
Book Review Section

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Editorial

Book Reviewing as an Important Scholarly Activity

Editor's Note: This editorial was coauthored with former Personnel Psychology Book Review editors, Robert G. Jones and Lynn Summers.

Recently, we (Jones, Fleenor & Summers, 2004) lamented that, in many academic institutions, writing book reviews seems to be undervalued as a scholarly activity. When tenure and promotion decisions are made, the authors of book reviews often receive little or no credit for their work. For us, this raises four important issues. First, how can faculty members enhance their own and as well as their students' knowledge without critically analyzing the most recent ideas published in books? Second, although faculty members rely on book reviews for making decisions about which texts to adopt for their courses, they have no incentive for sharing their own reviews with their colleagues. Third, although publishing scholarly books is highly regarded in most academic institutions, reviewing these books is not. Fourth, important standards for scientific and professional activities are communicated, and even emerge, through book reviewing.

According to Lowman (1999), keeping current in one's field is an important ethical responsibility for psychologists. Although it is often difficult to keep fully abreast of recent developments in the field, book reviews can provide a "just-in-time" version of the latest ideas. Moreover, important trends in our field are often first presented in book format. Book reviews, therefore, can help to advance the field through knowledge dissemination, as well as through the development of new research questions.

Our international colleagues tell us that the book review section of this journal is highly valued by the global community as an excellent source of the latest thinking. Many practitioners and graduate students also consider the book review section to be an invaluable resource for keeping up-to-date on the latest developments relevant to our profession. Given these important contributions of book reviews, why then are they given such a low weighting by those evaluating scholarly productivity? Although book reviews clearly do not go through the same vetting process as do journal articles, we would argue that they should be given similar weighting to, for example, participating in a symposium at a conference. We encourage faculty to include their diligently written, well-researched, and truly critical book reviews as significant components of their vitas, and to attempt to persuade university decision makers to reconsider the

relative contributions of book reviews to our profession. It is our hope that, in the foreseeable future, the authors of book reviews will begin to receive recognition that is commensurate with the value of this important scholarly activity.

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Margaret S. Stockdale and Faye J. Crosby (Editors). **The Psychology and Management of Workplace Diversity**. Victoria, Australia: Blackwell, 2004, 377 pages, \$34.95 softcover.

Reviewed by *James L. Outtz*, President, Outtz and Associates, Washington, D.C.

Workplace diversity is a subject of increasing importance to a broad spectrum of individuals including researchers, practitioners, educators and employers. The *Psychology and Management of Workplace Diversity* makes a tremendously valuable contribution to the intellectual discussion. Each of the 14 chapters makes a unique contribution to the overall quality of the volume. The virtually seamless writing style across chapters makes sometimes complex concepts easier to grasp.

The purpose of the book is to make the case that it is important for American organizations to learn to manage diversity. In presenting the arguments, the book makes clear what diversity means and why managing it properly is of vital importance today. The authors of the various chapters (a) define what is meant by workplace diversity; (b) show why workplace diversity is important (e.g., what benefits can an organization expect from managing workplace diversity well); (c) provide a scientific foundation based on models or theories concerning workplace diversity that can guide scientific research; and (d) demonstrate through a comprehensive review of the extant scientific literature that the information presented is well researched. The volume accomplishes all of these tasks quite well. This book is written primarily for students, but it is a must read for anyone who wishes to understand the complexities of managing workplace diversity.

This book consists of four parts. Part I lays the foundation for what is to follow, by providing a clear definition of workplace diversity and spelling out arguments pro and con for its value to organizations. In Chapter 1, Hays-Thomas distinguishes diversity from the concepts of equal employment opportunity (EEO) and affirmative action. Equal employment opportunity is defined as a state in which everyone has an equal chance at employment regardless of race, sex, religion, and so on. It is a state in which discrimination is prohibited but proactive steps to further equal opportunity is not required. Affirmative action is presented as a method for achieving equal employment opportunity but it also requires employers to give at least partial attention to demographic factors (e.g., race/ethnicity, sex, etc.) in making employment decisions. Diversity management is considered to be different from affirmative action and EEO in two important ways. First, diversity management is thought to be based on scholarship and practice rather than law. Second, diversity management is considered to be a much broader concept that encompasses activities

within an organization that are designed to increase information sharing and further acceptance of cultural differences.

One of the most helpful aspects of the discussion of diversity throughout this book is that, from the outset, a distinction is made between diversity and managing diversity. Diversity is considered to be differences between people that affect the manner in which they function within an organization. Diversity management, on the other hand, involves systematic strategies and processes designed to improve interaction between diverse groups in an organization such that the organization is more effective. Thus, the authors attempt not only to explain the ways in which employees may differ but also to show that it is the proper management of their interactions within the organization that is key to organizational success. Hays-Thomas (Chapter 1) makes a strong case for the importance of managing diversity by showing that factors such as changes in the demographic composition of the American population, changes in the economy (e.g., a decrease in the manufacturing sector and an increase in the service sector) have pushed diversity management to the forefront as an issue that is, and will continue to be, of utmost importance to American organizations.

