

International Management
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Employeeship across borders

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Abstract

Driven by our curiosity to learn more about international human resource management, we study employeeship in this thesis. The term is a new concept that has been tackled only by Claus Møller and Stefan Tengblad.

This thesis introduces a model for employeeship that consists of commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility. We compare how employeeship is expressed in fifteen different countries and across three occupational categories: management, white collar workers, and blue collar workers. We employ the postmodern theory by Inglehart and Hofstede's national culture theory to explore the grounds of employeeship variations expressed by employees. In addition, we use the human development index (HDI) to establish some correlations. The empirical data is collected from Volvo Group and Volvo Cars attitude survey.

Employeeship is expressed differently across borders and occupational categories. It is negatively correlated with postmodernism, especially on the blue collar workers level. Employeeship is not only expressed differently by the three occupational categories but we also find that it is influenced by group size and leadership orientation. Our findings do not coincide with Hofstede's theory. Postmodern theory of Inglehart explains part of the results.

Keywords: Employeeship, Postmodernization, Modernization, HDI, Value Shift, Commitment, Cooperation, Taking Responsibility, Blue Collar workers, White Collar workers, Management.

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List of Abbreviations

EI	Employeeship Index
HDI	Human Development Index
IDV	Individualism Index
PDI	Power Distance Index
VAS	Volvo Attitude Survey
WVS	World Value Survey

To my dear parents
Liangyu Liu

To my dear parents and siblings
Wajda Irfaeya

Chapter 1 : Introduction

1.1 Background to the problem

People are the key in any organization. Strongly holding this belief, we are both most interested in the human resource management field and would like to carry out our thesis study on a topic related to HRM. Employeeeeship, quite a new and uncommon concept that emerged in the last decade, has greatly stimulated our interest. The term is initiated by Claus Møller to describe a “special kind of personal commitment” that comes forward when employees do their best to ensure the success of the organization (Møller, 1994, p. 5). We believe this is a meaningful term and we are eager to find out more about it.

Unfortunately, there is not much research that has been done on employeeeeship. The only scientific work that we are able to find is Stefan Tengblad’s Employeeeeship Research Programs and his related writings on the topic. By reviewing his research work we got to know what employeeeeship is – how he defines it and its history. According to Tengblad (2003), employeeeeship has actually primarily originated in the Nordic countries and it has gained the greatest popularity in Sweden, where the term “medarbetarskap” is used to refer to employeeeeship. There is literature written in Swedish about medarbetarskap (employeeeeship); however most of it is authored by management consultants who describe how employees can be more effective at work and how they can be more responsible. There is a lack of scientific presentation and knowledge about employeeeeship (Tengblad, 2003). This also motivates us to learn and to try to contribute to the empirical field of employeeeeship.

We are lucky enough to take advantage of the circumstance that we are here in Sweden and close to one of the key researchers on employeeeeship, Stefan Tengblad, in order to study the concept scientifically. Also assisted by our case companies, Volvo Group and Volvo Cars, we finally decided to focus on “employeeeeship across borders”, after experiencing a long (almost four months) and complex journey of continuous discussion and modification of our thesis proposal. Employeeeeship has been defined by Møller and Tengblad and different types of employeeeeship have been introduced. We believe it is very interesting and challenging to study it across the different countries. Does employeeeeship look different across the nations? Does national culture shape employeeeeship?

Do those employees who live in the societies that have stepped into postmodern era show more employeeship? Since nobody has really done a similar research before, we decided to embark on it and take the opportunity to challenge ourselves by conducting this study.

1.2 Problem formulation and research questions

To study employeeship from an international perspective, we formulated a main research question:

- *What are employeeship differences that distinguish one country from another? And what are the grounds of the distinctions?*

In order to answer this main question, we first need to have a very good understanding of employeeship. Although it has been defined by two different researchers, and the Swedish term “medarbetarskap” has also been applied and studied by some organizations, we believe it is necessary for us to have our own model of employeeship because it is a new concept. Therefore, we will start by exploring:

- *What is employeeship? What does it consist of?*

We will examine employeeship difference focusing on the following two questions:

- *How does employeeship look like between the different countries and occupational categories?*
- *What are the main differences among nations and categories?*

In order to explore the grounds of the variations, and driven by our previous knowledge from literature about culture impact, we perceive two main questions that would be helpful in explaining employeeship differences:

- *Can national culture difference explain the differences of scores on employeeship index?*
- *Does modern / postmodern value change theory explain the employeeship differences?*

And last but not least, we build hypotheses and investigate, based on our empirical results, if they are accepted. If not, then we should give reasonable explanations by discussing:

- *What else can contribute to the distinctions of employeeship between the nations?*

1.3 Purpose of the research

According to Booth et al. (1995), there are basically two types of research, pure research and applied research. The consequences are conceptual and the rational defines what the researcher wants to know in pure research whereas in applied research the consequences are deemed tangible and the rational defines what the researcher wants to do (Booth et al., 1995). It could also be understood as whether the author aims at adding knowledge to certain field or to help solve a practical problem (1995).

This research is conducted with more theoretical character than pragmatic intentions. The main purpose is to increase knowledge in the employeeship field, from an international management perspective. It is an adventure for us to deal with such a new phrase, which does not exist in the English dictionary. And so far nobody has conducted an international comparison of employeeship either. We hope by establishing an employeeship model, describing it between and among different countries, finding out the differences, and exploring the ground of the distinctions, we not only contribute to adding valuable knowledge to the field and benefit our case companies, but we also fulfill our personal learning objective -- which is to know more about human resource management with special focus on employee aspect.

1.4 Methodology

1.4.1 Research approach

In this thesis we employ both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Qualitative research evaluates, uses concept to explicate, focuses on aesthetics in texts, is theoretically based, interprets, and leads to an evaluation (Berger, 2000). Quantitative research, on the other hand, counts or measures, processes data collected, focuses on incidences of something in texts, is statistically based, describes, explains, predicts, and leads to a hypothesis (Berger, 2000).

Upon introducing our employeeship model in this thesis, we rely on the qualitative approach. Since we study and develop a new, emerging concept, we realize that this approach is very expedient. After presenting the model we employ the quantitative approach where we use statistics to support the theoretical selection for the questions and to describe and explain how employeeship resembles and differs across borders. This approach is imperative

since it allows us to make comparisons between the 15 countries included in our study.

According to Miller et al. (2002), statistics can be divided into two classes of operation. First, the descriptive statistics are procedures that are used to summarize large volumes of data. And second, the inferential statistics are procedures that are used to draw inferences from the data collected. Inferential statistics allow researchers to mathematically answer questions of the type “is there a difference ...?” (Miller et al., 2002). This question forms the basis for our research in the empirical part in this thesis.

1.4.2 Source of information

For our theoretical part we refer to books, scientific articles, and other official publications. For the empirical part we use the results of the annual attitude survey (2003) of Volvo Group and Volvo Car Corporation (hereafter we sometimes refer to both companies as Volvo). The attitude survey of Volvo companies shall be referred to in this thesis as VAS. With the assistance of representatives of both companies and the consultancy company, Netsurvey, we got a sample of group reports. The selection process of the sample was carried out with the involvement and assistance of Peter Björnhage, Attitude Survey Director, Volvo Group HR, and Nina Winterheim, Corporate HR Director, Volvo Car Corporation.

Volvo Attitude Survey is a tool that has been employed within the Volvo companies to investigate the level of satisfaction among the employees in the different countries. The questions are designed and owned by the consultancy company. It is conducted annually and translated into 25 languages. The results of the attitude survey are generated into group-based reports, and not into individual-based reports. Group reports are interpreted locally. The aim of the attitude survey is to understand and improve the internal working climate, to involve co-workers in business development, and to support the implementation of company vision and mission (Netsurvey, 2003).

Volvo Group has a total number of employees of more than 71,000 worldwide while Volvo Cars has around 27,000 employees. We initially limited ourselves to those countries where we could get more than 100 individuals as a national sample. However, this condition could not be met in two countries (Turkey and

Spain) so we decided to reduce the limit to 90 employees. Our sample consists of the size indicated below in table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Sample Size and Distribution

Country	Total Size	Total Size	Blue collar		White collar		Management	
	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals
Sweden	73	1009	29	556	30	295	14	158
UK	17	127			14	110	3	17
Germany	16	127	1	9	12	97	3	21
Belgium	40	416	24	277	11	99	5	40
France	42	458	21	273	18	158	3	27
Spain	16	96			14	85	2	11
Italy	16	139			13	124	3	15
Poland	27	372	10	224	17	148		
Turkey	12	91	1	8	10	75	1	8
India	16	142	9	89	6	43	1	10
Thailand	27	329	16	213	6	89	5	27
Malaysia	22	246	10	150	11	88	1	8
South Africa	22	216	6	110	15	100	1	6
Brazil	33	343	21	243	10	84	2	16
USA	25	359	8	223	15	112	2	24
Total	404	4470*	156	2375	202	1707	46	388

* Total expected size of individuals (respondents and non-respondents) is 4,984. 1,471 are from Volvo Cars and 3,513 are from Volvo Group.

Our sample has 4,470 individual responses distributed in 404 groups in 15 countries and in three occupational categories. Volvo Group's groups constitute 69.6% of the total groups while Volvo Cars' groups represent 30.4%. The largest occupational category in terms of number of groups is the white collar workers, while the management is the smallest. The largest occupational category in terms of individuals is the blue collar workers (53%). White collar workers make up 38% of the sample's individuals while management constitutes 9%. In this sample, the mean for the size of the 404 groups (respondents and non-respondents) is 12.34 individuals.

The response rate obtained from the selected groups is quite high. Out of 1471 employees from Volvo Cars, 1370 responded. As expected, the Volvo Group, which is larger in size and consists of several companies, has lower response rate. Out of 3513 employees who were included in our sample, 3100 responded. The response rate for Volvo Cars is 93.13% while that of Volvo Group is 88.24%. The total response rate for our sample is 89.68%. The response rate among the management team category is 88.38%, that among white-collar workers is 91.10%, and that among blue-collar workers is 88.92%.

1.4.3 Validity and Reliability

Reliability stands for the certainty that the measures obtained accurately reflect real phenomenon (Malim and Birch, 1997); in other words they reflect consistency. Considering our study - which is concerned with the differences between national cultures - there are two types of consistency: consistency in interpreting the questions between the different nationalities and consistency over time.

This study leans on Volvo attitude survey. VAS is translated into 25 languages by language professionals. Most employees worldwide answer the questionnaire in their mother tongue. To a large extent this assures the consistency in interpreting the questions. Regarding consistency over time, the contents of the employeeship model reflect work-related values. In the short-run, our study is reliable. However, in the long-run we believe that people's values might change.

Validity stands for whether the test actually measures what it is claimed that it measures (Malim and Birch, 1997). Our model of employeeship is based on theories and our understanding. The selected questions compose most of what we believe is employeeship. The questions that we chose from VAS for employeeship dimensions proved to be theoretically verified and significantly correlated statistically. The second part of the study aims at describing employeeship between cultures. In order to make this study feasible we study results obtained with a high response rate from the nationally different employees of a multinational company. Furthermore, the SPSS software, or the Statistical Package for the Social Scientists, has been employed to analyze the differences. Inferential statistics are employed to draw inferences from the

data we have collected. Therefore we believe that our approach validates our results.

1.5 Delimitation

We delimit ourselves in investigating employeeship on the national level. We do not discuss the impact of organizational culture on shaping employeeship. Moreover, we assume that both Volvo Group and Volvo Cars share a similar culture based on the fact that Volvo Group is the mother company for Volvo Cars until 1999. Our sample supports the assumption that, at least in Sweden, the employees in both companies tend to have similar attitudes towards our analyzed questions. Finally, in the analysis where we mention postmodernism, we do not look deeply into the political changes. Instead we mainly concentrate on economic and partly on social changes. Revolutions in religion, gender participation, sexual orientation, and others have not been tackled.

1.6 Outline of the thesis

The arrangement of the writing throughout the entire thesis basically follows the line of answering our research questions. After introducing the background of this study and illustrating our problem statement, research questions, research purpose, and methodology in the first chapter, chapter two is dedicated to building up an employeeship model.

What is unusual in this thesis might be the design of chapter two. It is a combination of theory and our own thinking with the purpose of establishing an employeeship model. We feel it is very difficult and unfeasible to separate theories from our understandings when dealing with such a novel concept, especially when we want to have our own model. The combination of both makes it possible to take a logical stance to think and convince ourselves, and the readers, with the design of the model.

Chapter three is allocated for constructing our theoretical framework which guides our further discussion and analysis. We also build some hypotheses in this chapter with the purpose of assisting us to analyze employeeship differences.

The fourth chapter can be viewed as a continuance of the methodology section in which we present the selection of our sample and some statistical measurements that are vital to this study. In the fifth chapter we concentrate on describing employeeship across borders and showing the differences between the countries and the occupational categories. Our main empirical data and results are demonstrated throughout chapter five.

Chapter six is developed as the core of this thesis work. It is allocated to the analysis of the findings with the purpose of answering the main research questions. In the last chapter, 7, we conclude our thesis by raising it to a higher level, by giving some implications, and by giving suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2 : Employeeeeship Model

In this chapter we combine theories with our understanding to define employeeeeship and to build up an employeeeeship model. Following constructing the model, we select related questions from VAS. We consider this an unusual approach in thesis writing since normally the merge of theory and the author's own thinking should be put in the discussion or analysis section. However, as we are dealing with a rather new and uncommon concept, we are ambitious to adopt this approach for a better demonstration of our logical thinking and in order to pave the way for further discussion.

2.1 The emergence of employeeeeship

In recent years the term empowerment has gained large popularity in everyday management language. It describes a management style where the subordinates are authorized to decide and act. Empowerment is also viewed as providing a solution to the age-old problem of Taylorised and bureaucratic workplaces where employees' creativity is stifled and workers become alienated (Wilkinson, 1998).

According to Wilkinson (1998), the emergence of empowerment is a call for a change in the business environment. It was argued that by the late 1980s markets were becoming more competitive and customers were becoming more demanding in terms of choice, quality, design, and service. There was an urgent need for the companies to make a change from utilizing economics of scale to more flexible, innovative and responsive organizations. This shift was variously referred to as post-Fordism, flexible specialization, and lean production. Noted by Wilkinson (1998), writers such as Druker (1988) and Kanter (1989) have also emphasized the new management paradigm including de-bureaucratization (end of hierarchy and prescriptive rules), de-laying, and decentralization. All these changes urged employers to "move away from an approach based on compliance, hierarchical authority and limited employee discretion to one where there was greater emphasis on high trust relations, team working and empowerment, which calls for employee commitment and the utilization of workforce expertise" (Wilkinson, 1998, p. 43).

Employeeeeship was promoted under the above background by a Danish entrepreneur, Claus Møller, the founder of the Time Management Institute. Møller (1994) holds the belief that the success of an organization depends both on managers and staff and especially on the interaction between both. He argues that employeeeeship is the prerequisite of empowerment, which puts much more emphasis on the more active role that an employee will take in the work place. “Employeeeeship is a clearer way of seeing an organization’s three success areas: productivity, relations and quality” (1994, p. 5). He defines employeeeeship, the rather new and uncommon term as:

When the individual makes a whole hearted and goal-oriented effort within the three success areas (productivity, relations and quality) of the organization, a special kind of personal commitment is demonstrated – this commitment I call employeeeeship. (Møller, 1994, p. 5)

Møller (1994) identifies three main elements of employeeeeship: responsibility, loyalty, and initiative. Responsibility is regarded as the central element of employeeeeship without which the realization of other two elements will be in vain. He suggests that in the context of employeeeeship an employee should assume three forms of responsibility: responsibility for one’s own development; responsibility for the development of the department; and responsibility for the development of the organization. Loyalty is defined as “being faithful to the one you have chosen to support” (Møller, 1994, p. 10). A loyal employee will feel happy when the organization is successful and is proud to be part of it. Finally, initiative cannot be achieved without a certain amount of responsibility and loyalty. And to be an initiator is not just to initiate something in the interest of the management or organization, but also to take responsibility for completing it – implementing it (Møller, 1994).

If one says that it is less scientific to start studying employeeeeship merely based on management consultants, we fully agree. As a matter of fact, the only scientific approach towards employeeeeship research that we could find is Stefan Tengblad’s projects on “Effects of Decentralized HR responsibilities” conducted in the period 1999-2002 and in the current research project “The forms, meanings and practices of Employeeeeship, 2003-2005”. These two projects are carried out in Sweden. Tengblad (2003) points out that employeeeeship is used to describe the more responsible role that the employees

will take under the circumstance where supervisory functions have been changed. The background of this change, he argues, is the emergence of decentralization and empowerment that have been popular during the last decades.

"Employeeeeship is defined as the way employees are performing their role as employee, which includes the relation to their work, organization, co-workers, superiors, and private life" (Tengblad, 2003, p. 3). Besides defining employeeeeship, his study identifies five types of employeeeeship based on the degrees of independence and responsibility at which the employees perform their work (pp. 8 – 13). The five types are:

- Traditional employeeeeship: There is no noticeable expansion of employee responsibility, and the management function has been retained intact. In this kind of employeeeeship the role of the employee has remained a relatively passive one while responsibility is assumed mainly by the management.
- Empowerment-based employeeeeship: There is an increase in employees' assumed responsibility which is clearly defined. The elements of the management function have been delegated.
- Group-based employeeeeship: Groups are given a good deal of freedom. There is a high level of confidence that employees organized into groups can be effective when they work with extensive autonomy. This type of employeeeeship is based on the fundamental view that employees can, and are willing, to assume responsibility in their jobs.
- Individual-based employeeeeship: The individual employees are given extensive responsibility and independence in their jobs. It is expected that employees will perform their job tasks in independence and they are capable to assume responsibility.
- Leaderless employeeeeship: The role of the manager has been totally or partly eliminated which means that employees are required to perform traditional managerial tasks and that decisions are generally taken collectively.

Tengblad argues that employeeeeship is a phenomenon instead of employee behavior; it could be good or bad (Tengblad, 2003, interview). Co-workers, he argues, might require taking a different responsibility than that aspired by the managers. The research work of Tengblad shows that employeeeeship as a notion

of the importance of employee behavior has primarily originated in a Nordic context. Sweden, he adds, stands out as a country where the concept has gained the largest interest and popularity. The work-life reforms and shop-floor re-organization that have occurred in Sweden during the last 10-15 years are the grounds for the popularity of employeeship in Sweden in Tengblad's point of view.

Tengblad (2003) does not support Møller (1994) and the other management consultants in their approach to employeeship. He believes that their writings lack the scientific approach and background; they are "prescriptive" rather than "descriptive" of the term (2003, p. 7).

