time and energy needed to create a culture for the new organization that supports profitable business growth.

Human integration. Blending cultures is more than just indoctrinating organization members with a new set of values. In order to integrate the human organization, cultural assumptions have to be addressed (Schein, 1999). Schein explains that assumptions are the drivers of daily behavior. The difficulty with changing assumptions is that they are invented by organization members to confirm beliefs about the organization's history and are the product of personal experiences. Disconfirmation is the force that motivates organization members to unlearn something so that they can learn something new. Mergers & acquisitions are sources of disconfirmation because the cultural contact that results from the two organizations working together exposes organization members to different ways of doing things. Schein characterizes the process of developing new concepts that support a new way of thinking as *cognitive redefinition*. New concepts enable organization members to make sense of things while new assumptions are being learned and tested.

The human integration process involves the creation of a shared identity among the employees from both companies in a merger (Burkinshaw, Bresman, & Hakanson, 2000). Research indicates that human integration can lead to a more comprehensive integration of two companies in terms of organizational culture convergence and mutual respect. Successful integration often depends on commitment because it promotes opportunities for cooperation and a deepening of trust (Allred, Boal, & Holstein, 2005). In an interview with Diane Coutu (2002), Schein indicated that managers can help organization members overcome the learning anxiety that inhibits cultural change; "you can decrease learning anxiety by creating a safer environment for unlearning and new learning" (p. 6).

Cultural adaptation involves changing behavior. In mergers & acquisitions, not every employee adopts promoted cultural behaviors (Bligh, 2001). Countercultures and subcultures often develop in organizations. Employees have different perceptions and interpretations of culture that influence their decisions about identifying with a new cultural framework. Cultural adaptation requires employees to let go of some of the organizational identities they have and to adopt new ones that support cultural integration. Changes in behavior are evidence that cultural adaptation has occurred (Osland, Kolb, & Rubin, 2001).

Making sense of a new culture requires three steps that are influenced by cultural values and history: (a) noticing cues about the situation, (b) drawing inferences based on identity and experiences, and (c) enacting appropriate behavioral scripts (Osland & Bird, 2000). Stereotyping sometimes leads to cultural paradoxes that block the sense making process. Cultural paradoxes arise when we realize that our understanding is incomplete,

misleading or potentially dangerous. Cultural sensemaking is necessary because we will

not adopt new behaviors that do not make sense. The HP and Compaq merger integration

team instituted new behavior by mandating practices that were determined to be the

better of what was currently being used by the two companies (Burgelman & McKinney,

2006). As a result, "people were experiencing loss and resisting it, with attendant

potential undermining and second guessing the changes" (p. 25).

Cultural leadership. Amidst the conversation about the effects of leadership on

organizational performance has emerged the topic of leadership and organizational

culture. Organizational culture and leadership were first linked in a study by Andrew

Pettigrew. Pettigrew's (1979) research explored how organizational culture is created.

Schein (1983) brought the topic to the forefront of management literature and solidified

its place in leadership theory and practice with the book *Organizational Culture and*

Leadership (Schein, 1985). Schein followed his brief discussion about leadership and

culture in mergers & acquisitions with practical advice about how to deal with cultural

issues in blended organizations in *The Corporate Culture Survival Guide* (Schein, 1999).

A Baker and Associates' (Eddy & VanDerLinden, 2006) research project drew on

leadership theory about culture and symbolic management of meaning to define cultural

leadership. According to the Baker and Associates report, "how leaders help create

meaning for others in a given cultural context is at the heart of cultural leadership" (p. 9).

A variety of researchers in higher education have studied cultural and symbolic theories

recently.

The key question that cultural studies address is under what conditions leaders can

make a difference. The emphasis is on understanding the culture or climate of an

38

institution and then aligning the leadership to the values and beliefs that undergird and make up the culture" ("Higher Education Leadership," 2006, p. 123).

Creating and changing mental models is one example of how leaders help in the development of blended cultures. Leaders contribute to changing mental models through corporate dialogue (Foster & Kaplan, 2001). "During the dialogue process, mental models are adjusted to reflect local context. These adjustments are then fed back into the mental models of top management. In this way, the mental models change" (p. 72). March (1994) describes visions as mental models in the process of formation and notes that they are not established by edict or the exercise of power or coercion.

The process of blending cultures after a merger can be facilitated by the selection of leaders that emphasize the behaviors that are desired in the combined entity (Garver, 2006). Top executives in the Benchmark Assisted Living and Village Retirement merger selected their direct reports with an eye towards creating the culture they envisioned. Gitelson, Bing, and Laroche (2001) substantiate this approach and argue that:

> Only a new culture can create the context for true change to happen. One of the quickest ways to effect change and create the new company is to place in all key positions those individuals who are true representatives of the new culture and who can effectively lead people on both sides of the company's cultural divide. (p. 44)

Integration managers play an important role in blending cultures. They clear pathways between cultures by facilitating social connections among people on both sides (Ashkenas & Francis, 2000). Ashkenas and Francis describe the significance of the integration manager's task of building social connections:

The people involved in mergers and acquisitions are often strangers, thrown

together in a joint enterprise, sometimes against their will. Besides keeping the

day-to-day business going, employees at both companies need to build new

relationships, which often involves bridging language and culture gaps" (p. 112).

Integration managers accelerate integration by promoting cultural learning a pivotal

mechanism for developing the shared understandings necessary to engage companies in

the process of cultural blending (Schweiger & Goulet, 2002).

Boundary spanning managers act as mediators that buffer organizational conflict

throughout the course of cultural blending (Adams, 1976). Boundary spanning managers

establish an environment in which interactions between the acquiring and acquired firm

can take place. The overlapping area between the two cultural boundaries can be

described as a buffer zone in which interactions are perceived to be free from constituent

influence. The boundary spanning manager's neutral role in effecting transactions

between merged organizations is the key to resolving organizational conflict in a way that

ensures mutually beneficial outcomes.

Conflict resolution. Gerzon (2006) associates resolution of conflict with

transformation. "Transformation means that the conflict is neither superficially settled

with a quick compromise nor temporarily 'fixed.' It means the stakeholders go through a

process of change that raises the dynamics of the conflict to another level" (p. 4). The

transformation that occurs through conflict resolution, Gerzon argues, is dependent upon

leaders who can traverse divisive boundaries:

We simply cannot manage a whole *company*, a whole *community* – and certainly

not a whole *planet* – with leaders who identify only with one part. Instead, more

often than ever before, we need boundary-crossing leaders who can help the parts

work together to strengthen the whole. (p. 3)

Sample (2005) depicts the *contrarian leader* as someone who has mastered the art

of listening. The contrarian leader acquires new ideas and gathers and assesses

information through artful listening. According to Sample:

The contrarian leader prizes and cultivates his ability to simultaneously view

things from two or more perspectives. He can listen to what others have to say

about important issues without surrendering his principles or his creative

judgment. He avoids becoming immobilized by conflicting points of view, and he

never abdicates to others the responsibility for fashioning his own unique vision.

(p. 357)

Contrarian leaders approach conflict resolution from an objective viewpoint and strive to

understand differing viewpoints before reaching conclusions.

Masters and Albright (2005) advocate a collaborative approach to conflict

resolution. According to Masters and Albright, "collaboration fits nicely with the goals of

effective conflict resolution. It emphasizes getting to the real problem, exploring options,

meeting interests, and building relationship" (p. 587). Master and Albright also state that,

"At work, your willingness to collaborate is important because relationships are often

long term and unavoidably proximate" (p. 588).

The integrative phase of conflict resolution supports productive dialogue by

focusing attention on the unifying aspects of the disputants' relationship (Walton, 1987).

"In the *integration phase* the parties appreciate their similarities, acknowledge their

common goals, own up to positive aspects of their ambivalences, express warmth and

respect, or engage in other positive actions to manage conflict" (p. 92). The integrative

phase of conflict resolution makes cultural change possible because through it leaders

gain the "ability to frame issues, build coalitions, and establish arenas in which

disagreements can be forged into workable pacts" (Bolman & Deal, 2003, p. 378).

Step 4: Cultural Change

The fourth step of cultural integration, *cultural change*, relates to Bennett's

(1993) fifth stage of intercultural sensitivity, *adaptation*. During adaptation, individuals

begin to acquire new skills for relating to and communicating with people of different

cultures. Two of the skills individuals acquire during this stage are empathy and plurality.

Empathy is the ability to feel the emotions and experiences of another person from that

person's point of view and plurality is the ability to create multiple cultural contexts. In

Tuckman's (1965) *performing stage,* "group members become proficient in working

together to achieve the group's goals and become more flexible in its patterns of working

together" (Johnson & Johnson, 2000, p. 31). Factors of cultural change are: (a) creating

new cultural frameworks, (b) role modeling, (c) unlearning and learning, and (d)

behavioral change.

Creating new cultural frameworks. Cultural frameworks are generalized

guidelines or prescriptions that enable group members to interpret organizational events,

interact with other group members, and perform work related tasks (Bligh, 2001). The

elements of a cultural framework together create the collective corporate identity that

members associate themselves with. Bligh explains that employees identify with aspects

of their corporate culture and form conceptual models and behaviors that reflect that

identification. "From this perspective, culture and identification are interrelated; culture

provides a symbolic, contextualized meaning to the identification process, while identification highlights which aspects of the culture individuals *tune into* and translate to their own work values and processes" (p. 10).

Bligh (2001) argues that employees need to identify with cultural frameworks in order for them to engender attitudes and behaviors in alignment with organizational values and beliefs. Bligh establishes a theoretical relationship between culture and identification and declares that, "Given this theoretical relationship between culture and identification, a successful merger can be conceptualized in part as a function of whether employees form identifications with new cultural elements and frameworks in the aftermath of a merger" (p. 17).

Bligh (2001) describes the best possible outcome of a merger from a cultural perspective:

> Ideally the post-merger organization will entail the creation of a new, integrative culture, incorporating some of the elements from the pre-merger organizational cultures as well as some that are entirely novel. This necessitates that employees let go of some of their residual identifications and develop new ones. Both newly formed and residual identifications will help to shape the newly merged culture, and will have strong ramifications for the ease or difficulty employees will have in adapting to cultural changes. (p. 18)

The process of changing cultural frameworks has been explored from several vantage points. Kim and Ruben (1988) describe the process as *intercultural transformation.* Intercultural transformation is said to occur when individuals "move beyond the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of their initial cultural framework to

incorporate other cultural realities" (p. 347). Argyris (1977) and others refer to the process as double-loop learning or frame breaking. Bolman and Deal (2003) express it as reframing. According to Bolman and Deal, "the essence of reframing is examining the same situation from multiple vantage points. The effective leader changes lenses when things don't make sense or aren't working" (p. 331).

Role modeling. The development of culture through social interaction and behavior is believed to be the responsibility of leaders. In particular, Trice and Beyer (1991) point out that it is hard to believe that the social processes necessary for cultural development could occur without the effort of cultural leaders. Trice and Beyer state:

> Someone in a culture has to originate or recognize rationales that reduce people's uncertainties, make them understandable and convincing, and communicate them widely and repeatedly so that others come to share the same understandings. Such efforts are not confined to designated leaders or one leader at a time. Rather, different persons located in different roles in the same or different subgroups can take cultural leadership roles at the same time or at different times. (p. 151)

One of the behaviors Trice and Beyer ascribe to cultural leaders is effective role modeling.

> Bligh (2001) links role modeling to identification with new cultural frameworks: Through various elements of cultural leadership such as role modeling, one-on-one communications with employees, and articulating how new ideologies can be integrated into existing cultural beliefs, cultural leadership is hypothesized to strongly affect whether or not employees identify with new cultural frameworks. (pp. 34-35)

44

The results of Bligh's research show "that cultural leaders at all levels of the organization can utilize any combination of cultural leadership elements to translate overarching cultural frameworks into localized meanings" (p. 126).

One description of cultural change portrays it as a conversion process which starts with leadership and is then transmitted throughout the organization (Denison, 1990). Schein (1992) believes cultural change comes through the infusion of outsiders who initiate a process of new cultural formation by gradually educating and reshaping top management's thinking. According to Schein, "the basic process of embedding a cultural element – a given belief or assumption – is a *teaching* process, but not necessarily an explicit one" (p. 21).

Deal and Kennedy (1982) depict cultural change as changes in the behavior of people throughout the organization that occur as a result of people in the organization identifying with new role-model heroes. Role modeling appropriate behavior is a means of communicating the values and beliefs of the organization (Miller, 2000). Cummings and Worley (2001) advise modeling culture change at the highest levels of management. "Senior executives must communicate the new culture through their own actions. Their behaviors need to symbolize the kinds of values and behaviors being sought" (pp. 261-262).

Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership (Bass, 1990) affirms that, "The values, beliefs, norms and ideals that are embedded in a culture affect leadership behavior, goals, and strategies of organizations" (p. 772). Early research by Dill (1958) concluded that relevant environmental variables impact behavior. Organizational behavior research has confirmed Dill's results and determined that cultural change occurs

through interactive processes between leaders and organization members (Holman & Devane, 1999).

Smith (2000) advises that in mergers & acquisitions if a new culture is required leadership appointments must send clear messages to the organization about the intended culture. The result of a merger between strong allies should be a win-win combination of their cultures. Esler (2005) suggests that "Even if the two groups are competitive with each other, that's manageable if the leadership handles it skillfully, drawing on the strengths of each organization" (¶ 12).

Unlearning and learning. A comparison of two approaches to organizational change following a merger showed that an active approach to defining the new cultural combination was more successful than allowing the new culture to emerge and define itself (Livigni, 2002). Two active approaches to cultural change have been identified by Argyris and Senge. Argyris' (1977) double loop learning theory emphasizes the importance of uncovering assumptions that produce flawed thinking. According to Argyris; "organizational learning is a process of detecting and correcting error" (p. 117). Senge's (1999) theory focuses on *mental models* that influence how we understand the world and determine how we take action. Senge explains that "very often, we are not consciously aware of our mental models or the effects they have on our behavior" (p. 8) and points out that mental models of what can or cannot be done in different management settings is deeply entrenched in organizational behavior.

Schein refers to cultural change in organizations as transformational learning (Coutu, 2002). According to Schein, "change of this magnitude requires people to give up long-held assumptions and to adopt radically new ones. This kind of process of

unlearning and relearning is unbelievably painful and slow" (p. 106). Schein compares the unlearning and learning involved in cultural change to the coercive persuasion techniques used to brainwash prisoners of war. "Like prisoners of war, potential learners experience so much hopelessness through survival anxiety that eventually they become open to the possibility of learning" (pp. 104-105).

Argyris (1991) talks about differences between the *theory-in-use* and *espoused* theory of action that individuals use to guide their behavior. Argyris explains that one of the paradoxes of human behavior "is that the master program people actually use is rarely the one that they think they use" (p. 103). Argyris goes on to say that "defensive reasoning encourages individuals to keep private the premises, inferences, and conclusions that shape their behavior and to avoid testing them in a truly independent fashion" (p. 103). Changing theories-in-use requires individuals to openly examine their behavior and to reason in a new way. Argyris believes that:

People can be taught how to recognize the reasoning they use when they design and implement their actions. They can begin to identify inconsistencies between their espoused and actual theories of action. They can face up to the fact that they unconsciously design and implement actions that they do not intend" (p. 106).

Biggert (1977) associates cultural change with the process of creative destruction and stresses the necessity for destruction of old methods in favor of the new:

It is not generally recognized that change is an act of destruction as much as of creation. Because most organizations do change slowly, experimenting with and selectively incorporating new forms, the destruction of old forms and methods is relatively obscured. But the destructive process must either precede or exist

47

simultaneously with the creative. The act of undoing and dismantling is important

theoretically: reorganization presumes the rejection or supercession of old

methods in favor of new and the organization must systematically destroy former,

competing structures before it can successfully implant the new. (p. 410)

Biggert explains why the learning of new methods during organizational change is

similar to indoctrination. "Indoctrination is perhaps an extreme concept but it is

appropriate to the extent that the training often focuses on unlearning old habits of

relating to work, employees, and customers, and relearning new businesslike

orientations" (p. 421).

"Piaget's (1971) research shows that we unconsciously create mental models from

our earliest days. As we age we learn, from both formal and informal processes. Learning

is one way of characterizing the process of changing mental models" (Foster & Kaplan,

2001, p. 72). Foster and Kaplan warn that "Loyalty to a flawed mental model can be

costly. If the mental model becomes outmoded – in the sense that it no longer provides an

accurate simplification or rendering of reality – then any conclusions or predictions

derived from it will be distorted as well" (p. 70). Foster and Kaplan add that "Studies

show that decision makers seek data that confirms existing mental models, rather than

data that contradicts such models. There is a natural human bias toward confirmation" (p.

70).

Behavioral change. Ghoshal and Bartlett (1996) discuss successful transformation

efforts and state that changing individuals' behavior is a function of transformational

change. Ghoshal and Bartlett indicate that organizational transformation demands

profound behavioral change and recognize behavioral change as the driving engine of a

transformation effort. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1995) advise changing the behavioral context or identity of the organization in order to affect change in organizational behavior.

Dutton et al. (1994) used social identity theory to develop a model about how organizational identification affects organization behavior:

The psychology of social identity theory is powerful because it implies that members may change their behavior by merely thinking differently about their employing organization. If members believe that the perceived organizational identity has been altered either in content (e.g., in what attributes distinguish the organization) or in its evaluation (making it more or less attractive), members are likely to modify their behavior. This change in members' behavior does not require interacting with others, altering employees' jobs and rewards, or changing bosses. Rather, if members think of their employing organization differently (by changes in perceived organizational identity or construed external image), we argue they will behave differently. (p. 256)

According to Dutton et al. (1994), "mergers and acquisitions represent changes in both structure and culture and may alter members' organizational images. These strategic changes revise both the boundaries and the content of a member's perceived organizational identity" (p. 259).

Rousseau (1990) agrees that employees' identification with elements of cultural frameworks can influence their behavior. Becker and Carper (1956) found that individuals immersed in the social milieu of a group developed characteristics consistent with the group's identity. Ashforth and Mael (1989) believe another method of transferring organizational identity to members is through symbolic management.

"Through the manipulation of symbols such as traditions, myths, metaphors, rituals, sagas, heroes, and physical setting, management can make the individual's membership salient and can provide compelling images of what the group or organization represents" (p. 28). Lee (1971) sees identification as a form of loyalty:

> Identification as a loyalty can be discussed in terms of attitudes and behavior which support the organization. This phenomenon can be explained by such behavior as supporting the organizational objectives, taking pride in the tenure in the organization, or defending the organization to outsiders. (p. 215)

Martin and Siehl (1983) stress the impact of an organization's identity or culture on organizational behavior. "Cultures serve as organizational control mechanisms, informally approving or prohibiting some patterns of behavior" (p. 53). Schein (1992) explains that organizational behavior is established "through the rewards and punishments that long-time members mete out to new members as they experiment with different kinds of behavior" (p. 13), but makes the distinction that behavior change is linked to cognitive redefinition:

> Most change processes emphasize the need for behavior change. Such change is important in laying the groundwork for cognitive redefinition but is not sufficient unless such redefinition takes place. Behavior change can be coerced, but it will not last once the coercive force is lifted unless cognitive redefinition has proceeded or accompanied it. (p. 302)

Courage in the Workplace

Courage in the workplace was first talked about in (Tannery, 1948) the context of challenges facing the relatively young profession of accounting in the late 1940s. Tannery (1952) argues that it is necessary for leaders to challenge outdated assumptions based on old ways of doing business in order to be successful. Tannery describes this type of behavior as business courage and encourages industrial accountants to use business courage to overcome obstacles to success.