In Chapter 2, Thomas, Mack, and Montagliani attempt to debunk what they identify as five major arguments against diversity. The most impressive aspect of this chapter is that the authors buttress both sides of each argument with scientific research. That fact alone makes this chapter tremendously informative for the reader.

Part II of the book is devoted to theoretical models (and the underlying research) regarding the management of diversity. The models attempt to explain the relationships between constructs relevant to diversity management. In presenting different models, Agars and Kottke (Chapter 3) show how each model serves as a basis for testable hypotheses. Most, if not all, of the models have been developed since 1990. The earlier models were based on the common theme of organizational reactions to changing demographics. Later models (e.g., Agars & Kottke, 2002) expand the concept of diversity management into a three-stage process that evolves from the identification stage, through the implementation stage, to the maintenance stage. The model attempts to identify the characteristics of an organization that effectively manage diversity.

In Chapter 4, Stone and Stone Romero present a revision of Katz and Kahn's (1978) model of role taking in organizations to illustrate how culture-based values can influence the types of organizational roles communicated to and accepted by employees. These role interactions in turn influence work behavior.

In Chapter 5, Chrobot-Mason and Ruderman describe ways in which workplace diversity affects leadership processes such as team building, developing the talent of team members, and enhancing teamwork. After

reading this chapter, it becomes quite clear that workplace diversity will place unique demands on organization leaders as they attempt to facilitate teamwork and cooperation between increasingly diverse work groups. Chrobot-Mason and Ruderman posit that organizational leaders will need to develop additional skills in the areas of conflict management, interpersonal communication, gathering feedback information, and role modeling to effectively manage an increasingly diverse workforce.

Sagrestano (Chapter 6) makes the case that women and minorities may experience unique stressors in the workplace that can have adverse health effects. Sagrestano postulates that although these factors pose a general health risk, they can interact with demographic factors such as race or sex to pose an even greater health risk to women and minorities. As an example, Sagrestano presents research literature that suggests that jobs with equivalent job demands can produce different levels of stress depending on the decision latitude or autonomy given to the incumbent. However, additional research is presented that shows that women are overrepresented in jobs with high demand and low levels of autonomy. Thus, it may be that women are at greater risk for adverse health conditions due to this particular health risk factor.

Part III consists of Chapters 7 through 11. In each of these chapters, the author takes a closer look at the concerns of specific groups with regard to workforce diversity. However, the spectrum of groups selected for discussion in this section does not fit the usual mold. Chapters are devoted to women, African Americans, older workers, the disabled including persons who are obese, sexual minorities, and the underclass. This seems to be a departure from what one normally would expect. Unfortunately, the chapter does not include a discussion of Hispanic Americans, Asian Americans, or Native Americans. After experiencing the richness of discussion in each of the chapters in this section, one cannot help but believe that the reader would have benefited greatly from a discussion of the groups that were excluded. That said, however, each of the chapters in this section provides unique insight into the perceptions and attitudes of the group discussed. Identifying the obese, sexual minorities, and the underclass for discussion expands the concept of diversity beyond the usual boundaries. The references provided in support of each chapter are comprehensive with a couple of exceptions, such as the failure by Cokley, Dreher, and Stockdale (Chapter 8) to include more of the research relevant to racial bias in performance appraisals. They failed, for example, to cite Sackett and DuBois (1991) on the issue of raters giving higher ratings to subordinates of the same race. The Sackett and DuBois (1991) findings contradict the findings of Kraiger and Ford (1985), whom the authors do cite.

The three chapters in Part IV are devoted to strategies for creating workforce diversity (Chapter 12), the nature and status of workplace diversity

around the world (Chapter 13), and future trends. Taken together, these chapters help put the earlier chapters in perspective and offer a glimpse of what lies ahead.

This book addresses a topic that is of critical importance to U.S. organizations. As Hays-Thomas (Chapter 1) points out, changes in the demographic makeup of the workforce, globalization, growth in the service sector, and other factors have made it imperative that U.S. organizations become adept at managing workplace diversity. On the whole, this book is simply a must for anyone (student, practitioner, researcher) who seeks a comprehensive understanding of what workplace diversity means and the best ways to manage it. The breadth of research literature cited makes this book a key resource for further explorations into the topic. The writing is superb and the organization of the chapters makes movement from one chapter to the next seamless. If one were searching for a single text that provides the most information on workplace diversity supported by solid references, and written in such a way that it makes understanding practically effortless, this book fits the bill.

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Joel Lefkowitz. **Ethics and Values in Industrial-Organizational Psychology**. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2003, 493 pages, \$99.95 hardcover, \$49.95 softcover.

Reviewed by *Janet L. Kottke*, Professor, MS I-O Graduate Program, Psychology, California State University, San Bernardino, CA, and *Kathie L. Pelletier*, Doctoral Candidate, Organizational Behavior, Claremont Graduate University, Claremont, CA.

Ethics and Values in Industrial-Organizational Psychology presents theoretical and philosophical foundations of values and morality, with an emphasis on industrial-organizational (I-O) applications. The book is comprised of 15 chapters separated into four parts. The intended audience of the book is anyone with an interest in ethics and morality, but is directed at I-O scientists and practitioners.