In Sweden, the term "medarbetarskap" has been intensively employed by many organizations. According to Tengblad (2003) medarbetarskap is understood in the same way as employeeship. Medarbetarskap has not only been applied in different companies, but has also been tackled by researchers and consultants starting from 1994 (Tengblad, 2003, interview). In the next section we shall explore what medarbetarskap is from both theoretical and practical perspectives.

2.2 What is medarbetarskap

In translating Kinlaw's book "The practice of empowerment: Making the most of human competence" (1995), the Swedish translator Liungman (1995) interprets empowerment as medarbetarskap and, as such, he uses it throughout the Swedish version of the book. We think that the idea which equates medarbetarskap with empowerment could be viewed as a representation of how some Swedes understand the term. Based on the Swedish translation of Kinlaw's empowerment book (1995) it is believed that medarbetarskap emerges in connection with the process to strive after constant improvement of company's production achievement. This process is accomplished by developing and broadening individuals' and work teams' competences and leveraging them over in those functions which influence their result and all company's production achievement.

Charlotte Simonsson (2002, translation from Swedish, pp. 146-148) investigated what medarbetarskap means among the managers (chiefs) and employees (co-workers) in some of the Swedish organizations. Based on her

interviews with managers/leaders (cheferna) and co-workers (medarbetarna) she writes in her book that they give common or identical descriptions of what medarbetarskap includes. She observes that the most frequent words in their given definitions are contribution, taking initiatives, being involved, taking responsibility, and taking part. She continues that some of the co-workers pointed out that medarbetarskap also includes a co-worker no longer having sole responsibility for his or her own part, but that it also pertains to looking after all involved and helping each other. Another aspect, which both managers/leaders and co-workers put forward, is that medarbetarskap implies a more symmetric relationship between managers/leaders and co-workers (Simonsson, 2002). Medarbetarskap encompasses increased opportunities for those employed to influence and be involved, but this also means increased demands and requirements (Simonsson, 2002). A team leader related that medarbetarskap implies that “I can put demands on the co-workers, yet the co-workers can put demands on me” (Simonsson, 2002, p. 147).

Talking about medarbetarskap from an organizational perspective, our case companies (Volvo Group and Volvo Car Corporation) give the best example. Both of them have been employing the concept of medarbetarskap for many years as the two companies had been sharing the same corporate culture before 1999. Yet, currently Volvo Group and Volvo Cars use different terms to convey the identical message of medarbetarskap. In Volvo Group’s company brochure (The Volvo Way, 2003), the term “the Volvo spirit” is used, whereas Volvo Cars employs the term “medarbetarskap” in their company philosophy (2003). Here, we just apply what is written in Volvo Cars’ philosophy to explain the meaning of medarbetarskap.

Medarbetarskap at Volvo means doing your job efficiently and participating in a process of constant improvement. It is an important aspect of managerial responsibilities to ensure that every unit at Volvo implements effective improvement programs in clearly-defined, profit-oriented forms.

Medarbetarskap means being active and constructive. We are not the victims of circumstance. We are instead involved and have the responsibility and courage to influence and be influenced. Learning and development are part of our daily work. A knowledge of the

business environment, the company and its business operations, increases our potential for developing working methods.

Medarbetarskap means being active, having joint customer focus, having the courage of your convictions, wanting to change, demonstrating passion for VCC, searching for information, and communication.

Medarbetarskap means taking responsibility for the overall situation. This is the basis of the kind of teamwork we are hoping to establish.

(Volvo Car Company Philosophy, 2003)

To summarize, medarbetarskap in Volvo context stresses employees' taking more responsibility as well as being proactive in and influential to their work. Some values are delivered in the meaning of medarbetarskap that overlap with Møller's (1994) and Tengblad's (2003) perception on employeeship, such as assuming and taking responsibility, being positive to change, and taking initiatives. Although company philosophy cannot be regarded as a theory, it at least helps us to have a perspective of what medarbetarskap is in real life.

In general, although medarbetarskap has been defined and studied by different Swedish organizations and researchers, it seems there is no precise definition of what it stands for. Based on the previous theories we are convinced that employeeship represents medarbetarskap. By using the English term employeeship the concept is constructed more scientifically.

2.3 Employeeship Model

After introducing some of the available literature on employeeship and medarbetarskap, here we present our model. In this study we try to establish a definition of employeeship based on the previous studies for the concept and our understanding before looking into the differences. Employeeship, from our standpoint, is defined as *a concept used to describe how employees are handling (performing) the more active role in their work under circumstances they are assumed to be prepared for taking more responsibilities in.* It represents some work values that are operationalized in a few dimensions or areas. There are three dimensions in the employeeship model: commitment,

cooperation, and taking responsibility. How employees are performing in these three areas could reflect employeeeeship in a certain context, both on organizational level and national level. These three dimensions are operationalized within the employeeeeship context.

Before we explain the above areas, it is necessary to clarify that traditional employeeeeship as initiated by Tengblad (2003) is not what we mean by the concept. When Tengblad explains the meaning of traditional employeeeeship, he says that “there is no noticeable expansion of employee responsibility (for the workers) that had occurred” (Tengblad, 2003, p. 9). Our understanding of employeeeeship is based on employees having the opportunity to take a more active role in their work. If there are no expanded responsibilities, we believe that the concept of employeeeeship cannot be applied to the situation. This is something different from, but not against, Tengblad’s (2003) perception on employeeeeship. Two types of employeeeeship as identified by Tengblad (2003) are most appealing to our study: empowerment-based employeeeeship and group-based employeeeeship. These two exemplify our understanding. Empowerment is about giving and taking responsibilities by managers and employees, respectively. We share the same opinion with Møller (1994) that responsibility is a core element of employeeeeship. An employee should not only assume responsibility for his own development, but also for the development of the department and the organization as a whole, we believe. Furthermore, we are convinced that commitment is the backbone of employeeeeship.

The following figure (2.1) shows the employeeeeship model that we built based on theories and our understanding. The explanation of the three dimensions with relation to employeeeeship will be illustrated right after the model.

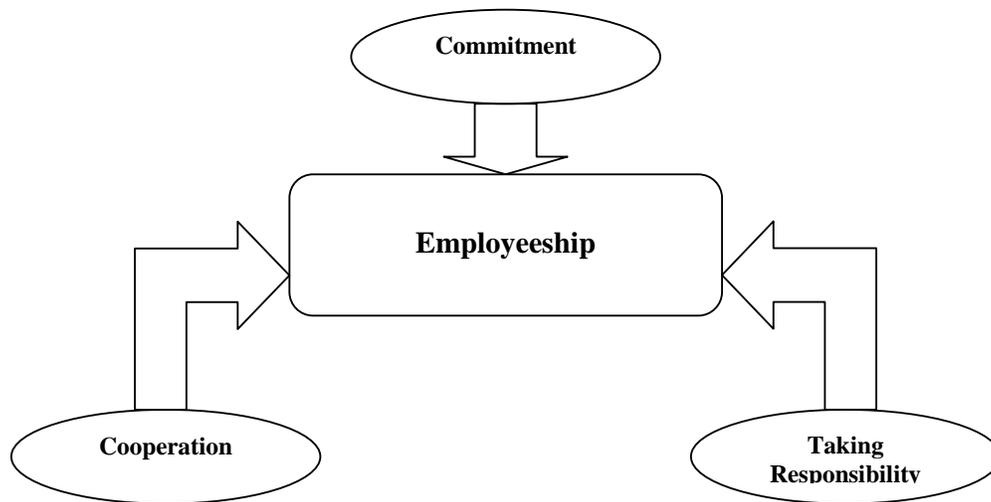


Figure 2.1: Employeeeship Model

In the following sections, we explain the three dimensions respectively and try to find questions from the VAS that would reflect their content.

By selecting some questions from the VAS, we aim at describing how employeeeship looks like across countries. First, the questions are proved to be theoretically representative, or related, to the dimensions. Second, we ensure that the selected questions (country mean scores) within the same area are significantly positively correlated with each other, which means that it is not only reasonable but also adequately scientific to put them together.

It is noteworthy to mention that we are aware that the answers of the employees on those questions are subjective. We also realize that social sciences standards of measurements are different from those of the natural sciences. In the latter, precise and objective standards set the scales while in the former subjectivity plays a larger role. Therefore some problems might arise when employing the quantitative approach (statistical correlation) to measure subjective values. In other words, we realize that we have to deal with such answers cautiously.

2.3.1 Commitment

First, employees' commitment to the organization is essential in the employeeeship framework. According to Meyer and Allen (1997), commitment could be seen as reflecting “an affective orientation toward the organization, a recognition of costs associated with leaving the organization, and a moral

obligation to remain with the organization” (p. 11). Employees with high level of organizational commitment are willing to exert considerable effort for the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). It is argued that without commitment, the implementation of any new initiatives or ideas in organizations would be seriously compromised and if management wants employees to take more responsibility for their own destiny the encouragement of developing internal commitment is of great importance (Argyris, 1998). As previously introduced by Møller (1994) employeeship is “a special kind of personal commitment” (p. 5). The above explains why we believe that commitment is part of employeeship and is perceived as the foundation of employeeship, in our viewpoint.

Referring to Scotter (2000), employees with high levels of organizational commitment are more work-oriented than other employees. They get more satisfaction from work and view their jobs as more fulfilling for their personal needs. Meyer (1997) suggests that there are three components of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. In this study we just focus on affective commitment which refers to “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer, 1997, p. 11).

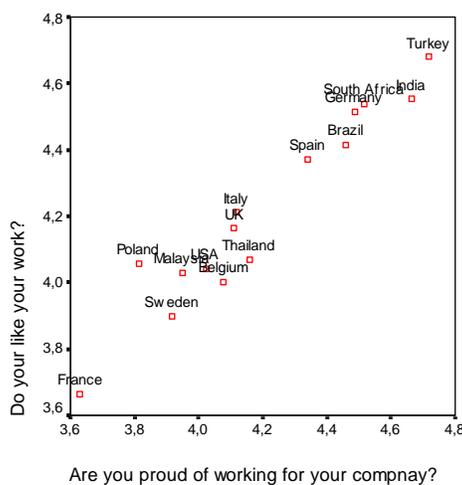


Figure 2.2: Correlation between O28 & O33

= .000). The higher the employees in one country rank on how much they like their work, the more likely they are to score higher feeling proud of working for the company. While it is not the aim of this study to give any casual analysis, we believe that there might be something that needs to be explored

regarding this interesting finding. We are convinced that it is reasonable to put these two questions together to reflect the commitment dimension within the employeeship model.

2.3.2 Taking responsibility

Employeeship can be operationalized through taking responsibility. Møller (1994) regards responsibility as the central element of employeeship without which a person cannot display loyalty and take initiative. What we stress here by taking responsibility is that the word encompasses more than it seems. In the employeeship context, employees are given the opportunity, and are assumed to be willing, to take more responsibility in their daily work. This means they do not need to always be told what to do and how to do it. They want to have a say in the organization and take initiatives. Employees who are initiators will not wait for direction; they try to identify problems and opportunities outside the area of “responsibility” and seek out new opportunities or identify problems (Frohman, 1999). So what we mean here by taking responsibility is actually an enriched perception of responsibility, in which taking initiative is also considered essential. This is different from Møller’s (1994) conceptualization of employeeship in which he sets responsibility as the first step.

Lashley (1997) referring to Nicholls (1995) argues that empowered employees have a sense of belonging and excitement in their jobs. “They are engaged by the organization on an emotional level. Personal capabilities are enhanced in environments where they are encouraged to enhance the scope of their job. Responsibilities and authority are delegated to them and they are empowered to get on with their work in their own way” (1997, p. 14). Also based on Van Outdshoorn & Tomas (1993), Lashley (1997) finds out that employees are willing to accept responsibility when the organization is associated with empowerment while they avoid taking it if the organization ‘disempowers’ them. We will investigate taking responsibility also within the empowerment framework.

Lashley (1997) claims that there are two sets of emphases reflecting quite different assumptions about the nature of empowerment. He notes that Barbee & Bott (1991) define employee empowerment as “the act of vesting responsibility in the people nearest the problem” (1997, p. 11). Lashley (1997) adopts the Bowen and Lawler (1992) notion that empowerment involves sharing decision-making, which implies that more authority is delegated to the

empowered employees. Lashley (1997) sees these two ideas as different. The first one, he believes, stresses adding additional responsibilities to a person's job which may not be welcomed by some employees. By only extending responsibilities for a wider range, he adds, it does not necessarily shake the operational decisions-making structure. "There are still some significant limits on the 'power' of the empowered" (1997, p .11). The second idea, according to Lashley (1997), means that employees will be given some power to make certain decisions and to resolve certain issues by themselves.

We do not intend to argue whether these two assumptions vary. We see the possibility to combine both together. We think the two could be linked with employee involvement, which, as Lashley (1997) highlights, can reflect management intentions on empowerment. Within the empowerment context, employees' willingness and ability to assume more and take more responsibility is largely affected by the level of involvement in their working organization. The degree of involvement refers to the extent to which employees are able to influence decisions made within the organization (Marchington et al., 1992). Møller (1994) also argues that if an employee cannot feel that he or she can influence the work situation, then he or she will not be willing to take responsibility. Based on this discussion, we selected three questions from the VAS.

Question 9: Can you influence your work situation?

Question 10: Does your immediate supervisor consult you about decisions affecting your working group?

Question 52: Are you able to freely express your opinions in the working group?

We believe that these questions mainly mirror the degree of employee involvement in their work, which, to a large extent, influences employee responsibility taking. These three questions are strongly and significantly correlated ($r = 0.606^*$, $p = .032$ between question 9 and 10; $r = 0.689^*$, $p = .002$ between question 9 and 52; and, $r = 0.802^{**}$, $p = .005$ between question 10 and 52).

We have pointed out in this section that taking initiative is also considered of great importance within the notion of taking responsibility. However, we could not find any proper questions in the VAS to reflect it. Hence we will only rely

on the above three questions when examining “taking responsibility” across borders.

2.3.3 Cooperation

Tengblad (2003) underlines that the widespread use of work groups with extended responsibilities and the abolishment of traditional supervisor positions have been a major trend within industries. In the absence of supervisors who closely control and monitor the work, employees and teams of employees have been given larger responsibility for planning and executing their own work. Under such circumstance, there is a call for sound cooperation within working groups and among different departments/groups, we believe.

George & Jones (1998) share the same understanding and point out that from the last decade scholars have given great attention to the importance of increasing cooperation and teamwork in organizations. As a result of organizational restructuring there is an increased use of self-managed work teams in organizations combined with the elimination of middle management positions, as the writers explain. This has highlighted the importance of interpersonal cooperation and teamwork for organizational effectiveness. Also referring to George & Jones (1998), many researchers have argued that by raising the level of cooperation, extra-role behavior and organizational citizenship behavior can be promoted. We comprehend this as an indicator that good cooperation increases employees’ sense of taking more responsibility and taking initiative in their work.

The above discussion paves the way to have cooperation as one dimension in the employeeship model. We also believe that cooperation is closely linked with teamwork, which has been stressed by Volvo.

The selection of the cooperation related questions from VAS is based on our understanding that cooperation is a collaboration between persons to achieve a certain goal. Not much is found in literature when it comes to defining what cooperation is. The term is defined as "the association of a number of persons for their common benefit, collective action in the pursuit of common well being, especially in some industrial or business process" (Webster's unabridged dictionary, cited in Groves, 1985, p. 1). We utilize this definition in employeeship, but we emphasize that this cooperation is observed on two

levels: within the group level and between the groups level. Employees in a working group associate with one another to accomplish their work. At the same time, those employees associate with other employees in other working groups to carry out their tasks. Cooperation encompasses positive relationships among the employees within the group. Such a relationship would reduce conflicts that negatively influence the working climate.

We chose three questions from VAS to reflect cooperation as described above:

Question 4: Do you feel that there is a go-ahead spirit in your working group?

Question 7: Are you, as a group, free from conflicts that negatively affect the cooperation of your working group?

Question 47: Is there co-operation with the departments/groups which are important to you?

Question 4 and question 7 reflect cooperation within the group, whereas question 47 mirrors cooperation with the other groups. Not surprisingly, the three chosen questions are strongly correlated ($r = 0.935^{**}$, $p = .002$ between question 4 and 7; $r = 0.896^{**}$, $p = .002$ between question 4 and 47; and, $r = 0.849^{**}$, $p = .001$ between question 7 and 47). This implies that, on the country level, the employees' cooperation within one group and with other groups tends to show the same pattern. In the country where in-group cooperation is high, it is quite possible that the cooperation with other departments/groups is also satisfactory.

To sum up, throughout this chapter we have defined employeeship by ourselves and built a model for it containing three dimensions: commitment, taking responsibility, and cooperation. We further explained the three dimensions based on theories and then selected some questions from VAS to reflect them.

Chapter 3 : Theoretical Framework

In this part we shall present the theories we need in order to explain our findings in chapter five and six. Employeeeeship, as expressed by Tengblad (2003), originated in the Nordic countries and got much attention in Sweden. Employees are assumed to take more responsibilities upon the abolishment of the supervisory role and the decentralization movement. Changes in the society, observed on the cultural, political, and economic dimensions, influence the roles of employees and their expectations besides those of their managers in organizations. In the first section of this chapter we shall look into the theory of modernization and postmodernization that we believe has driven the change in employees and employers roles and expectations. In the second section, we present a mediator to link postmodernization theory with employeeeeship. Hofstede's dimensions on national culture come in the third section. We end this chapter with a short conclusion.

3.1 Modernization and Postmodernization

Many researchers (Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 2001; Kluckhohn, 1951; Kroeber and Parsons, 1958; Triandis, 1972; and others) have studied culture and its impact. Among the different researchers and studies, we are interested in the modernization and postmodernization theory of Ronald Inglehart.

Inglehart's study (1997) has a public opinion as its foundation and it investigates other aspects of life besides those work-related. It has included geographical factors, economic development, and people's values in many societies in the world. Inglehart (1997) claims that his study demonstrates that cultural models are linked with key economic and political variables. Given that we study employeeeeship across borders we believe that this theory is very relevant to our aim.

3.1.1 What is the WVS?

The World Value Survey (WVS) is an examination of the values of 65 societies coordinated by the University of Michigan's Institute for Social Research (Inglehart, 2001). The survey has measured the values and beliefs of the public on all six inhabited continents in 1981, 1990, 1995, and 2000. The study is now

representing 80 percent of the world's population. It covers a wide range of countries; from extreme high to low income countries; and from long-established democracies with market economies to authoritarian states and societies making the transition to market economies (Inglehart, 2000, 2001). Inglehart believes that his study indicates that advanced industrial societies are moving on the same path and direction by undergoing cultural changes in politics, economics, sex and gender norm, and religion despite their varying cultural traditions and starting points (Inglehart, 1997).