Drucker (1963) refers to the type of courage associated with managing businesses effectively as managerial courage. Drucker describes managerial courage as "the courage to go through with logical decisions" (p. 60). Drucker emphasizes the importance of courage but admits in his article *Managing for Business Effectiveness* that "it would be nice if I did, but unfortunately I know of no procedure or checklist for managerial courage" (p. 60).

Hornstein's (1986) book *Managerial Courage* was the first to provide an in depth look at courage in the workplace. Hornstein uses questionnaires (133 American and 46 Japanese) and interviews (24 American and 5 Japanese) to gather information from managers about "the psychological profiles of courageous managers and the organizational conditions which stimulate and stifle managerial courage" (p. ix). Hornstein linked managerial courage with organizational regeneration and found that "the actions of managers who are successfully courageous follow a pattern that others can learn" (p. 7).

Hornstein (1986) describes managerial courage as taking an unpopular position and speaking out in spite of the potential costs because it is in the organization's best interest. According to Hornstein, "it involves the expression of ideas that are different from the current consensus" (p. 29). Hornstein views risk as a critical component of courage and emphasized the point that courageous managers needed to accept ownership of their ideas "so that the risk for expressing them was not lost in the safety of anonymity" (p.29). After Hornstein's book, the expressions *managerial courage* and *business courage* appeared more frequently in business literature and were used interchangeably in talking about courage in the workplace.

Kiechel III (1987) confirms Hornstein's view of managerial courage describing it as "acting for the good of the organization in the face of potential wrath from above" (p. 150). Van Eynde's (1998) definition of managerial courage centers on the component of risk. Van Eynde states, "Managerial courage is defined as the willingness to do what is right in the face of risk. By risk, I mean a real or perceived danger to oneself or one's reputation or career" (p. 62). Van Eynde goes on to say that "in practice, managerial courage includes such actions as confronting the status quo, embracing change in the face of resistance and opposing a popular but unhealthy idea" (p. 62).

Sampson (1998) amends the meaning of executive courage by differentiating between a courageous person and a courageous act. According to Sampson, "there are several errors we commonly make when we employ terms such as *wisdom* and *courage*. . . . we usually assume that these are qualities that individuals possess or do not possess" (p. 120). Sampson explains that actions become or are identified as courageous as a result of the social context in which they take place. A courageous act is performed to achieve a

social purpose. Therefore, "an act *we* consider cowardly may very well be considered courageous by those who carry it out or endorse it" (p. 120).

Cavanagh and Moberg (1999) describe courageous acts in the context of a work organization. Cavanagh and Moberg assert that "an act is courageous when a person: (a) strives to achieve some unambiguous moral good, and (b) in the process is in significant personal danger" (p. 5). Cavanagh and Moberg distribute courageous acts within an organization into two categories of acts that achieve noble ends and three categories of risks that involve a difficult or dangerous means. Cavanagh and Moberg indicate that voluntary acts in pursuit of noble ends may be (a) acts to achieve organizational ends or (b) acts to reform organizational activities. The three categories of risks Cavanagh and Moberg identify as involving difficult or dangerous means are (a) risks to physical well-being, (b) risks to economic well-being, and (c) risks to social well-being. Treasurer (2000) connects risk-taking with courage by way of authenticity:

Taking risks, and facing fear, is the only way to stretch our comfort zones. Thus is risk-taking the key to personal growth. In executive settings, courage has to do largely with authenticity. The mark of seasoned executives is their ability to be comfortable within their own skin – regardless of their imperfections. (p. 43)

Klein and Napier (2001) identify five acts of courage that characterize individuals who have the courage to act in the face of adversity or ambiguity while executing new business strategies. Klein and Napier also advocate a Courage Index that measures the five dimensions of their *Courage to Act* model. Klein and Napier argue that the five factors; (a) mission, (b) will, (c) rigour, (d) risk, and (e) candour, "equip teams to face

new challenges, implement new technology and solve problems that they've never seen before" (p. 259).

Salaman and Storey (2002) identify business courage in their study about managers' theories of the process of innovation. Salaman and Storey report that managers talk about business courage in the context of trying new things to remain competitive in a changing market. The results of Salaman and Storey's study show that "a number of respondents were keen to experiment and were urging a greater preparedness to take risks" (p. 157).

Furnham (2002) identifies three types of business courage associated with managing change: (a) the courage to fail, (b) interpersonal courage, and (c) moral courage. Furnham believes that change management is mostly about courage and asserts that the courage to change is something that is not learned at business school. According to Furnham, "business courage is not that different from battle courage: it is surprising who does and does not manifest it, when and why. Perhaps the single feature that predicts and prevents managers making badly-needed and necessary changes is simply courage" (p. 21).

May, Hodges, Chan, and Avolio (2003) define moral courage as a "leader's fortitude to convert moral intention into action despite pressures from either inside or outside the organization to do otherwise" (p. 255). May et al. link moral courage to authentic leadership and suggest that the organizational climate influences moral behavior. May et al.'s "model of the authentic moral leader presumes an organizational climate that is developed to support ethical behavior" (p. 255) but the authors

acknowledge that "there are times where it simply comes down to an authentic leader having the courage to say and do what's right" (p. 255).

Developing Courage in the Workplace

Cavanagh and Moberg (1999) indicate that an individual may develop a disposition to be courageous through moral habit. "Good moral habits, such as courage, can be developed by a person, and that person can be aided in the development by the organization. . . . A person develops good habits by deliberately and repeatedly performing the act" (p. 11, 13).

May et al. (2003) view courage as a moral component of authentic leadership. May et al. explain that more leaders intend to act authentically than the number who actually do. May et al. believe that the difference between leaders who do and leaders who do not act authentically is courage:

> Decent people with admirable intentions may choose not to act ethically for a variety of very good reasons, including that of preserving their own career survival. Whether or not leaders' intentions to act authentically lead to authentic moral actions is influenced by their courage to engage in actions regardless of the social pressures to do otherwise. (p. 247)

May et al. (2003) identify courage as one of three components of authentic leadership development and indicate that moral courage can be developed through training. According to May et al., "leadership development programs can build moral courage by fostering leaders' beliefs in their ability to translate moral intentions into actions" (p. 257).

Klein and Napier (2003) believe individuals become more courageous by developing the five Courage to Act factors. Klein and Napier share 30 questions that identify strengths and weaknesses in each of the five Courage to Act factors; which are (a) candor: the courage to speak and hear the truth, (b) purpose: the courage to pursue lofty audacious goals, (c) will: the courage to inspire optimism, spirit, and promise, (d) rigor: the courage to invent disciplines and make them stick, and (e) risk: the courage to empower, trust, and invest in relationships.

Klein and Napier (2003) offer advice about how to improve performance in each of the factors and also offer a five-part formula for dealing with conflict using the Courage to Act factors. Klein and Napier recommend a win-win approach to conflict resolution and suggest that the Courage to Act factors can help individuals resolve conflicts in a way that contributes to the good of the enterprise.

Walston (2003) likens developing courage to climbing a ladder and suggests that there is a courage quotient that measures an individual's level of courage. According to Walston, "people with courage state their goals and then work backwards to find ways to achieve them. They develop new models when old models don't work. They move forward and upward, never quit, and take risks to reinvent themselves" (p. 59). Walston (2007) describes the courage quotient's five levels of courage consciousness; (a) unaware, (b) excusing, (c) unavailable, (d) observant, and (e) aware as behavioral manifestations of courage action skills and states that "a conscious effort is required to develop personal courage and insert courage action skills at work" (p.51).

Reardon (2007) encourages leaders to take intelligent gambles and identifies a courage calculation that will make success more likely. Reardon suggests that "in

business, courageous action is really a special kind of calculated risk taking" (p. 60).

Reardon states that in some instances courage is a matter of life and death, and "yet in my

25 years of studying human behavior in organizations, I've discovered that courage in

business seldom operates like this" (p. 60).

Rate and Sternberg (2007) suggest that organizations can develop individuals to

assure that courageous behavior will be exhibited when necessary. Rate and Sternberg's

message implies that courage development is possible, but not directly:

Some would argue that courage cannot be directly developed in an individual.

Rather, the focus is appropriately placed on the development of the components

of courage in the hope that the components will be synthesized to enable

courageous behavior as the situation requires. (p. 18)

Identifying and Measuring Courage

The concept of courage has been examined from many perspectives. Beginning

with the Greek philosophers, (Plato, 380 B.C.E) many have attempted to identify the

essential components or a universal construct for the concept courage. Socrates was the

first to propound the idea that there are multiple types of courage and to suggest that

courage could be displayed in situations dealing with desires and pleasures as well as

pain or fear.

Tillich (1952) explores the concept of courage from the perspective of human

being; linking courage to existentialism as a means of overcoming anxiety. Tillich

identifies three types of anxiety related to being that courage may be associated with: (a)

the anxiety of fate and death, (b) the anxiety of emptiness and meaninglessness, and (c)

the anxiety of guilt and condemnation. Tillich relates these three types of anxiety to the

nature of man and suggests that there are three realms; physical, spiritual, and moral in which courage can be manifested.

Risk taking is one way courage has been linked to the workplace. According to research by Grey and Gordon (1978), managers who are risk-takers tend to rise more rapidly because of their ability to produce results. Grey and Gordon found in a multinational company study that non-managers considered to have high potential for future advancement were also likely to be risk-takers. "Seventy percent of this group scored high on risk taking, as compared with 50 percent of their co-workers who were not identified as top candidates for advancement" (p. 11).

An empirical definition of courage was first sought by Evans and White (1981) in a study of boys and girls attributions of others' behavior in a fearful situation. Evans and White confirmed that, " an empirical definition of courage probably involves three important attributional dimensions: (a) the fear level of the person making the attribution; (b) the perceived fear level of the attributee; and (c) salient features of the situation e.g. objective risk involved and so on" (p. 420).

Much of the research about courage has been influenced by the classification of courage as a virtue. Walton (1986) advocates the position that courage should be viewed from a perspective of moral commendation. His philosophical investigation of courage determines two basic reasons an act of courage should be considered morally commendable: (a) a courageous act is always directed toward a good end, and (b) a courageous act overcomes great difficulty or danger.

Worline, Wrzesniewski, and Rafaeli (2002) indicate that "courage requires engaging in a difficult or dangerous situation while actively assessing the risks and

consequences" (p. 300). Worline et al. explain that self-regulation is a particular component of courage in the workplace because courage in organizations involves reinforcement of goal oriented behavior. According to Worline et al.:

> When people encounter behavior that is discrepant from the taken-for-granted norms, roles, scripts, and routines, they emotionally sense and cognitively monitor features of the exceptional action to determine progress toward worthy goals and feelings and values that are important in the organization. This monitoring process is part of ascribing courage to exceptional organizational activity, as people make inferences about the risk involved, the amount of free choice available to the actor, and the quality of judgment that motivates the behavior, along with the purposes of the exceptional action. (p. 301)

Worline et al. (2002) conclude that "in order for courage to be present, a courageous actor and an influenced observer must be present – even within the same person" (p. 300). The capacity to discern courageous activity within oneself is therefore contingent upon the individual's ability to be both actor and observer at the same time. Woreline et al. assert that self-regulation is a key component of courage in the workplace; "We suggest that this quality is at the heart of courage because it is the heart of self-reflexive judgment and the ability to persist in the face of fear" (p. 300).

An examination of the function of fear in the construct of courage was made by Pears (2004) to determine if fear is a prerequisite of courage. Pears poses the question of "whether a truly courageous soldier is one who feels no fear or one who feels fear but controls it" (p. 7). Pears' inquiry suggests that the difference between types of courage may be found in the classification of courage as a virtue or merely a form of self-control.

Pears allows that self-control is a virtue and argues that as an executive virtue, courage may be displayed for a less than noble purpose. Pears concludes that courage is connected with the agent's emotions due to the factor of risk. "Courage deals with risk to life and limb, or, more generally, with the risk of anything harmful, and so it has an obvious connection with the agent's emotions, especially his fear" (p. 7).

Simple definitions of courage such as "the willingness to take risk" (Koestenbaum, 2002, p. 49) provide a generic view of courage which makes measurement difficult. Woodard (2004) defined courage as "the ability to act for a meaningful (noble, good, or practical) cause, despite experiencing the fear associated with perceived threat exceeding the available resources" (p. 174) and developed a measure of courage in order to examine the role courage plays in the construct of hardiness. Woodard studied courage in relationship to the construct of hardiness because it "has been proposed to buffer the effects of stress on the body and was derived from the existential concept of the authentic personality" (p. 173). Woodard establishes that "courage is rarely fully defined" and "that there are no commonly used, empirically derived measures of courage currently available" (p. 175).

Woodard's 31-item courage scale identifies four separate factors of courage. According to Woodard (2004), "the first factor described the quality of endurance of stressful, painful, or dangerous events for some beneficial or positive outcome" (p. 181). "The second factor consisted of situations where there were interactions with groups of others" (p. 182). Woodard found that factor three items involved acting alone and were related to a work environment. "Many of the items that created the fourth factor were related to the endurance of physical pain…or involved standing up for what was morally

right though this meant going against social norms or expectations" (p. 182). The discovery that factor three items related to a work environment led Woodard to conclude that the courage scale might "illuminate the relationship between courage and leadership and the role courage plays in executive development" (p. 184).

Woodard and Pury (2007) developed a courage scale (Woodard Pury Courage Scale – 23) similar to Woodard's (2004) 31-item scale (Personal Perspective Survey) which contained 23 of the original 31 items. In the second instrument, the component of fear was removed from the courage score calculation. Woodard and Pury attempted to restrain the definition of courage based on the type of threat present but concluded that "focusing on this element may be insufficient to determine what types of courage exist" (p. 141).

Peterson and Seligman (2004) identify courage as one of six virtues endorsed by cultures around the world. Their Character Strengths and Virtues (CSV) index "describes and classifies strengths and virtues that enable human thriving" (Seligman, Steen, Park & Peterson, 2005, p. 411). Peterson and Seligman's (2004) classification of courage includes the following four character strengths: a) authenticity – speaking the truth and presenting oneself in a genuine way, b) bravery – not shrinking from threat, challenge, difficulty or pain, c) persistence – finishing what one started, and d) zest – approaching life with excitement and energy. Peterson, Park, and Seligman (2005) developed reliable and valid assessment strategies for each of the CSV's character strengths.

There has been some research since Woodard's (2004), and Peterson and Seligman's (2004) focusing on courage in the workplace. Harvey (2005) looked specifically at hardiness at work to identify psychophysiological indicators of courage.

Harvey found that *Hardiness Attitudes* predicted better performance on certain work related tasks. Wortman (2006) studied the effects of moral courage on ethical decision-making and found that individuals with a higher degree of perspective-taking were more likely to recognize a moral dilemma, thus demonstrating moral capacity. Results also showed that an "individual's level of moral courage enhances the relationship between his/her moral evaluation and moral intent" (p. 51).

Two recent studies by Kruger and Richards focus on courage and leadership. Kruger (2007) looks at the courageous experiences of community college leaders and identifies eight themes characterizing the experience of courage: (a) real risks, (b) reasoned choice, (c) call to act, (d) facing adversity, (e) loneliness and isolation, (f) staying power, (g) maintaining personal integrity, and (h) preservation. Kruger also provides a conceptual framework for the development process of becoming a courageous leader that focuses on time horizons. Kruger reports that phase one elements of the development process of courage in the present horizon are: (a) fear, (b) taking responsibility, (c) risk, and (d) reasoned choice.

Richards (2008) explores the topic of development and practice of courageous leadership from a feminine perspective. Richards identifies three essences of the fundamental structure of feminine courage: (a) courage is realized by taking huge leaps of faith, (b) the courageous self is most comfortable living along the margins and making choices that seem counterintuitive to others, and (c) courage development is incremental, fleeting, unexpected, non-linear. One of the themes Richards recognizes, *deliberate thoughtful choosing despite the risk*, contains sub-themes similar to Kruger's (2007) eight themes. Richard's five sub-themes are:

1. Driven from within to speak the truth in spite of the risks

2. Choosing to act

3. Purposeful visioning arising from determined resolve

4. Strategic positioning

5. Deliberate decision-making emanating from head to heart

These sub-themes bare resemblance to Klein and Napier's (2001) five Courage to Act factors as well.

The most recent empirical research aimed at defining courage suggests that core components of the construct of courage determine whether or not an act is courageous. Rate (2007) employs an implicit theory methodology to identify a concise operational definition of courage. Rate argues that identification of the core dimensions common among all brands of courage is imperative for empirical research directed towards understanding the meaning of courage. According to Rate, "understanding the meaning of this construct is a first step towards promoting it through individual and organizational training programs" (p. 3).

Rate's (2007) study uses emergent coding to extract dominant themes from scholarly definitions of courage in order to identify the major components of courage:

1. External circumstances

2. Cognitive processes

3. Motivation towards excellence

4. Affect/emotion

5. Volition

6. Behavioral response

7. Characteristic/trait/skills/ability

These seven major components of courage were derived by expert rater consensus. Rate asserts that the major components extracted in his study would be effective in describing all types of courage. Also, the results of Rate's study indicate that three of the seven major components; external circumstances, motivation towards excellence, and volition must be present for an act to be considered courageous.

Summary

The three sections of the literature review, *Mergers & Acquisitions, Cultural Integration,* and *Courage* provide a comprehensive overview of the relevant aspects of this study. The information is provided with the intention of informing the reader about how the subjects of this study were impacted by their company's merger, what the subjects may have experienced as the cultures of the two companies were integrated, and examples of how courageous behavior may have manifested itself during their cultural integration experience.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

A goal of this study was to increase the understanding of courageous behavior in organizations by providing a context for courage that can be linked to leaders' behavior at work. In pursuit of this, the researcher answered the following questions in this study:

1. What are the common experiences of courage among executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies?

2. To what extent, if at all, do executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies report experiences of courage that involve (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms?

Through personal interviews with executives, the researcher attempted to identify common experiences of courage among executives who had undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies. To answer the first research question content analysis was used to identify courage elements and categorize acts of courage that were described in participant interviews in order to determine if patterns existed in and between executives' courage experiences. To answer the second research question, the researcher analyzed the data to determine whether or not the executives' courage experiences involved any of Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage; (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms.

Description of Population

The population consisted of executive managers previously employed by the acquired company. The following were criteria for selecting the sample: (a) employed by the acquired company when the two companies merged, (b) were executive managers in the acquiring company's primary business, and (c) were working at sites where the acquiring company's primary business was located at the time of the study. A fourth criterion for selecting the sample was considered by the researcher but was deemed to be too restrictive. The criterion - have been promoted or had an increase in responsibility, accountability, and authority since becoming an executive in the acquiring company's primary business - intended to indicate successful integration of the acquired company employees into the acquiring company's heritage culture. The addition of this criterion would have reduced the sampling frame size to 11, which would have limited the number of interviews that could potentially be conducted.

A study Sponsor was used to identify members of the population due to the lack of a public listing of executive managers who met the sample selection criteria. The population members' status as managers and/or executives while employed at the acquired company was not known by the researcher unless study participants chose to provide the information in a demographic questionnaire they were asked to complete at the beginning of their interview.

The study Sponsor is a member of the population whom the researcher worked with on various projects in the acquiring company's primary business from 1999 to 2001. A sample of convenience was used that included members of the population that met the sample selection criteria whom the study Sponsor was able to contact and obtain consent

for their participation in the study. The study Sponsor identified potential participants and personally contacted them to request their participation in the study.