Chapter 1 introduces justice and fairness as values central to the field of I-O psychology. Lefkowitz highlights recent events (e.g., cloning) that have increased attention to ethics and morality. His primary aim is to construct a usable synthesis of the various ethical theories and models into a framework for ethical decision making. To that end, Lefkowitz concludes each chapter with an integrated summary of chapter material and attendant suggestions for I-O psychologists and practitioners.

Part I, Moral Philosophy and Psychology, is comprised of Chapters 2 through 4. Chapter 2 introduces the concept of meta-ethics, the systematic process by which we evaluate “right” and “wrong.” Meta-ethical issues are embedded within normative ethical theories discussed in subsequent chapters. In Chapter 2, the author differentiates egoism from universalism, subjective versus objectivist theories, and ethical naturalism through an evaluation of perspectives of ancient Greek philosophers. He complements this discussion with an extensive review of the viewpoints of contemporary philosophers, theologians, and anthropologists.

In Chapter 3, Lefkowitz first explicates the distinction between the two dominant normative ethics categories, deontology and teleology, but devotes the remainder of the chapter to deontological theories. Deontological evaluations are based on the inherent “rightness or wrongness” of the action; deontological evaluations are rule based. Teleological theories consider the consequence or outcome of one’s action and are concerned with the relative risk or harm that could be inflicted as a result of the action or decision. Much of Chapter 3 critiques 17th and 18th century philosophers, including the ideas of the social contract, Laws of Natural Rights, and the development of social identity. He then applies these moral viewpoints to the realm of business using Marx’s dimensions of alienated labor. In Chapter 4, the author links the previously discussed philosophical and sociological theories to business. Teleological evaluation or “consequentialism” completes the dichotomy of ethical evaluation. He describes how *ethimetrics* can be used to quantify utility in ethical deliberations. The bottom line? We must recognize both deontology and consequentialism elicit criticism based on interpretations of rules or of outcome, but if we keep our focus on core values such as consistency of judgment and universalism, our decision is likely to be accepted.

In Chapter 5, numerous theories and models of moral psychology—examining moral reasoning with psychological, not philosophical, methods—are discussed at length. Lefkowitz expertly combines these ideas into a Developmental Model of Moral Action (DMMA). DMMA consists of 10 phases, beginning with maturation of personality, moral development, types of moral dilemmas experienced, and accompanying emotional reactions. Based on these four phases, we consider a choice (moral intention) and base our behavior on that choice. The model’s final

phase concerns contemporaneous contextual influences that lead to ethical ambivalence.

Part II is a sizable serving of values that Lefkowitz parses into seven bite-sized chapters. In Chapter 6, the author describes the forces in our lives that shape our value systems (i.e., family, culture, work, and religion) and illustrates how these value systems affect our ethical evaluation. Each of us, at some point, will be asked to behave contrary to our values (principled conflict). The chapter concludes with how to understand and respond to values conflict. In Chapter 7, Lefkowitz presents a structural-functional perspective (e.g., what function does the societal institution of the family serve?) of the espoused values of major American institutions. The bulk of the chapter addresses social justice. The author skillfully summarizes several theories of social justice into three models, allowing the reader to understand differing perspectives at a glance. Using income and wealth disparities as the gauge, he reminds us that social justice has not yet been achieved in America.

Chapter 8 defines “professions” and discusses the values and conflicts of professionals. Professions are organized around a theoretical body of knowledge, and society confers legitimate authority and sanction power to those in professions. By the very nature of professions and the value systems that make them unique, professionals are obliged to behave professionally and utilize their expertise for the benefit of the entire society. The author points out that I-O psychology falls under the category of profession and, therefore, has the responsibility to recognize competing demands and behave responsibly.

In Chapter 9 (Values in Psychology), Lefkowitz asks whether the adoption of the presumably value-free logical positivism paradigm used by the natural sciences has been fruitful for psychology. Can values be divorced from research, either in the conducting of the enterprise or in the application of its findings? No, the proponents of the postmodern—social constructionism—approach argue. The postmodern approach poses a stiff challenge to the status quo, and by extension, to the comfortableness of I-O psychologists within the confines of their organizations (academic and business).

Chapters 10 and 11 are dedicated to the political and philosophical models that underlie modern business, especially those practiced by American based firms. In Chapter 10, Lefkowitz describes and critiques the classical free-enterprise model espoused by Smith and Friedman, champions of minimal government regulation. Certainly, the classical model has provided many in the western world with a comfortable standard of living; however, it is equally true that it has not provided for all and the ethical responsibility of business to society has been, at best, tenuous. In Chapter 11, the author presents the revisionist neo-liberal, free-enterprise

model, possibly better known to readers as the corporate responsibility and multiple stakeholder model. Despite the improved “humanitarianism” of this model, Lefkowitz fairly articulates key weaknesses—limited normative justification and little empirical support of its benefit to modern corporations. That modern corporations have become so large that they can manipulate governments to their own ends is a troubling postscript of this chapter.

The last chapter (12) in this section (The Values and Ethics of Industrial-Organizational Psychology) may be the most disquieting. Lefkowitz takes the profession to task for its willingness to serve as the servants of business, which is not a new criticism. Münsterberg wrote in 1913, “Economic psychotechnics may serve certain ends of commerce and industry, but whether these ends are the best ones is not a care with which the psychologist has to be burdened.” After nearly a century, what values and ethics *can* I-O claim as our own? Lefkowitz advocates that I-O psychologists elevate humanistic values and individual worth to the level of importance accorded the organizational value of profit.