3.1.2 Modernization and postmodernization

Inglehart (1997, 2000, and 2001) identifies two main cultural dimensions that best reflect the distinctions between modernization and postmodernization. First, there is a polarization between traditional and secular-rational orientations toward authority, and second, a polarization between survival and well-being values (Survival and well-being dimension is used in the 1997 version. The author refers to this dimension as survival and self-expression in the updated versions). Traditional societies are those relatively authoritarian, placing a strong emphasis on religion, and exhibiting a mainstream version of pre-industrial values such as an emphasis on dominance in economic and political life, respect for authority, and relatively low levels of tolerance for abortion and divorce. Advanced societies, or secular-rational, tend to have the opposite characteristics (Inglehart and Baker, 2001).

Inglehart describes modernization (as did other researchers such as Lerner 1958, and Deutsch 1964) with the development of the industrialization phase following the industrial revolution. Modernization is a process that boosts economic capabilities through industrialization and increases political capabilities through bureaucratization. It enables the move from poverty to wealth (Inglehart, 1997). In those societies undergoing modernization, Inglehart notices that they are becoming more centralized, hierarchical, and bureaucratized. Rational-legal authority states, in the form of political institutions, are formed to maximize the welfare of their people by employing scientific expertise.

Economic growth is the core project for modernization. Industrialization is the means to achieve it. Industrialization generates invasive social and cultural consequences, such as rising educational levels, shifting attitudes towards

authority, increased and wider political participation, declining fertility rates, and changing gender roles (Inglehart and Baker, 2001).

In the authors' point of view (2001), economic development has systematic and, to some extent, expected cultural and political consequences. The individual values in the modern societies become achievement-motivation based. The transformation for modernization leaves behind traditional authority (family and religious institutions), steady-state economy, and individuals' religious and communal values. (Inglehart, 1997)

In his 1997 research, Inglehart states that the core of the modernization theory, whether the Weberian or the Marxist version is adopted, is that the social, political, and economic changes go together in consistent and, to some extent, predictable patterns.

The path of change assumed by the modernization theory, according to Inglehart, goes beyond merely industrialization. It also assumes more urbanization, occupational specialization, bureaucratization, communications development, and higher levels of formal education in any society that adopts it (Inglehart, 1997). This, from his point of view, implies that when a society enters the path of industrialization then certain cultural and political changes will occur simultaneously.

Do political, social, and economic changes discontinue when societies enter the phase of modernization? Inglehart (1997) highlights that it is not the case (Figure 3.1). The WVS data show that there are significant differences of the world views of the people, between those of rich countries and those of low-income societies. Those variations represent changes in attitudes towards religious norms and beliefs, authority, life and work values, women's participation, and sexual orientation.

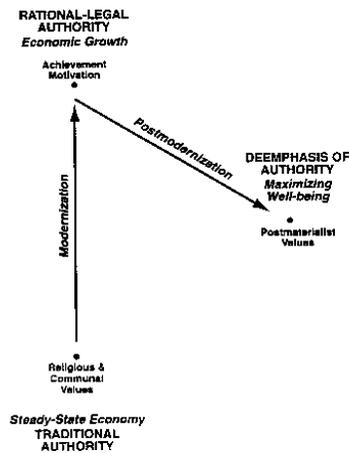


Figure 3.1: The shift from modernization to postmodernisation

Source: <http://wvs.isr.umich.edu/find.shtml>, 27 October, 2003

Inglehart describes this shift as the transformation from modernization to postmodernization. As expressed by Inglehart (1997), at least part of the world has shifted into a different track from that followed since the industrialization. He and his colleagues in the WVS indicate that there is a shift from underlined economic efficiency, bureaucratic authority, and scientific rationality that exemplified modernization to a more human society with more space for individual autonomy, diversity, and self-expression (1997). They could notice a de-emphasis on all sorts of authority and an expansion on giving more space for individual's subjective well-being. Inglehart proposes that postmodern societies are allocating more importance to human considerations than to functionalism and eagerness to science and economic growth.

Conducting the WVS over the years, figure 3.2 illustrates the shift as described by Inglehart and his colleagues. Some countries are shifting more towards survival – traditional authority; others are making the move in the direction towards more well-being (or self expression as he puts it in updated versions of his study) and less authority. As we can see many countries are shifting upward and/or towards the right.

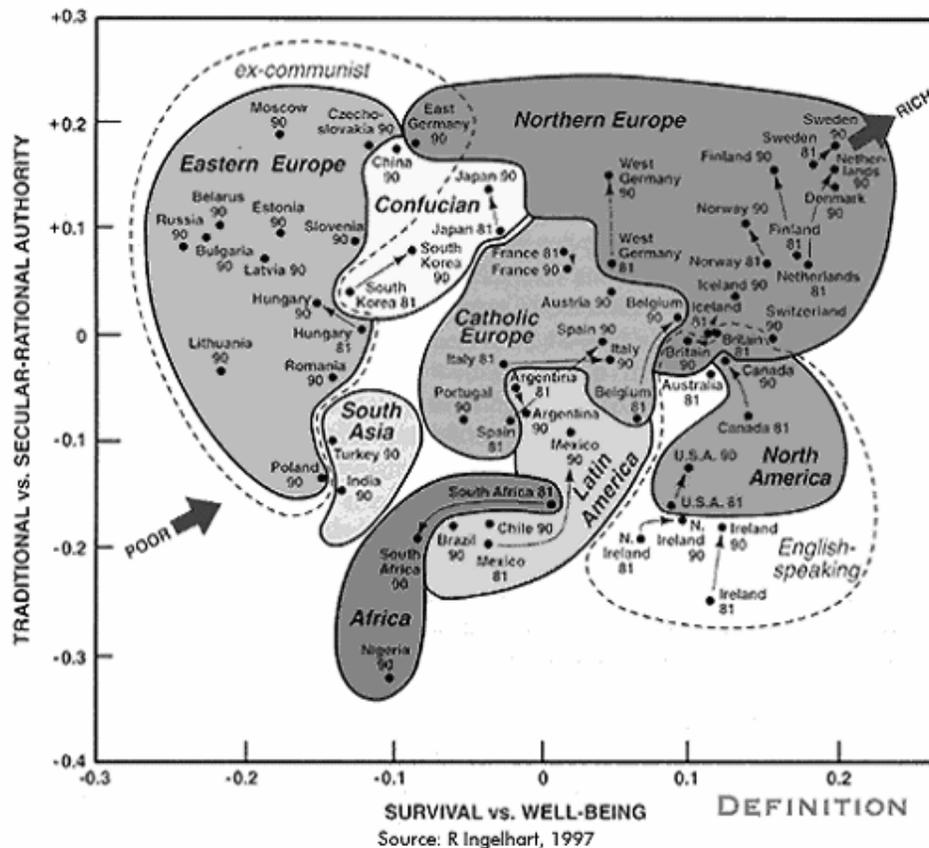


Figure 3.2: Value Shift Map

Source: www.worldvaluesurvey.org, 27 October, 2003

Other scientists researched the modernization theory but Inglehart (1997) disagrees with them on four major issues. First, dissimilar to other scientists, he believes that in modernization the change is not linear. In his opinion, the change ultimately comes up to “points of diminishing returns” and thus starts to move in a different direction (1997, p. 10). He calls the new target postmodernization. Second, while Marx emphasized the economic driving factor for change, and Weber stressed more the cultural force as the starting point for economic development and political change, Inglehart (1997) assumes the mutually supportive and compatible role among the three major changes: cultural, political, and economic development. He describes the interaction as a system of a biological organism and the causal relationship as reciprocal. In other words, economics shape culture and politics—and the other way around. Third, Inglehart does not accept the equation that modernization equals westernization. Rather, he suggests that the process of modernization is global and despite of its origination in the West there are other versions of

modernization, such as the Eastern one. Finally, Inglehart points out that modernization does not always produce democratization.

3.1.3 Implications of modernization and postmodernization

As expressed by Inglehart, the shift from modernization to postmodernization is exemplified in giving *more* importance to value rationality and quality of life concerns than to instrumental rationality and economic growth. Modern societies stress economic growth as a result of economic insecurity. Instrumental rationality (rationality, science, technology, and authority) is the means to achieve it. The existence of those societies is jeopardized, and therefore people in such societies trust and respect authority which is supposed to bring them security and welfare. Emphasis is laid on values such as hard work and money. Science, technology, and work are important. In postmodern societies, Inglehart affirms, instrumental rationality and economic growth's relative priority and their authority among mass publics are declining. Instead, those societies are paying more attention to self-expression, welfare, less stressful life, environmental protection, and individual autonomy. Based on this description, Inglehart believes that the Nordic countries and the Netherlands are the most postmodern societies on earth. In his view, a growing proportion in public in those counties realized that the "price" they "pay" for modernization (bureaucratization, industrialization, science and technology, and economic development) is too high.

Postmodernism is a product of neither cultural nor economic determinisms (Inglehart, 1997). The shift from modernization to postmodernization is attributed greatly, but not merely, to the influence of culture, Inglehart argues. Culture, as defined by Inglehart (1997), is "the *subjective* aspect of a society's institutions: the beliefs, values, knowledge, and skills that have been internalized by the people of a given society, complementing their external systems of coercion and exchange" (Italics in origin, p. 15). Culture has a significant and increasing impact on reality's perception (Inglehart, 1997). He claims that reality is perceived through the cultural filters, and those cultural filters become more important components of experience as the society moves from the scarcity phase to the phase where human will prevails over the external environment. However, he rejects the perception that cultural construction alone shapes human experience. Objective reality also plays a part and it applies not only to natural sciences but to social relations as well.

Moreover, everyone's perception of reality is created by his or her subjective values and preconceptions, he continues. To sum up, human behavior as pointed out by Inglehart, is heavily influenced by the cultural environment but objective elements also set limits. Inglehart believes that his WVS-based publications present empirical proof that culture is a crucial part of reality, but he admits that it is only part of it (Inglehart, 1997).

3.1.4 Why is postmodernization taking place?

Why is postmodernism occurring? For Inglehart, the transition from modernism to postmodernism depicts the "diminishing marginal utility" of the economic growth (1997). The economic factor, on the individual and the group levels, is the top priority for the modern societies. Actually, it is the essence of motivation for modernization. However, at the end, the diminishing returns of the economic growth decline to give room to other non-materialistic values. Postmodern societies put less emphasis on economic growth but stress more the quality of life. In those societies, the values of the people have changed. Economic growth, technology, and bureaucracy are no longer the top priorities. In the modern societies, less priority is given to self-expression and robust emphasis is placed on economic effectiveness. In contrast, in the postmodern societies people are less accepting of the human costs of bureaucracy and the rigid social norms. As a result, the sphere of individual choice and mass participation is expanding (Inglehart, 1997).

3.1.5 Relationship between materialism, postmaterialism, and postmodernization

The emergence of a materialistic value system (for instance, maintaining economic growth and stable economy) is a key cultural change in modernization phase (Inglehart, 1997). It strongly enhances economic accumulation and makes it heroic, by doing so it opens the way for capitalism and industrialization. Through the WVS Inglehart found that those societies that enjoyed high economic security and were the first to industrialize, are the same that started step by step, after some decades, to place less emphasis on the materialistic values and instead have been giving more emphasis on the postmaterialist ones (for example, freedom of speech and more say on the job). This shift has moved the attention of those societies to issues such as

environmental protection, freedom of speech, more say on jobs, and the status of women and sexual minorities.

Postmaterialist values emerged after the Second World War basically due to two reasons according to Inglehart. First, the postwar outstanding economic developments yielded economic prosperity that was never predicted in the human history. And second, the rise of the welfare state where the existential security replaced the wealth as the crucial principle, and the state boosted economic growth by producing security. The term post-materialist refers to “a set of goals that are emphasized *after* people have attained material security and *because* they have attained material security” (Inglehart, 1997, p. 35. Italics in origin). The postmaterialists give higher priority to self-expression and quality of life than to economic and physical security. This shift is the core element in the postmodernization process.

Materialist and postmaterialist value priorities are, in Inglehart’s point of view (1997), just one element of what constitutes postmodernization. Nonetheless, those value priorities are the most well-documented material available to reflect modernism and postmodernism.

3.2 Human Development Index

The human development index (HDI) which is employed throughout this thesis is a simple summary measure of three dimensions of the human development concept: living a long and a healthy life, being educated, and having a decent standard of living. It is reported annually starting from the year 1997 in the annual Human Development Report. It is calculated by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in cooperation with other UN agencies such as UNICEF, UNESCO, and World Health Organization (WHO). Since it combines measures of life expectancy, school enrolment and literacy, and income it does allow a broader view of a country’s development than using income alone. HDI is too often equated with well-being (Human Development Report, 2003). Considering our theoretical frame of reference, we believe that HDI represents a good tool for reflecting country differences. Throughout this study we keep in mind that HDI does not provide comprehensive information about a country’s culture.

3.2.1 HDI ranks

HDI is reported in the following table (3.1) for the countries included in our sample. The figures are the most recent available and they depict 2001 statistics (authors of the human development reports refer to a two-year old data) and their categorization (Human Development Report, 2003). The first column represents HDI rank for each country in the sample as depicted in the Human Development Report, 2003.

Table 3.1: HDI values for 15 Countries

<u>Rank</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>HDI Value</u>	<u>HDI Classification</u>
3	Sweden	.941	High Human Development
6	Belgium	.937	High Human Development
7	USA	.937	High Human Development
13	UK	.930	High Human Development
17	France	.925	High Human Development
18	Germany	.921	High Human Development
19	Spain	.918	High Human Development
21	Italy	.916	High Human Development
35	Poland	.841	High Human Development
58	Malaysia	.790	Medium Human Development
65	Brazil	.777	Medium Human Development
74	Thailand	.768	Medium Human Development
96	Turkey	.734	Medium Human Development
111	South Africa	.684	Medium Human Development
127	India	.590	Medium Human Development

A country having an HDI higher than .800 is classified as a high human development country. A medium human development country has an HDI that is between .500 and .799. Countries having an HDI lower than .500 are classified as low human development.

Discrepancies between the poor and the rich exist within some countries. For example, the northern part of Italy is richer and people there enjoy more welfare than those in southern Italy. Similar situation prevails in Brazil where the gap between the people in the urban areas such as in Sao Paulo and those

who live in the cities is very wide. When calculating the HDI the average national level is considered. This indicates that the existing deviations between the poor and the rich are waived in the calculations.

As the authors of the human development reports underline, a country's overall development, or change, requires more than just examining its HDI. The HDI, for example, does not reflect political participation or gender inequalities or respect for human rights. HDI and the other composite indices they produce, the authors add, can only offer a broad proxy on the issues of human development, gender disparity, and human poverty (UNDP, 15 September 2003).

3.2.2 HDI and postmodernism

At the beginning of writing this thesis we decided to use Inglehart's ranking for the countries on some of what we perceive employeeship-related questions in his survey. This thought was not applicable for two reasons. First, Inglehart does not include Malaysia and Thailand in the WVS while both constitute a total of 12.9% of the groups in our sample. Second, some countries, such as Poland and South Africa, were excluded from answering some of the questions which we perceive directly related to our study. The overlapping countries varied between 11 and 13. Therefore we decided to look for something that would, at least partially, represent postmodernism in our sample.

As Inglehart (1997) stresses, cultural, economic, and political changes go hand in hand to move a nation from traditionalism to modernization, or further to postmodernization. He believes that this movement is an outcome of an increased level of education, the enjoyment of the population with a higher level of income, and a longer life, among others. HDI represent those three dimensions. In other words, it is one aspect of the postmodernization theory. Therefore we correlated it with Inglehart et al. (1998) findings about materialism and postmaterialism. HDI is found negatively correlated with the ranking of nations prioritizing materialist values ($r = -.786^{**}$, $p = .001$, $N = 13$. Thailand and Malaysia are missing). This reflects that in the chosen medium human development countries people emphasize more materialistic values while those high HDI countries tend to put less emphasis on such values. On the other hand, HDI is found to have a strong positive correlation with Inglehart's et al. (1998) ranking of nations prioritizing postmaterialist values (r

= .815**, p = .001, N = 13.). The following figure (3.3) illustrates this correlation.

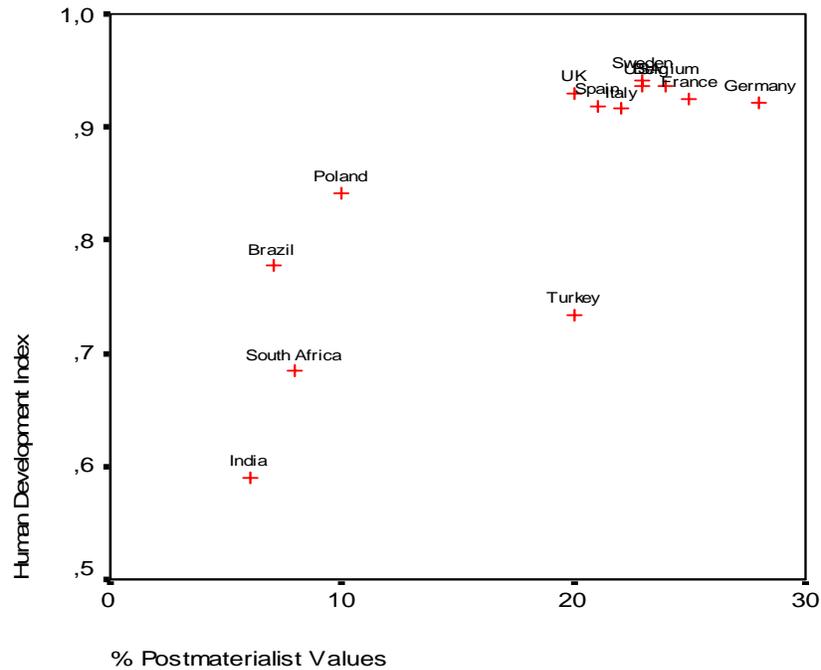


Figure 3.3: Correlation between HDI and Postmaterialist Values

Higher HDI countries stress higher percentage of postmaterialist values than those countries that enjoy lower HDI. Turkey and Poland are exceptional cases. The Turkish public, with its lower HDI, express more postmaterialist values than the Polish despite Poland's enjoyment of a higher HDI. Yet, in our sample, there is a tendency for those countries with high HDI value to prioritize more postmaterialist values than those countries with medium HDI.

As we mentioned in the previous section, materialist and postmaterialist value prioritization is only one part of postmodernization. The positive correlation between HDI and postmaterialist values should not infer that HDI is a measurement scale for postmaterialism or postmodernism. It is important to mention that high HDI countries are not necessarily postmodern or postmaterialist countries. Yet, we notice that all postmodern countries actually have a high HDI value.