The sampling frame consists of 22 executive managers that were employed by the acquired company at the time of the merger who were working in the acquiring company's primary business at the time of this study. The members of the sampling frame were identified by the study Sponsor as population members that met the study's selection criteria, and whom the study Sponsor was able to personally contact to request their participation in the study.

The study Sponsor created a list of potential study participants based on the criteria for selecting the sample. The study Sponsor contacted potential participants and obtained permission for them to be identified as potential participants and for them to be contacted by the researcher. The study Sponsor submitted names of potential participants who agreed to participate in the study to the researcher as they became available. (See *Protection of Human Subjects* below for further information regarding the sample selection.)

Research Design

Reviewing the Informed Consent Form and Scheduling Interviews

The study Sponsor provided the Informed Consent form (See Appendix A) containing basic information about the study and a letter of introduction from the researcher (See Appendix B) to the members of the sample. The study Sponsor provided names of members of the sample who agreed to participate in the study to the researcher.

The researcher contacted potential participants' administrative assistants by phone to schedule interview appointments. The researcher determined potential participants'

availability for a face-to-face interview during the phone call. The specific times of the interviews were determined by the participant's availability for a 90 minute interview meeting.

Interviews were conducted in participants' private offices with the exception of one interview that was arranged by the participant to take place in a private conference room near the participant's work location. All interviews were conducted without interruption in a single meeting 60-90 minutes in length.

Narrative Analysis

A narrative is an open approach to collecting data about individual experiences (Flick, 2002). Narratives capture subjective experiences in a more comprehensive way than the traditional question – answer interview and allow the structure of the interview process to be guided by the interviewee's experience. A narrative usually consists of a beginning or initial event, a series of related events, and an ending.

Denzin (1989a) believes the expression of experience is conveyed best in the context of biographies and autobiographies. Denzin describes experience in this way: "persons as selves have experiences, *experience* referring here to the individuals meeting, confronting, passing through, and making sense of the events in their lives" (p. 33). Biographical narratives often focus on significant events that individuals confront and experience as turning points in their lives. Denzin explains that "students of the biographical method attempt to secure the meanings of epiphanies in the lives of the persons they study" (p. 33).

Personal Narrative

The personal narrative is an account of events that reflects experience through a first-person perspective (Robinson, 1995). Robinson describes the personal narrative as a process of remembering meaning. "Through these interactions meaning is shaped and constrained. . . . New meanings can emerge, additional meanings can be brought out, and initial meanings can be revised" (p. 203).

Denzin (1989b) explains that persons build biographies around experiences that affect the person at two levels, the surface level and the deep level. According to Denzin, "effects at the deep level cut to the inner core of the person's life and leave indelible marks on them. These are the epiphanies of life" (p. 39). Flick (2002) suggests that the personal narrative is the correct way to present experience and believes that research practice should concentrate on reconstructing life stories in interviews.

Business Narrative

A business narrative can be used to convey a message that inspires people to act in new ways (Denning, 2005). Denning connects business narrative to leadership as a way to motivate people to take action. "At a time when corporate survival often requires transformational change, leadership involves inspiring people to act in unfamiliar and often unwelcome ways" (p. 5). Denning believes that business narratives or stories play an important role in effective communication of a leader's successes and failures.

Two ways that Denning (2005) indicates business narratives can be used by leaders is communicating who they are and sharing knowledge. Business narratives that communicate who leaders are "are usually based on a life event that reveals some strength or vulnerability and shows what the speaker took from the experience" (p. 13).

According to Denning, "much of the intellectual capital of an organization is not written down anywhere but resides in the minds of the staff. Communicating this know-how across the organization and beyond typically occurs informally, through the sharing of stories" (p. 16).

Denzin (1989b) recommends "multiple narratives, drawn from the self-stories of *many* individuals located in different points in the process being interpreted" (p. 39) in order to ensure that fair and thorough consideration is given to the inquiry. Denzin also advocates the use of thick descriptions that "produce accounts that are sound, and adequate, and able to be confirmed and substantiated" (p. 84). The researcher will schedule a minimum of 10 interviews to ensure fair and thorough consideration is given to the inquiry and to ensure adequate selection of participants (Denzin, 1978).

Piloting the Interviews

A narrative interview was conducted with each participant using the following narrative question. *I would like you to tell me about your experiences at work that involved a change in your behavior or thinking after you relocated to the acquiring company's site in which you feel you acted courageously.* In addition to the narrative question, the researcher used structured questions as follow-up prompts to guide the interview (See Appendix C).

The narrative question (Silverman, 1993) was reviewed by an individual selected by the researcher who met the following selection criteria: (a) employed by the acquired company at the time of the merger and (b) was working at a site in Southern California. The researcher evaluated the effectiveness of the narrative question in eliciting responses consistent with the following research questions:

1. What are the common experiences of courage among executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies?

2. To what extent, if at all, do executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies report experiences of courage that involve (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms?

A pilot interview was conducted with the study Sponsor to determine the length of time necessary for conducting an interview without interruption in one session. An appropriate amount of time for each interview was scheduled based on the length of the pilot interview. Participant factors such as availability, willingness and ability to schedule time for the interview, and desire to share information also guided the researcher in scheduling the appropriate amount of time for the interview in order to ensure that the researcher would be able to conduct each interview without interruption in one session. The actual length of each participant's interview was determined by the amount of information the participant had to share.

Interviewing

Riessman (1993) suggests combining data collection methods to yield different kinds of information, for instance, a self-administered questionnaire to collect demographic data that can be evaluated quantitatively. Participants were asked to complete a demographic questionnaire (See Appendix D) that obtained basic information about themselves and their work experience. Participants were asked to complete the questionnaire at the beginning of their interview. The participants were informed that

completing the demographic questionnaire was voluntary and that they were allowed to skip any question that they did not want to answer. (See *Protection of Human Subjects* below for further information regarding completion of the demographic questionnaire.)

The interviews were recorded using a digital voice recorder. Permission to record the interview was obtained through the Informed Consent form (See Appendix A) at the time the interview candidate agreed to participate in the study. Permission to record the interview was required of participants due to the length of the narrative interviews and the type of data analysis conducted by the researcher.

Transcribing Interviews

The recorded interviews were transcribed by a professional transcriber and reviewed for accuracy. The researcher reviewed transcripts to ensure not only accurate recording of interviews, but also correct interpretation of any ambiguous or culture specific language.

Transcription of the recorded interviews followed Riessman's (1993) guidelines for transcription. Riessman makes it clear that interpretation should be linked to the research question that generates a narrative, but suggests a broader context for capturing the meaning contained in the narrative. "Individuals' narratives are situated in particular interactions but also in social, cultural, and institutional discourses, which must be brought to bear to interpret them" (p. 61). Ultimately, validation is essential for substantiating narrative interpretation. Following transcription, study participants were provided a copy of their transcript for review. Participants were asked to review the transcripts for accuracy and interpretation. Participants could change, add or delete content of the transcript during the transcript review.

Data Analysis

A collection of personal experience stories were documented and analyzed using narrative analysis and content analysis to identify the common experiences of courage among participants based on Rate's (2007) seven major components of courage. The following seven steps were taken to analyze data (Krippendorf, 2004):

1. Label narrative incident threads (narrative descriptions of acts of courage that have a beginning and ending point) found in participant transcripts.

2. Map incident threads to the researcher's hypothesized cultural integration model.

3. Code elements and categories of courage found in incident threads.

4. Analyze courage element structures in incident threads.

5. Determine if patterns exist in and between incident threads as well as in and between participant experiences.

6. Establish whether or not links exist between courage element structures and courage categories.

7. Establish whether or not links exist between the courage element structures and cultural integration process steps.

Corbin and Strauss (2008) stress the importance of analyzing data for process in order to formulate theory:

Analyzing data for process has certain advantages. In addition to giving findings a sense of "life" or movement, analyzing data for process encourages the incorporation of variation into the findings. Along with variation, process can lead to the identification of patterns as one looks for similarities in the way persons

73

define situations and handle them. And, if one's final goal is theory building, analyzing data for process is an essential step along the way. Finally, in relating process to structure, one is in fact linking categories. (p. 100)

The researcher eliminated all non-narrative passages from the text and reconstructed the data to identify patterns in the participants' courage experiences associated with the process of cultural integration (Flick, 2002). The hypothesized four-step cultural integration model reflects the researcher's knowledge and understanding of the cultural integration process. The model is intended to provide a comprehensive view of the process of cultural integration. It is not a conclusive representation of cultural integration, but describes only those aspects of cultural integration that appear to be relevant to this study.

Incidents described in participant interviews were coded based on categories of courage associated with Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage and Rate's (2007) seven major components of courage. The researcher's courage model (See Figure 2) depicts an integrated view of the factors and components of courage.

Staying Power or Fortitude	Interact with Others
Affect/Emotion	
Cognitive Processes	
Behavioral Response	
External Circumstances	
Motivation Toward Excellence	
Characteristic/Trait/Skill/Abilities	
Volition	
Act Alone	Pain or Social Norms
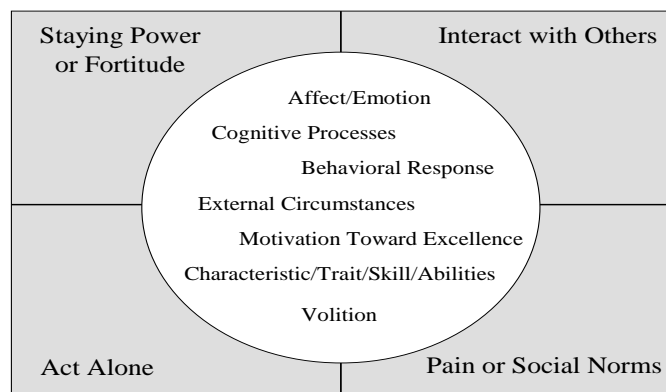
Figure 2. The researcher's courage model

Rate's (2007) seven major components of courage: (a) external circumstances, (b) cognitive processes, (c) motivation toward excellence, (d) affect/emotion, (e) volition, (f) behavioral response, and (g) characteristic/trait/skill/abilities, were used as preset categories for coding data. The participants' courage experiences were then labeled using Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage: (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms to establish whether or not links existed between courage categories and the cultural integration process steps. The researcher also examined "data to permit emergence, refinement, or collapsing of additional categories" (Altheide, 1996, p. 37). The researcher allowed for additional categories of courage to be established in this study based on acts of courage descriptions that did not correspond with Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage.

The following criteria were used for data coding (Krippendorf, 2004) as a measure of reproducibility:

1. It must employ communicable coding instructions – that is, an exhaustively formulated, clear, and workable data language plus step-by-step instructions on how to use it.

2. It must employ communicable criteria for selection of individual observers, coders, or analysts from a population of equally capable individuals who are potentially available for training, instruction, and coding elsewhere.

3. It must ensure that the observers who generate the reliability data work independent of each other. (p. 217)

Data analysis also included the following two steps identified by Altheide (1996):

1. Compare and contrast "extremes" and "key differences" within each category or item. (p. 41)

2. Integrate the findings with the researcher's interpretation and key concepts. (p. 47)

The results of this study were anticipated to show what common experiences of courage existed among executives who had undergone the process of cultural integration following a merger. The researcher also expected to identify categories of courage that might be linked to cultural integration process steps.

Protection of Human Subjects

Participants in this study were contacted by the study Sponsor to request their participation in the study. The study Sponsor's knowledge about potential participants' status as acquired company employees who were executive managers in the acquiring company's primary business was considered to be confidential information which could not be disclosed without the individual's permission. Potential participants received the Informed Consent form (See Appendix A) when they are contacted by the study Sponsor.

The researcher discussed with each of the potential participants that participation in the study was voluntary. The researcher informed potential participants that they could withdraw from the study at any time for any reason and that the study Sponsor would not know if they had withdrawn from the study. The researcher instructed all participants to review and sign the Informed Consent form before initiating each interview. The participant's signature on the form indicated agreement with the stated participation

criteria. The Informed Consent form included additional information recommended by Lincoln and Guba (1985, See Appendix E) in the book *Naturalistic Inquiry*.

The researcher did not use respondent quotes or summarize individual participant responses whether or not they include attribution in order to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of the study participants and the company they work for. Participants were offered the opportunity to review transcripts and change or delete information before data analysis began.

The researcher maintained confidentiality and anonymity in the following manner. The researcher prevented raw or processed data from being linked with a specific informant by referring to participants as respondents 1-10 and labeling digital files and documents accordingly. Personal identifiable information was removed from all transcripts prior to data coding. Each data coder was given a set of 40 labeled documents. The researcher reviewed the confidentiality agreement with data coders prior to data coding and instructed data coders not to copy any information contained in the documents. All documents were returned to the researcher at the conclusion of data coding.

Summary

Content analysis and narrative analysis were used in this study to examine participants' courage experiences. The researcher interviewed acquired company employees who were executive managers in the acquiring company's primary business at the time of this study. The personal experience stories were documented and analyzed using Rate's (2007) seven major components of courage to determine what common experiences of courage existed among executives who had undergone cultural integration

77

as a result of the merger of two companies. The researcher attempted to establish links

between categories of courage identified during data coding and cultural integration

process steps.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to increase the understanding of courageous behavior in organizations by providing a context for courage that could be linked to leaders' behavior at work. The researcher answered the following questions in this study:

1. What are the common experiences of courage among executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies?

2. To what extent, if at all, do executives who have undergone cultural integration as a result of the merger of two companies report experiences of courage that involve (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms?

The results of this study will be presented in two sections. The first section, *Process,* describes the outcome of the researcher's data collection and coding procedures. The second section, *Analysis,* presents the outcome of the researcher's data analysis.

Process

Participants

Ten individuals employed by an acquired company who were working as executive managers in the acquiring company's primary business at the time of this study served as participants in this study. Each of the 10 participants had relocated to the acquiring company's primary business site approximately 1150 miles away after the shut down of the acquired company's corresponding business unit following the merger. One of the study participants was working at the acquiring company's primary business site at

the time of this study but had not yet changed residences. Table 1 provides a summary of the demographic questionnaire data that was provided by study participants.

Table 1

Summary of Participant Demographics

Participant	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8	P9	P10
1. Gender	M	M	M	M	M	M	M	F	M	M
2. Education	B	M	B	B	P	B	M	M	B	P
3. E Level	E4	E5	E5	E4	E2	E5	E4	E5	E5	E2
4. ↑ Resp.	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5. Yrs. @ AC	20	15	19	12	11	11	11	12	10	< 1
6. Prev. Mgmt.	E4	E5	E5	Y	E4	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7. Yr. Trans.	1998	2007	1998	2005	2006	2000	2008	2004	2000	2001

Note. There were ten participants in the study identified as P1 – P10. Q1 gender – M = male, F = female; Q2 education level – B = bachelor, M = masters, P = post graduate; Q3 current level in executive management – E1 = highest level, E5 = lowest level; Q4 promoted or had an increase in responsibility or accountability since becoming an executive in the acquiring company – Y = yes, N = no; Q5 number of years working for the acquired company before merger; Q6 management position at acquired company and level if executive management – Y = management position/nonexecutive, N = non-management position, E1 = highest level, E5 = lowest level; Q7 year transferred to location of acquiring company's primary business.

All of the ten participants were college graduates with management experience prior to the merger that prompted the cultural integration process associated with this study. One of the ten participants, P8 was female. Four of the participants had executive level management experience in the acquired company prior to the merger. All of the participants had been promoted or had an increase in responsibility, accountability, and authority since becoming an executive in the acquiring company's primary business and all but one of the participants had worked for the acquired company 10 or more years prior to the merger. The number of years that participants had worked at sites where the acquiring company's primary business was located ranged from 2 – 11 years at the time interviews were conducted.

Interviews

Narrative interviews were conducted with each participant using the following narrative question. *I would like you to tell me about your experiences at work that involved a change in your behavior or thinking after you relocated to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously.* In addition to the narrative question, the researcher used structured questions as follow-up prompts to guide the interview (See Appendix C).

The interviews were conducted between April 1, 2009 and July 20, 2009. The average length of the interviews was 48 minutes with 26 minutes being the shortest interview and 72 minutes being the longest. All participants responded to the narrative question noted above and the four structured questions below:

1. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that

required you to exhibit staying power or fortitude in order to achieve a
positive outcome?

2. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the
   acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that
   involved interaction with groups of others?

3. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the
   acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that
   required you to act alone without the support of a group of people?

4. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the
   acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that
   involved physical pain or going against social norms?

Participants described at least one experience in response to each of the opening
narrative and structured follow-up questions. All 10 participants described a total of four
experiences in response to the opening narrative and structured follow-up questions.
Seven of the 10 participants described four experiences in response to the opening
narrative question and then referred back to the experiences mentioned in the opening
question providing additional details in response to the structured follow-up questions.
One of the participants described two experiences in response to the opening narrative
question and described two additional experiences during the structured follow-up
questions as well as providing additional details about the experiences previously
mentioned in the opening question. Two of the participants described three experiences in
response to the opening narrative question and described one additional experience

during the structured follow-up questions as well as providing additional details about the experiences previously mentioned in the opening question.

Transcription

A professional transcriber was contracted to translate the audio files generated by a digital voice recorder during the interviews. These transcripts were provided to the researcher in both electronic and paper format. The researcher compared the electronic documents with the audio files and corrected any obvious errors. The experiences participants shared during their interviews were organized into a paragraphed transcript. The transcriber determined where paragraph breaks should be inserted based on previous experience and her intuitive sense of flow in the audio discourse. The researcher made no changes to the paragraph structure. Information that might identify study participants or the company they work for was removed from the transcripts prior to data coding and analysis.

The researcher then sent the electronic transcripts to the participants via e-mail. A standard encrypted e-mail was sent to each participant (see Appendix F). Participants were allowed two weeks time to review the transcript and make any desired changes. One participant edited his transcript and returned it to the researcher before the two-week deadline. The changes involved accuracy of transcription rather than content of the document. The edited version of this transcript was used for data coding and analysis. One participant edited his transcript and attempted to return it to the researcher before the two-week deadline, but the edited transcript was not received by the researcher due to an incorrect mailing address being used. The edited transcript was returned to the sender via

U.S. Postal Service. Data coding had already begun at the time the mailing error was detected, so the edited transcript for that participant was not used.

Data Coding

There were two components to the data coding procedure. The first component was courage element-identification (identification of the seven major components of courage using data coding guides and data coding process instructions) and the second component courage category selection (selection of a courage category that best describes a participant's acts of courage). Three raters were used for courage element-identification. The raters included the researcher and two individuals with management experience in or related to the industry of the merged companies involved in this study. The researcher selected one female and one male rater. The female rater worked for a company that was also acquired by the acquiring company in this study. The male rater was a doctoral candidate in the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program at Pepperdine University.

The same three raters for courage element-identification described above also provided ratings for courage category selection. Two additional raters provided ratings for courage category selection; one a graduate of the Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership program at Pepperdine University and the other an employee of the acquiring company involved in this study. Prior to data coding, the researcher established initial courage category selections for each of the incident threads based on participant responses to the four structured follow-up questions (See Appendix G for initial courage category selections).

Each of the five raters of courage category selection was provided with a set of data coding guides and data coding process instructions (See Appendix H for data coding guides and Appendix I for data coding process instructions). The raters were also given a set of labeled manila folders for courage category selection with the following labels: "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome", "interaction with groups of others", "act alone without the support of a group", "physical pain or going against social norms", and "other".