In Section III, the author shifts from decision making in mostly business contexts to the ethics of research using human participants. In the first chapter of this section (Chapter 13), he addresses the issues of informed consent and confidentiality. He presents both the ethical conundrum of informed consent and the research that suggests informed consent may not be informative. The even knottier problem of deception in research is handled in Chapter 14. Lefkowitz presents the logical arguments of the pros and cons of the use of deception, including relevant research that deception may not work as expected and may at times be counterproductive.

The final chapter (15) provides a superb conclusion to the book. After laying out the broad moral principles that are the root of ethical action, Lefkowitz guides the reader through three stages of moral and ethical problem solving. In the first stage, Lefkowitz presents seven steps that help us anticipate problems. Anticipating problems means knowing the relevant societal, professional, and individual codes that may apply to a given ethical problem. In the second stage, Lefkowitz, in a very succinct, yet remarkably representative synopsis, recapitulates the major points of the book. Finally, in the third stage, he offers a step-by-step procedure for confronting and resolving ethical dilemmas.

This book is not an easy read; however, one of its primary benefits is its ability to stimulate the reader’s moral *imagination* (Lefkowitz’s term). The book poses questions that members within the profession *should* be addressing, both to shape the collective values of the profession and to research the meaning of those questions. Those interested in conducting research in ethics will find many aspects of the book appealing as the author presents innumerable researchable issues.

Though the material of the book is not ready for immediate implementation, there is plenty for I-O practitioners to consider. Lefkowitz, in the early chapters, lays the foundation with relevant theory and models necessary for practitioners to examine their own and their organizations' morality. The later chapters provide ample fuel for taking action within organizations, perhaps, for example, to develop ethics programs that encourage awareness and moral reasoning.

This book shouldn't just be *on* everyone's bookshelf—it *ought* to be *read* by everyone in the profession.

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Michael A. West and Lynn Markiewicz. **Building Team-Based Working: A Practical Guide to Organizational Transformation**. Malden, MA: Blackwell, 2004, 172 pages, \$74.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Susan Mohammed*, Department of Psychology, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA.

In recent years, many organizations have made the transition to teams, and working interdependently has become a way of life for most employees. Nevertheless, the success of team-based functioning is not guaranteed, and teams may fail for any number of reasons. Although the focus of research and practice is often on building effective teams by attending to intragroup dynamics, work teams do not exist in a vacuum and have to interact within a broader environment. When teams are introduced without attending to the larger interteam and organizational context, they become isolated and productivity may be seriously undermined. For example, a study conducted by Mohrman, Cohen, and Mohrman (1995) concluded that “team context appeared to be the overwhelming determinant of whether a team functioned effectively in accomplishing its goals” (p. 34). Similarly, Dumaine (1994) stated that, “time and time again teams fall short on their promise because companies don't know how to make them work together with other teams” (p. 92). Despite the wealth of resources available on topics such as teambuilding, managing group conflict, and improving communication, little guidance has been available on how to develop organizations that are structured to support teams. It is, therefore, exciting to see a book that goes beyond focusing solely on teams to their context and integration. Based on the authors' diverse management and consultant experiences as well as their research in organizations over 20 years, *Building Team-Based Working* is not only timely, but also likely to be of significant appeal to practitioners in a variety of venues.

The book is organized around a six-stage model delineating how to build companies that are team-based rather than individual-based. After a brief introduction, each of the chapters is devoted to one of the six stages of developing team-based working (TBW). The first stage of TBW involves diagnosing the current stage of the organization as well as planning for successful team implementation. West and Markiewicz suggest that an implementation steering group be appointed, which should first clarify the overall goals of the organization and identify critical success factors. The next step is to understand the existing structure, culture, and extent of team functioning in an organization, and a set of diagnostic questions and employee surveys is provided to assist with this exercise. An implementation process should then be developed, which is focused around the three key areas for the introduction of TBW: organizational context (top management support, reward structure, resistance to change), team structure (e.g., team composition, leadership, norms), and team processes (member motivation, skills, performance strategies).

Stage II involves developing support systems to enhance the effectiveness of TBW. Because building a team-based organization entails pervasive changes that extend far beyond intrateam dynamics, all aspects of a company's human resource management system should be evaluated in order to ensure that teams have a nurturing environment in which to operate. Therefore, the book covers how performance appraisals, rewards, selection, training, communication, team process support, feedback, and interteam processes should be adapted to best support team functioning. The third stage of TBW involves establishing criteria for team leader and member selection as well as implementing appropriate recruitment and selection processes. The overlapping approaches of managing, coaching, and leading are explored, and a list of competencies required in each of these areas is discussed. Team leader training needs, such as facilitation skills, conflict resolution, and promoting innovation are identified. With regard to selecting team members, West and Markiewicz advocate assessing interpersonal as well as self-management knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Ensuring that teams work effectively comprises Stage IV of TBW. Specific topics addressed in this chapter include deciding what tasks teams will perform in the organization, determining the team vision, ensuring high levels of interaction and information sharing, improving decision making quality, encouraging creativity, and understanding why conflict occurs and how it can be handled. Stage V of TBW entails reviewing and sustaining team effectiveness. Key responsibilities include setting the criteria for performance evaluation and identifying required changes to improve performance. Emphasis is given to the reflexivity cycle or the process by which teams reflect upon their objectives and strategies, plan appropriate

changes, and take action. Questionnaires are provided to identify causes of underperforming teams, monitor the degree to which teams are moving towards autonomy, evaluate the climate for teamworking, diagnose team innovativeness, assess member satisfaction, and indicate the level of team reflexivity. The authors also recommend supplementing surveys with interviews and provide a list of sample questions to ask in focus groups.