3.3 Work-related values in different national cultures

In this thesis we will study how employeeship looks like in different countries and try to dig into the ground of the difference. Besides Inglehart's theory, we have assumed that national cultural differences might account for employeeship variations across borders. Therefore we think it is necessary to look into this aspect, mainly focusing on Hofstede's national culture theory.

Culture is defined by Hofstede as the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another (Hofstede, 1984, 1997, and 2001). It is the software of the mind that describes certain patterns of people's thinking, feeling, and acting "*mental programs*" (Hofstede, 2001). The source of one's mental programs lies within the social environment in which one grew up and collected one's life experience (Hofstede, 1997). Hofstede (1997) states that culture, as a collective phenomenon, is learned, and not inherited. It starts within the family; it continues within the neighborhood, at school, in youth groups, at the work place, and in the living community. The national culture difference will be reflected in the family life, at school, in the work organization, in politics, in sexual behavior, and in religion. For this study, we will mainly focus on the relationship between national culture and work-related values.

Hofstede explains difference in national work-related value patterns or cultures in terms of four basic cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, and masculinity versus femininity (Hofstede, 1997, 2001). We will not go through all the dimensions, instead, we will just focus on the dimensions that might be constructive for our study.

3.3.1 Power Distance Index (PDI)

According to Hofstede (1997) the fundamental issue involved in PDI is how society deals with the fact that people are unequal. It reflects the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept the unequally distributed power. PDI scores tell about dependence relationships in a country. In countries with large PDI there is a considerable dependence of subordinates on bosses while in small PDI countries this dependence is limited and subordinates prefer to be consulted (Hofstede, 1997). The difference between work-related values in the context of Power Distance can be shown in the following table:

Low PDI	High PDI
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decentralized decision structure; less concentration of authority 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centralized decision structure; more concentration of authority
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subordinates expect to be consulted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subordinates expect to be told
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consultative leadership leads to satisfaction, performance and productivity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authoritative leadership and close supervision lead to satisfaction, performance, and productivity
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Openness with information, also to non- superiors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information constrained by hierarchy

Source: Hofstede, 2001, p. 107.

As illustrated in the table, subordinates in low PDI countries are expected to be more involved and to have a say in decision making. The decentralized decision structure and the less organizational hierarchy make it possible. While in a large PDI country, subordinates and superiors consider themselves unequal. Power is centralized in top management and employees expect to be told what to do. Employees in high PDI countries also have fewer opportunities to achieve enough information since the sharing of key information is seen as a threat to the persons in the higher positions in the hierarchy (Hofstede, 1997).

3.3.2 Individualism and collectivism index

In Hofstede’s opinion, individualism pertains to societies where the ties between individuals are loose. An individual is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism on the other hand pertains to societies where people from birth onwards, are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups. Those groups continue throughout people’s lifetime to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. (Hofstede, 1997)

The IBM survey, which is the basis of Hofstede’s culture study, shows that in answering a series of questions asking about “working goals”, employees in the individualist countries tend to focus on the items as “training”, “physical conditions”, and “use of skills” that refer to the things the organization does for employees which stress the employee’s dependence on the organization.

Oppositely, the emphasis on the importance of “personal time”, “freedom”, and “challenge” represents individualism because they all stress the employees’ independence from the organization. In addition, it has been found that individualist countries tend to be rich and collectivist countries tend to be poor. Training, physical conditions, and the use of skills may be taken for granted in rich countries, which make them relatively unimportant as work goals. In poor countries, these things cannot be taken for granted: they are essential in distinguishing a good job from a bad one, which makes them quite important among one’s work goals (Hofstede, 1997).

Cited by Hofstede (2001, p .237), Randall (1993) reviewed 27 studies of organizational commitment in different countries and concluded that levels of commitment as measured by questionnaires might be lower in more collectivist countries.

Hofstede (2001) argues that in collectivist cultures one does not trust just anybody – one only trusts those considered “one of us” (p. 238). He summarized the main difference between work-related values existing in low IDV and high IDV societies. In lower IDV countries, employees are not as committed to the organization as those in high IDV, and they tend to perform best in in-groups. There is cooperative relationship with colleagues of in-group members, but this relationship is hostile for out-groups. On the contrary, in high IDV countries employees perform best as individuals and they build good relationship with colleagues no matter if they are in the same group or not. The following table depicts commitment and cooperation relationships in low and high IDV societies.

Low IDV	High IDV
• Employee commitment to organization low	• Employee commitment to organization high
• Employees perform best in in-groups	• Employees perform best as individuals
• Relationship with colleagues cooperative for in-group members, hostile for out-groups	• Relationship with colleagues do not depend on their group identity

Source: Hofstede, 2001, p. 244

After reviewing the above two cultural dimensions and the relative different work-related values, we feel it is necessary to study the relationship between these two dimensions for a further and deeper understanding. Hofstede (1997) points out that the PDI and IDV dimensions tend to be negatively correlated. In other words, large power distance countries are also likely to be more collectivist and small power distance countries are likely to be more individualist.

3.3.3 Development of hypotheses: national culture and employeeship

Our aim in this section is to establish some relationship between employeeship and culture. At the moment, we hope that these hypotheses will be proved empirically which will mean that we have found explanations for the difference of employeeship across borders.

Hofstede (2001) described employees' commitment to organizations as low in the low IDV countries, while it is high in the high IDV countries. He claims that emphasis on belonging is prominent in the low IDV while individual initiative and achievement are emphasized in the high IDV countries. In his view, low IDV societies are membership oriented while those having high IDV are leadership oriented. Referring to our sample, we find that HDI is positively correlated with the individualism index of Hofstede (2001) ($r = .618^*$, $p = .018$, $N = 14$, Poland is a missing value). To make this association explicit, countries that have high HDI tend to have higher individualism. Considering this background, we would expect to find in our sample that employees in high HDI countries tend to be more committed to the organization than those in the low HDI countries. Thus, we would assume:

H1: the higher HDI value a country has, the more commitment the employees in that country will express.

According to Hofstede (2001), employees in the low IDV countries tend to perform best in their groups. He claims that their relationship with colleagues within their groups is cooperative while he describes the same employees as being hostile towards out-groups. On the other hand, employees in the high IDV countries are inclined to perform best as individuals and, dissimilar to employees in the low IDV countries, their relationship with their colleagues does not depend on their group identity. So we can infer that when cooperating within their own groups, there is no difference between people in high and low IDV countries while employees in high IDV countries will perform better when collaborating with other departments. Therefore, generally speaking, in high IDV countries the overall cooperation among employees is better than in low IDV (collectivism) countries.

H2: the higher HDI value a country has, the higher it will score on the overall level of cooperation (within own and with other departments/groups).

Hofstede (1997, 2001) argues that countries with low Power Distance tend to have a decentralized decision structure and less concentration of authority. Subordinates like to be more involved and expect to be consulted. We believe that these conditions create an atmosphere where employees are able to have more influence on the work situation. Møller (1994) asserts that “the ability to influence can also be called *power*” (p. 8). There are more opportunities for the employees in low PDI countries to be involved and to have a say in their work. On the contrary, employees in high PDI countries tend to be told what to do rather than to be consulted. Therefore we assume that low PDI values are positively related with more influence on the work situation as well as with taking more responsibility.

In this study HDI is not significantly correlated with Hofstede’s (2001) Power Distance index ($r = .512$, $p = .061$, $N = 14$, Poland is a missing Value). However, as stated by Hofstede (1997), PDI is significantly correlated with IDV. We also ranked the 14 countries according to Hofstede’s indices on both IDV and PDI, and we found that there is a strong, significant, negative correlation between IDV and PDI ($r = - 0.706^{**}$, $p = .005$, $N = 14$, Poland is a

missing Value). Therefore, we still assume a negative relation between HDI and PDI, which means the higher the value of HDI, the less PDI that country has. By this we can establish a link between HDI and taking responsibility.

H3: the higher HDI value a country has, the more responsibility the employees will take in that country.

So far we have covered all the three areas in the frame of employeeship and built the hypotheses linking HDI and employeeship together. It is not difficult to notice that all the hypotheses suggest a positive relationship between HDI and a certain area of employeeship. In accordance with this, we feel it is reasonable to build a key hypothesis:

H4: the higher HDI value a country has, the more employeeship will be expressed in that country.

The topics that we have introduced in this chapter are the postmodern theory, the human development index, and some of Hofstede's national culture dimensions. We also built four hypotheses which we shall examine in chapter six. We perceive it logical to have those theories with the purpose of assisting us to give reasonable explanations for the findings.

Chapter 4 : Sample Description and Data Treatment

In this chapter we will introduce the sample to the readers before we move to the description of employeeship. This will provide the reader with sufficient informative background about the sample, the selection process, sample's composition, and data treatment.

4.1 The sample scope (frame)

Samples are used to allow researchers to investigate the characteristics of the population without going into a detailed investigation of the whole of it (Malim and Birch, 1997). According to Fowler (1993) “[h]ow well a sample represents a population depends on the sample frame, the sample size, and the specific design of selection procedure” (p. 10). “Population” refers to “the group from which a sample is drawn” (Malim and Birch, 1997, p. 2). Understandably, researchers do their best to get a representative sample from the population. A representative sample implies that “the sample accurately reflects the composition of the population from which it is drawn; it has the same characteristics (apart from its size) in the same proportion” (Malim and Birch, 1997, p. 2). We did our best to get a representative sample in terms of characteristics and size in which the chance of bias is minimal, yet we bear in mind that it is hard to guarantee a full representation in our situation. (Please see appendix one for sample population)

In the following sections we shall introduce selection procedure and data treatment, but first let us present and explain our selection criteria.

Fowler (1993) identifies the sample frame as the set of people who have a chance to be selected considering the sampling approach that is chosen. Malim and Birch (1997) classify the approaches of getting representative samples into three. The first approach is the quota sampling which takes place when the researcher chooses characteristics that are deemed important in the study. Next, she (or he) systematically selects individuals who possess these characteristics in the same proportions as the population as a whole. Stratified sampling is the second approach. It requires a good knowledge about the populations being studied, with the purpose of establishing strata or subgroups within the populations. The third approach is cluster sampling. It is based on the presence of natural groups. Those groups are numbered and after that a random sample is

drawn from the numbers. Finally, the authors introduce opportunity sampling. It stands for employing those individuals who are available at the time the study is undertaken.

The selection of our sample involved two stages. First, we sampled countries where Volvo Group and Volvo Cars are present, and second - with the assistance of Volvo representatives who have knowledge about the groups and activities in the different countries - we sampled the groups in the selected countries. The later stage in this selection procedure involved selecting groups based on their occupational categorization. Referring to Malim and Birch (1997) this sampling terminology is called “stratified sampling”.

The initial countries chosen represent the locations where Volvo Group and Volvo Car Corporation are both currently present and where the two (or what was once a single company) have a profound presence. Sweden, Belgium, Germany, UK, Italy, Spain, USA, Turkey, Malaysia, and Thailand were initially selected. However, since we wanted to explore employeeship across borders, we decided to expand the scope of our study and include more countries to cover other geographical locations. Therefore, South Africa (Botswana was included with South Africa), Brazil, Poland, France, and India were added. The five countries have activities for Volvo Group only. The final selection of our sample covers five continents: Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, and South America.

Our sample’s employees are grouped into three categorizations based on their occupation. They are management team category, white collar workers category, and blue collar workers category. For purposes of our thesis, we identified each category to ensure consistency in selection. The management category represents the local top management team in that particular country and to whom local personnel are reporting. An exception was made in Sweden where the top management team group also included the CEO team in Volvo Car Corporation. Regional top management teams working in some of the selected countries were excluded. The white collar workers selected in our sample are the lowest level of white collar workers in the organizational tree of the company and to whom no subordinate is reporting. This category consists of skilled employees working in departments such as human resource management, finance, customer service, marketing and sales, and accounting. The last category is the blue collar workers. The category of the blue collar

workers consists of the lowest level of blue collar workers in the organizational tree and in some cases their superiors. The employees in this category work in production, painting, assembling, chaisee, etc. Blue collar groups that probably cooperate and have contact with professional engineers were excluded.

4.2 Sample selection procedure

The first stage of the selection procedure (the choice of the countries) was systematic, that means we had clear criterion: we wanted to cover the six continents. We had a rough standard of having 60% blue collar workers, 30% white collar workers, and 10% management in the sample. The groups, on the other hand, were selected randomly from both companies' trees with the condition that a group report can be obtained for the chosen group (the two companies cannot obtain a report for a group consisting of less than five respondents without the group's permission. Only in a few cases a group consisting of four employees agreed to issue a report). We diversified the sample in terms of the size of the selected groups. So we chose large, medium, and small groups. Our largest group consists of 52 employees (from South Africa) while the smallest one consists of 4 employees (two from Spain).

We did manual recording of the ID numbers of those groups and then sent them to Netsurvey to extract their reports for us. We kept our records with the country and category variables since we will use them in the process of preparing the data file for analysis.

4.3 Data treatment

The data we received from Netsurvey consisted of four excel files representing the 5-point score scale, in addition to the zero value option, for each group. All the questions from the attitude survey are included in those files. Figure 4.1 represents a sample of what the consultancy company sent to us.

Figure 4.1: Data file in original form

The screenshot shows an Excel spreadsheet with the following structure:

- Row 1:** Headers for columns A through S. Column A is 'Group', B is 'Size', C is 'Expected'. Columns G through L are for question 1: '1. Do you feel that your working group is well managed?'. Columns N through R are for question 2: '2. Do you feel that you work in a cost-conscious manner in your work?'. Column S is '0'.
- Row 2:** Labels for the Likert scales. For question 1: G=0. Don't know, H=5. Yes - Excellent, I=4. Yes - Good, J=3. Neither good nor bad, K=2. No - Improvements are necessary, L=1. No - Improvements are very necessary. For question 2: N=0. Don't know, O=5. Yes - Excellent, P=4. Yes - Good, Q=3. Neither good nor bad, R=2. No - Improvements are necessary, S=1. No - Improvements are very necessary.
- Rows 3-28:** Data for 26 different groups, each with a unique ID, a size, an expected value, and counts for each of the 12 Likert scale options.

Upon receiving the data we converted it to SPSS files and manually inserted three independent variables: country, category, and company based on the information recorded in the selection process. The fifteen countries, the three employees' categories, and the two companies were given nominal (or categorical) measures. Nominal or categorical measures cannot place any meaningful order in statistical operations and they are mainly used to differentiate between categories (Miller, Acton, Fullerton, and Maltby, 2002).

The groups in figure 4.1 represented the cases (rows) while the numeric values representing the 6-point scale in the same figure depicted the variables (columns) within SPSS context. We treated the groups as individuals in the analysis. Each question had initially 6 columns before we calculated its mean, as figure 4.2 shows. In each cell in the six columns the figure represents the number of employees that selected that option.

Figure 4.2: Independent Variables in SPSS File

	Actual Respondent	Expected Respondents	The six score options for each question						The mean of the question				
			zero	five	four	three	two	one	mean_q_1				
1	42002	Sweden	Volvo Gr	25	30	BL	0	3	9	9	2	2	3.36
2	48989	Sweden	Volvo Gr	14	15	BL	0	5	8	1	0	0	4.29
3	44955	Sweden	Volvo Gr	23	28	BL	2	5	6	5	4	1	3.17
4	50327	Sweden	Volvo Gr	22	51	BL	4	0	4	7	5	2	2.23
5	40973	Sweden	Volvo Gr	14	12	Mgmt	0	4	7	2	1	0	4.00
6	35551	Sweden	Volvo Gr	8	8	Mgmt	0	2	5	1	0	0	4.13
7	39957	Sweden	Volvo Gr	13	13	Mgmt	0	7	3	2	1	0	4.23
8	37362	Sweden	Volvo Gr	12	12	Mgmt	0	8	3	1	0	0	4.58
9	38742	Sweden	Volvo Gr	10	10	Mgmt	0	3	7	0	0	0	4.30
10	39067	Sweden	Volvo Gr	16	17	Mgmt	0	9	6	0	1	0	4.44
11	36667	Sweden	Volvo Gr	7	8	WL	0	0	6	1	0	0	3.86
12	36668	Sweden	Volvo Gr	8	9	WL	0	1	4	2	1	0	3.63
13	39897	Sweden	Volvo Gr	7	7	WL	0	2	4	1	0	0	4.14
14	50991	Sweden	Volvo Gr	5	6	WL	0	0	4	0	1	0	3.60
15	36661	Sweden	Volvo Gr	7	5	WL	0	1	5	1	0	0	4.00
16	50987	Sweden	Volvo Gr	7	7	WL	0	3	3	0	1	0	4.14
17	36981	Sweden	Volvo Gr	8	8	WL	0	2	5	1	0	0	4.13
18	36978	Sweden	Volvo Gr	9	12	WL	0	0	5	4	0	0	3.56
19	36977	Sweden	Volvo Gr	8	8	WL	0	0	6	2	0	0	3.75
20	36735	Sweden	Volvo Gr	9	10	WL	0	0	4	3	2	0	3.22
21	36729	Sweden	Volvo Gr	7	7	WL	0	0	3	4	0	0	3.43
22	36732	Sweden	Volvo Gr	10	10	WL	1	0	3	6	0	0	3.00
23	39900	Sweden	Volvo Gr	8	9	WL	0	0	6	1	1	0	3.63
24	50327	Sweden	Volvo Gr	22	51	BL	4	0	4	7	5	2	2.23
25	41998	Sweden	Volvo Gr	29	28	BL	0	4	13	8	3	1	3.55
26	42002	Sweden	Volvo Gr	25	30	BL	0	3	9	9	2	2	3.36
27	44956	Sweden	Volvo Gr	22	36	BL	0	2	4	8	6	2	2.91
28	48989	Sweden	Volvo Gr	14	15	BL	0	5	8	1	0	0	4.29
29	41488	Sweden	Volvo Gr	20	23	BL	2	1	11	5	0	1	3.25
30	41166	Sweden	Volvo Gr	26	31	BL	0	5	17	2	1	1	3.92
31	35651	Belgium	Volvo Gr	10	9	Mgmt	0	3	7	0	0	0	4.30

The first mathematical step was calculating the mean for each question in each group. All questions from VAS originally use a 6-point answer scale. Zero option represents “Do not know”, 5 represents “Yes – Excellent”, 4 represents “Yes – Good”, 3 represents “Neither good nor bad”, 2 represents “No – Improvements are necessary”, and 1 represents “No – Improvements are very necessary”. According to Brace, Kemp and Snelgar (2003) such a scale is an ordinal and not interval one. In such a scale the numbers are ordered with some justifications (numbers indicating rankings) and with a 6-point scale it is difficult to be sure that different participants mean exactly the same thing if they choose the same response. Millar et al (2002) add also that the degree of difference between the categories, or the responses, cannot be determined. The median is the appropriate indicator for ordinal scales, while the mean is the correct one for interval measures.