Incident Thread Construction and Labeling

The researcher eliminated all non-narrative passages from the text of participant transcripts and reconstructed the data into incident threads to identify patterns in the participants' courage experiences. For the purposes of this study, an incident thread is a description of an act of courage that has a beginning and ending point in a participant narrative. The researcher constructed incident threads by grouping together the paragraphs in a transcript that related to experiences of courage described by participants during their interview.

A total of 40 incident threads were constructed by the researcher. Each of the 10 participants described four experiences of courage during their interview. Thirty-six of the 40 experiences described were first mentioned by participants in their responses to the opening narrative question. Information about courage experiences that was added during a follow-up question was grouped with the initial courage experience description by paragraph to form an incident thread. A courage experience that was mentioned only once in an interview constituted that experience's incident thread.

Two pieces of information comprised incident thread labels. The participant

number (P1-P10) and the incident thread occurrence number (T1-T4) were used to track

the courage experiences described by participants. Examples of incident thread labels are

P1T1, P1T2, P1T3, P1T4, P2T1, P2T2, etc. Incident threads were labeled and coded in

order from P1T1 to P10T4.

Mapping Incident Threads to the Researcher's Hypothesized Cultural Integration Model

Incident threads were mapped to the researcher's hypothesized four-step cultural

integration model (See Figure 1) based on congruence between the courage experiences

described by participants and the researcher's knowledge and understanding of the

cultural integration process as described in the *Cultural Integration* section of this paper

(See Chapter 2). Table 2 indicates the results of incident thread mapping to the

hypothesized cultural integration model.

Table 2

Incident Thread Mapping to the Cultural Integration Model

Cultural Contact	Cultural Blending
Mental Programming	Cultural Relativism
P2T2	P4T1
P5T3	P7T4
P9T4	P9T3
Prejudice	Human Integration
P3T2	P2T4

(table continues)

86

Cultural Contact	Cultural Blending
Prejudice	Human Integration
P6T3	P6T2
Cultural Anxiety	Cultural Leadership
P4T3	P1T1
P8T4	P5T1
P10T2	P8T3
Continuity	P10T3
P1T4	Conflict Resolution
P7T3	P3T3

Cultural Conflict	Cultural Change
Loyalty	Creating New Cultural Frameworks
P3T4	P4T4
P9T1	P8T1
Resistance to Change	Role Modeling
P5T4	P2T3
P10T1	P9T2
Culture Clash	Unlearning and Learning
P1T3	P1T2
P7T1	P6T4

(table continues)

Cultural Conflict	Cultural Change
Culture Clash	Unlearning and Learning
P8T2	P10T4
Intercultural Communication	Behavioral Change
P4T2	P3T1
Cultural Adaptation	P5T2
P2T1	P7T2
P6T1	

The experiences described by participants in all 40 incident threads were congruent with the researcher's hypothesized four-step cultural integration model (See Figure 1). At least one incident thread was mapped to each of the 17 cultural integration model factors. The cultural integration model factor *cultural leadership* had four incident threads mapped to it, the largest number of incident threads mapped to a single cultural integration model factor.

Courage Element and Category Coding

Courage element and category coding took place over a four-week time period. Coding was initiated in a one-day session with all five of the raters present. Each of the raters was given a package of coding materials which included the data coding guides (See Appendix H), individual data coding process instructions (See Appendix I for the master data coding process instructions), manila folders for courage category selection, and colored markers for courage element coding. One of the courage category selection

raters tested the courage element-identification procedure by completing one set of incident thread (P1T1 – P1T4) coding and produced results similar to the three courage element-identification raters. The fifth courage category selection rater was intended to also serve as a fourth courage element-identification rater but the rater's courage element-identification results were eliminated due to incomplete courage element coding of the incident threads and results that were dissimilar to the other three courage element-identification raters.

The courage element and category coding results were recorded in an excel spreadsheet. The spreadsheet consisted of rows for each of the incident threads and raters and columns for the courage elements and categories. Results were entered into the spreadsheet in the order in which they became available. The researcher completed the courage element-identification coding first and entered the results in the spreadsheet before reviewing results from the other two courage element-identification raters.

Analysis

Courage Element Coding Analysis

Each of the three raters' results for courage element coding were recorded and analyzed for common courage structures (the specific components of courage evident in a participant's narrative description of an act of courage). The most common structure contained all of the elements specified in the courage element coding process instructions (See Appendix I). Table 3 lists the incident threads that had structures containing courage elements identified by two or more of the courage element-identification raters. Two characteristics were required of identified courage structures a) the presence of three required elements; external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition;

and b) identification of the courage elements by at least two courage element-

identification raters.

Table 3

Identified Courage Structures

Courage Structures	Incident Threads
AE, BR, CT, CP, EC, ME, V	P1T1, P1T2, P1T4, P2T1, P2T2, P2T3, P2T4, P3T1, P4T1, P4T2, P4T3, P5T4, P6T2, P6T3, P9T3
AE, BR, CP, EC, ME, V	P7T4
AE, CT, CP, EC, ME, V	P6T4, P7T2
BR, CT, CP, EC, ME, V	P1T3, P3T3, P7T1, P7T3, P8T3
BR, CP, EC, ME, V	P5T1, P5T3, P8T1, P8T2, P9T1, P10T1
BR, EC, ME, V	P4T4, P10T4

Note. AE = affect/emotion, BR = behavioral response, CT =

characteristic/trait/skill/abilities, CP = cognitive processes, EC = external circumstances,

ME = motivation toward excellence, V = volition.

Forty-eight percent of the incident threads that had identified courage structures

had the courage structure that consisted of all of the elements specified in the courage

element coding process instructions (See Appendix I). In addition to the three required

elements; external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition; behavioral

response and cognitive processes were identified in 94% of the courage structures. The

courage component of characteristic/trait/skill/abilities was identified in 71% of the

courage structures and affect/emotion was identified in 63% of the courage structures. The difference in appearance of the secondary elements suggests that behavioral response and cognitive processes elements, both with occurrences in 94% of the courage structures, may be more stable courage structure elements than characteristic/trait/skill/abilities (71%) and affect/emotion (63%) which occurred less frequently.

All three of the required elements; external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition; were identified by at least one of the three raters in every incident thread except for one instance (P3T4) in which external circumstances was identified by the fifth rater, whose results were excluded from analysis. Likewise, behavioral response and cognitive processes were identified by at least one rater in all 40 incident threads. On the other hand, there were four instances in which the affect/emotion component was not identified by any of the raters and five instances in which the characteristic/trait/skill/abilities component was not identified by any of the raters.

Courage Category Coding Analysis

The researcher's results for courage category selection are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Courage Category Selection

_____

Staying Power or Fortitude	Interaction with Others
P1T2	P1T1
P2T1	P2T4

(table continues)

91

Staying Power or Fortitude	Interaction with Others
P3T3	P3T4
P4T2	P4T1
P5T2	P5T3
P6T1	P6T2
P7T4	P7T3
P8T1	P8T4
P9T1	P9T2
P10T3	P10T4

Act Alone	Pain or Social Norms
P1T3	P1T4
P2T3	P2T2
P3T1	P3T2
P4T3	P4T4
P5T4	P5T1
P6T4	P6T3
P7T2	P7T1
P8T2	P8T3
P9T4	P9T3

(table continues)

Act Alone	Pain or Social Norms
P10T1	P10T2

Note. Courage Category Raters were limited to one courage category selection per incident thread.

The researcher selected a courage category for each incident thread based on the experiences of courage described in the incident thread and the researcher's understanding of the cultural context of those experiences. A different courage category was selected for each of the four incident threads associated with a particular participant. If more than one category described the participant's experiences of courage, the researcher selected the courage category that best described the participant's experiences of courage.

Prior to data coding, the researcher established initial courage category selections for each of the incident threads based on participant responses to the four structured follow-up questions (See Appendix G for initial courage category selections). The researcher's courage category selections were different than the initial courage category selections in three of P7's four incident threads (P7T4, P7T2, and P7T1). The researcher's selections for P7T1 "physical pain or going against social norms" and P7T4 "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" were confirmed by a majority of raters. Although the researcher's selection "act alone without the support of a group" for P7T2 was not confirmed by a majority of raters, neither was the initial courage category

selection for that incident thread "physical pain or going against social norms" confirmed by a majority of raters.

The researcher's selection of "physical pain or going against social norms" for P7T1 was based on the participant's discussion in that incident thread of the negative impact he experienced as a result of one of his behavior patterns that was inconsistent with the acquiring company's culture. The researcher selected "staying power or fortitude to achieve a positive outcome" for P7T4 based on the participant's description of his successful completion of an assignment in which he was required to perform under pressure for an extended period of time. The researcher's selection of "act alone without the support of a group" for P7T2 was based on the participant's conveyance in that incident thread of a work related decision he made independent of a support group.

Table 5 shows results of majority rater courage category selection. A rater majority was determined by three or more raters out of five selecting the same courage category. A majority of raters selected the same courage category for 25 of the 40 participant incident threads. The researcher's courage category selection was one of the rater majority in 20 of the 25 majority rater same courage category selections. The sequence used in Table 5 for listing incident threads in each courage category is based on the numbering order developed for tracking courage experiences described by participants which begins with P1T1 and ends with P10T4.

Courage category selection results signify acts of courage associated with merger cultural integration corresponding to each of Woodard's (2004) four courage factors. Although courage category selections varied among the five raters, a majority of raters selected the same courage category for 63% of the incident threads. The number of

Table 5

Majority Rater Same Courage Category Selection

Staying Power or Fortitude	Interactions with Others
* P3T3 (n=3)	* P2T4 (n=5)
* P4T2 (n=4)	P3T1 (n=3)
P4T3 (n=3)	* P4T1 (n=5)
* P6T1 (n=4)	P5T2 (n=4)
* P7T4 (n=4)	* P5T3 (n=4)
* P9T1 (n=3)	* P6T2 (n=3)
* P10T3 (n=4)	* P8T4 (n=3)
	* P9T2 (n=4)

Act Alone	Pain or Social Norms
P1T2 (n=3)	* P2T2 (n=4)
* P2T3 (n=3)	* P6T3 (n=3)
* P6T4 (n=3)	* P7T1 (n=3)
* P8T2 (n=3)	* P8T3 (n=3)
P9T3 (n=4)	* P10T2 (n=3)

Note. Asterisked items indicate researcher's courage category selection was among the

rater majority.

incident threads in each category with a majority rater same courage category selection;

"staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" (7), "interaction with groups of

95

others" (7), "act alone without the support of a group" (5), and "physical pain or going against social norms" (6), indicates that raters were able to consistently differentiate between the four courage categories. Also, 84% of the majority rater same courage category selections matched initial courage category selections that were derived from participant responses to the four structured follow-up questions.

The courage category "other" was selected by three of the five raters in 15 instances. The second rater selected "other" as the courage category for three incident threads. The fourth rater selected "other" as the courage category for one incident thread and the fifth rater selected "other" as the courage category for 11 of the incident threads. Each of the "other" category selections was indicated by only one rater except for incident thread P4T4 in which two raters selected the "other" courage category. This incident thread also had the courage category of "physical pain or going against social norms" selected by two raters and the courage category of "act alone without the support of a group" selected by one rater. Nine of the 14 incident threads that had instances of "other" courage category selection had a different courage category selected for them in which a majority of the raters agreed on the different courage category selection.

The researcher's courage category selection results were used to review incident thread mapping to the cultural integration model to determine if patterns existed among and between incident threads as well as in and between participant experiences (See Appendix J for incident thread mapping to the cultural integration model with courage categories). Participant incident threads were assembled into cultural integration chronicles (an account of events presented in chronological order) by arranging participant incident threads in order of the cultural integration process as follows; cultural

contact, cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change (See Appendix K). After the incident threads were arranged in chronological order, they were grouped together based on patterns in the occurrences of courage categories in the cultural integration process steps (See Appendix L).

Common Experiences of Courage

P1, P5, P8, and P10 were grouped together based on the occurrence in all four cultural integration chronicles of "act alone without the support of a group" during the cultural conflict step of cultural integration and "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" during the cultural change step of cultural integration. All four participants had incident threads with courage structures in the cultural conflict and cultural blending steps of the cultural integration process. The researcher also noted that all four of these participants exhibited cultural leadership in the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process. Other similarities in the four chronicles included the exhibition of cultural anxiety during cultural contact, culture clash and resistance to change during cultural conflict, and creating new cultural frameworks during the cultural change steps of the cultural integration process.

Group 1 (P1, P5, P8, P10) talked about aspects of the acquiring company's culture that were different than the acquired company's culture in their courage experiences associated with cultural conflict. P5 and P10 communicated that they overcame resistance to change during the cultural conflict step of their cultural integration process by adjusting their behavior to be more consistent with the acquiring company's culture. P1 and P8 dealt with culture clash during the cultural conflict step of their cultural integration process by interjecting new perspectives into the acquiring company's culture.

In their courage experiences associated with cultural blending, Group 1 described efforts to change the acquiring company's culture. P1 and P10 exemplified constructive behaviors during the cultural blending step of their cultural integration process. P5 and P8 described overt change projects purposed to establish new social norms in the acquiring company's culture during the cultural blending step of their cultural integration process. Courage element coding of the cultural conflict component of these participants' (P1, P5, P8, P10) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents involving cultural differentiation. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "act alone without the support of a group." The experiences of courage associated with the cultural conflict step of cultural integration described by participants in Group 1 signified a theme of establishing boundaries. Courage element coding of the cultural blending component of these participants' (P1, P5, P8, P10) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents involving introduction or demonstration of new behaviors. The incidents were consistent with the courage categories "interaction with groups of others" and "physical pain or going against social norms." The experiences of courage associated with the cultural blending step of cultural integration described by participants in Group 1 signified a theme of knowledge transfer.

P2 and P6 were grouped together based on the occurrence in both cultural integration chronicles of "physical pain or going against social norms" during the cultural contact step of cultural integration, "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" during the cultural conflict step, "interaction with groups of others" during the cultural blending step, and "act alone without the support of a group" during the cultural change step of the cultural integration process. Both participants had incident threads

with courage structures in the cultural contact, cultural blending, and cultural change steps of the cultural integration process. The researcher also noted that both participants exhibited cultural adaptation in the cultural conflict step and human integration in the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process.

Group 2 (P2, P6) described efforts to conform to the acquiring company's culture in their courage experiences associated with cultural contact. P2 talked about an injury that resulted from him acquiescing to the acquiring company's cultural mores during this step of his cultural integration process. P6 talked about overcoming prejudice by diffusing negative behavior during the cultural contact step of his cultural integration process. In their courage experiences associated with cultural blending, P2 and P6 communicated team building efforts. P2 and P6 integrated team members by establishing common ground during this step of their cultural integration process. In their experiences associated with cultural change, P2 and P6 described reciprocal changes in behavior. P2 introduced new behaviors into the acquiring company culture as well as adopting behaviors consistent with the acquiring company's culture during this step of his cultural integration process. P6 intentionally discontinued behaviors he had practiced in the acquired company and began practicing behaviors consistent with the acquiring company's culture during the cultural change step of his cultural integration process. Courage element coding of the cultural contact component of these participants' (P2, P6) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were negatively impacted by contact with the acquiring company's culture. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "physical pain or going against social norms." The experiences of courage associated with the cultural contact step of cultural integration

described by participants in Group 2 signified a theme of endurance. Courage element coding of the cultural blending component of these participants' (P2, P6) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were building relationships. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "interaction with groups of others." The experiences of courage associated with the cultural blending step of cultural integration described by participants in Group 2 signified a theme of engagement. Courage element coding of the cultural change component of these participants' (P2, P6) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were attempting to positively effect the acquiring company's culture. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "act alone without the support of a group." The experiences of courage associated with the cultural change step of cultural integration described by participants in Group 2 signified a theme of personal contribution.

P3 and P7 were grouped together based on the occurrence in both cultural integration chronicles of "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" during the cultural blending step of cultural integration and "act alone without the support of a group" during the cultural change step of cultural integration. Both participants had incident threads with courage structures in the cultural blending and cultural change steps of the cultural integration process. The researcher also noted that both participants exhibited behavioral change during the cultural change step of the cultural integration process. A commonality between Group 2 and Group 3 was the occurrence of "act alone without the support of a group" during the cultural change step of cultural integration.

Group 3 (P3, P7) no longer relied upon the acquired company's cultural indicators of success in their courage experiences associated with cultural blending. P3 talked about resolving an intrapersonal conflict by releasing himself from seeking promotions during the cultural blending step of his cultural integration process. P7 succeeded in the acquiring company culture by not adhering to the acquired company's way of doing things during the cultural blending step of his cultural integration process. In their courage experiences associated with cultural change, P3 and P7 adjusted their behavior to be more consistent with the acquiring company's culture. P3 and P7 recognized and overcame previous behavior patterns that were preventing them from identifying with the acquiring company's culture during the cultural change step of their cultural integration process.

Courage element coding of the cultural blending component of these participants' (P3, P7) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were separating themselves from their previous culture. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome." The two participants in this group described experiences of courage associated with the cultural blending step of cultural integration with a theme of letting go. Courage element coding of the cultural change component of these participants' (P3, P7) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were embracing the acquiring company's culture. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "act alone without the support of a group." The two participants in this group described experiences of courage associated with the cultural change step of cultural integration with a theme of acceptance.

P4 and P9 were grouped together based on the occurrence in both cultural integration chronicles of "act alone without the support of a group" during the cultural contact step of cultural integration and "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" during the cultural conflict step of cultural integration. Both participants had incident threads with courage structures in the cultural conflict and cultural blending steps of the cultural integration process. The researcher also noted that both participants exhibited cultural relativism in the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process. A commonality between Group 2 and Group 4 was the occurrence of "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" during the cultural conflict step of cultural integration.

Group 4 (P4, P9) talked about utilizing integration skills in their courage experiences associated with cultural conflict. P4 and P9 pulled together people from different technical or functional domains to solve difficult problems during the cultural conflict step of their cultural integration process. In the cultural blending step of their cultural integration process, P4 and P9 communicated how they worked through product related technical issues by building relationships and teaming.

Courage element coding of the cultural conflict component of these participants' (P4, P9) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were resolving conflict using an integrative conflict resolution approach. The incidents were consistent with the courage category "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome." The two participants in this group described experiences of courage associated with the cultural conflict step of cultural integration with a theme of problem solving. Courage element coding of the cultural blending component of these participants' (P4,

P9) cultural integration chronicles revealed incidents in which the participants were establishing common ground. The incidents were consistent with the courage categories "interaction with groups of others" and "physical pain or going against social norms." The two participants in this group described experiences of courage associated with the cultural blending step of cultural integration with a theme of respect.

One of the key differences the researcher detected regarding the cultural integration process was that almost all of the "interaction with groups of others" and "physical pain or going against social norms" courage experiences occurred during the cultural contact and cultural blending steps of the cultural integration process. The courage category selection of "interaction with groups of others" for P5T3, P2T4, P6T2, and P4T1 was confirmed by a majority of raters and these incident threads had identified courage structures. The courage category selection of "physical pain or going against social norms" for P2T2, P6T3, and P8T3 was confirmed by a majority of raters and these incident threads also had identified courage structures. Correspondingly, almost all of the "act alone without the support of a group" and "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" courage experiences occurred during the cultural conflict and cultural change steps of the cultural integration process. The courage category selection of "act alone without the support of a group" for P8T2, P2T3, and P6T4 was confirmed by a majority of raters and these incident threads had identified courage structures. The courage category selection of "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" was confirmed by a majority of raters for P4T2 and P9T1; these incident threads also had identified courage structures.