The final stage involves conducting an organizational-level assessment in order to evaluate the contribution of TBW to overall effectiveness and make the necessary changes to ensure optimal team contributions. West and Markiewicz point out that the focus of this stage is not to determine whether teams are functioning effectively, but whether the team-based organization is producing desired results. As much effort should be put into between-team relationships as within-team relationships in team-based organizations, and a diagnostic tool to assess intergroup relations is offered. Finally, the need for a long-term perspective and continual review of TBW processes is emphasized.

Building Team-Based Working is oriented toward an audience of managers, HR professionals, and consultants. The writing style is straightforward and clearly organized, with numerical lists offering a step-by-step sequencing of activities to be accomplished and bulleted items summarizing points succinctly. Each chapter begins by highlighting key aims, key tasks, and key people needed for the specific implementation stage discussed. Throughout the text, checklists of key milestones to be achieved as well as lists of criteria to be considered are provided. Furthermore, numerous surveys are offered for each stage of the TBW implementation process. Guidance is provided regarding who should complete the questionnaires (e.g., team leaders, customers, team members) as well as how the surveys should be scored and interpreted (e.g., scores below X indicate ineffective levels of organizational support). In addition to the questionnaire items being printed in the text, an accompanying CD contains measures that can be copied. Although the book is primarily designed for use by practitioners who are transitioning from individually based to TBW, it is also likely to be useful to those who are seeking to improve existing team functioning in their organizations. Furthermore, this text may also be of interest to academics. Because the teams literature is often criticized for failing to attend to the broader organizational context in which work groups operate (e.g., Kozlowski & Bell, 2003), the content of this book may help to generate ideas for future research. Team researchers may also find the questionnaires beneficial in their work.

Throughout the text, concrete guidelines are offered for specific stages of the TBW process. For example, West and Markiewicz suggest that the ideal size for implementation steering group meetings is between 8 and 12. They recommend that there be no more than four levels in the

organizational hierarchy after TBW implementation, and preferably even fewer. The authors also anticipate that initial TBW implementation will take at least 1 year, and ensuring that the changes are solidly instantiated within the organization will take another 2 years. In addition to firm guidance, specific techniques are described in detail to assist managers with team-related activities, including role negotiation exercises to help clarify member workloads and the stepladder approach for improving decision making. A case study of developing TBW in a health care organization is offered, but it would have been beneficial to have multiple case studies depicting the various stages of the TBW implementation process. Similarly, examples from the authors' experiences are clustered primarily in the last chapter, but distributing them more generously throughout the book would have provided better illustration of the concepts being discussed.

The advice and insights offered in the book derive from a sound research base. For example, the social psychological research on intergroup bias is reviewed and provides the basis for recommendations on how to increase the quantity and quality of interteam contact in organizations. However, rather cursory treatment is given to the topics of team composition and team conflict resolution, and drawing from the growing number of studies in these areas would have helped to bolster these sections. In addition, although virtual (geographically dispersed) and diverse teams are mentioned briefly from time to time, the book does not go into detail on the unique challenges faced by these group types.

Because the chapters consist largely of bulleted items, numbered lists, and checklists, there is the risk of oversimplifying a topic as complex and multifaceted as building an organizational context that successfully supports team functioning. However, from the introduction of the book, West and Markiewicz are careful to emphasize that there are no simple, "one-size-fits-all" prescriptions for implementing effective TBW, necessitating the need to constantly ask what interventions are most appropriate for what teams during what points in time. Because TBW requires multiple, pervasive changes throughout the entire organization, the reader is frequently reminded of inevitable setbacks and prepared for a tough and lengthy journey. However, the authors anticipate implementation problem areas and provide specific solutions. For example, during the initial stages, it is important to understand the reasons why employees might resist a change to TBW, and strategies for confronting defensive routines are offered. Because effective TBW takes years to implement, impatience is also predicted to be an issue. According to West and Markiewicz, common errors that organizations make with TBW include giving teams inappropriate tasks that do not require interdependence, failing to empower teams with adequate autonomy to make and implement decisions, placing teams in an individually based organizational context, nominating traditional

supervisors for team leadership roles, and failing to ensure that interteam cooperation norms are developed early in the life of a team.

Nevertheless, the risks and potential problems associated with TBW are balanced out by remembering the benefits and potential rewards, which include increased innovation, retention of learning, efficiency, effectiveness, flexible response to change, and member involvement. Through the insights and suggestions offered by West and Markiewicz, practitioners can minimize the disadvantages and maximize the advantages of creating team-based organizations that promote the development of organizational objectives, involve employees fully, and develop a culture that supports innovation.