Notwithstanding Brace et al (2003) and Millar's et al (2002) remark we believe that the numbers given to each option represent arithmetic value since the attitude survey Volvo uses is a satisfaction measurement tool. Furthermore, those arithmetic values fall in an increasing order on a short scale, i.e., 5 is the highest value which expresses the highest level of satisfaction. Therefore, we decided to consider the data in their original form *quasi interval*. Under this assumption we could proceed with our calculations for questions' means to be available for parametric tests (Pearson coefficient correlation or r) in our analysis. Parametric tests are inferential tests that have the virtue of being statistically powerful and able to handle data collected in complex designs (Brace, Kemp and Snelgar, 2003).

With the original form of the data obtained from Netsurvey, it was very complicated to examine the frequency distribution of the answers for each question since each option of the 6 alternatives constituted a variable by itself in the SPSS file as figures 4.1 and 4.2 illustrate. By calculating the mean for each question, for each group, we got somewhat normally distributed frequencies.

Since the scale originally used in the data depicted quantity or amount of satisfaction, we decided to transform our data considering this fact. Thus, the calculated mean was a representation for the scored value multiplied by the number of those who scored on it, and then the sum was divided by the total size of the group.

$$\text{Mean of any question} = \frac{\sum(N_x * x)}{\sum N}$$

Where N represents the number of individuals who chose that particular option for that question, and where X is the value of the option and which can take 0, 5, 4, 3, 2, or 1.

This is a weighted mean and not a usual mean. This method implies that those who answered "do not know" were included (zero value was multiplied by the number of people who scored it). Although the percentage of those employees who chose this option is small, we deemed their answers valid responses.

The main file that our thesis is based on consists of all the means of the shared questions between the two companies and all the independent variables: group identity, country, company, category, expected size of group, and actual (respondents) size of the group. This file was called “Volvo Group and Volvo Cars”. From this file we aggregated two other files. The first is aggregated with the aim of obtaining data for analysis on both country and category levels (means of countries and categories). The second is aggregated to make country-based analysis (means of countries). Later on, the human development index (HDI) was inserted in the three files.

Chapter 5 : Description of employeeship

In chapter two we developed our model for employeeship. We introduced the areas or the dimensions that we deem components in the employeeship paradigm. In chapter five we will describe each of those three dimensions on the national and occupational category levels and we will find out the differences.

5.1 Employeeship Index

In order to get a comprehensive picture of how employeeship looks like across borders, we decided to build an employeeship index (EI) based on the employeeship model introduced in chapter two.

In order to get the mean score of each dimension of employeeship, we calculated the value of each dimension on the group level (summation of the scores of the selected questions and dividing the outcome by the number of questions in that dimension). This operation is applied on the file “Volvo Group and Volvo Cars”. Those figures were aggregated on the country and category levels in the other two files that we mentioned in chapter four in order to get the mean score for commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility.

Our index is based on the means of the three employeeship dimensions. We take the mean for the three areas using the following formula:

$$\text{Employeeship Index (EI)} = (\text{mean commitment} + \text{mean cooperation} + \text{mean taking responsibility})/3$$

Through this method we could get a value of maximum 5 – which is used in the Volvo attitude survey to reflect “excellent – no improvements required”. Taking this index as a premise, we got the value of EI on both country level and category level. Table 5.1 and figure 5.1 illustrate the results.

<i>Rank</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>EI value</i>	<i>Blue collar</i>	<i>White collar</i>	<i>Management</i>	<i>EI Gap</i> <i>(EI white – EI blue)</i>
1	Turkey	4.16	3.79	4.21	4.01	.42
2	India	4.07	4.15	3.94	4.13	-.21
3	Germany	4.06	4.06	4.00	4.30	-.06
4	Brazil	3.98	3.89	4.10	4.33	.21
5	South Africa	3.95	4.05	3.89	4.29	-.16
6	UK	3.88		3.79	4.27	.
7	Thailand	3.85	3.86	3.69	4.03	-.17
8	Spain	3.80		3.76	4.09	.
9	Sweden	3.73	3.34	3.84	4.31	.50
10	Italy	3.71		3.63	4.08	.
11	Belgium	3.71	3.48	4.00	4.14	.52
12	USA	3.69	3.24	3.89	4.01	.65
13	Malaysia	3.63	3.44	3.77	4.06	.33
14	Poland	3.63	3.23	3.86		.63
15	France	3.34	2.93	3.73	3.82	.80
	Mean	3.89	3.62	3.87	4.14	

Table 5.1: Employment Index across Countries and Categories

As table (5.1) and figure (5.1) show, Turkey ranks number 1 on EI, followed by India and Germany. France is scoring the least on EI and thus occupies the last position among the 15 countries. There is a disparity between France and Poland, the country that precedes it, on the index. Malaysia and Poland score the same figure. Italy and Belgium also score close figure. Sweden ranks 9, while USA ranks 12. Both Brazil and South Africa have close scores.

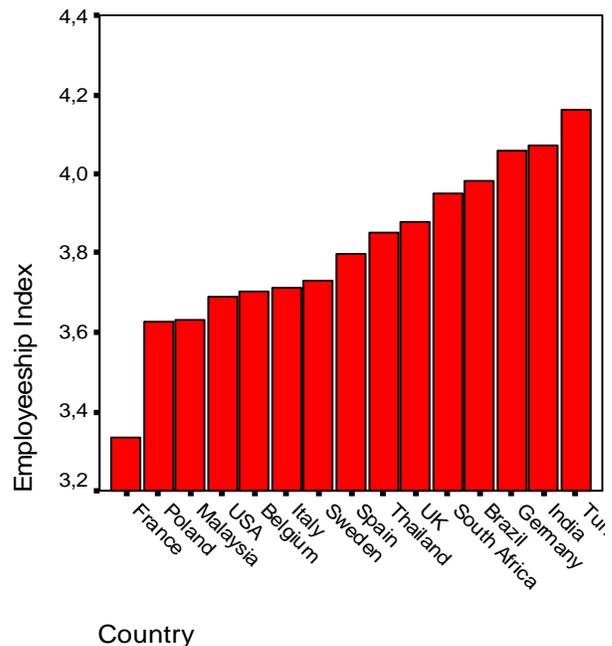


Figure 5.1: EI across countries (Blue Collar)

Those findings motivate us to look into where the three categories in the 15 are positioned. If we examine how our employeeship index looks like among the categories we find that the blue collar workers in France score less than 3.0 on employeeship index, while their colleagues in the rest of the countries score above 3.0.

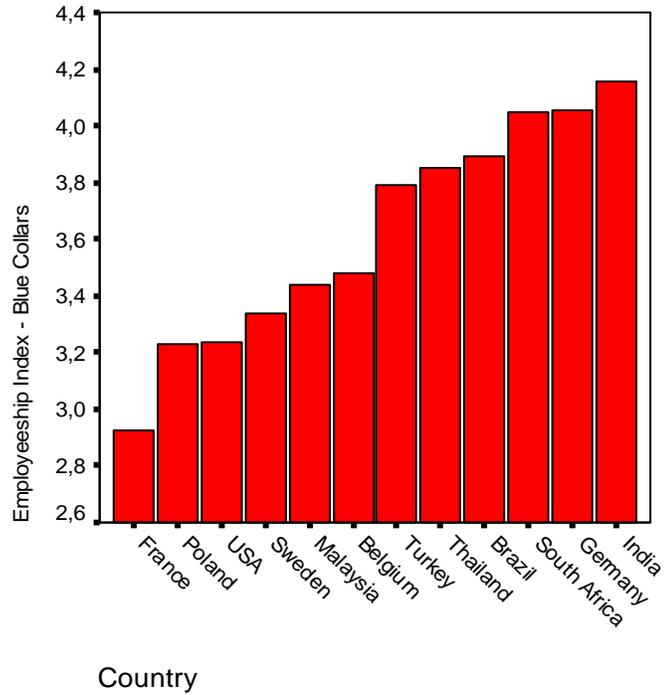


Figure 5.2: EI across 15 countries

Indian, German, and South African blue collar workers score the highest on

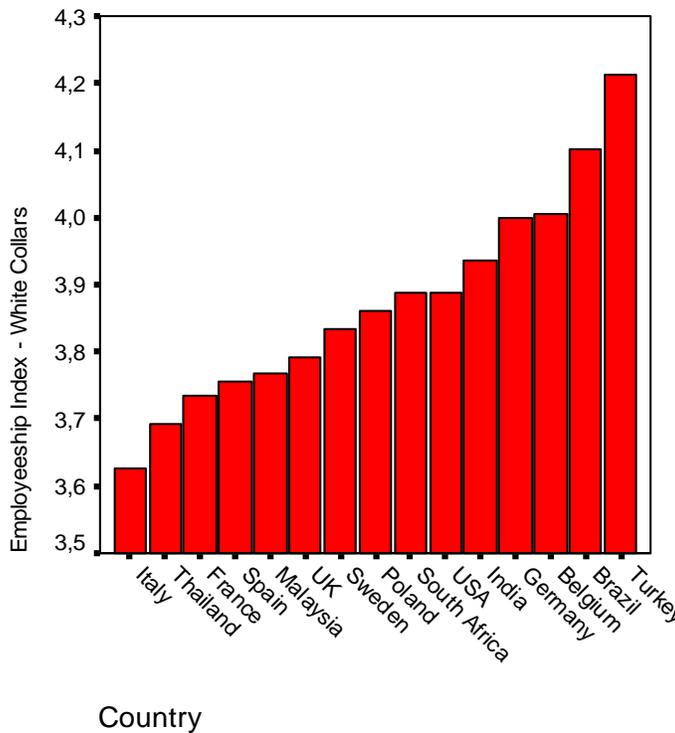


Figure 5.3: EI across countries (White Collar workers)

employeeship index. The values of the scale, on the blue collar workers level, range from 2.9 and almost 4.2 as figure (5.2) illustrates.

The previous conclusion does not apply to the white collar workers. As figure (5.3) shows, the scale for the white collar workers is between 3.6 and 4.2, which reflects more expressed employeeship.

Whereas the Turkish white collar employees score the highest on

employeeeship index, their Italian colleagues score the lowest. In this employment category, and dissimilar to the blue collar workers category, the French and Polish white collar workers express more employeeeship than the Thai and Italian ones.

A thorough insight on table 5.1 reveals that there is a gap between employeeeship expressed by the white and the blue collar workers within the countries. The last column in table 5.1 illustrates the difference between the two occupational categories. The observed gap (EI expressed by white collar workers minus EI expressed by blue collar workers) is either positive or negative. The positive gap between the white and the blue exist in France, USA, Poland, Belgium, and Sweden. The negative gap exists in Thailand, India, South Africa, and Germany.

On the management level, Brazil, Sweden, Germany, South Africa, and UK are ranking the highest on employeeeship index as figure (5.4) illustrates. The rest of the countries, excluding France, score above 4.0.

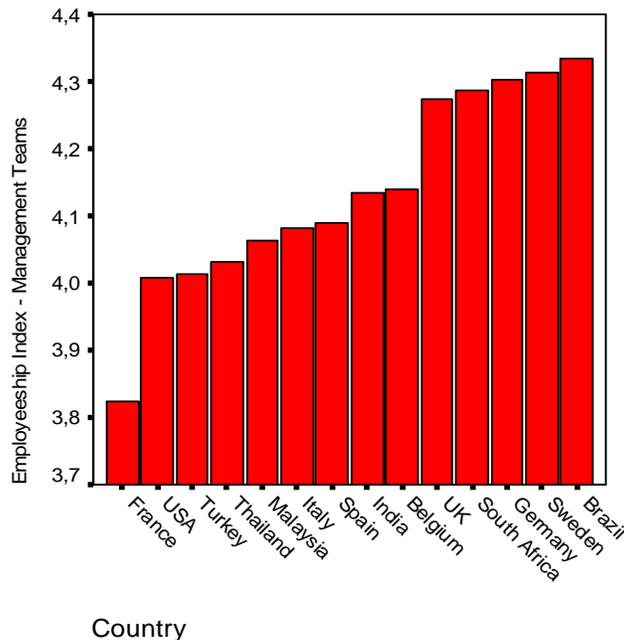


Figure 5.4: EI across countries (Management Teams)

The French management teams score the least on our employeeeship index. An interesting finding is Sweden, which ranks position 12 on the blue collar level and position 9 on the white collar level, while it ranks in the second position on the management level.

Another discrepancy is Turkey. The Turkish blue collar workers rank in the middle on employeeeship index compared to their colleagues from other nationalities, while the white collar workers rank the first on our index. However, it is evident that the management team in Turkey expresses less employeeeship than the blue and white collar workers.

In general, we can infer that the ranking of the 15 countries on the employeeship index is not consistent with that of the three employment categories. The observation that a country scores high on employeeship does not mean that all the occupational categories in that country score high on the employeeship index. Discrepancies between the categories on the national level exist. The ultimate national score on employeeship index for a certain country is the mean score by all groups in that country.

5.2 Employeeship and HDI

Previously we described how we obtained employeeship index and ranked the 15 countries included in the sample against it. In this section we shall examine the relationship between employeeship and HDI.

In the theory section we introduced the human development index (HDI). This index, that combines life expectancy, level of education (literacy), and income, gives a fair reflection of some of the cultural components in a society. Despite the fact that it partially reflects country differences, we perceive it as a great assistance in this thesis as it gives an overall view of the elements it measures. Moreover, HDI is more representative of country differences than income alone (GDP).

5.2.1 Employeeship Index and HDI

Figure (5.5) illustrates where the sample countries are positioned on employeeship index and HDI. The HDI scale starts from .5 and ends up with 1.0. The scale of EI expands from 3.2 to 4.2. Most of the countries fall under 4.0 but above 3.6. France is an exception where it scores less than 3.4. Germany, Turkey, and India score higher than 4.0.

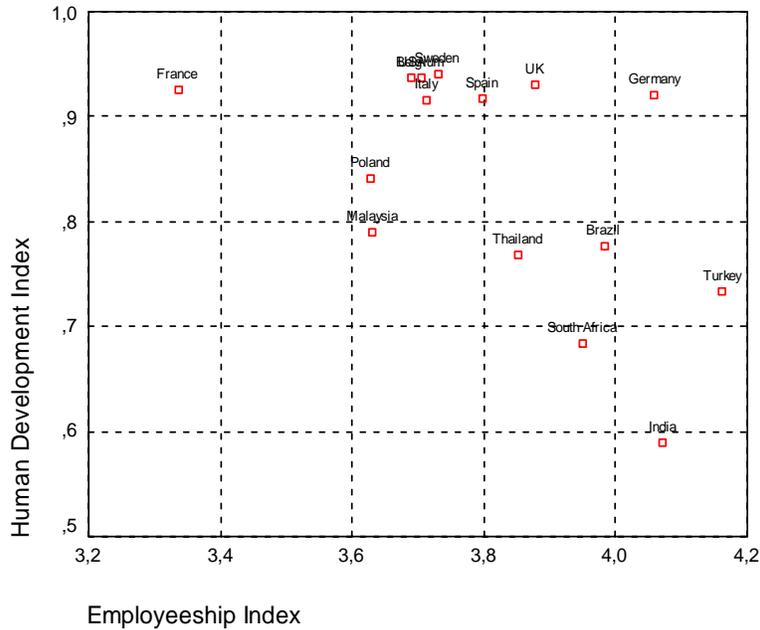


Figure 5.5: Employeeship Index and HDI

In this thesis we shall consider 4.0 as a breaking point. This figure in VAS is equivalent to “good” while number 3 reflects “neither good nor bad”. All the 15 countries are classified as high or medium human development countries. Literally, and for purposes of this thesis, we shall refer to high human development countries by high HDI countries, while medium human development countries by lower HDI countries.

If we draw clear lines based on this categorization we notice that we have four clusters. The first cluster consists of Germany characterized by high HDI and high employeeship. The second group is comprised of Turkey and India described as having lower HDI and high employeeship. A third cluster is found to include the European countries in our sample (UK, Spain, Sweden, Belgium, Italy, Poland, and France) and the USA. They are classified as high HDI countries and they score less than 4.0 on employeeship index. The final group has Brazil, South Africa, Thailand, and Malaysia. Those four countries are characterized as medium human development, or lower HDI, countries and they score less than 4.0 on the index of employeeship.

In order to investigate if there is an association between HDI and employeeship index, we correlated both. We found that EI is negatively correlated with HDI ($r = -.547^*$, $p = .035$, $N = 15$). This indicates statistically, and as figure (5.5)

illustrates, that there is a negative relationship between HDI and employeeship index. In other words, we would see employees in high HDI countries scoring lower on employeeship index than those in lower HDI countries.

5.2.2 Employeeship dimensions and HDI

Table 5.2: National Scores on EI Dimensions

Since we have three dimensions in the employeeship model, we believe it is also necessary to examine the relationship between HDI and commitment, taking responsibility, and cooperation, respectively, in order to investigate whether a similar association is found. Before linking EI dimensions with HDI separately, an examination of the 15 countries' ranks and values on the three dimensions is conducted, as shown in table 5.2.

Country \ Dimension	Commitment		Cooperation		Taking Responsibility	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
France	3.65	15	2.97	15	3.39	15
Poland	3.94	13	3.30	14	3.65	9
Malaysia	3.99	12	3.45	11	3.46	14
USA	4.03	11	3.38	13	3.66	8
Belgium	4.04	10	3.47	10	3.61	11
Italy	4.16	7	3.44	12	3.54	13
Sweden	3.91	14	3.52	8	3.76	6
Spain	4.35	6	3.50	9	3.54	13
Thailand	4.11	9	3.84	1	3.61	11
UK	4.14	8	3.59	7	3.91	3
South Africa	4.53	3	3.58	6	3.74	7
Brazil	4.44	5	3.68	5	3.84	5
Germany	4.50	4	3.69	4	3.99	2
India	4.61	2	3.75	2	3.85	4
Turkey	4.70	1	3.74	3	4.04	1
Mean	4.21		3.53		3.71	

Looking thoroughly into the association between HDI and employeeship dimensions (figure 5.6), we found that there is significant negative correlation between HDI and commitment ($r = -.610^*$, $p = .016$, $N = 15$), and between HDI and cooperation ($r = -.521^*$, $p = .046$, $N = 15$). The correlation is also negative between HDI and taking responsibility, but it is weak and not significant ($r = -.288$, $p = .299$, $N = 15$).