The incident thread (P5T3) categorized as "interaction with groups of others" that was associated with cultural contact involved the establishment of performance measures consistent with the acquired company's culture. The incident threads (P2T2, P6T3) categorized as "physical pain or going against social norms" that were associated with cultural contact involved efforts to conform to the acquiring company's culture. The incident thread (P8T3) categorized as "physical pain or going against social norms" associated with cultural blending involved efforts to change the acquiring company's culture. Incident threads (P2T4, P6T2, P4T1) categorized as "interaction with groups of others" that were associated with cultural blending involved team building efforts and teaming.

The incident thread (P8T2) categorized as "act alone without the support of a group" that was associated with cultural conflict involved interjecting new perspectives into the acquiring company's culture. The incident threads (P4T2, P9T1) categorized as "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" that were associated with cultural conflict involved the utilization of integration skills. Incident threads (P2T3, P6T4) categorized as "act alone without the support of a group" that were associated with cultural change involved establishing common ground.

There was one instance of "interaction with groups of others" in the cultural conflict step (P3T4) and one instance of "interaction with groups of others" in the cultural change step (P9T2) of cultural integration. The courage category selection of "interaction with groups of others" for P3T4 was not confirmed by a majority of raters. Although the courage category selection of "interaction with groups of others" for P9T2 was confirmed by a majority of raters, a courage structure was not found in this incident thread. There

was one instance of "physical pain or going against social norms" in the cultural conflict step (P7T1) and one instance of "physical pain or going against social norms" in the cultural change step (P4T4) of cultural integration. The courage category selection of "physical pain or going against social norms" for P7T1 was confirmed by a majority of raters and this incident thread also had an identified courage structure. The courage category selection "physical pain or going against social norms" for P4T4 was not confirmed by a majority of raters.

The researcher's selection of the courage category "physical pain or going against social norms" for P7T1 was based on the participant's discussion in that incident thread of the negative impact he experienced as a result of one of his behavior patterns that was inconsistent with the acquiring company's culture. The incident thread P7T1 was associated with the cultural conflict step of the cultural integration process due to its focus on P7's management of cultural differences and was mapped to the "culture clash" factor in particular because the differences were described by P7 as contradictory.

There were two instances of "act alone without the support of a group" in the cultural contact step (P9T4 and P4T3) and no instances of "act alone without the support of a group" in the cultural blending step of cultural integration. The courage category selection of "act alone without the support of a group" for P9T4 and P4T3 was not confirmed by a majority of raters. There were two instances of "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" in the cultural blending step (P7T4 and P3T3) and no instances of "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" in the cultural contact step of cultural integration. The courage category selection for P7T4 and P3T3 of

"staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" was confirmed by a majority of raters and these incident threads also had identified courage structures.

The researcher's selection of the courage category "staying power or fortitude to achieve a positive outcome" for P7T4 was based on the participant's description of his successful completion of an assignment in which he was required to perform under pressure for an extended period of time. The researcher selected the courage category "staying power or fortitude to achieve a positive outcome" for P3T3 based on the participant's discussion about his commitment to stay in the company after a negative event almost ended his career. The incident threads P7T4 and P3T3 were associated with the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process due to their focus on cohesion and commitment. P7T4 was mapped to the "cultural relativism" factor in particular because P7 was demonstrating behavior consistent with the acquiring company's cultural context. P3T3 was mapped to the "conflict resolution" factor because P3 described in this incident thread a transformation in his thinking that resulted from his cultural integration experience.

The researcher evaluated two aspects of the results based on the appearance of courage structures in the incident threads; mapping of the incident threads to the cultural integration model and courage categories. Incident threads with courage structures appeared in all of the cultural integration model factors (See Appendix M for incident threads with courage structures mapped to the cultural integration model). The cultural integration process step with the highest correlation to courage structures was cultural blending in which all incident threads mapped to each of the four factors contained courage structures. The cultural integration process step with the second highest

correlation to courage structures was cultural conflict in which all of the incident threads mapped to 3 of the 5 factors contained courage structures. Cultural contact and cultural change each had one factor (continuity, unlearning and learning) in which all of the incident threads mapped to that factor contained courage structures.

Ten of the 17 cultural integration model factors had multiple incident threads with courage structures mapped to them (See Appendix P). The ten cultural integration model factors more closely associated with acts of courage; mental programming, continuity, cultural relativism, human integration, cultural leadership, resistance to change, cultural clash, creating new cultural frameworks, unlearning and learning, and behavioral change, may be comparatively more difficult than other cultural integration factors, thus their reliance on courage, or somehow related to the cultural integration process outcome of cultural blending.

Links between Courage Structures and Courage Categories

Results of the researcher's analysis of identified courage structures associated with each of the courage categories are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Identified Courage Structures by Courage Category

Endurance for Positive Outcome	Interacting with Others
P1T2 (ALL)	P1T1 (ALL)
P2T1 (ALL)	P2T4 (ALL)

(table continues)

Endurance for Positive Outcome	Interacting with Others

P3T3 (-AE)	P4T1 (ALL)
P4T2 (ALL)	P5T3 (-AE/CT)
P7T4 (-CT)	P6T2 (ALL)
P8T1 (-AE/CT)	P7T3 (-AE)
P9T1 (-AE/CT)	P10T4 (-AE/CT/CP)

Act Alone	Pain or Social Norms

P1T3 (-AE)	P1T4 (ALL)
P2T3 (-CT)	P2T2 (ALL)
P3T1 (ALL)	P4T4 (-AE/CT/CP)
P4T3 (ALL)	P5T1 (-AE/CT)
P5T4 (ALL)	P6T3 (ALL)
P6T4 (-BR)	P7T1 (-AE)
P7T2 (-BR)	P8T3 (-AE)
P8T2 (-AE/CT)	P9T3 (ALL)
P10T1 (-AE/CT)	

Note. All = all of the elements specified in the data coding process instructions are

present; - AE = all of the elements specified in the data coding process instructions

except affect/emotion are present; - BR = all of the elements specified in the data coding

process instructions except behavioral response are present; - CT = all of the elements

specified in the data coding process instructions except characteristic/trait/skill/abilities are present; - AE/CT/CP = behavioral response is present in addition to all of the three required elements, external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition; - AE/CT = behavioral response and cognitive processes are present in addition to all of the three required elements, external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition.

The courage element coding results indicated courage structures in 31 of the 40 participant incident threads. The researcher found no consistency in the identification of courage structures by courage category. The courage category with the highest correlation to courage structures was "act alone without the support of a group" (See Appendix O for cultural integration chronicles with courage structures in the act alone courage category). Only 3 of the 9 structures in the "act alone without the support of a group" category contained all courage elements. Each of the other three courage categories showed 50% or more of its incident threads with courage structures being comprised of all courage elements. The act alone courage category also had the most variety of courage structures and contained both instances of the courage structure in which the element behavioral response was not present.

Links between Courage Structures and Cultural Integration Process Steps

The researcher analyzed cultural integration chronicles for identified courage structures (See Appendix P) and determined that all ten participants had confirmed courage structures in the cultural blending step of cultural integration (See Appendix Q). Participants P1, P2, P4, and P7; one participant from each of the four groupings; had

confirmed courage structures in all four steps of the cultural integration process: cultural contact, cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change.

The link between courage and merger cultural integration seems to be strongest in the area of cultural blending. Each of the 10 participants' incident threads associated with the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process contained courage structures (See Appendix P). The researcher also noted that 7 of the 10 courage experiences associated with cultural blending mapped to the cultural relativism and cultural leadership factors of cultural blending, indicating that acts of courage may be more closely linked to these two factors than other factors of cultural blending. The four participant groupings which were based on occurrences of common courage categories in the cultural integration process steps also showed the highest occurrence of common cultural integration model factors in the cultural blending step of cultural integration (See Appendix P). Three of the four groups had common cultural blending factors: P1, P5, P8, and P10 (cultural leadership); P2 and P6 (human integration); and P4 and P9 (cultural relativism). P7 had the same cultural blending factor (cultural relativism) as P4 and P9.

Summary

The results of this study were presented in two sections. The first section, *Process,* described the outcome of the researcher's data collection and coding procedures. The second section, *Analysis,* presented the outcome of the researcher's data analysis. The next chapter will be a discussion of these results in relationship to the literature review presented in Chapter 2.

Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

Discussion of the study results we be covered in eight sections. The researcher's reflections on the data collection and analysis process will be discussed in the *Process* section of this chapter. The researcher will discuss the results of courage element and category coding analysis in the *Courage Structures and Categories* section. Analysis of courage structures and categories in relationship to participant cultural integration chronicles will be discussed in the *Common Experiences of Courage* section. The researcher will discuss connections between courage structures and courage categories in the *Types of Courage* section. Connections between participant courage experiences and cultural integration process steps will be discussed in the *Courage and Merger Cultural Integration* section. The researcher's theoretical insights will be discussed in the *Implications for Theory and Practice* section. Challenges and struggles encountered during data collection and analysis will be discussed in the *Limitations* section. Next steps and recommendations will be discussed in the *Recommendations for Future Research* section of this chapter.

Process

The researcher used the following narrative question for collecting data in this study. *I would like you to tell me about your experiences at work that involved a change in your behavior or thinking after you relocated to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously.* Thirty-six of the forty courage experiences examined in this study were initially described by participants in response to this narrative question. The participants' ability to clearly recollect their own courage

111

experiences seems to support the conclusion of Worline et al. (2002) that individuals have the capacity to discern courageous activity within themselves and can be both a courageous actor and observer at the same time.

The researcher used the following four structured follow-up prompts based on Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage to elicit descriptions of additional courage experiences.

1. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that required you to exhibit staying power or fortitude in order to achieve a positive outcome?

2. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that involved interaction with groups of others?

3. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that required you to act alone without the support of a group of people?

4. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that involved physical pain or going against social norms?

The follow-up prompts generated four additional courage experience descriptions. The primary effect of the follow-up prompts was the elicitation of additional details about courage experiences that were described by participants in response to the narrative question. The follow-up prompts also served as a labeling mechanism in that the courage

experiences participants described in response to the narrative question were later associated with the four factors of courage in follow-up responses.

Study participants' associations of their acts of courage with Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage; (a) staying power or fortitude in order to achieve a positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group of people, and (d) physical pain or going against social norms was confirmed by a majority of courage category selection raters in 25 of the 40 incidents described by participants. This outcome seems to suggest that study participants had presence of mind or self-awareness about their courage experiences. This conclusion is consistent with Woreline et al.'s (2002) assertion that self-regulation is a key component of courage in the workplace.

The courage categories used in this study were: (a) staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome, (b) interaction with groups of others, (c) act alone without the support of a group, (d) physical pain or going against social norms, and (e) other. Courage category selection (selection of a courage category that best describes a participant's acts of courage) was somewhat problematic for courage category selection raters in that two of the categories of courage *staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome* and *physical pain or going against social norms* required an understanding of the particular circumstances or an interpretation of participant behavior in order to make an association. For example, a participant's description of a positive outcome associated with their courage experience may not have been recognized as a positive outcome by the courage category selection rater. Also, social norms are usually only recognized by members of the group to which they apply. Therefore, the courage

category selection raters would need to have an understanding of organizational circumstances and social norms in order to associate acts of courage with these two particular categories of courage. Because information related to the identity of the company was removed from participant transcripts prior to data coding, it is the researcher's opinion that courage category selection raters were limited in their ability to correctly interpret the data.

<center>*Courage Structures and Categories*</center>

Courage Structures

Rate's (2007) seven major components of courage: (a) external circumstances, (b) cognitive processes, (c) motivation toward excellence, (d) affect/emotion, (e) volition, (f) behavioral response, and (g) characteristic/trait/skill/abilities, were used in this study as preset categories for coding data. The identification of courage structures (the specific components of courage evident in a participant's narrative description of an act of courage) was limited by two factors: a) the presence of three required courage elements; external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition; and b) identification of the courage elements by at least two courage element-identification raters. Courage element-identification results indicated that participants demonstrated acts of courage in 31 of the 40 incidents dealing with cultural integration they reported in this study. This outcome appears to confirm the supposition that cultural integration following an acquisition or merger is a circumstance that involves courageous behavior.

In addition to the three required courage elements; external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, and volition; behavioral response and cognitive processes were identified in 94% of the courage structures. The courage component of

<center>114</center>

characteristic/trait/skill/abilities was identified in 71% of the courage structures and affect/emotion was identified in 63% of the courage structures. The results of this study suggest that behavioral response and cognitive processes could be contingency components of courage and affect/emotion and characteristic/trait/skill/abilities peripheral components of courage. These results are somewhat inconsistent with Rate's (2007) research in which affect/emotion and cognitive processes were designated as contingency components of courage and behavioral response and characteristic/trait/skill/abilities were designated as peripheral components of courage.

Both instances of the courage structure in which the element behavioral response was not present were associated with the courage category "act alone without the support of a group." This seems to indicate that behavioral response is a conditional or contingent component of courage in that it is usually present but under certain circumstances may not be necessary or applicable. Likewise, cognitive processes may be subject to circumstantial variables that determine its necessity such as reactive responses to emergency situations. On the other hand, affect/emotion and characteristic/trait/skill/abilities appear to be nonessential components of courage in that there were multiple courage structures in which these components were not detected.

The fifth rater's courage element coding results were not included in Table 3 due to results that were dissimilar to the other three courage element-identification raters. According the fifth rater's results for courage element coding, there were no incident threads in which all three required courage elements (external circumstances, motivation toward excellence, volition) were present. The first courage element-identification rater's results indicated 16 of 40 incident threads contained all three required courage elements.

115

The second courage element-identification rater's results indicated 37 of 40 and the third courage element-identification rater's results indicated 24 of 40 incident threads contained all three required courage elements.

The overall results for courage element coding reported in Table 3 would have changed as follows with the addition of the fifth rater's results. An additional courage structure; AE, CP, EC, ME, V would have been identified for incident thread P10T2; increasing the number of incident threads with courage structures from 31 to 32 and the total number of courage structures from 6 to 7. The courage component affect/emotion would have been identified in 65% rather than 63% of the courage structures and the courage component cognitive processes would have been identified in 97% rather than 94% of the courage structures. The percentages for behavioral response and characteristic/trait/skill/abilities would have remained the same.

Courage Categories

Courage category selection results seem to indicate that recognizable categories of courage exist corresponding to Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage. The "other" courage category selection results appear to be consistent with Woodard and Pury's (2007) inference of a context dependent classification of courage rather than the possible existence of additional courage categories. The rater with the most "other" courage category selections (11) was a non-manager with no previous merger cultural integration experience. The rater with the second most "other" courage category selections (3) had previous management experience, but no previous merger cultural integration experience. The rater with the least "other" courage category selections (1) had previous management and cultural integration experience.

The results of this study do not support previous research findings (Woodard, 2004; Woodard & Pury, 2007) that indicate a single category of courage related to work. The courage category of "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" was identified in a recent study by Woodard and Pury (2007) as a work/employment type of courage. The results of this study suggest that all four categories or types of courage were present in participants' courage experiences associated with merger cultural integration. Therefore the term *business courage;* which Furnham (2002) proposed to be types of courage unique or specific to the workplace, may be a contextual indicator rather than type indicator of courage. In other words, business courage is not a type of courage that is found specifically in the workplace, but acts of courage in the workplace can only be recognized (or appreciated as acts of courage) by individuals with similar workplace experiences.

Common Experiences of Courage

The results of this study indicate there could be a relationship between courage categories and cultural integration process steps. This conclusion appears to be consistent with Woodard and Pury's (2007) inference of a context based classification of courage. The researcher's mapping of participant incident threads (narrative description of an act of courage that has a beginning and ending point) to the cultural integration process steps enabled the researcher to see how the various types or categories of courage showed up in the cultural integration process. Most acts of courage associated with the courage categories "interaction with groups of others" and "physical pain or going against social norms" occurred in the cultural contact and cultural blending steps of the cultural integration process. Likewise, most acts of courage associated with the courage

categories "act alone without the support of a group" and "staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome" occurred in the cultural conflict and cultural change steps of the cultural integration process.

Each of the 10 participants in this study experienced a different set of cultural integration factors over a period greater than 10 years. These findings support Shrivastava's (1986) conclusion that cultural integration is a complex process which "is influenced by a variety of partially controllable variables, such as the firm's environment, technology, and size" (p. 67). It is likely that "top management values, and social and cultural norms also play a strong role" (p. 67). It should be noted that participants were asked to describe only those experiences in which they felt they acted courageously. There may be other cultural integration factors not discussed in this study due to their lack of an apparent association with courage.

Types of Courage

The results of this study indicate the existence of a relatively stable set of courage structures and a consistency in appearance of the seven courage components identified by Rate (2007). Although there was no recognizable relationship between the detected courage structures and Woodard's (2004) four factors of courage, one category of courage was differentiated from the others with regards to courage structures. The "act alone without the support of a group" courage category had the most variety of courage structures and contained both instances of the courage structure in which the element behavioral response was not present. Woodard and Pury (2007) describe this courage factor as "acting alone or without the distinct social pressure of a group" (p. 142) and

report that this courage factor is the least consistent of the four. Woodard and Pury liken this courage factor to an independent type of courage.

The researcher's analysis results of courage structures by courage category appear to be consistent with Rate's (2007) findings of three core or required components of courage and contingency or peripheral elements of courage. It seems reasonable to conclude that the courage element behavioral response would not always be expected in situations in which there is independent action. Similarly, a person might act on their own intuition or gut feeling rather than engaging cognitive processes, especially in a situation involving crisis.

Courage and Merger Cultural Integration

The results of this study suggest that courage plays a role within merger cultural integration. The outcome of the incident thread mapping to the cultural integration model indicates that participant courage experiences correlated to the process of cultural integration in all cases. Participant courage experiences appeared to be evenly distributed across the 17 cultural integration model factors (See Figure 1 for the cultural integration model factors) indicating that cultural integration may indeed be a complex process (Shrivastava, 1986; Whittle, 2002) with multiple variations in its execution.

The four groupings of cultural integration chronicles -- P1, P5, P8 & P10; P2 & P6; P3 & P7; and P4 & P9 -- may represent cultural integration scenarios. Although each participant's cultural integration chronicle contained a different set of cultural integration model factors, there were similarities found within the groupings (See Appendix L). The key to identifying or recognizing these scenarios may be in the correlations found

between the courage categories and cultural integration process steps or cultural integration model factors (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

The link between courage and merger cultural integration seems to be strongest in the area of cultural blending. Each of the 10 participants' incident threads associated with the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process contained courage structures (See Appendix P). Since cultural blending is most often attributed to successful mergers & acquisitions (Schein, 1999); it might also be true that courageous leaders can make a difference in merger & acquisition success.

Implications for Theory and Practice

The cultural integration model mapping results suggest that courage could be a distinguishing leadership attribute for integration managers who are responsible for cultural learning, a pivotal mechanism for developing the shared understandings necessary to engage companies in the process of cultural blending (Schweiger & Goulet, 2002). Cultural leadership and cultural relativism, the two primary cultural integration model factors associated with the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process, both involve cultural learning.

The researcher's identification of courage category patterns was not confirmed by multiple raters. The four instances (P1T2, P3T1, P4T3, P9T3) in which the researcher's courage category selection was different than the majority rater courage category selection and the three instances (P7T4, P7T2, P7T1) in which the researcher's courage category selection was different than the participant's courage factor association indicate that the process used for courage category selection lacked precision. The connections discovered between courage categories and cultural integration process steps, particularly

120

the cultural blending step of the cultural integration process, need further investigation. The Woodard Pury Courage Scale – 23 (Woodard & Pury, 2007) could possibly be used for the identification of courage in certain categories. A potential benefit would be the determination of an individual's strengths and weaknesses in each of the courage categories. This determination might provide insight into differences between individual's particular courageous actions related to the cultural integration process.