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Randall S. Peterson and Elizabeth A. Mannix (Editors). **Leading and Managing People in the Dynamic Organization**. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2003, 280 pages, \$59.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Marie T. Dasborough*, The UQ Business School, University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia.

As individuals, in our personal and professional lives we are challenged with the struggle between the desire for stability and the desire for change. So too, organizations face the struggle for both consistency and flexibility, to reap the benefits of both. The purpose of this book is to present a collection of essays on dynamic organizations and to explore how organizations are also dealing with this paradox. Just as the title of the book indicates, the focus is on people within these organizations and how best to manage and to lead them in dynamic conditions. The motivation for this book was an academic symposium on “Understanding the Dynamic Organization.” Given the amount of uncertainty and change facing organizations today, there is no need for me to argue the relevance and timeliness for such a symposium or book.

Because the chapters in this book originated from a conference, each chapter was peer reviewed prior to its inclusion in the book. As a result, each chapter is clearly written, comprehensive, and insightful. Based on this, my review of the book will focus not on critically evaluating each of the chapters, but rather the book as a whole.

In the Series Forward, Brief and Walsh put forward the suggestion that the contents of the book will provide “a challenge, for managers to do and for scholars to understand.” Although the target audience is likely to comprise both practitioners and academics alike, I feel that academics will benefit more from reading this book. Although the chapters include discussions of practical implications and there are practical examples provided (such as the example of the Springfield Remanufacturing Company), many of the suggestions are not based on empirical evidence.

In this respect, I feel that the stronger contribution may be in the research questions and propositions developed for future research. Given the depth of the literature reviewed and the sound theoretical development in all of the chapters, a multitude of future academic research projects could possibly stem from this one book. The comprehensive subject index at the back of the book will also come in handy for those interested in a particular aspect of dynamic organizations.

A strength of this book is that the contributions are by authors who view organizations through different theoretical lenses. For example, Smith and Dickson view dynamic organizations from an individual personality perspective, but McGrath and Boissot focus on organizational strategy. The beauty of the book is that, although stemming from each of these different vantage points, the various chapter authors come to the same conclusion, “the need to embrace paradox.” Upon completing the book, the reader comes to understand that this paradox concerns the need for internal organizational stability, through employee commitment (Dyer & Shafer; Smith & Dickson), shared values (Dyer & Shafer), and team cohesion (Thomas-Hunt & Phillips), while at the same time being flexible so as to match external environmental change (O'Connor & Adair; Dyer & Shafer; Smith & Dickson).

The book is organized into five sections. The first section is presents two chapters introducing the concept of leading and managing people in the dynamic organization. The first is an introduction by Mannix and Peterson and the second, by Dyer and Shafer, presents a new organizational paradigm for dynamic organizations. Dyer and Shafer argue that organizational adaptation is a continuous process that organizations strive to maintain internal diversity and flexibility to match changes in the external environment. This is a principle known as “requisite variety” (Mannix & Peterson, Chapter 1; McGrath & Boisset, Chapter 10).

Part II concerns Managing People in the Dynamic Organization, at the individual, team, and organizational levels of analysis. Chapter 3 is focused on human resources, specifically, selection and motivation issues in the dynamic context. Here, Smith and Dickson suggest that, rather than employing individuals based on competency, in the dynamic organization we

should focus more on person–organization fit based on personal values. In the following chapter, Wageman presents a model of effective team coaching, designed to minimize process losses in virtual teams and to maximize the synergistic benefits through combined efforts, knowledge and skills, and task performance strategy. Finally, Boisnier and Chatman explore organizational subcultures, presenting a framework for understanding how subcultures influence strong culture organizations' agility through sourcing creativity and flexibility.

The third part of the book concerns Managing Information Flows in the Dynamic Organization, where we learn about information in groups, transactive memory, and negotiation. In Chapter 6, Thomas-Hunt and Phillips explore the effects of revolving membership and changing task demands on expertise and status in groups. Following this, Moreland and Argote discuss transactive memory systems in teams within dynamic organizations. They argue that transactive memory will be stronger at the organizational level than at the team level in the dynamic organization. O'Connor and Adair then present a discussion of the link between negotiation research and the dynamic organization.

Leadership is the topic of the fourth part of the book. First, leadership in the dynamic organization is explored with respect to learning, ambiguity (a physical state), and uncertainty (a psychological state). In Chapter 9, Hodgson and White identify leadership behavioral areas that are significant in handling ambiguity. Following this, McGrath and Boisot combine arguments concerning real options reasoning and biological analogies. Discussions of concepts such as the "gene frequency approach" seem a little left field, however. After reading the chapter, the reader can come to a new appreciation of the biology metaphor used by the authors. Can we really learn more about organizational change from studying "lymphocyte repertoires?"

Also in the Leadership section, Anand and Jones consider organizational design from a network perspective, where the appropriateness of organizational design is dependent upon relationships, redundancy, and representation. Although this was also interesting, I would like to have seen more of a discussion of leadership itself. I was disappointed because, although having implications for leadership, both Chapters 10 and 11 failed to fit clearly into a section on leadership. These chapters do not explicitly state the implications for leadership, nor link in any of their arguments to leadership theories. Perhaps these chapters were simply slotted into this section because they did not fit anywhere else. This is my main criticism of the book—although "managing people" in dynamic organizations is addressed, I feel that the "leadership" aspect of dynamic organizations is not adequately covered (a different book title would have prevented my disappointment here).