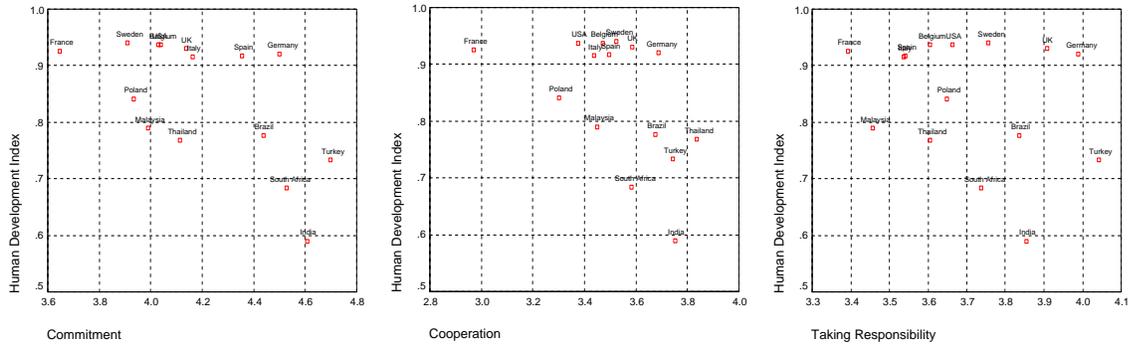


Figure 5.6: EI dimensions across 15 countries

Comparing the positions of the countries on the three dimensions, we observe that France has the lowest mean on the three areas of employeeship. Turkey ranks the first on commitment and taking responsibility but the third on cooperation. Germany is among the countries scoring high means on all the three dimensions. India ranks second on commitment and cooperation, but fourth on taking responsibility. Sweden ranks the second lowest on commitment, in the middle on cooperation, while among those countries scoring high on taking responsibility. Sweden is not the only country that has significantly different ranks on the three dimensions. A similar observation is noticed for the UK where it ranks relatively low on commitment while quite high on taking responsibility. Thailand ranks the highest on cooperation but neither on commitment nor on taking responsibility.

As the above figures exhibit, employees in high HDI countries tend to show less commitment and cooperation than their colleagues in lower HDI countries. When it comes to responsibility, we cannot draw a conclusion that employees in high HDI countries take more responsibility than those in lower HDI countries, or the other way around. The degree of human development seems to have less impact on taking responsibility between the countries.

5.2.3 Employeeship index across occupational categories

Similar to the different EI scores obtained on the national level, we think it would be interesting to see the EI score by three occupational categories as well as their score on the three employeeship dimensions. Table 5.3 depicts the findings.

Table 5.3: EI and dimensions across occupational categories

Area \ Category	EI	Commitment	Cooperation	Taking Responsibility
Management Teams	4.14	4.49	3.77	4.15
White Collar workers	3.87	4.28	3.57	3.77
Blue Collar workers	3.62	3.98	3.37	3.52
Mean	3.88	4.25	3.57	3.81

On our employeeship index, management teams score a mean of 4.14, white collar workers rank second with a mean of 3.87, while blue collar workers get 3.62 as a mean on EI. Not surprisingly, management teams score the highest on commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility, while white collar workers and blue collar workers follow in respective order. Cooperation is the lowest dimension the three categories score in whereas commitment is the highest. The gap between white collar workers and management on taking responsibility is larger than that between white collar workers and blue collar workers. The difference between management and blue collar workers in cooperation is double that between white collar workers and management. A similar trend is observed on commitment.

Linking EI with HDI, Figure 5.7 has three depictions portraying how employeeship looks like among blue collar workers, white collar workers, and management teams, respectively in the 15 countries.

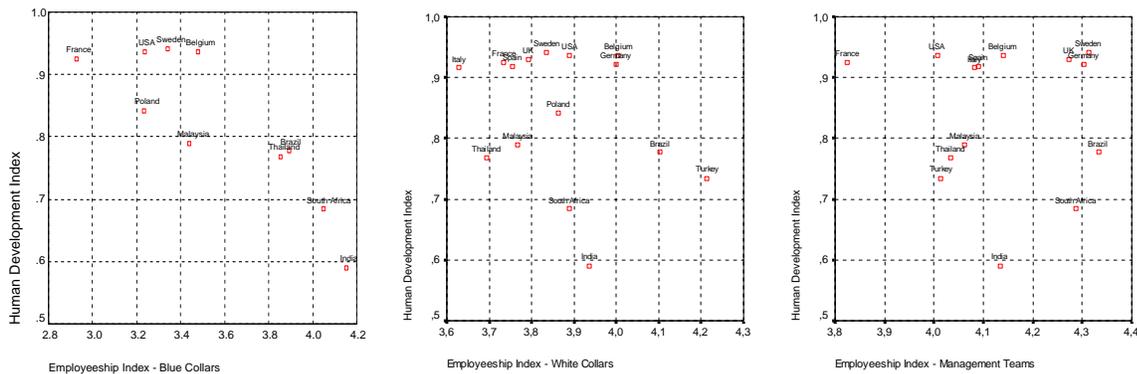


Figure 5.7: EI and HDI across occupational category

Among the blue collar workers, employeeship seems to be strongly expressed in lower HDI countries than in the high HDI countries (we excluded Germany

and Turkey from the analysis since each has only one blue collar group). Obviously, this finding does not pertain and is invalid among white collar workers and management teams. In both categories, countries are scattered and a response pattern between HDI and EI is hard to find. This finding is supported by statistics as well. There is a strong negative correlation between HDI and EI on the blue collar workers level ($r = -.859^{**}$, $p = .001$, $N = 10$), while the frail correlation further weakens as we move from white collar workers ($r = -.312$, $p = .258$, $N = 15$) to management teams where it is almost null ($r = -.062$, $p = .832$, $N = 14$).

5.2.4 Employeeship dimensions, occupational category, and HDI

In the last three sections, we illustrated the correlation between employeeship index and HDI (section 5.2.1), employeeship dimensions and HDI (section 5.2.2), and employeeship index across occupational category (5.2.3). In this section we shall demonstrate the overall correlation between employeeship dimensions, occupational category, and HDI.

The following table (5.4) reveals the correlation between HDI and employeeship dimensions on each occupational category.

Table 5.4: Correlation between HDI and EI dimensions across occupational categories

	Blue Collar		White Collar		Management	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Commitment & HDI	-.874**	.001	-.488	.065	-.500	.069
Cooperation & HDI	-.823**	.003	-.113	.689	.452	.104
Taking Responsibility & HDI	-.815**	.004	-.030	.917	-.069	.815
EI & HDI	-.859**	.001	-.312	.258	-.062	.832

N = 10 for the blue collar workers, 15 for white, and 14 for management.

A momentous negative correlation between employeeship dimensions and HDI is evident in the blue collar workers category, as table 5.4 demonstrates. We translate this result as meaning that blue collar workers in lower HDI countries express more commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility than those in high HDI countries. At the end we can see that this association leads to a negative, significant correlation between employeeship index and HDI. Similar conclusion cannot be drawn for the white collar workers and the management.

Both categories show a negative correlation between commitment and HDI and between taking responsibility and HDI. Yet this association is not significant to commitment and almost vanishes in taking responsibility. It is noteworthy to highlight that the correlation between HDI and commitment amongst management and white collar workers is stronger than that between HDI and taking responsibility in the same occupational categories. Apparently, as the correlation indicates, no conclusion can be drawn to claim that management and white collar workers in high HDI countries take more or less responsibility.

Chapter 6 : Analysis of the Findings

After describing the empirical findings, we attempt to explore the grounds of employeeship variations between countries and categories in this chapter. Besides national culture and the postmodernization theory, we introduce other factors that have an impact on employeeship. We end this chapter by presenting a combination of the main factors that explain employeeship differences.

6.1 Power Distance, Individualism, and Employeeship

In the previous chapter, we explored the relationship between HDI and Employeeship. We saw that there is a negative correlation between the two. Employees in lower HDI countries score higher on the employeeship index than those in the high HDI countries.

Since HDI is positively correlated with the individualism index of Hofstede, we expected to find a positive correlation between HDI and commitment based on his claim that employees in highly individualistic countries express more commitment to organization. Our results show that the employees in high HDI countries show less commitment than those in lower HDI countries ($r = -.610^*$, $p = .016$, $N = 15$). As we saw in chapter five, this negative correlation between HDI and commitment is most apparent on the blue collar workers level. This finding drives us to reject our first hypothesis. Hofstede's argument that employees in highly individualistic societies are more committed than those in the lesser individualistic countries does not coincide with our findings.

We also found a negative correlation between the overall level of cooperation and HDI ($r = -.521^*$, $p = .046$). In the second hypothesis we assumed that Volvo employees in highly individualistic countries (high HDI countries) would cooperate better than those in less individualistic countries. Our inference based on Hofstede's finding that highly individualistic societies cooperate better does not correspond with our findings. Thus the second hypothesis is rejected too.

When it comes to taking responsibility, there is a negative correlation between HDI and this dimension, and the association is weak ($r = -.288$, $p = .299$). This finding is not significant and the possibility that it happens by chance is high (299 out of 1000). Based on this, we cannot conclude that employees in the

high HDI countries take more responsibility than those in the lower HDI countries. Therefore we reject this hypothesis. At the same time, though the correlation is negative, our empirical findings do not allow us to draw a conclusion that those employees in the lower HDI countries take more responsibility than those in the high HDI countries.

Our fourth hypothesis, that employeeship will be more expressed in high HDI countries, is also rejected. Our findings reveal that lower HDI countries tend to express more employeeship than those in the high HDI countries.

Although the hypotheses which we base on Hofstede's study are rejected, this rejection does not imply an elimination of the impact of national culture on employeeship. In chapter three we indicated a relatively strong correlation between HDI and individualism ($r = .618^*$) and a medium correlation between HDI and power distance ($r = .512$). In chapter five we found a significant negative correlation between HDI and the employeeship index. This proves that national cultural differences, particularly on the two dimensions (IDV and PDI), are not irrelevant to the appearance of employeeship between countries. Our results confirm Hofstede's claim of national culture impact, but surprisingly in a contradictory direction.

Both Hofstede's study and ours use a multinational company's attitude survey, but we got incompatible results. It is neither our intention nor our purpose to test the validity of his study. Instead, we search for explanations for the assumed differences between countries. After all, our study's scope is different from that of Hofstede's, i.e., we studied different things. Yet, we will try to look for possible grounds of the incompatibility. Stjernberg and Philips (1993) conducted an organizational innovations study in Sweden. Some of the findings in their study are deemed useful to provide a possible perused explanation. They studied the perceived influence expressed by employees on matters in one department over the years from 1972 to 1984. Their findings reveal a decline in perceived influence as measured by the used questionnaire. They attribute the decline to two probable reasons. First, the change in attitude could be a result of an organizational change. Second, the change in attitude could occur as an outcome of changes in norms and language. Those two reasons guide us to anticipate that answers to questions are context dependent, the scale that people use to answer the questions varies over time, and their expectations might differ over the years. The context of Hofstede's study and that of ours are different.

Moreover, his first IBM study was conducted 40 years ago, and since then people all over the world have been passing through a value change evolution, with different paces. This is also supported by Sjernberg and Philips's (1993) conclusion that people's evaluation for the multi-choice alternatives changes over the long-run. A third reason we believe has led to this inconsistency lies in the postmodern theory. According to Inglehart's theory, the political, economic, and social changes shift people's values in the transformation stage. As we could see in the value shift map (figure 3.2), societies' values shift over time. If we take commitment dimension questions as an instance and compare the response we got on the two questions (28 and 33) with that conclusion of Hofstede, we find that employees in highly individualistic societies are no longer expressing more commitment to the organization than those employees in the lesser individualistic societies. The significant negative correlation between HDI and commitment ($r = -.610^*$) shows a contrary finding which proves that people's values have shifted.

6.2 Postmodernization and employeeship

In chapter five we could see an overall finding that employees in high HDI countries express less employeeship than those in the lower HDI countries. Hofstede's theory did not aid us in providing valid explanations. Here we investigate the impact of the postmodern theory on employeeship. In section 6.2 we give an overview on employeeship, discarding the occupational category belonging.

6.2.1 Values and employeeship

Postmodernism theory (Inglehart, 1997) assumes that a shift is taking place from modernism to postmodernism. Societies that enjoy high level of industrial development and economic saturation place more importance on quality of life while economic growth is becoming less central. This shift is accompanied by a shift in people prioritizing postmaterialistic values (quality of life) in postmodern countries over materialistic ones (economic accumulation for the individuals and economic growth for societies) in modern societies. The transition from modernization to postmodernization encompasses the erosion of state authority which is a characteristic of the modern societies to give more space to individual autonomy and less room for traditional norms. The core notion in modernization is maximizing economic growth through

industrialization while that in postmodernization is maximizing subjective individual well-being (self-expression). This includes more emphasis on having a say on job, freedom of speech, and a less stressful life in the postmodern societies whereas work and money are being asserted in the modern societies.

Individual values are traditional religious and communal norms oriented in the traditional society; are achievement motivation oriented in the modern society; and are postmaterialist and postmodern oriented in the postmodern society (Inglehart, 1997). In the transition from modernization to postmodernization culture has a great influence. The value change in the shift from modernization to postmodernization is an outcome of the change in the cultural values. As we presented previously, when societies move from modernism to postmodernism they shift their prioritization from materialist values to postmaterialist values. The subjective aspect of a society's institutions, or what Inglehart coins culture, immensely influence how people view the reality. The link between postmodernization and employeeship is exemplified in the value change that takes place upon the transformation stage. Postmodernization arises when values change in cultures and after societies achieve economic saturation. We are studying a work-related concept. Work importance is a value and is important in all societies whether traditional, modern, or postmodern. However, its importance varies from one society to another.

West and North Europe enjoyed the economic prosperity after the Second World War and Inglehart could see that there was a change in values among the generations in Europe. The change is expressed in the shift in priorities from economic and physical security to self-expression and quality of life (Inglehart, 1997). Life expectancy and the literacy level are higher in those countries that experience security and welfare than in those countries that are still striving for economic growth. But up to a certain level (the point of diminishing returns for economic growth) the economic growth does not have an impact on those two elements. It is worth mentioning here that in the post-industrial societies longevity is more about life style than about income (Inglehart, 1997b).

We believe that work is very important in modern and traditional societies where it is a means for survival. In those two societies, people need to reach and experience the level of economic saturation. In societies where survival is not secured, economic growth becomes a priority. People become achievement motivated. This speculation of ours is supported by Inglehart's finding (1998)

on the question “I enjoy my work; it’s the most important thing in my life” (V122). Among the overlapping 11 countries in our sample and his, we see significant negative correlation between HDI and countries’ rank on Inglehart’s inquiry ($r = -.826^{**}$, $p = .002$). Work is a very important element for people in traditional and modern countries whereas people in the postmodern societies are emphasizing it less. Survival is taken for granted in postmodern societies, while it is threatened in traditional and modern societies. Since the poor countries emphasize economic growth, and work is a priority for them, we believe that these variables strengthen their employeeship, especially commitment. As we could see before, commitment is most significantly correlated with HDI ($r = -.610^*$) among employeeship dimensions.

This discussion leads us to coming across the political, economic, and social life changes in the last decades in our sample’s countries. Most lower HDI countries, in addition to Germany, score high on employeeship index. While the rest of the countries score less. We anticipate that part of the explanation lies in the value transformation theory as a consequence of economic, social, and political changes. In this section we shall tackle part of those changes, but not all.

6.2.2 Employeeship across borders

Countries emphasizing traditional authority and survival

On Inglehart’s map (figure 3.2) we notice that Poland, India, Turkey, South Africa, and Brazil are located in the lower left hand side of the map. They all stress authority and survival dimensions. The five, though positioned in four different geographical clusters, express traditional and / or modern values. The five societies have been striving for economic development since the 1960s and they have been undergoing a steady progress since then, with exception of South Africa that had some problems in the 1990s (Human Development Trends, 2003). Life expectancy in India increased by more than 19 years and income per capita has more than doubled in the last fifty years. A similar trend is observed in Brazil but with a less improvement on life span (13 years). After obtaining a life expectancy of 61.5 and a GDP of \$11,414 in 1990, the human development situation in South Africa deteriorated in the 1990s (due to the spread of AIDS/HIV that affected most of the transition economies). Longevity has declined by 10 years but income was insignificantly affected by this

dramatic drop in life expectancy and remained up to 2001 slightly less than the figure of 1990.

The value change theory of postmodernism presupposes that a transition to modern or to postmodern values is premised on reciprocal developments politically, socially, and economically, and it is gradual. Brazil and South Africa, according to the map of Inglehart (figure 3.2), stress almost the same level of authority and survival. Turkey, India, and Poland are also showing a close level of authority and survival. However, the three countries express more survival and less traditional authority than Brazil and South Africa. Apparently the five societies have been passing the change from traditional to modern values. But still those countries have a long way to go before their people become economically secure and start to prioritize the postmodern values.

If we take a look at figure 5.5 (Employeeeeship Index and HDI), we can see that Brazil, South Africa, India, and Turkey score around 4.0 on EI, while Poland scores far less than this figure. There is something common between the first four: they are medium human development countries and they express high employeeeeship. Poland, on the other hand, is classified as a high human development country and it stands by itself scoring 3.63 on EI. We notice that the five countries included in the sample express materialist values and score high on employeeeeship index, with the exception of Poland. In those four countries (Brazil, India, South Africa, and Turkey) work is crucial as it provides existential security in the era of seeking survival. It provides money, the means of obtaining security.

A similar conclusion about work vitality applies to Poland. Up to the early 1990s, Poland was ruled by the communists. With the collapse of the communist block the country moved to the free-market system. Poland has been enjoying a rapid economic growth and life span. From a GDP per capita of US\$6,520 in 1997 to US\$9,540 in 2001. This increase in income is not accompanied equally with improvement in life expectancy. Within five years life expectancy rose from 72.5 to 73.6 years. Nonetheless, Poland's HDI rank jumped from position 44 in 1999 to position 35 in 2003 (Human Development Report, 2003).

We assume the fact that Poland scores the second lowest on employeeeeship is attributed to other factors. Directing a question to Peter Björnhage, Attitude

Survey Director, Volvo Group HR (2003) about the situation of the employees there we came to know that 1) The Polish Volvo is pretty young, less than 10 years old; 2) The majority of the management is Polish who affirm the Polish national thinking despite their attempts to more actively implement the Volvo Way; 3) The employees in Poland have undergone production change. At the beginning, they initiated the production of only busses, but later they started to produce trucks as well. After closing the production of trucks, in the year 2002 they started to produce construction equipment besides the production of busses. We predict, after we visited one of the production plants in Göteborg (Tuve plant, Volvo Trucks, 2003), that the change of production line might be accompanied by a state of chaos. Employees shifting working environments, changing skills, adjusting to a different production procedure, and probably joining a new team, are all factors that definitely influence their employeeship. All the above three reasons we believe have shaped the level of commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility the Polish employees express.