The detection of patterns in cultural integration chronicles suggests that cultural integration scenarios may be useful in determining which categories of courage are necessary for a particular merger cultural integration situation. For example, an executive may be expected to lead cultural change following the acquisition of a company. The executive selected for this assignment would need to have strengths in one or more of the two categories of courage associated with cultural leadership in this study, "physical pain or going against social norms" and "interaction with groups of others."

Rate and Sternberg (2007) suggested that organizations could develop individuals to assure that courageous behavior would be exhibited when necessary by developing the components of courage. From a behavioral standpoint, this may be true since behavior can be learned. It is the researcher's opinion that the contingency components of courage behavioral response and cognitive processes and the peripheral components of courage affect/emotion and characteristic/trait/skill/abilities are subject to development. The researcher does not agree with the conclusion that development of these components assures that courageous behavior will be exhibited. Rather that, development of these components might increase the courageous actor's capacity for courageous action,

meaning that courageous actions might be exhibited more often or in different ways than previously exhibited.

The need for courage development in organizations today is evident in the opinions expressed by experts on courage. Klein and Napier (2001) advocate a courage index that measures dimensions of courage and indicate that individuals can become more courageous. Current management courses are emphasizing the importance of leadership styles (King, 2009) and may contend a need for courage development in the near future.

Limitations

The follow-up prompts' positive effect of eliciting additional details about courage experiences that were described by participants in response to the narrative question was somewhat offset by their tendency to "pigeon-hole" participants into providing descriptions of acts of courage for each of the four courage factors. Two of the four courage experience descriptions generated by the follow-up prompts did not contain courage structures. Use of the follow-up prompts may also have biased the researcher's courage category selections in that the researcher was exposed to the participants' association of their acts of courage with Woodard's (2004) four courage factors prior to data coding.

The researcher's choice of courage category selection and courage element-identification raters was somewhat ineffective in that the fifth rater's results for courage element-identification was not utilizable for data analysis and this rater had the most "other" courage category selections (11 out of 40). This outcome may be attributed to the rater's lack of experience with organizational leadership and/or cultural integration. As

was mentioned previously, selection of the courage categories *staying power or fortitude to achieve positive outcome* and *physical pain or going against social norms* would likely require an understanding of the particular circumstances or an interpretation of participant behavior in order to make an association. Therefore, courage category selection raters would need to have an understanding of organizational circumstances and/or social norms in order to associate acts of courage with these two particular categories of courage.

The reliability of the researcher's cultural integration model was not tested prior to its use in this study. Some of the issues related to use of the model are; (a) the existence of additional factors, (b) factor definitions, and (c) ordering of the cultural integration process steps. Although the researcher's cultural integration model was intended to provide a comprehensive view of the process of cultural integration, it was not a conclusive representation of cultural integration. It described only those aspects of cultural integration that appeared to be relevant to this study. Also, factor definitions were not established prior to data coding. The cultural integration model factor definitions provided in Chapter 1 were based on and limited by the researcher's knowledge and understanding of the cultural integration process. Assembly of participant incident threads into cultural integration chronicles (an account of events presented in chronological order) was based on ordering the cultural integration process steps according to Bennett's (1993) six stages Intercultural Sensitivity (IS) model and Tuckman's (1965) sequential-stage theory of group development. The researcher's association of the cultural integration process with these two models may be erroneous.

There are several issues that limit the significance and applicability of this study's findings. First, this study looked at only one incident of merger cultural integration which involved two large rival companies with contradictory cultures. Mergers that involve companies with complimentary cultures, noncompetitive histories, or smaller sizes may produce substantially different results in a study of this kind. Secondly, the researcher only interviewed individuals who met the criteria for participation at the time of this study, which was more than 10 years after the merger. Conducting the study several years earlier may have produced substantially different results. Finally, the data coding and analysis results were limited by the type and number of raters and the specified procedures. Courage and/or cultural integration experts may have produced different results than those produced by the raters involved in this study. Although the number of raters used in this study may have been sufficient for discovering patterns, a larger number of raters might have produced more conclusive results especially in regards to courage category selection.

Recommendations Future Research

Several possibilities exist for continued research in conjunction with this study. One possibility is a study comparing data coding and analysis results based on the type of rater used, for example, manager versus non-manager raters in order to examine the effect of rater experience on courage category selection. The use of expert raters versus non-expert raters might also be explored to determine if the use of courage experts or culture experts produce significantly different results in the area of courage category selection.

Another possibility for examining the effect of rater experience on courage category selection would be to use raters with experience directly related to the participants' circumstances, for instance executives who have experienced cultural integration. The researcher might also have used content analysis software rather than human raters for data coding of the courage elements. Content analysis software programmed to detect courage elements based on key words or definitions might produce more consistent results than human raters.

Another possibility might be altering the data coding process instructions to determine if improvement in the coding procedures produces more consistent courage element data coding results. For instance, specifying a time period for detecting each courage element in order to ensure that an appropriate amount of time is spent attempting to locate each element. Or perhaps, specifying rest periods so that adequate attention is given to each courage element search.

Examining courage in the context of cultural integration added a great deal of complexity to the design of this research study. Future research might be simplified by focusing on one or the other of these topics. In particular, the researcher's cultural integration model needs to be validated through additional empirical research. The topic of courage in the workplace also needs to be explored from other perspectives. Cultural integration is just one example of a challenging circumstance that requires organizational leaders to demonstrate courage.

Summary

This study examined the leadership quality of courage in conjunction with executives' merger cultural integration experiences in order to identify the common

experiences of courage associated with the process of cultural integration following a merger. This study focused specifically on a merger that combined two large rival companies. The results of this study suggest that a relationship exists between courage and merger cultural integration. Courage category selection results signified acts of courage associated with merger cultural integration corresponding to each of Woodard's (2004) four courage factors. In addition to the primary components of courage (external circumstances, motivation towards excellence, and volition), the results of this study suggest that behavioral response and cognitive processes could be contingency components of courage and affect/emotion and characteristic/trait/skill/abilities peripheral components of courage.

REFERENCES

Adams, J. S. (1976). The structure and dynamics of behavior in organizational boundary roles. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1175-1199). Chicago: Rand McNally College Publishing Company.

Aldrich, H., & Herker, D. (1977). Boundary spanning roles and organization structure. *Academy of Management Review, 2*(2), 217-230.

Allred, B. B., Boal, K. B., & Holstein, W. K. (2005). Corporations as stepfamilies: A new metaphor for explaining the fate of merged and acquired companies. *Academy of Management Executive, 19*(2), 23-37.

Altheide, D. L. (1996). *Qualitative media analysis. Vol. 38. Qualitative research methods.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Anderson, P. (2000). Does the new economy require a new type of leadership? *Journal for Quality & Participation, 23*(3), 12-13.

Aprigliano, T. C. (1999). The experience of courage development in transformational leaders. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 9948039)

Argyris, C. (1977). Double loop learning in organizations. *Harvard Business Review, 55*(5), 115-125.

Argyris, C. (1991). Teaching smart people how to learn. *Harvard Business Review, 69*(3), 99-109.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 20-39.

Ashkenas, R. N., DeMonaco, L. J., & Francis, S. C. (1998). Making the deal work: How GE Capital integrates acquisitions. *Harvard Business Review, 76*(1), 165-178.

Ashkenas, R. N., & Francis, S. C. (2000). Integration managers: Special leaders for special times. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(6), 108-116.

Atkinson, P. (2005). Managing resistance to change. *Management Services, 49*(1), 14-19.

Atkinson, P., & Clarke, D. (2007). Due diligence. *Management Services, 51*(1), 9-13.

Badrtalei, J., & Bates, D. L. (2007). Effect of organizational cultures on mergers and acquisitions: The case of DaimlerChrysler. *International Journal of Management, 24*(2), 303-317.

Bahde, K. P. (2003). Riding the whitewater: A social constructionist approach to the mergers and acquisitions integration process and the role of the integration manager. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3092847)

Bartlett, C. A., & Ghoshal, S. (1995). Rebuilding behavioral context: Turn process reengineering into people rejuvenation. *Sloan Management Review, 37*(1), 11-23.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: The Free Press.

Beard, M. J., & Zuniga, L. C. (2006). Achieving the right flavor: A study of designing a culture integration process. *The Psycholgist-Manager Journal, 9*(1), 13-25.

Becker, H. S., & Carper, J. W. (1956). The development of identification with an occupation. *American Journal of Sociology, 61*(4), 289-298.

Bennett, M. J. (1993). Towards ethnorelativism: A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity. In R. M. Paige (Ed.), *Education for the intercultural experience* (pp. 21-71). Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Bennett, J. M., & Bennett, M. J. (2004). Developing intercultural sensitivity: An

   integrative approach to global and domestic diversity. In D. Landis, J. M. Bennett,

   & M. J. Bennett (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (pp. 147-165).

   Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Berstene, T. (2004). Conflict and change: Conflict can be managed to create a positive

   force for change. *Journal for Quality & Participation, 27*(2), 4-9.

Biggert, N. (1977). The creative destruction process of organizational change: The case

   of the post office. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 22*(3), 410-426.

Bligh, M. C. (2001). From culture clash to integration: The role of leadership in

   transforming post-merger employee identification. *Proquest Dissertations and

   Theses.* (AAT3039884)

 Bodam, G. L. (2000). Human capital and culture impacted by acquisitions and

   mergers. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3106501)

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2003). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and

   leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bullock, J. R. (2004). A phenomenological study of the leadership experience of

   executives in mergers and acquisitions. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.*

   (AAT 3120339)

Burgelman, R. A., & McKinney, W. (2006). Managing the strategic dynamics of

   acquisition integration: Lessons from HP and Compaq. *California Management

   Review, 48*(3), 6-27.

Burkinshaw, J., Bresman, H., & Hakanson, L. (2000). Managing the post-acquisition

    integration process: How the task integration and human integration processes

    interact to foster value creation. *Journal of Management Studies, 37*(3), 395-425.

Byrne, J. A. (2004). Why courage? *Fast Company,* (86), 16.

Byrnes, N. (1998). Is this the end of glory days?: Higher wages and declining profit

    margins lead to a slowdown in net income growth. *Business Week,* (3567), 110-

    112.

Cavanagh, G. F., & Moberg, D. J. (1999) The virtue of courage within the organization.

    In M. L. Pava & P. Primeaux (Eds.), *Research in ethical issues in organizations*

    (pp. 1-26). Stamford, CT: JAI Press Inc.

Cho, B. (2003). Employees' reactions to a merger and acquisition: A social

    identity perspective. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3113482)

Collins, J. C., & Porras, J. I. (1997). *Built to last.* New York: Harper Business.

Conner, D. R. (1992). *Managing at the speed of change.* New York: Villard.

Conner, D. R. (1998). *Leading at the edge of chaos: How to create the nimble*

    organization. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and*

    procedures for developing grounded theory. Los Angeles: Sage.

Coutu, D. (2002). The anxiety of learning. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(3), 2-8.

Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. G. (2001). *Essentials of Organizational Development*

    and Change. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western College Publishing.

David, F. R., Pearce II, J. A., & Elliott, T. C. (1982). Characteristics and internal

    orientations of boundary spanning individuals. *Academy of Management*

    Proceedings, 1982, 191-195.

Davies, C. J. (2003). Mergers and acquisitions: The human factor. *Proquest*

    Dissertations and Theses. (AAT 3097684)

Deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (1982). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of*

    corporate life. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Denison, D. R. (1990). *Corporate culture and organizational effectiveness.* New York:

    John Wiley & Sons.

Denning, S. (2005). *The leader's guide to storytelling: Mastering the art and discipline of*

    business narrative. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological*

    methods (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Denzin, N. K. (1989a). *Interpretive biography.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications,

    Inc.

Denzin, N. K. (1989b). *Interpretive interactionism.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Deutschman, A. (2004). Googling for courage. *Fast Company,* (86), 58-59.

Dill, W. R. (1958). Environment as an influence on managerial autonomy. *Administrative*

    Science Quarterly, 2(4), 409-443.

Dixon, D. L. (2002). Surviving mergers & acquisitions. *Health Forum Journal, 45*(2),

    24-27.

Drucker, P. F. (1946). *Concept of the corporation.* New Brunswick: Transaction.

Drucker, P. F. (1963). Managing for Business Effectiveness. *Harvard Business Review, 41*(3), 53-60.

Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994) Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 39*(2), 239-263.

Eddy, P. L., & VanDerLinden, K. E. (2006). Emerging definitions of leadership in higher education. *Community College Review, 34*(1), 5-26.

Encarta Dictionary (n.d.). Retrieved April 12, 2010, from http://encarta.msn.com

Esler, D. (2005). And now we are one. *Business & Commercial Aviation, 97*(5), 52-57.

Evans, P. D., & White, D. G. (1981). Towards an empirical definition of courage. *Behavioral Research & Therapy, 19*(5), 419-424.

Extinction of the predator. (2005). *Economist, 376*(8443), 63-65.

Farson, R., & Keyes, R. (2002). The failure-tolerant leader. *Harvard Business Review, 80*(8), 64-71.

Featherly, K. (2006). Culture shock. *Sales & Marketing Management, 158*(1), 45-48.

Fleisher, B. M., (2003). Why top managers depart prematurely after mergers and acquisitions: A case study. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3112976)

Flick, U. (2002) *An introduction to qualitative research* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Foster, R. N., & Kaplan, S. (2001). *Creative destruction: Why companies that are built to to last underperform the market – and how to successfully transform them.* New York: Currency.

Furnham, A. (2002). Managers as change agents. *Journal of Change Management, 3*(1), 21-29.

Gadiesh, O., Buchanan, R., Daniell, M., & Ormiston, C. (2002a). A CEO's guide to the new challenges of M&A leadership. *Strategy & Leadership, 30*(3), 13-18.

Gadiesh, O., Buchanan, R., Daniell, M., & Ormiston, C. (2002b). The leadership testing ground: Mergers may be the truest test of great leaders. *Journal of Business Strategy, 23*(2), 12-17.

Garver, R. (2006). Merge right. *CFO, 22*(3), 16-21.

Gerzon, M. (2006). *Leading through conflict: How successful leaders transform differences into opportunities.* Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Ghoshal, S., & Bartlett, C. A. (1996). Rebuilding behavioral context: A blueprint for corporate renewal. *Sloan Management Review, 37*(2), 23-36.

Gibson, R. (2003). Rethinking the leadership agenda. *Financial Executive, 19*(5), 30-34.

Ginter, P. M., Duncan, W. J., Swayne, L. E., & Shelfer, Jr., A. G. (1992). When merger means death: Organizational euthanasia and strategic choice. *Organizational Dynamics, 20*(3), 21-33.

Gitelson, G., Bing, J., & Laroche, L. (2001). Culture shock. *CMA Management, 75*(1), 40-44.

Goldsmith, M. (2007). Which workplace habits do you need to break to become more successful? *The Journal for Quality & Participation, 30*(2), 4-8.

Green, S. (1988). Strategy, organizational culture and symbolism. *Long Range Planning, 21*(4), 121-129.

Greenberg, H., & Sweeney, P. (2005). Leadership: Qualities that distinguish women. *Financial Executive, 21*(6), 32-36.

Greenspan, A. (2007). *The age of turbulence: Adventures in a new world.* New York: The Penguin Press.

Grey, R. J., & Gordon, G. G. (1978). Risk-taking managers: Who gets the top jobs? *Management Review, 67*(11), 8-13.

Harding. D., & Rouse, T. (2007). Human due diligence. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(4), 124-131.

Harvey, J. (2002). Stereotypes and moral oversight in conflict resolution: What are we teaching? *Journal of Philosophy of Education, 36*(4), 513-527.

Harvey, R. H. (2005). Hardiness at work: Psychophysiological indicators of everyday courage under stress. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3198397)

Higher education leadership in the new world. (2006). *ASHE Higher Education Report, 31*(6), 101-136.

Hofstede, G. (1994). *Culture and organizations.* London: Harper Collins.

Hofstede, G. (1997). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Hollack, S. (2007). Big-time challenge. *T + D, 61*(11), 35-36.

Holman, P., & Devane, T. (1999). *The change handbook: Group methods for shaping the future.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Hon, C. M. (2002). A quantitative analysis of organizational culture perception in a same industry merger. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3068401)

Hornstein, H. A. (1986). *Managerial courage: Revitalizing your company without sacrificing your job.* New York: John Wiley & Sons.

In tandem (at last). (2006). *Economist, 378*(8471), 50-52.

Jentz, B. C., & Murphy, J. T. (2005). Embracing confusion: What leaders do when they don't know what to do. *Phi Delta Kappan, 86*(5), 358-366.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, F. P. (2000). *Joining together: Group theory and group skills.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Johnson, L. K. (2007). What makes change happen? *Harvard Management Update, 12*(10), 35.

Johnson, P. (2005). Five marks of a great leader. *Forbes, 175*(10), 31.

The juggernaut keeps rolling. (1997). *Institutional Investor, 31*(9), 1-4.

Katz, R., & Tushman, M. L. (1983). A longitudinal study of the effects of boundary spanning supervision on turnover and promotion in research and development. *Academy of Management Journal, 26*(3), 437-456.

Kavanagh, M. H., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2006). The impact of leadership and change management strategy on organizational culture and individual acceptance of change during a merger. *British Journal of Management, 17,* S81-S103.

Kiechel III, W. (1987). Summoning managerial courage. *Fortune, 115*(2), 149-152.

Kim, Y. Y., & Ruben, B. D. (1988). Intercultural transformation: A systems theory. In Y. Y. Kim & W. B. Gudykunst (Eds.), *Theories in intercultural communication* (pp. 299-321). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

King, J. L. (2009). *Organizational commitment and communication paper*. Unpublished manuscript, University of Phoenix.

Kitching, J. (1967). Why do mergers miscarry? *Harvard Business Review, 45*(6), 84-101.

Klein, M., & Napier, R. (2001). The courage to act. *Journal of Change Management, 1*(3), 257-272.

Klein, M., & Napier, R. (2003). *The courage to act: 5 factors of courage to transform business*. Palo Alto, CA: Davies-Black.

Koestenbaum, P. (2002). *Leadership: The inner side of greatness.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Koutsis, V. (2004). A study on organizational change as experienced by middle managers during the merger of two large high technology companies. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3133476)

Krippendorf, K. (2004). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kruger, M. (2007). Profiles in courage of community college leaders. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3276934)

Lahiry, S. (1994). Building commitment through organizational culture. *Training & Development, 48*(4), 50-52.

Lanphear, S. (2003). Plugging creativity into your CU. *Credit Union Executive Newsletter, 29*(22), 4.

Lawford, G. R. (2002). *The quest for authentic power: Getting past manipulation, control, and self-limiting beliefs.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers Inc.

Lee, S. M. (1971). An empirical analysis of organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal, 14*(2), 213-226.

Levine, S. R. (2000). Leading change. *Executive Excellence, 17*(7), 9.

Levinson, H. (1970). A psychologist diagnoses merger failure. *Harvard Business Review, 48*(2), 139-147.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Livigni, R. (2002). A theoretical and practical study of organizational culture and change. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3056884)

Lui, K. E. W. (2001). Acculturation in a newly merged organization: How the implementation of an acculturation process assists individuals in adaptation to a merger. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 9993506)

Lustig, M. W., & Koester, J. (1999). *Intercultural competence: Interpersonal communication across cultures.* New York: Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

March, J. G. (1994). *A primer on decision making: How decisions happen.* New York: The Free Press – Macmillan.