The final chapter in the book, the Conclusion, is the most valuable. It draws together all of the previous chapters that, up until this finale, appeared to be somewhat haphazard. This final chapter provides the glue for the book. It identifies common themes from the various chapters. Indeed, only when this chapter is read can the reader come to appreciate fully the contributions made in the book.

Peterson and Mannix state that leading and managing people in the dynamic organization is an area ripe for research. It is their explicit goal to stimulate research in this exciting area—and this is a goal I believe they are likely to achieve. The specific suggestions they provide as to how to conduct future research in the area, and the propositions developed throughout the book, are solid ground for budding empirical researchers who wish to learn more about managing people in the dynamic organization.

Gary Yukl and Richard Lepsinger. **Flexible Leadership: Creating Value by Balancing Multiple Challenges and Choices.** San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2004, 270 pages, \$44.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Joyce E. A. Russell*, The University of Maryland, Robert H. Smith School of Business, College Park, MD.

Another leadership book . . . Do we need another one? What, if anything, can this book add to our current thinking or practice? These may be some of the questions going through your mind as you see the title of this book. Well, the authors are prepared for your question on the value-added benefit of “another book on leadership.” In fact, they quickly and effectively address this issue in the preface to their book. After describing the problems with previous leadership books, they explain how their book is different and why it is needed. And they are right!

First, they argue that their book provides a more comprehensive model that incorporates what has been learned about effective leadership in the past half-century. This may be a little overstated, but I would agree that they successfully build from previous work without simply listing all the leadership theories. In addition, they include insights from practitioner books and famous leaders, and these are discussed within a theoretical framework. Their goal is to explain what it means to be a flexible leader and to describe what leadership behaviors are necessary to enhance individual and organizational performance. They have effectively done this.

According to the authors, the book is relevant for people at all levels (from the CEO to a team leader). Although I agree with this assertion, I think the book will be particularly valuable for more experienced managers and those enrolled in executive education programs (i.e., interested in learning more about theory and practice). The reader should have an appreciation for the common issues and challenges facing managers and

should be willing to take the time to think about these issues and the authors' ideas. This book is definitely not a "quick and easy read."

They also state that the book is particularly relevant for human resource professionals and consultants who are responsible for the training and development of effective leaders in their organizations. I would agree. It is a well-written book, with plenty of organizational and leadership examples. This should make the book appealing both to academics and to practitioners. Given the strong theoretical emphasis, I think the book will have most appeal to researchers in the field, as well as graduate students studying leadership. The authors have done an excellent job of bringing in the current literature. As such, it might be less "reader friendly" to those practicing managers who are looking for "fast" tips and strategies for becoming more effective.

The major emphasis of the book is on behavioral aspects (not "mysterious traits") of leadership that can be learned. The key themes are (a) flexible leadership in response to continually changing situations, (b) the need to find an appropriate balance among competing demands, and (c) the need for coordinated action by leaders across levels and subunits. The authors provide a model of flexible leadership that is comprised of four components: organizational performance, performance determinants, situational variables, and direct and indirect forms of leadership. They describe three determinants of organizational performance, including (a) efficiency and reliability of work processes, (b) timely adaptation to changes in the external environment, and (c) strong human resources and relations. According to the authors, each of these determinants provides a unique leadership challenge. They also emphasize situational variables (e.g., competition) that determine which challenges are most important to the organization at a given time. That is, they mention that leadership should be defined in terms of "doing the right thing at the right time."

The book is organized into an introduction chapter, three major sections, and two final chapters. Each of the three major sections contains three chapters. The first chapter in each section explains why the performance determinant is important. The second chapter in each section describes the leadership behaviors that are relevant for influencing the performance determinant and includes examples of what those behaviors look like. For readers looking to figure out what they can do to enhance performance, this chapter in each section should offer the most practical tips. The third chapter in each section briefly describes the programs, management systems, and structural arrangements that can be used to enhance the determinant. Readers will need to follow up with additional resources to learn more detail about these management programs. I really liked the three-chapter format for each section and think readers will appreciate it as well.

Section I (Chapters 2 through 4) deals with efficiency and process reliability. In Chapter 2, the authors make a case for why leaders should be concerned about issues of efficiency, quality, and reliability, despite the fact that many seem to think these are “managerial” concerns and not concerns of leaders. Using several examples (e.g., Dell, Southwest Airlines, Wal-Mart), Yukl and Lepsinger illustrate how improving the efficiency of a firm’s processes improves the success of the firm. Chapter 3 describes task-oriented behaviors (e.g., operational planning, clarifying roles and objectives, monitoring operations and performance, and solving operational problems) that leaders should use to enhance efficiency. This was probably the most valuable chapter in this section because it offered the most specific tips for readers about what behaviors to use when trying to improve the efficiency of the firm. Chapter 4 briefly describes several programs that have been used to improve efficiency and process reliability (e.g., total quality management, Six Sigma) and reduce costs (e.g., downsizing, outsourcing). In addition, the authors describe various management systems (e.g., performance management, reward and recognition programs). Although illustrative, readers are only given a glimpse of what is involved in these programs and would need to pursue other sources to gain more details about implementing these programs.