Countries emphasizing secular-rational authority and well-being

Going back to figure 3.2, we notice that our sample's European countries (with the exception of Poland) are located in two geographical clusters: Catholic Europe and Northern Europe. The seven countries (Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Sweden, and UK) are located in the upper right hand on the map. This implies that they stress varying levels of secular-rational authority and well-being (self-expression). They stress postmodern values, especially Sweden. All are classified as high human development countries. Spain, Italy, Belgium, and Sweden score closely on employeeship index. The UK scores relatively higher than the four yet lower than Germany. Recalling our previous findings, France scores the lowest on the three dimensions of employeeship, and thus on EI.

The available figures in the Human Development Report (2003) show that those European countries, with the exception of Germany, did not witness a dramatic setback in their economies, despite the early 1990 and late 2000 recessions. Their HDI values have been improving over time. This implies that the values in those societies, including those towards work, towards more say on job, towards the level of stress in life, have not been radically affected. Of course, individual values might have occurred as a result of a higher unemployment rate. But in many countries that implement effective welfare systems the unemployed are still secure as they receive the unemployment

allowance. Those countries have different social security systems and different tax rates; they have, to some extent, succeeded in securing their inhabitants. Seemingly, the perception of work in their residents' minds remained less important than other things in life. They have been stressing more postmodern values than economic security since they take the latter for granted. This assumption is backed up by their relative lower scores on employeeship dimensions, especially on commitment and cooperation.

One of the two exceptions in our sample among the West European countries is Germany. Though it is classified as a high HDI country, German employees reflect high employeeship. This might be partially attributed to the empirical evidence which shows that Germany suffered a dramatic set back during the 1990s (Human Development Trends, 2003). The German unification of East and West Germany in 1990 had costs. Since then Germany has been facing the economic challenge of transforming the former East Germany from a deteriorating economy dependent on low-quality heavy industrial products to a technologically advanced market economy (Columbia encyclopedia, 2001). Unemployment in the east has remained consistently higher than that in the west, and although several larger urban centers there have begun to revive economically, most East German industrial cities remain depressed (Columbia encyclopedia, 2001)). According to Inglehart's theory (1997), the collapse of security would result in a gradual shift back towards materialist priorities. Based on this explanation, we speculate that maximizing individual economic gains, or stressing materialist values, has become more important to the German than it used to be prior to the unification. We anticipate that the importance of work is slightly changing from emphasis on quality of the work experience to emphasis on maximizing income. This might, to some extent, explain why Volvo employees in Germany score high on employeeship. There might also be other factors which we will tackle in the following sections.

The second outlier among the West European countries is France. Previously owned by Renault, the employees of Volvo in France score the lowest on the employeeship index. They also rank last in the three dimensions of employeeship and almost within the three occupational categories as well. As expected, the acquisition of Renault Truck by Volvo Group created a new environment for the French employees. According to Lavaty and Kleiner (2001) the French people are proud of their culture's influence on the aspects of life. They believe that France has set the foundations for democracy, justice,

government, philosophy, science, and other things (Lavaty and Kleiner, 2001). The authors also reveal that the French people love their own culture and language and that they are willing to do anything to maintain it (2001). Upon the acquisition of Renault by Volvo Group, we interpret that the French started to sense a menace to their working culture. The French employees had their own “Renault culture or French companies’ culture” (Björnhage, 2003). Resistance has been high to the Volvo culture. Evidently, the French employees have not yet developed a sense of belonging to the Swedish Volvo. This lack of identification within Volvo explains why they score low on employeeship index.

Countries emphasizing traditional authority and well-being

The USA is located in the lower right hand side of Inglehart’s map (figure 3.2). The American population stress well-being but at the same time maintain traditional authority. Inglehart’s finding leads us to assume that American employees possess modern values. This implies that Americans stress more bureaucratization, hierarchical institutions, scientific rationality, and economic efficiency. Work value is expected to be equally important for them as to any other modern society. We expected that they would express more employeeship, yet, they score lower than other countries stressing modern values on EI. The American sample of this study consists of a majority of Volvo Group employees. Actually, part of those employees belong to Mack organization which belonged to Renault VI before the acquisition of Renault VI by Volvo Group in early 2000s. We ascribe the low employeeship expressed to the organizational turbulence and integration problems that the American employees have been experiencing in the post acquisition phase.

Unclassified

Both Malaysia and Thailand are not included in Inglehart’s study; therefore we cannot locate them on his map. Taking a look at the development of HDI in the last years for Thailand and Malaysia (both have medium HDI) we can observe a rapid change in the value of HDI prior to the Asian financial crisis. Both Malaysia and Thailand were among the top ten performers in the period between 1960-1992 with absolute increase in HDI (Human Development Trends, 2003). The two countries made unprecedented progress till the end of 1980s as illustrated in the Human Development Trends, 2003. Life expectancy and income rose significantly in both. Life expectancy in Malaysia and Thailand rose by 19 and 13 years, respectively, in less than 50 years. Similar

trend is applicable for income. Income in both countries became five times larger than it was in the early 1960s (Human Development Trends, 2003). This leads us to anticipate that the two countries express modern values.

Based on these developments, we speculate that Malaysia and Thailand would express more employeeship than the European countries. Surprisingly, less employeeship is expressed in these two countries than expected, especially in Malaysia. We have no solid grounds to explain this result.

In the previous text we analyzed the influence of modern and postmodern values on employeeship. To give an overall picture of our understanding we have developed a map where the distribution of the countries is based on their score on employeeship index and HDI value. We have clustered the countries taking the above description as a premise. Figure 6.1 depicts our map.

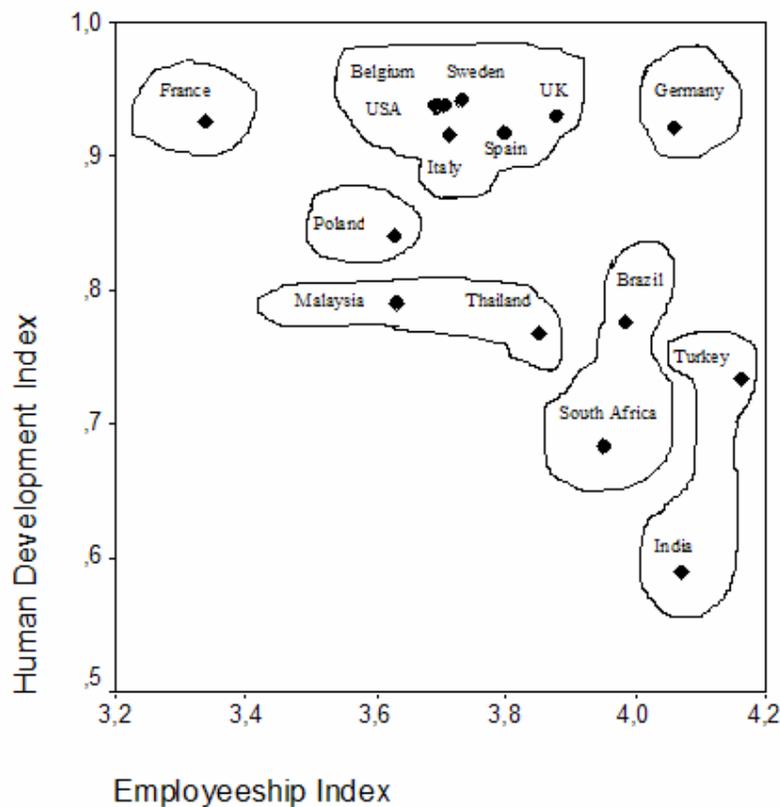


Figure 6.1: Employeeship Map

To conclude this section, basically we see that postmodern countries show less employeeship than traditional and modern societies. This is due to the value shift theory. In some cases, such as France, Poland, and USA, we expected to

see more employeeship expressed. However, organizational or production change have negatively affected employeeship expressed in those countries. Especially on commitment, the three countries score a much lower value than other countries (see figure 5.6).

6.3 Occupational category and employeeship

In the previous section, we gave general explanations of employeeship differences between the countries. In this section we shall look into the variations among the three occupational categories, considering the three employeeship dimensions. First, blue collar workers, white collar workers, and management teams score differently on the employeeship index (see table 5.3). We found that management teams score the highest on EI, followed by white collar workers and blue collar workers. The same order is observed when we examined the scores of the three different dimensions of employeeship among the three employment categories. Blue collar workers score the lowest on all EI dimensions. Second, we could see that the negative correlation between HDI and the employeeship index is strongly and significantly observed in the blue collar workers' category ($r = -.859^{**}$, $p = .001$, $N = 10$). This finding is not astonishing. We could see that blue collar workers in lower HDI countries score higher on commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility than their colleagues in high HDI countries. We could not find a similar or an opposite pattern among white collar workers and management teams. There is no significant correlation between HDI and EI, and between HDI and EI dimensions, within the two categories. These findings drive us to search for what distinguishes blue collar workers from white collar workers and management.

In a research study to cross examine the beliefs about work between managers and blue collar workers, Dickson and Buchholz (1979) found out that motivation, commitment to a profession and organization, and beliefs about work are different among both. Both researchers approved the impact of national culture in differentiating beliefs about work; yet they stressed that occupational category has an influence, too.

Why management and white collar workers score higher on the employeeship index than the blue collar workers? Table 5.1 reveals that management teams in all countries, except for Turkey and India, score the highest. Almost two thirds

of the countries' white collar workers give higher values on EI than blue collar workers, but almost all countries' white collar workers score less than management. It is difficult to infer why white collar workers in some countries show more employeeship and in others they score less than blue collar workers. However, from our own working experience, we can anticipate why management scores the highest. First, managers usually set examples for the employees. They are leaders and they attempt to show a higher level of commitment, better cooperation, and they assume and take more responsibility. After all, they have become managers because of their good performance. Second, our work experience draws our attention to highlight the consideration managers get from the organization in terms of benefits and personal development. Hence we assume that they are more motivated than white and blue collar workers. Some white collar workers can be managers, but in our sample we take only the lowest level of white collar workers in the organizational tree who have no subordinates.

Why employeeship is significantly, negatively correlated with HDI only on the blue collar workers level as shown in table 5.4? We will attempt to give logical reasoning in the following lines. First, postmodern values exemplified in different life styles might have influenced the blue collar workers employeeship. Survival is crucial for the blue collar workers in the lower HDI countries. They are vulnerable since they lack the economic security. Work is the means to get money and provide for living. Different circumstances apply to high HDI countries. For instance, when a blue collar loses his or her job in Sweden, income availability is taken for granted. The survival of the worker is not threatened. Compared to their colleagues in the high HDI countries, blue collar workers in lower HDI countries earn less, yet they seem to be more satisfied with their salaries. On the national level, the blue collar workers in the lower HDI countries are paid a bit above average in order to preserve the Swedishness of the product (Winterhiem, 2003). Taxes, services, and life in general are cheaper in the lower HDI countries. Considering that those societies stress more survival values, their salaries would satisfy such a nature of need. The situation is different in the high HDI countries, where life is expensive. Although work is the source of income for the blue collar workers in those countries but it seems that they are not as satisfied with its return as their colleagues in the lower HDI countries. Taxes are high and the nature of life creates more demands. Leisure, for example, has become an essential part of life and individuals and families allocate a budget for it. Blue collar workers in

high HDI countries express less commitment than those in lower HDI countries. Volvo in Sweden faces the phenomenon of blue collar workers working for a short period, around a year, and then they leave the company to accomplish other desires in their lives (Björnhage, 2003). Noticeably, other than the basic needs, life priorities are distinctive between the blue collar workers in lower and high HDI countries. The second reason that might influence the employeeship of the blue collar workers is the composition of the workforce in high HDI countries. Unfortunately, we could not get empirical evidence to explore this aspect.

The negative correlation between HDI and employeeship was only significant in the blue collar workers category. We did not find a similar pattern in either the white collar or management categories. This finding is interpreted as white collar workers in the 15 countries having something in common. The same interpretation pertains to the management teams in the sample. But it is important to highlight that white collar workers are distinctive from management teams in the 15 countries as we have the white collar workers in the lowest level in company tree. Yet there are characteristics that distinguish white collar workers and management from blue collar workers, globally. They are highly educated, specialized, earn higher salaries, and they have different career paths compared to the blue collar workers. Moreover, they have different motivations and ambitions. As indicated by a Brazilian HR manager, blue collar workers are motivated by “money, recognition, social aspects, security, challenges, [and] career opportunities” while the white are motivated by “challenges, recognition, money, career opportunities, [and] benefits” (Sônia Gurgel, Human Resource Manager, Volvo Brazil, November 2003, email). The white collar workers and the management are self-actualization motivated, while the blue collars are more money motivated. Additionally, management and white collar workers in high and lower HDI countries earn more than the blue collar workers and thus we anticipate that they have different life styles irrespective of their nationalities. Finally, in the lower HDI countries survival is more crucial for the blue collar workers than it is for the white collar workers and the managers in the same country. In general, white collar workers in lower and high HDI countries feel more secure than the blue collar workers since they possess more education and are capable of handling challenges in the knowledge era.

When we correlated HDI and the difference between employeeship expressed by the white collar workers and the blue collar workers, respectively, we found that the higher HDI a country has the larger the difference is between the two categories in that country ($r = .680^*$, $p = .015$, $N = 12$). The high HDI countries have wider gaps between the two occupational categories. When we concentrated on the high HDI countries where the two categories are included in the sample (Sweden, Belgium, Germany, USA, France, and Poland), we found that the difference between the white and blue collar workers is negatively correlated with the EI expressed by the employees ($r = -.932^{**}$, $p = .007$, $N = 6$). This finding implies that in high HDI countries, the larger the gap is between the white and blue collar workers, the lower is the employeeship expressed.

If we recall the discussion in section 6.2, we partially explained why Germany scores high on EI with the assistance of the postmodern theory. Germany is among the first five ranking countries in EI besides Turkey, India, Brazil, and South Africa. It is the only high HDI country among the five. And it is the outlier among the high HDI countries showed in Figure 6.1. Now we assume that what we have just found about the influence of occupational category helps us to give further reasonable explanation. Remembering the composition of the sample, we know that Germany has only one blue collar group. This fact distinguishes Germany from the other five high HDI countries (Sweden, Belgium, USA, France, and Poland) which score less on the EI. Based on the above finding in high HDI countries that the smaller the employeeship gap is between the white and blue collar workers the higher the EI value is obtained, we perceive the expressed German EI value a bit overvalued. We believe that the availability of more blue collar workers in the German sample would create a larger gap between the white and the blue collar workers, and thus would alter the expressed German employeeship and shift Germany's position backward on our employeeship map (figure 6.1).

To summarize, the level of human development influences employeeship within blue collar workers, while other factors affect the employeeship of white collar workers and management. Blue collar workers in lower HDI countries express more employeeship than those in the high HDI countries. Modern and postmodern values, especially the survival vs. well-being dimension, seem to shape employeeship on the blue collar level. Apparently, white collar workers

and managers perceive work importance closely across cultures whereas blue collar workers' perception is culturally dependent.

6.4 The impact of the size of the groups on employeeship

Ethnic background, age, and gender might also explain some of the variance in employeeship scores. But unfortunately we have no empirical data to support those assumptions. The only feasible investigation is the influence of the actual group size and therefore we decided to incorporate it at this level of analysis.¹

In this section we exclude management teams from our analysis for two reasons. First, they constitute only 9 % of the individuals in the sample. Second, their working groups are much different than the blue and white collar working groups. The blue collar workers in our sample are the largest in terms of number of individuals (2,375) but they come second in numbers of groups (156). The number of the blue collar groups is less than that of the white collar workers groups (202), and it outnumbers that of the management groups (46). The sample's blue collar workers are from the lowest level in the organizational tree. In general they are big groups working in production or assembly lines.

An investigation of a possible correlation between employeeship and the size of the group produces a significant negative association ($r = -.356^{**}$, $p = .000$, $N = 358$. We exclude management groups). Employees in smaller groups tend to express relatively more employeeship. The correlation between HDI and the size of the group gives a positive significant relationship ($r = .114^*$, $p = .031$, $N = 358$). We bear in mind that, though this correlation is significant, it is weak. As we found before, HDI is negatively correlated with employeeship, particularly on the blue collar level. When we only take a look at the high HDI countries we find a significant negative correlation between the size of the group and the EI ($r = -.420^{**}$, $p = .000$, $N = 237$). This correlation does not exist when we select the lower HDI countries and correlate the size of the group with the EI value ($r = -.050$, $p = .587$, $N = 121$).

In the following paragraphs, we try to look into the correlations between the EI, the size of the group, and HDI in blue and white collar groups. Table 6.1 gives an overview of the association between the EI, the size of the group, and HDI

¹ We use here the total number of the employees in the group (respondents and non-respondents).

on both white and blue collar workers levels. In order to provide further details, table 6.2 depicts the correlation between the EI dimensions and the size of the group in the two occupational categories.

Table 6.1: The size of the group, EI, and HDI

	<u>EI and Size</u>		<u>HDI and Size</u>	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
White Collar (N = 202)	-.147*	.037	.151*	.032
Blue Collar (N = 151)	-.305**	.000	.222**	.006

Table 6.2: Influence of group size on EI dimensions

	Commitment and Group Size		Cooperation and Group Size		Taking Responsibility and Group Size	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
White Collar (N = 202)	-.227**	.001	-.072	.302	-.068	.338
Blue Collar (N = 151)	-.215**	.007	-.260**	.001	-.235**	.003

The smallest blue-collar group among the sample consists of 5 employees while the largest has 52 employees. The mean for the blue collar groups' size is 17.12 persons. Excluding five cases (size of the group is over 30), we explored if there is a correlation between the size of the group and employeeship on the blue collar level. A negative significant correlation exists (table 6.1). This is interpreted as the following: the size of the group influences employeeship expressed by that group. Since the correlation is negative, we interpret this as the larger the blue collar group the less employeeship the employees in this group express. We also find that smaller working groups seem to be present in lower HDI countries (table 6.1).

In our sample high HDI countries tend to have bigger groups of blue collar workers while lower HDI countries have fewer. For high HDI countries the mean size of the blue collar groups is 19.38 persons while it is 13.79 persons in lower HDI countries. One explanation for the low employeeship observed in the high HDI countries and the high employeeship seen in the lower HDI countries might be attributed to the size of the group. The blue collar employees in the high HDI countries are less satisfied (score less on

employeeeship index) than those in the lower HDI countries. Larger groups are a direct outcome of decentralization in organizations, especially in high HDI countries where automation is widely utilized. Smaller blue collar groups, on the other hand, tend to exist in organizations in lower HDI countries in our study where, according to Inglehart (1997), societies are more centralized, hierarchical, and bureaucratized. Usually larger groups work in assembly lines. Employees are expected to be independent and perform with the least amount of supervision. This implies that those blue collar workers in large groups in high HDI countries get less attention from the supervisor than their colleagues in the lower HDI countries. Moreover they are expected, and requested, to cooperate more and to take more responsibility and work more independently.