Marks, M. L. (1982). Merging human resources: A review of current research. *Mergers & Acquisitions, 17*(2), 38-44.

Marks, M. L. (1997). Consulting in mergers and acquisitions: Interventions spawned by recent trends. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 10*(3), 267-279.

Marks, M. L., & Mirvis, P. H. (1985). The merger syndrome: Stress and uncertainty. *Mergers & Acquisitions, 20*(2), 50-55.

Marks, M. L., & Mirvis, P. H. (1986). The merger syndrome. *Psychology Today, 20*(10), 36-42.

Marks, M. L., & Mirvis, P. H. (1992). Rebuilding after the merger: Dealing with
"survivor sickness." *Organizational Dynamics, 21*(2), 18-32.

Marques, J. (2008). Lead or get out of the way. *Management Services, 52*(2), 42-43.

Martin, J., & Siehl, C. (1983). Organizational culture and counterculture: An uneasy
symbiosis. *Organizational Dynamics, 12*(2), 52-64.

Masters, M. F., & Albright, R. R. (2005). Dealing with conflict. In *Management skills*
(pp. 579-605). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Matsumoto, D. (2000). *Culture and psychology: People around the world* (2nd ed.).
Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.

May, D. R., Hodges, T. D., Chan, A. Y. L., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Developing the moral
component of authentic leadership. *Organizational Dynamics, 32*(3), 247-260.

Miller, R. (2000). How culture affects mergers and acquisitions. *Industrial Management,
42*(5), 22-26.

Nahavandi, A., & Malekzadeh, A. R. (1988). Acculturation in mergers and acquisitions.
Academy of Management Review, 13(1), 79-90.

Osland, J. S., & Bird, A. (2000). Beyond sophisticated stereotyping: Cultural
sensemaking in context. *Academy of Management Executive, 14*(1), 65-77.

Osland, J. S., Kolb, D. A., & Rubin, I. M. (2001). *Organizational behavior: An
experiential approach.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Ozag, D. (2001). A mixed methodology study of the relationship between merger
survivors' trust, hope, and organizational commitment. *Proquest Dissertations
and Theses.* (AAT 3029589)

Panko, R. (2005). The comeback corporation. *Best's Review, 105*(11), 70-73.

Pears, D. (2004). The anatomy of courage. *Social Research, 71*(1), 1-12.

Pepper, G. L., & Larson, G. S. (2006). Cultural identity tensions in a post-acquisition

organization. *Journal of Applied Communication Research, 34*(1), 49-71.

Peterson, C., Park, N., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2005). Assessment of character strengths.

In G. P. Koocher, J. C. Norcoss, & S. S. Hill III (Eds.), *Psychologists desk*

reference (pp. 93-98). New York: Oxford University Press.

Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook*

and classification. Washington D. C.: American Psychological Association.

Pettigrew, A. M. (1979). On studying organizational culture. *Administrative Science*

Quarterly, 24(4), 570-581.

Piaget, J. (1971). *The child's conception of the world.* London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Plato (380 B.C.E) Translated by B. Jowett. Retrieved on November 16, 2008, from

http://classics.mit.edu/Plato/laches.html.

Pollitt, D. (2004). When Asda employees joined the Wal-Mart "family". *Human*

Resource Management International Digest, 12(6), 18-20.

Pruett, Y. V. (2003). A qualitative case study: Cultural adaptation of Germans and

Americans in the DaimlerChrysler merger. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.*

(AAT 1413642)

Pruitt, D. G., & Kim, S. H. (2004). *Social conflict: Escalation, stalemate, and settlement*

(3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Quick, J. C., & Gavin, J. H. (2000). The next frontier: Edgar Schein on organization

therapy. *Academy of Management Executive, 14*(1), 31-44.

Raelin, J. A., & Raelin, J. D. (2006). Developmental action learning: Toward

    collaborative change. *Action Learning: Research & Practice, 3*(1), 45-67.

Rate, C. R. (2007). What is courage? A search for meaning. *Proquest Dissertations and*

    Theses. (AAT 3293368)

Rate, C. R., & Sternberg, R. J. (2007). When good people do nothing: A failure of

    courage. In J. Langan-Fox, C. L. Cooper, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Research*

    companion to the dysfunctional workplace: Management challenges and

    symptoms (pp. 3-21). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.

Reardon, K. K. (2007). Courage as a skill. *Harvard Business Review, 85*(1), 58-64.

Richards, J. A. (2008). The development and practice of courageous leadership: A

    phenomenological inquiry of female leadership within the Canadian health care

    system. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3306690)

Riessman, C. K. (1993). *Narrative Analysis.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Robinson, J. A. (1995). Perspective, meaning, and remembering. In D. C. Rubin (Ed.),

    Remembering our past: Studies in autobiographical memory (pp. 199-217).

    Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.

Rousseau, D. M. (1990). Assessing organizational culture: The case for multiple

    methods. In B. Schneider (Ed.), *Organizational climate and culture* (pp.153-192).

    San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Salaman, G., & Storey, J. (2002). Managers' theories about the process of innovation.

    Journal of Management Studies, 39(2), 147-165.

Salter, C. (2004). Mr. Inside speaks out. *Fast Company,* (86), 92-93.

Samover, L. A., Porter, R. E., & Stefani, L. A. (1998). *Communication between cultures* (3rd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Sample, S. B. (2005). Artful listening. In *Management skills* (pp. 356-372). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Sampson, E. E. (1998). The political organization of wisdom and courage. In S. Srivastva & D. L. Cooperrider (Eds.), *Organizational wisdom and executive courage* (pp. 118-133). San Francisco: The New Lexington Press.

Schein, E. H. (1983). The role of the founder in creating organizational culture. *Organizational Dynamics, 12*(1), 13-28.

Schein, E. H. (1985). *Organizational culture and leadership.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. (1999). *The corporate culture survival guide.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schrumpter, J. A. (1941). *Capitalism, socialism and democracy.* New York: Harper & Row.

Schweiger, D. M., & Goulet, P. K. (2002). Explaining acquisition integration effectiveness through cultural learning: A longitudinal field experiment. *Academy of Management Proceedings, USA, 2002,* Q1-Q6.

Segil, L. (2005). 10 characteristics of dynamic leaders. *Financial Executive, 21*(2), 71.

Sekerka, L. E., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2007). Moral courage in the workplace: Moving to and

    from the desire and decision to act. *Business Ethics: A European Review, 16*(2),

    132-149.

Seligman, M. E. P., Steen, T. A., Park, N., & Peterson, C. (2005). Positive psychology

    progress: Empirical validation of interventions. *American Psychologist, 60*(5),

    410-421.

Senge, P. M. (1999). *The fifth discipline: The art & practice of the learning organization.*

    New York: Currency Doubleday.

Shrallow, D. A. (1985). Managing the integration of acquired operations. *Journal of*

    Business Strategy, 6(1), 30-36.

Shrivastava, P. (1986). Postmerger integration. *The Journal of Business Strategy, 7*(1),

    65-76.

Sidle, S. D. (2006). Resisting the urge to merge. *Academy of Management Perspective,*

    20(3), 115-118.

Silverman, D. (1993). *Interpreting qualitative data: Methods for analyzing talk, text and*

    interaction. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Sinetar, M. (1981). Mergers, morale, and productivity. *Personnel Journal, 60*(11), 863-

    867.

Smith, K. W. (2000). A brand-new culture for the merged firm. *Mergers & Acquisitions:*

    The Dealmaker's Journal, 35(6), 45-50.

Smith, L. (2005). How to survive a corporate merger. *U.S. News & World Report, 139*(6),

    EE2-EE7. Retrieved from the Business Source Corporate database.

Smith, N. C., Simpson, S. S., & Huang, C. (2007). Why managers fail to do the right thing: An empirical study of unethical and illegal conduct. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 17*(4), 633-667.

Spargo, R. (2004). Talking your way to success. *Manager: British Journal of Administrative Management,* (43), 28-29.

Spekman, R. E. (1979). Influence and information: An exploratory investigation of the boundary role person's basis of power. *Academy of Management Journal, 22*(1), 104-117.

Styhre, A., Borjesson, S., & Wickenburg, J. (2006). Managed by the other: cultural anxieties in two Anglo-Americanized Swedish firms. *Human Resource Management, 17*(7), 1293-1306.

Tannery, F. F. (1948). The requirements and opportunities in industry for students of accounting. *Accounting Review, 23*(4), 377-384.

Tannery, F. F. (1952). Accounting leadership and responsibilities in industry. *Accounting Review, 27*(3), 284-291.

Tillich, P. (1952). *The courage to be.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Torres-Kitamura, M. (2004). Fierce loyalty. *Hawaii Business, 50*(2), 60-65.

Treasurer, B. (2000). How risk-taking really works. *Training, 37*(1), 40-44.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1991). Cultural leadership in organizations. *Organization Science, 2*(2), 149-169.

Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequences in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin, 63*(6), 384-399.

Tushman, M. L. (1977). Special boundary roles in the innovation process. *Administration Science Quarterly, 22*(4), 587-605.

Tushman, M. L., Newman, W. H., & Romanelli, E. (1986). Convergence and upheaval: Managing the unsteady pace of organizational evolution. *California Management Review, 29*(1), 29-44.

Tushman, M. L., & Scanlan, T. J. (1981a). Characteristics and external orientations of boundary spanning individuals. *Academy of Management Journal, 24*(1), 83-98.

Tushman, M. L., & Scanlan, T. J. (1981b). Boundary spanning individuals: Their role in information transfer and their antecedents. *Academy of Management Journal, 24*(2), 289-305.

Ulrich, D., Kerr, S., & Ashkenas, R. (2002). General Electric's leadership "Work Out." *Leader to Leader, 2002*(24), 44-50.

Valentino, C. L. (2004). The role of middle managers in the transmission and integration of organization culture: A case study in a merged health care organization. *Proquest Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT NQ91755)

Van Eynde, D. F. (1998) A case for courage in organizations. *American Management Association International, 87*(2), 62.

Walston, S. F. (2003). Courage leadership. T + D, *57*(8), 58-60.

Walston, S. F. (2007). Tangibles or intangibles: Where's your value? *Chief Learning Officer, 6*(11), 50-53.

Walt, S. J. (2005). Looking beyond the obvious in merger integration. *Mergers & Acquisitions: The Dealmaker's Journal, 40*(3), 41-46.

Walton, D. N. (1986). *Courage: A philosophical investigation.* Berkley, CA: University
of California Press.

Walton, R. E. (1987). *Managing conflict: Interpersonal dialogue and third-party roles.*
Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Weber, R. A., & Camerer, C. F. (2003). Cultural conflict and merger failure: An
experimental approach. *Management Science, 49*(4), 400-415.

Weiss, J. W. (1996). *Organizational behavior and change: Managing diversity, cross-
cultural dynamics, and ethics.* St Paul, MN: West Publishing Company.

Whittle, D. D., (2002). Mergers and acquisitions: The employee perspective.
Proquest Dissertations and Theses. (AAT 3051501)

Wolf, R. (2003). Integration: Key to M & A success. *Financial Executive, 19*(6), 62-67.

Woodard, C. R. (2004). Hardiness and the concept of courage. *Consulting Psychology
Journal: Practice and Research, 56*(3), 173-185.

Woodard, C. R. & Pury, C. L. S. (2007) The construct of courage categorization and
measurement. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 59*(2),
135-147.

Woreline, M. C., Wrzesniewski, A., & Rafaeli, A. (2002). Courage and work: Breaking
routines to improve performance. In R. G. Lord, R. J. Klimoski, & R. Kanfer
(Eds.), *Emotions in the workplace* (pp. 295-330). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Wortman, J. (2006). Ethical decision-making: The effects of temporal immediacy,
perspective-taking, moral courage and ethical work climate. *Proquest
Dissertations and Theses.* (AAT 3213325)

APPENDIX A

Consent to Participate in Research Cover Letter and Form

<Date>

Dear Executive,

Please read the Consent to Participate in Research document completely before making your decision to participate in this study. The Consent to Participate in Research document provides important information about how the study will be conducted. The Procedures section of the document provides information about what you will be expected to do as a participant in this study. The Potential Risks and Discomforts, Confidentiality, Participation and Withdrawal, and Rights of Research Subjects sections will inform you about particular aspects of the study that you should consider before making your final decision.

As a participant in this study, you are being asked to complete a narrative interview with me that will last approximately 60-90 minutes. The interview will be scheduled at a time that is convenient for you. Your commitment to conduct an interview with me is voluntary. You are not obligated to complete an interview by consenting to participate in this study.

After you have read the Consent to Participate in Research document completely, you will be asked to sign the form and provide contact information to schedule an interview. You may contact me by phone at <researcher's phone number> or by e-mail at <researcher's e-mail address> if you have questions that you would like to have answered before signing the form. Thank you; I appreciate your assistance in conducting my study.

Sincerely,

Jeanette Kephart

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

STUDY TITLE

Common Experiences of Courage among Executives Associated with Merger Cultural Integration

PARTICIPANTS

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Jeanette Kephart, Pepperdine University, and under the direction of Robert Paull, Ph.D., Faculty Advisor, from the Graduate School of Education and Psychology at Pepperdine University. You were selected as a possible participant in the study because you meet the criteria for this study. Your participation in this research is voluntary.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to increase the understanding of courageous behavior in organizations by providing a context for courage that can be linked to leaders' behavior at work.

PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you can expect the following:
- You will be interviewed by the researcher for a period lasting approximately 60-90 minutes.
- You will be asked to participate in an interview in which you will be asked to describe experiences in which you acted courageously.
- You will be asked to complete a written demographic questionnaire. This questionnaire will be used to assist the researcher in describing the sample composition.
- The interview will be tape recorded. The tape recordings will be kept in a locked file and will be destroyed after five years.
- The company you work for will not be identified in the study.
- No quotes or summaries of data will be used to report this study's findings.
- You will be given the opportunity to examine the interview transcript.
- At your request, you will be informed of any significant findings developed as a result of this study.

POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

A potential risk of this study is the identification of individual participants and/or the company they work for. The researcher will not use any respondent quotes or summaries of data whether or not they include attribution in order to maintain the confidentiality and anonymity of the study participants and the company they work for. The researcher will prevent raw or processed data from being linked with a specific informant by referring to

participants as respondents 1-10 and labeling digital files and documents accordingly. The researcher has also removed all information related to the company and its industry from the dissertation document in order to mitigate this risk. Participants in this study may feel discomfort as a result of remembering their experiences involving acts of courage. Respondents may decline to answer any questions that cause discomfort including those contained in the demographic questionnaire.

POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Your participation in the research may afford you the opportunity to: (a) contribute to the understanding of courage in the workplace, as well as contribute to the field of organizational leadership as a whole; (b) to gain additional understanding of your lived experience by means of personal reflection during the interview; and (c) the results of the research may include the opportunity to build on the knowledge related to courage and cultural integration in organizations.

PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

There is no payment for participation in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you will be disclosed only as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of keeping all collected data in a secured location. Numbers rather than the names of participants will be used on digital files and transcripts in order to keep identities from being associated with a specific informant. The numbers associated with the names of participants will be listed in an electronic document that will be accessible only to the researcher.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether or not to be in this study. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. Participants may withdraw from the study by contacting the researcher via e-mail at jeanette.kephart@pepperdine.edu and stating that they no longer want to participate. Data provided to the researcher will be returned upon request. The study Sponsor will not know which of the potential participants complete interviews.

IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about this research, please feel free to contact Jeanette Kephart, Investigator, at <researcher's phone number> or Dr. Robert Paull, Faculty Advisor, at <faculty advisor's phone number>.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal rights because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, you may contact Dr. Robert Paull at <faculty advisor's e-mail address> or by phone <faculty advisor's phone number> or via mail: Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, <school address>, or you can contact Dr. Douglas Leigh, Chairperson of the Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board, Pepperdine University at <chairperson's e-mail and phone number> or via mail: Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, <school address>.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT

I understand the procedures described above. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I agree to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

_____
Name of Subject

_____   _____
Signature of Subject   Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR OR DESIGNEE

In my judgment the subject is voluntarily giving informed consent and possesses the legal capacity to give informed consent to participate in this research study.

_____
Name of Investigator or Designee

_____   _____
Signature of investigator or Designee   Date

Introductory Letter

Dear Executive,

I am a student in Pepperdine University's, Graduate School of Education and Psychology, Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership Program. I am conducting a dissertation research project and would like to interview you in order to better understand what the common experiences of courage are among executives associated with cultural integration following a merger. Cultural integration is the development of a new organizational culture from two previously separate entities consisting of a common frame of reference that ensures that the same basic assumptions and consistent mental maps are being used by all organization members. The title of my study is "Common Experiences of Courage among Executives Associated with Merger Cultural Integration."

You were selected for this research project because you were an employee of a company acquired in a merger that relocated to a site where the acquiring company's primary business is located after the merger was completed and meet the following selection criteria: a) employed by the acquired company when the two companies merged, b) are an executive manager in the acquiring company's primary business, and c) are currently working at a site where the acquiring company's primary business is located. The interview will take approximately 60 – 90 minutes and will be conducted in a face-to-face setting of your choice at or near the site at which you are currently assigned to work. You will be receiving a phone call from me during <Initial Contact Period Dates> to schedule your interview. The interview will be scheduled during a time that is convenient for you. The interview will be digitally recorded and available for you to review and edit after it has been transcribed.

The following are components of courage that may be relevant to the experiences you will be asked to describe in your interview: a) external circumstances – objective conditions or facts that determine or must be considered in the determining of a course of action, b) cognitive processes- perception of danger, awareness of risk, appraising/assessing risk, problem solving, and identifying alternatives, c) motivation towards excellence – one's actions are directed toward the good of others, a noble purpose, or worthy aim, d) affect/emotion, the presence of emotions such as fear, e) volition – an exercise of one's will, f) behavioral response – reactions due to specific stimuli (such as external circumstances or emotions such as fear, and g) characteristic/trait/skills/ability – ability, capacity, and disposition to be courageous.

You may contact me at the phone number or e-mail below with any questions you may have. Thank you; I appreciate your help in conducting my research and look forward to meeting you.

Sincerely,

Jeanette Kephart

APPENDIX C

Interview Prompts

1. Please continue.

2. Anything else?

3. Is there anything else you would like to say about _____?

4. Can you recall any other experiences you had at work that involved a change in your behavior or thinking after you relocated to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously?

5. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that required you to exhibit staying power or fortitude in order to achieve a positive outcome?

6. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that involved interaction with groups of others?

7. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that required you to act alone without the support of a group of people?

8. Can you think of any experiences you had at work after relocating to <the acquiring company's site> in which you feel you acted courageously that involved physical pain or going against social norms?

9. Is there anything else you would like to add?

APPENDIX D

Demographic Questionnaire

Gender:
☐(07) Male; ☐(08) Female

Education level:
☐(17) High School; ☐(18) Some college; ☐(19) Bachelor degree;
☐(20) Master degree; ☐(21) Post Graduate;

Occupation:

Title of position:

Number of employees you manage:
☐(22) 100-1,000; ☐(23) 1,001-5,000; ☐(24) 5,001 – 10,000;
☐(25) over 10,000;

What is your current level in executive management?

Have you been promoted or had an increase in responsibility, accountability, and authority since becoming an executive in the acquiring company's primary business?

How long did you work for <acquired company> prior to its merger with <acquiring company>?

Did you have a management position at the acquired company?

What level of management was that position?

When did you first transfer to a site in <location of acquiring company's primary business>?

Do you see any elements of the old <acquired company's> culture in today's <acquiring company's primary business> culture?

APPENDIX E

Informed Consent Information

1. Intent to maintain confidentiality and anonymity (unless that is specifically to be waived).

2. Measures to be taken to prevent raw or processed data from being linked with a specific informant (as, for example, coding of all items, with the key to the code being maintained separately).

3. Measures to be taken to limit access to the data, even in coded form, on a need-to-know basis.

4. Notice that anonymity cannot be absolutely guaranteed since inquiry records have no privileged status under the law and can be subpoenaed should a case emerge (an unlikely outcome).

5. Reservation by the respondent of the right to withdraw from the study at any time, without justifying that action, and of the right to have all data returned to him or her (following the principle that ownership of the data resides and continues to reside in the data provider).

6. Specification of the particular steps that a respondent should take should he or she decide to withdraw.

7. Notice that participation is entirely voluntary unless that respondent has already agreed as part of a prior contract to participate in legitimate studies.

Source: Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

APPENDIX F

Transcript E-mail

<Participant Name>,

Thank you again for completing an interview with me for my doctoral research project. Attached is a transcript of the interview I conducted with you on <date of interview>. I have reviewed the transcript and found minor errors that did not detract from the meaning of the content. Personal and confidential information has not yet, but will be deleted from the transcript before data coding begins. You may change, add, or delete information from the transcript prior to <date two weeks from e-mail communication>. Changes to the transcript will not be allowed after data coding has started.

<file attachment>

Jeanette Kephart

Initial Courage Category Selections

Endurance for Positive Outcome

P1T2
P1T3
P2T1
P3T3
P4T2
P4T1
P5T2
P6T1
P7T1
P7T3
P8T1
P8T2
P9T1
P9T4
P10T3

Interacting with Others

P1T1
P2T4
P3T4
P4T1
P5T3
P5T4
P6T2
P7T3
P8T4
P9T2
P10T4

Act Alone

P1T3
P2T3
P3T1
P4T3
P5T4
P6T4
P7T4
P8T2
P9T4
P10T1

Pain or Social Norms

P1T4
P2T2
P3T2
P4T4
P5T1
P6T3
P7T2
P8T3
P9T3
P10T2

Note: Grey colored incident thread category selections identify the first participant

category selection in a multiple category selection.

APPENDIX H

Data Coding Guides

AFFECT/EMOTION

- Fear – the emotion experienced in the presence or threat of danger (synonyms: alarm, anxiety, apprehension, consternation, dread, fearfulness, fright, horror, panic, terror, trepidation)

- Anxiety – an uneasy state of mind usually over the possibility of an anticipated misfortune or trouble (synonyms: agitation, anxiousness, apprehension, apprehensiveness, care, concern, disquiet, nervousness, perturbation, solicitude, uneasiness, worry)

- Despair – utter loss of hope (synonyms: desperation, despondency, forlornness, hopelessness)

BEHAVIORAL RESPONSE

- Face – to oppose (something hostile or dangerous) with firmness or courage; to enter into contest or conflict with (synonyms: beard, brave, brazen, breast, confront, dare, defy, outbrave)

- Control – the act or activity of looking after and making decisions about something; the fact or state of having (something) at one's disposal; the right or means to command or control others

- Withstand – to refuse to give in to

- Overcome – to achieve a victory over; to subject to incapacitating emotional or mental stress

- Persevere – to continue despite difficulties, opposition, or discouragement (synonyms: carry on, persist)

- Sustained – to come to a knowledge of (something) by living through it

CHARACTERISTIC/TRAIT/SKILLS/ABILITIES

- Disposition – one's characteristic attitude or mood (synonyms: grain, nature, temper, temperament)

- Strength – the ability to exert effort for the accomplishment of a task

- Capacity – the physical or mental power to do something

- Quality – high position within society; something that sets apart an individual from others of the same kind

COGNITIVE PROCESSES

- Deliberation – a careful weighing of the reasons for or against something; an exchange of views for the purpose of exploring a subject or deciding an issue

- Presence of mind – no entries found

- Awareness – a state of being aware

- Defining – to mark the limits of; to point out the chief quality or qualities of an individual or group; to give the rules about (something) clearly and exactly

- Identifying – serving to identify as belonging to an individual or group

- Appraisal – an opinion on the nature, character, or quality of something; the act of placing a value on the nature, character, or quality of something

EXTERNAL CIRCUMSTANCES

- Danger – the state of not being protected from injury, harm, or evil (synonyms: distress, endangerment, imperilment, jeopardy, peril, risk, trouble)

- Difficulty – something that is a cause for suffering or special effort especially in the attainment of a goal (synonyms: adversity, asperity, hardness, hardship, rigor)

- Risks – something that may cause injury or harm

- Pain – a sharp unpleasant sensation usually felt in some specific part of the body (synonyms: ache, pang, prick, smart, sting, stitch, throe, tingle, twinge)

MOTIVATION TOWARD EXCELLENCE

- Moral – guided by or in accordance with one's sense of right and wrong

- Worthy – having sufficient worth or merit to receive one's honor, esteem, or reward (synonyms: deserving, good, meritorious)

- Justified – based on sound reasoning or information

- Right – having full use of one's mind and control over one's actions; meeting the requirements of a purpose or situation; being what is called for by accepted standards of right and wrong

- Noble – having, characterized by, or arising from a dignified and generous nature (synonyms: chivalrous, elevated, gallant, great, greathearted, high, high-minded, lofty, lordly, magnanimous, sublime)

- Good – based on sound reasoning or information; conforming to a high standard or morality or virtue; according to the rules of logic; firm in one's allegiance to someone or something; having or showing exceptional knowledge, experience, or skill in a field of endeavor; worthy of one's trust

VOLITION

- Deliberate – decided on as a result of careful thought (synonyms: advised, calculated, considered, measured, reasoned, studied, thoughtful, weighed)

- Willing – having a desire or inclination; having or showing the ability to respond without delay or hesitation; done, made, or given with one's own free will (synonyms: amenable, disposed, game, glad, inclined, ready)

- Free Choice – no entries found

- Intentional – made, given, or done with full awareness of what one is doing (synonyms: deliberate, purposeful, willful)

Note: Source of information contained in the Data Coding Guides is www.merriam-webster.com unless otherwise stated.

APPENDIX I

Master Data Coding Process Instructions

1. Read through the incident thread to become familiar with its content. You may exclude any paragraphs that conflict with the general subject matter of the incident thread. Encircle excluded paragraphs with the BLACK colored marker.
2. Review the **EXTERNAL CIRCUMSTANCES** Data Coding Guide.
3. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies external circumstances.
4. Indicate the relevant content which signifies external circumstances by encircling the applicable text with the **GREEN** colored marker.
5. Review the **COGNITIVE PROCESSES** Data Coding Guide.
6. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies cognitive processes.
7. Indicate the relevant content which signifies cognitive processes by encircling the applicable text with the **VIOLET PURPLE** colored marker.
8. Review the **MOTIVATION TOWARD EXCELLENCE** Data Coding Guide.
9. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies motivation toward excellence.
10. Indicate the relevant content which signifies motivation towards excellence by encircling the applicable text with the **ORANGE** colored marker.
11. Review the **AFFECT/EMOTION** Data Coding Guide.
12. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies affect/emotion.
13. Indicate the relevant content which signifies affect/emotion by encircling the applicable text with the **RED** colored marker.
14. Review the **VOLITION** Data Coding Guide.
15. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies volition.
16. Indicate the relevant content which signifies volition by encircling the applicable text with the **BLUE** colored marker.
17. Review the **BEHAVIORAL RESPONSE** Data Coding Guide.
18. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies behavioral response.
19. Indicate the relevant content which signifies behavioral response by encircling the applicable text with the **BROWN** colored marker.
20. Review the **CHARACTERISTIC/TRAIT/SKILLS/ABILITIES** Data Coding Guide.
21. Read through the incident thread to locate content that signifies characteristic/trait/skills/abilities.
22. Indicate the relevant content which signifies characteristic/trait/skills/abilities by encircling the applicable text with the **YELLOW** colored marker.
23. Initial the incident thread and place it in the manila folder of the category that is consistent with the general subject matter of the incident thread's content.
24. Repeat the data coding process for each incident thread.

Incident Thread Mapping to the Cultural Integration Model with Courage Types

Endurance for Positive Outcome   (EPO)   Interaction with Others (IO)
Act Alone (AA)   Pain or Social Norms (PSN)

Cultural Contact   **Cultural Blending**

Mental Programming   Cultural Relativism

P2T2 (PSN)   P4T1 (IO)
P5T3 (IO)   P7T4 (EPO)
P9T4 (AA)   P9T3 (PSN)

Prejudice   Human Integration

P3T2 (PSN)   P2T4 (IO)
P6T3 (PSN)   P6T2 (IO)

Cultural Anxiety   Cultural Leadership

P4T3 (AA)   P1T1 (IO)
P8T4 (IO)   P5T1 (PSN)
P10T2 (PSN)   P8T3 (PSN)
                                                 P10T4 (IO)

Continuity   Conflict Resolution

P1T4 (PSN)   P3T3 (EPO)
P7T3 (IO)

Cultural Conflict   **Cultural Change**

Loyalty   Creating New Cultural Frameworks

P3T4 (IO)   P4T4 (PSN)
P9T1 (EPO)   P8T1 (EPO)
                                                 P10T3 (EPO)

Resistance to Change   Role Modeling

P5T4 (AA)   P2T3 (AA)
P10T1 (AA)   P9T2 (IO)

Cultural Conflict	**Cultural Change**
Culture Clash	Unlearning and Learning
P1T3 (AA)	P1T2 (EPO)
P7T1 (PSN)	P6T4 (AA)
P8T2 (AA)	
Intercultural Communication	Behavioral Change
P4T2 (EPO)	P3T1 (AA)
	P5T2 (EPO)
Cultural Adaptation	P7T2 (AA)
P2T1 (EPO)	
P6T1 (EPO)	

APPENDIX K

Cultural Integration Chronicles with Courage Categories

Endurance for Positive Outcome (EPO)   Interaction with Others (IO)
Act Alone (AA)   Pain or Social Norms (PSN)

P1 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Unlearning and Learning
    P1T4 (PSN) P1T3 (AA)   P1T1 (IO)   P1T2 (EPO)

P2 – Mental Programming, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Role Modeling
    P2T2 (PSN)   P2T1 (EPO)   P2T4 (IO)   P2T3 (AA)

P3 – Prejudice, Loyalty, Conflict Resolution, Behavioral Change
    P3T2 (PSN) P3T4 (IO)   P3T3 (EPO)   P3T1 (AA)

P4 – Cultural Anxiety, Intercultural Communication, Cultural Relativism, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
    P4T3 (AA)   P4T2 (EPO)   P4T1 (IO)   P4T4 (PSN)

P5 – Mental Programming, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Behavioral Change
    P5T3 (IO)   P5T4 (AA)   P5T1 (PSN)   P5T2 (EPO)

P6 – Prejudice, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Unlearning and Learning
    P6T3 (PSN)   P6T1 (EPO)   P6T2 (IO)   P6T4 (AA)

P7 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Relativism, Behavioral Change
    P7T3 (IO)   P7T1 (EPO)   P7T4 (AA)   P7T2 (PSN)

P8 – Cultural Anxiety, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
    P8T4 (IO)   P8T2 (AA)   P8T3 (PSN)   P8T1 (EPO)

P9 – Mental Programming, Loyalty, Cultural Relativism, Role Modeling
    P9T4 (AA)   P9T1 (EPO)   P9T3 (PSN)   P9T2 (IO)

P10 – Cultural Anxiety, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
    P10T2 (PSN)   P10T1 (AA)   P10T4 (IO)   P10T3 (EPO)

Note: Cultural integration chronicles are arranged in the following order: cultural contact,

cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change.

APPENDIX L

Cultural Integration Chronicles with Courage Categories and Grouping

Endurance for Positive Outcome (EPO)   Interaction with Others (IO)
Act Alone (AA)   Pain or Social Norms (PSN)

P1 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Unlearning and Learning
 P1T4 (PSN) P1T3 (AA) P1T1 (IO)   P1T2 (EPO)

P5 – Mental Programming, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Behavioral Change
   P5T3 (IO)   P5T4 (AA)   P5T1 (PSN)   P5T2 (EPO)

P8 – Cultural Anxiety, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
   P8T4 (IO) P8T2 (AA) P8T3 (PSN)   P8T1 (EPO)

P10 – Cultural Anxiety, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
   P10T2 (PSN)   P10T1 (AA)   P10T4 (IO)   P10T3 (EPO)

P2 – Mental Programming, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Role Modeling
   P2T2 (PSN)   P2T1 (EPO)   P2T4 (IO)   P2T3 (AA)

P6 – Prejudice, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Unlearning and Learning
 P6T3 (PSN) P6T1 (EPO)   P6T2 (IO)   P6T4 (AA)

P3 – Prejudice, Loyalty, Conflict Resolution, Behavioral Change
 P3T2 (PSN) P3T4 (IO) P3T3 (EPO)   P3T1 (AA)

P7 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Relativism, Behavioral Change
 P7T3 (IO) P7T1 (EPO)   P7T4 (AA)   P7T2 (PSN)

P4 – Cultural Anxiety, Intercultural Communication, Cultural Relativism, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
   P4T3 (AA)   P4T2 (EPO)   P4T1 (IO)   P4T4 (PSN)

P9 – Mental Programming, Loyalty, Cultural Relativism, Role Modeling
   P9T4 (AA) P9T1 (EPO) P9T3 (PSN)   P9T2 (IO)

Note: Cultural integration chronicles are arranged in the following order: cultural contact, cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change.

167

Incident Threads with Courage Structures Mapped to the Cultural Integration Model

Cultural Contact

Mental Programming

P2T2
P5T3

Prejudice

P6T3

Cultural Anxiety

P4T3

Continuity

P1T4
P7T3

Cultural Blending

Cultural Relativism

P4T1
P7T4
P9T3

Human Integration

P2T4
P6T2

Cultural Leadership

P1T1
P5T1
P8T3
P10T4

Conflict Resolution

P3T3

Cultural Conflict

Loyalty

P9T1

Resistance to Change

P5T4
P10T1

Culture Clash

P1T3
P7T1
P8T2

Cultural Change

Creating New Cultural Frameworks

P4T4
P8T1

Role Modeling

P2T3

Unlearning and Learning

P1T2
P6T4

Cultural Conflict

Intercultural Communication

P4T2

Cultural Adaptation

P2T1

Cultural Change

Behavioral Change

P3T1
P7T2

Multiple Incident Threads with Courage Structures

Mapped to the Cultural Integration Model

Cultural Contact

Mental Programming

P2T2
P5T3

Continuity

P1T4
P7T3

Cultural Blending

Cultural Relativism

P4T1
P7T4
P9T3

Human Integration

P2T4
P6T2

Cultural Leadership

P1T1
P5T1
P8T3
P10T3

Cultural Conflict

Resistance to Change

P5T4
P10T1

Culture Clash

P1T3
P7T1

Cultural Change

Creating New Cultural Frameworks

P4T4
P8T1

Unlearning and Learning

P1T2
P6T4

Behavioral Change

P3T1
P7T2

APPENDIX O

Cultural Integration Process Steps with Courage Structures in the Act Alone Courage

Category

P1 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Unlearning and Learning
        P1T3 (-AE)

P5 – Mental Programming, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Behavioral Change
                P5T4 (ALL)
                 (-AE/CT)

P8 – Cultural Anxiety, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
        P8T2 (-AE/CT)

P10 – Cultural Anxiety, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
        P10T1 (-AE/CT)

P2 – Mental Programming, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Role Modeling
                                P2T3 (-CT)

P6 – Prejudice, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Unlearning and Learning
                        P6T4 (-BR)

P3 – Prejudice, Loyalty, Conflict Resolution, Behavioral Change
                P3T1 (ALL)
                 (ALL)

P7 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Relativism, Behavioral Change
                        P7T2 (-BR)

P4 – Cultural Anxiety, Intercultural Communication, Cultural Relativism, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
        P4T3 (ALL)
         (-AE)

P9 – Mental Programming, Loyalty, Cultural Relativism, Role Modeling

Note: Cultural integration chronicles are arranged in the following order: cultural contact,

cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change. Items shown have courage

structures in the act alone courage category. Researcher's courage element coding results

are shown below items with ALL courage structures identified.

APPENDIX P

Cultural Integration Process Steps with Courage Structures

P1 - Continuity → Culture Clash → Cultural Leadership → Unlearning and Learning
   P1T4 (ALL)   P1T3 (-AE)   P1T1 (ALL)   P1T2 (ALL)

P5 - Mental Programming → Resistance to Change → Cultural Leadership → Behavioral Change
    P5T3 (-AE/CT)   P5T4 (ALL)   P5T1 (-AE/CT)

P8 - Cultural Anxiety → Culture Clash → Cultural Leadership → Creating New Cultural Frameworks
         P8T2 (-AE/CT)   P8T3 (-AE)   P8T1 (-AE/CT)

P10 - Cultural Anxiety → Resistance to Change → Cultural Leadership → Creating New Cultural Frameworks
         P10T1 (-AE/CT)   P10T4 (-AE/CT/CP)

P2 - Mental Programming → Cultural Adaptation → Human Integration → Role Modeling
    P2T2 (ALL)   P2T1 (ALL)   P2T4 (ALL)   P2T3 (ALL)

P6 - Prejudice → Cultural Adaptation → Human Integration → Unlearning and Learning
   P6T3 (ALL)   P6T2 (ALL)   P6T4 (-BR)

P3 - Prejudice → Loyalty → Conflict Resolution → Behavioral Change
               P3T3 (-AE)   P3T1 (ALL)
P7 - Continuity → Culture Clash → Cultural Relativism → Behavioral Change
   P7T3 (-AE)   P7T1 (-AE)   P7T4 (-CT)   P7T2 (-BR)

P4 - Cultural Anxiety → Intercultural Communication → Cultural Relativism → Creating New Cultural Frameworks
    P4T3 (ALL)   P4T2 (ALL)   P4T1 (ALL)   P4T4 (-AE/CT/CP)

P9 - Mental Programming → Loyalty → Cultural Relativism → Creating New Cultural Frameworks
        P9T1 (-AE/CT)   P9T3 (ALL)

Note: Cultural integration chronicles are arranged in the following order: cultural contact, cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change.

APPENDIX Q

Cultural Integration Chronicles with Courage Structures in the Cultural

Blending Step of the Cultural Integration Process

P1 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Unlearning and Learning
P1T1 (ALL)

P5 – Mental Programming, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Behavioral Change
P5T1 (-AE/CT)

P8 – Cultural Anxiety, Culture Clash, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
P8T3 (-AE)

P10 – Cultural Anxiety, Resistance to Change, Cultural Leadership, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
P10T4 (-AE/CT/CP)

P2 – Mental Programming, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Role Modeling
P2T4 (ALL)

P6 – Prejudice, Cultural Adaptation, Human Integration, Unlearning and Learning
P6T2 (ALL)

P3 – Prejudice, Loyalty, Conflict Resolution, Behavioral Change
P3T3 (-AE)

P7 – Continuity, Culture Clash, Cultural Relativism, Behavioral Change
P7T4 (-CT)

P4 – Cultural Anxiety, Intercultural Communication, Cultural Relativism, Creating New Cultural Frameworks
P4T1 (ALL)

P9 – Mental Programming, Loyalty, Cultural Relativism, Role Modeling
P9T3 (ALL)

Note: Cultural integration chronicles are arranged in the following order: cultural contact,

cultural conflict, cultural blending, and cultural change.

173