For the sake of exploring the grounds of the above finding, we correlated the actual size of the blue collar groups with the dimensions of employeeeship. The empirical findings are surprising. The size of the group is not strongly but significantly, negatively correlated with commitment, cooperation, and taking responsibility as table 6.2 shows. To start with commitment, we believe that in larger groups the individual performance is not closely appreciated by the supervisor. Employees get less attention from the supervisor. Thus, their feeling of commitment is reversely influenced. Regarding cooperation, the larger the group is the more likely conflicts occur and the less go ahead spirit in the group persists. Finally, the negative correlation between the expressed taking responsibility and the size of the group can be attributed to the difficulty for one to express oneself, to influence overall working situation, and to be consulted by supervisor in larger groups.

A similar direction of the correlation between employeeeship and group size appears also in the white collar category as it appears in table 6.1. Though this correlation is weak, it is significant. The mean for the size of the white collar groups is 9.28 persons. A correlation between HDI and the group size of the white collar workers produced significant (weak) positive association (table 6.1). To put it differently, we should not be surprised to see large groups of white collar workers in high HDI countries. Actually we find that the mean size of the white collar groups in high HDI countries is 9.67 persons while that for the same occupational category in lower HDI countries is 8.29 persons. Dissimilar to the blue collar workers, the size of the group of the white collar workers does not influence the level of cooperation and taking responsibility in

the groups (table 6.2). Commitment, as is the case with the blue collar workers, is affected by the size of the group of the white collar workers ($r = -.227^{**}$).

To conclude this section, big groups tend to exist in high HDI countries (both blue and white collar workers). The fact that high HDI countries have larger blue collar groups influences their scores on employeeship index negatively. White collar workers' group size also influences their employeeship somewhat. However, it is essential to highlight that those big white collar workers groups which are mostly apparent in the high HDI countries are not necessarily the same groups that score significantly lower on the employeeship index.

6.5 Does leadership have an impact on employeeship?

In the last section we came across leadership when we tried to explain why blue collar workers in larger groups show less employeeship. This motivates us to allocate a separate section for this issue with the purpose of investigating deeply the impact of leadership on employeeship. We exclude management from our analysis as they are top management and definitely their working environment is unlike that of blue and white collar workers.

From VAS we choose the following questions that we believe are directly related to leadership perceived behavior and investigate the relationship between those questions and employeeship on blue and white collar workers. The questions are categorized into five areas: respect, trust, personal development, commutation, and recognition.

Respect

5. Does your immediate manager/supervisor show you respect?

Trust

1. Do you feel that your working group is well managed?

59. Do you feel that your company is well managed?

Personal Development

41. Do you feel that your personal planning/development discussions are worthwhile?

60. Do you have a personal development plan, or similar document?

23. Does your immediate manager/supervisor show an interest in your personal development?

Communication

43. Does your immediate manager / supervisor make clear demands on you?
 15. Are you satisfied with the information you receive from the top management of your company?

Recognition

30. Are you sufficiently recognized and appreciated for the work you do?

We found that there is a positive, strong correlation between employeeship and the chosen questions. The following table (6.3) illustrates the findings.

Table 6.3: Leadership and Employeeship

	Employeeship All categories ²		<i>Employeeship Blue Collar</i>		<i>Employeeship White Collar</i>	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Employeeship Index	1.000	.	1.000	.	1.000	.
Question 1	.678**	.005	.858**	.000	.729**	.002
Question 5	.704**	.003	.853**	.000	.656**	.008
Question 15	.645**	.009	.805**	.002	.509	.053
Question 23	.632*	.011	.701*	.011	.501	.057
Question 30	.652**	.008	.748**	.005	.476	.073
Question 41	.784**	.001	.820**	.001	.707**	.003
Question 43	.597*	.019	.674*	.016	.545*	.036
Question 59	.742**	.002	.751**	.005	.578*	.024
Question 60	.524*	.045	.633*	.027	.343	.211

Note: N = 15 in all categories, 12 in blue collar workers, and 15 in white collar workers. *r* is significant at the level of .01 with p** and at the level of 0.5 with the p* (2-tailed).

The employeeship (all categories) columns in Table 6.3 show that a strong correlation exists between employeeship from one hand and each of the questions on the other hand. The view of the employee that 1) respect is shown

² Those results are based on the aggregated file “means of countries” (N = 15). This file has the means of the countries derived from all the categories included in our sample from that country. When we run the analysis on the file “means of countries and categories” (N = 41), we get a stronger correlation on all those questions. The correlation is significant at the level of 1% for all the leadership related questions.

from supervisor, 2) that the group is well managed (revealing trust to the organization), 3) that he or she gets individual concern on personal development, 4) that clear and sufficient communication is available, and 5) that recognition for ones work is attained, are all positively correlated with employeeship. If we look into the association of those dimensions and employeeship on the blue collar level, we see that the strong correlation is present on all leadership questions. On the white collar level, only some questions are significantly correlated while others are not. Respect, trust, satisfaction with personal development discussions, and getting clear information from manager significantly influence employeeship on the white collar level.

Though we could find a significant, negative correlation between HDI and employeeship, a similar association in our mixed sample (when all categories are included) is not found between HDI and the leadership related questions. Only on the blue collar workers level we can see a correlation between HDI and three questions in the personal development area. The correlation is negative ($r = -.635^*$, $p = 0.026$ between HDI and question 23, $r = -.682^*$, $p = 0.015$ between HDI and question 41, and $r = -.666^*$, $p = 0.018$ between HDI and question 60). This means that blue collar workers in high HDI countries are not satisfied with the individual concern on their personal development from their supervisors or direct managers. We have also shown that it is the blue collar groups in high HDI countries that express lower employeeship. This might imply that it is the lack of attention given by supervisors or managers for blue collar employees' personal development that has a negative impact on their employeeship. This assumption is based on the previous finding that the larger the group is the less employeeship is expressed. When it comes to the white collar category, no correlation is found between HDI and all leadership questions. An explanation for previous finding that employeeship is not significantly, negatively correlated with HDI on the white collar level is that no pattern is available that links national differences with leadership questions.

To conclude this section, leadership influences employeeship most apparently in the blue collar category. Employeeship is flourishing under circumstances of managers showing respect to employees, employees trusting the management of the group and the organization, employees being satisfied with the attention for their personal development, employees getting clear and sufficient

information from management, and employees obtaining sufficient recognition from the manager.

6.6 Combining the analysis

Combining the analysis of the above four sections (6.2 to 6.5), we get several conclusions. First, employees in postmodern societies in our sample express less employeeeeship than those in traditional and modern societies. Organizational turbulence also influences the level of employeeeeship expressed. Second, considering HDI, the most apparent decline or increase in the expressed employeeeeship is observed on the blue collar workers level. Excluding blue collar workers from the sample, we find no significant correlation between HDI and employeeeeship. Third, management and white collar workers express more employeeeeship than blue collar workers. Though HDI and EI are significantly correlated on the blue collar level, we do not claim that since such a correlation does not exist on the white collar workers and management levels the two categories would possess similar modern or postmodern values in the 15 countries. Other factors distinguish them (white collar and management) from the blue collar workers and influence their score on employeeeeship other than their country's HDI values. Fourth, in high HDI countries, or in countries stressing postmodern values, larger groups of both blue and white collar workers tend to exist. We attribute this phenomenon to automation, decentralization, and the nature of the job. Employeeeeship is negatively correlated with the size of the group. Therefore, we infer that larger groups in high HDI countries tend to score lower on the EI. Fifth, leadership has an impact on employeeeeship. Especially on the blue collar level, the larger the group is, the less satisfied its members are with the leadership concern of employee's personal development. Those blue collar groups convey less employeeeeship and they tend to be in high HDI countries. Finally, postmodern theory provides partial explanation for countries' variation on employeeeeship. It explains only the difference between the countries on the blue collar level.

Chapter 7 : Conclusion

7.1 Concluding the findings and analysis

Employeeeeship is a new concept employed to describe how employees are handling the more active role in their work when they are assumed to be prepared for taking more responsibility. In this paper, based on theories and our own understanding, we first built a model of employeeeeship containing three dimensions: commitment, taking responsibility, and cooperation. By using the attitude survey (2003) of Volvo Group and Volvo Car Corporation, we described employeeeeship in 15 countries and in three occupational categories (namely blue collar, white collar and management), and what differences are between countries and between categories.

HDI has been introduced and employed throughout the study to reflect countries' differences, though we admit that it does not provide comprehensive information about a country's culture. HDI is one component of the contextual frame of postmodernism theory but it does not represent postmodernism completely. Yet, HDI is significantly, positively correlated with countries expressing postmaterialist values in this study's sample. Postmodernization reflects a shift of what people want out of life (Inglehart, 1998). Work is not as important to the people living in postmodern societies as it is to those living in modern or traditional societies. The value change from traditionalism to modernization and then to postmodernization transforms basic norms governing politics, work, religion, family and sexual behavior (Inglehart, 1998). We are describing a work related concept, and naturally the change in values will be reflected in work. In this study, we believe that the three dimensions of employeeeeship mirror work related values.

The empirical data show that employeeeeship differs between countries and categories. Certain countries score higher on the employeeeeship dimensions and hence on employeeeeship index than others. The former countries include Turkey, India, and Germany while the latter mainly consist of Poland and France. On the occupational level, the management teams express the highest employeeeeship, followed by white and blue collar workers, respectively. Management score highest on all employeeeeship dimensions.

At the beginning of the study, based on Hofstede's theory, we assumed that the main distinction of employeeship across borders would be largely attributed to national cultural differences. However, we could not prove that commitment and cooperation are more expressed in high HDI countries that are characterized by high individualism and lower power distance. Regarding taking responsibility, we could not find a correlation with HDI, and thus with power distance. Nonetheless, by this conclusion, we do not eliminate the impact of culture on employeeship since our results are significantly correlated with HDI but in an opposite direction to that assumed in our hypotheses.

Employees in traditional and modern societies express more employeeship, particularly the blue collar workers, than those in postmodern societies. Nonetheless, postmodern theory provides incomplete explanation for the variance found across societies. Only blue collar workers' expressed employeeship is strongly correlated with HDI, thus to some extent with postmodernism. Factors other than a country's human development level influence the white collar and management level of employeeship. Such elements could be occupational category, the size of the group, and leadership. The size of the group is found to impact employeeship of white and blue collar workers. Employees in larger groups are likely to score less on the employeeship index, especially in high HDI countries. We found that larger groups tend to be present in high HDI countries. Looking beyond the size of the group, we notice that the different levels of attention an employee gets from his or her supervisor or manager affects his or her degree of employeeship. Upon looking into the influence of leadership on employeeship, one of the most interesting findings indicates that on the blue collar level more apparent employeeship prevails in lower HDI countries where group size is smaller and where managers or supervisors are perceived as allocating satisfactory attention to employees' personal development.

At the beginning of our thesis we pointed out that the emergence of employeeship is a call for the change in the business environment, accompanied by organizational decentralization and employee empowerment. Considering the background of employeeship, one would expect that the larger the size of the working group is, the more employeeship would be observed. However, our findings show that it is not always the case. It seems that employees in larger groups are not, and have not been, prepared well for

handling the more active role when they are assumed to take more responsibility, which leads to a lower level of employeeship.

The reader might question what we wrote at the beginning of this paper when it was stated that employeeship originated in the Nordic countries and Sweden is considered the homeland of the concept (*medarbetarskap*). How come Sweden is not ranking high on employeeship in comparison to the other countries then? As we introduced in chapter two, the Swedish *medarbetarskap* stresses involvement, being proactive and taking initiative. Both our model and *medarbetarskap* emphasize taking responsibility. Yet our model gives equal weight also to commitment and cooperation. Despite the relatively low rank of Sweden (9) on the employeeship index, the Swedish employees score relatively high on taking responsibility dimension. On the other hand, their commitment is the second lowest after France. Recalling that Sweden is the most postmodern country in the world (Inglehart, 1997), it is understandable to see Sweden ranking high on taking responsibility. People in postmodern societies stress more individual autonomy, more say on the job, and self-expression. The very low ranking on commitment can be attributed to the value held by Swedish employees about work importance and balance between life and work. In cooperation, Sweden scores in the middle.

7.2 Implications of the study

Tengblad (2003b) reveals that employeeship will go along with social development. To elaborate more on this statement, it is believed that employees in postmodern countries will express more employeeship than those in modern societies. The economical change from industrial to postindustrial society is assumed to lead to employees' appreciating more responsibility; more say on the job, and self-expression. The fact that they work independently in network organizations is believed to provide the proper environment for employeeship to flourish. However, our findings reveal another picture in which employees in modern societies express more employeeship than those in postmodern societies. Commitment is found to be the strongest correlated with HDI, followed by cooperation. In other words, there is a wide gap in expressed commitment between employees in modern and postmodern societies. Thus our results challenge previous thoughts that employeeship accompanies social development in the same direction.

Besides adding knowledge to the field of employeeship, we believe this thesis gives implications to the management in multinational companies. First, this study raises the awareness of employeeship differences across borders. People working with international assignments or related international leadership training programs benefit from our findings by mastering knowledge about different levels of employeeship and the ground for the difference between the countries. For those expatriate managers and employees, the study is also considered informative. Second, the distinction of employeeship between the three employment (occupational) categories is meaningful. By reading our thesis local management becomes aware of what influences employeeship. Consequently, they can take into consideration the different management styles they need to adopt when managing different employees (blue and white collar workers).

7.3 Suggestion on further research

At the end of the paper, we suggest that further research on employeeship is interesting and necessary to conduct. The first suggestion could be the investigation of how organizational culture influences employeeship. At the beginning of our study we delimited ourselves and excluded organizational culture from our thesis. However, we realize that the organizational environment and the way things are done have an impact on employeeship within the organization. Second, demographic factors, such as age, gender, educational background and so forth might shape employeeship, thus they are worth being studied as well. Third, an appealing topic might be to come across the factors shaping employeeship on the management and white collar levels. Finally, a research about the impact of employeeship on profitability would provide further insights.

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Appendices

Appendix One: Sample's Population

a) Volvo Cars

Country	Number of employees
Sweden	20900
UK	278
Belgium	3815
Germany	226
Spain	85
USA	598
Italy	97
Turkey	25
Thailand	500
Malaysia	354

b) Volvo Group

Country	Trucks	IT	CE	Penta	Parts	FS	Buss	Power Train
Thailand	74							
USA	1550	402						
Brazil	1863		284					
Italy	57			28	14	47		
UK	1720	93				84		
S. Africa	193						99	
Germany	149					49		
Spain	54			32		30		
Sweden	4965							
Malaysia		14						
Poland							834	
Turkey	37		45	6				
India	332							
Belgium	1585							
France								1746

Appendix Two: Sample Description

Table One: Sample Size (Countries, Individuals, and Groups)

Country	Total Size		Volvo Group Size		Volvo Corporation Size		Cars
	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals	
Sweden	73	1009	30	415	43	594	
UK	17	127	14	107	3	20	
Germany	16	127	13	108	3	19	
Belgium	40	416	25	291	15	125	
France	42	458	42	458			
Spain	16	96	12	76	4	20	
Italy	16	139	10	88	6	51	
Poland	27	372	27	372			
Turkey	12	91	10	77	2	14	
India	16	142	16	142			
Thailand	27	329	5	66	22	263	
Malaysia	22	246	2	14	20	232	
South Africa	22	216	22	216			
Brazil	33	343	33	343			
USA	25	359	20	327	5	32	
Total	404	4470	281	3100	123	1370	

Table Two: Sample Size (Occupational Category)

Category	Volvo Group		Volvo Corporation		Total Size		% of Total Size (Individuals)
	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals	Groups	Individuals	
Blue Collar workers	105	1641	51	734	156	2375	53
White Collar workers	149	1221	53	486	202	1707	38
Management teams	27	238	19	150	46	388	9
Total	281	3100	123	1370	404	4470	100

Appendix Three: Personal Reflections

Nine months ago we first discussed our thesis topic with our supervisor, Stefan Tengblad. Finally we submit our finished work in which the preparation was accompanied by difficulties, confusion, excitement, happiness, and other complex feelings. We are delighted that we could finally not only finish the thesis but also fulfill our learning objectives. And also this part is dedicated to summarizing some of what we have learned closely with what we mention in the thesis.

First of all, our understanding about the roles of managers and employees has changed. Both of us have studied business and management in our undergraduate degree before carrying out this research on employeeship. We believed that managers were those in organizations who are responsible for planning, organizing, controlling, staffing, and leading. They set clear lines of employees' responsibilities. Employees are followers who should obey rules and only be responsible for finishing his or her duty. Bureaucracy and formal communication are vital parts in management for control purposes. It is good if employees can assume more responsibility and take initiative, but this is not necessarily a must for average employees. Now, after being involved in this 9 month process of research, we have realized that this traditional perception on the roles of managers and employees is no longer appealing to many organizations. The emergence of employeeship indicates that there is a need for employees to take more responsibility and be able to take a more active role instead of passively following. Hierarchy and bureaucracy are not the only means for managing an organization, flat structure with decentralization and empowerment is getting popular and employees should plan, organize, and control their own work without close supervision. In short, we have gained a new and different view of management, and this will guide us in our future work whether we work as managers or subordinates. As managers, we realize that more attention should be paid to employees rather than only focusing on leadership. As subordinates, independency and taking responsibility are key factors in present employees' lives.

Second, we have obtained a deeper understanding of medarbetarskap. Actually, what we first tackled in the thesis study was this Swedish term. At the beginning we did not have a concrete idea of the meaning of medarbetarskap and we just believed that it was something Swedish. After conducting this

study, we tend to realize that medarbetarskap stresses similar connotation to that emphasized by employeeship. Employees assuming and taking more responsibility (a more active role) is the core of both terms. This means that medarbetarskap (employeeship) can be operationalized not only in Sweden, but in other countries as well.

Third, this study taught us to take a critical perspective on selecting and using theories when writing a scientific paper. We used to trust what famous authors wrote in their books and articles, without reconsidering the validity of their claims. Since our findings in this thesis show incompatible results with some researchers, we feel it is necessary sometimes to challenge others' studies. By doing so we open the door for deeper exploration of the topic and we might also highlight some problems lying in the previous research.

Last but not least, the experience of writing the thesis by two students who have different national, educational, and work experience backgrounds admittedly has enriched our learning experience greatly. We had very constructive discussions with each other. Our individual strengths were maximized when we worked together. A conducive atmosphere has been maintained all the way in the team and our individual differences created the synergy desired in any diverse group.