Section II (Chapters 5 through 7) deals with innovation and adaptation. In Chapter 5, the authors make a compelling case for why adapting to the environment is important for firms today. One section that was particularly informative was their discussion of the reasons for success and failures among firms when implementing change. In Chapter 6, the authors effectively describe the leader behaviors necessary for enhancing adaptation (e.g., monitoring the environment, strategic planning, envisioning, supporting and implementing change). Chapter 7 reviews programs, systems, and strategies for enhancing adaptation (e.g., entrepreneurship programs, external benchmarking, collective learning practices, mergers and strategic alliances). Both of these chapters should be helpful in informing the reader about ways to enhance innovation and adapt to the environment.

Section III (Chapters 8 through 10) deals with human resources and relations. In Chapter 8, the authors argue for the importance of considering human capital issues by describing some organizations that have effectively managed their human capital (e.g., General Electric, Southwest Airlines) and those that haven’t (e.g., Radio Shack, U.S. Postal Service). This chapter is not really a hard sell to the audience because most readers will probably already agree that it is critical to effectively manage human capital of the firm. In Chapter 9, they describe a number of leader behaviors that they believe are critical for enhancing a firm’s human resources

(e.g., supporting, recognizing, developing, consulting, empowering, team building). For this chapter, it would have been helpful to “hear” the authors’ reasons for the behaviors they picked because there are so many leadership behaviors that could be discussed in this section. Chapter 10 describes programs and management systems for enhancing human relations (e.g., human resource planning systems, development programs, empowerment programs, recognition and award programs, quality of work life programs). There are so many programs that could be described in this section. Thus, it would have been helpful to understand the authors’ rationale for why they picked the ones they did. Like earlier sections, the reader would need to follow up with additional reading if they wanted to fully understand any of these programs (i.e., how to implement them, how successful they are, etc.) because the authors can only provide a glimpse on each program.

In the fourth section of the book (Chapters 11 through 12), the authors try to integrate the different components of the model (e.g., efficiency, adaptation, human resources). Chapter 11 explains how the three challenges are interrelated, the tradeoffs among them, and how their importance can change. This is instructive because too often authors offer ideas without indicating the tradeoffs among the various programs. This chapter also describes other competing demands that make it important for the leader to be flexible (e.g., stakeholders’ demands, short vs. long-term objectives, stability vs. change). I found this to be very realistically presented and should get readers to think before acting.

In the final chapter (Chapter 12), the authors provide broad guidelines on how to be flexible and adaptive in balancing the performance determinants. As they state, “the real art of leadership is to perform a balancing act.” They describe six processes (e.g., build commitment to a core ideology) and five competencies (e.g., embrace systems thinking, preserve personal integrity) that can facilitate flexible, shared leadership in organizations.

They do a nice job of providing examples of individuals who were successful in meeting various leadership challenges. As a final chapter, however, I would have also liked to see a stronger summary to the entire book (e.g., where do we go from here, what else leaders should consider).

In sum, *Flexible Leadership* stays true to its title by illustrating how leadership is a balancing act that requires managers to be flexible in changing their focus and behaviors depending on the challenges they face. Despite the numerous leadership books that exist, this one should be added to an experienced manager’s collection. Although it won’t answer all of their questions (what book does?), it will stimulate their thinking and offer creative ideas for actions to take in their everyday quest for excellence.

Kim S. Cameron, Jane E. Dutton, and Robert E. Quinn (Editors). **Positive Organizational Scholarship: Foundations of a New Discipline**. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 2003, 465 pages, \$45.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Stephen B. Knouse*, Alvin & Patricia Smith Professor and Head, Department of Management, B. I. Moody III College of Business Administration, University of Louisiana at Lafayette.

We seem to be inundated with negative images of violence in the workplace, organizational failings, and corporate leaders going to prison. Moreover, organizational behavior continues to look on the dark side (see, for example, Griffin & O'Leary-Kelly, 2004) and dwell on the concepts of uncertainty management, organized anarchy, disorganization theory, loosely coupled systems, and chaos theory. Now is a good time for us to get something positive. And that's what this book is all about—positive psychology, virtuousness, gratitude, resilience, courage, authenticity, compassion, high quality connectivity, meaningfulness, empowerment, upward spirals, and cascading vitality.

The editors attempt to bring together a number of diverse concepts into a new discipline—positive organizational scholarship. Their purpose is to identify dynamics that lead to optimal human development, positive interrelationships, and ultimately “extraordinary” organizational performance. The dynamics they propose to study carry the descriptors of excellence, thriving, flourishing, resilience, and virtuousness. The outcomes they propose that these dynamics drive are vitality, meaningfulness, exhilaration, and high quality relationships. Although this sounds like pop psychology in the popular press, the authors of the various chapters are fairly heavy hitters who are well established in traditional organizational theory. For example, Karl Weick, the originator of the concept of the organization as loosely coupled units, contributes a chapter on positive organizing out of organizational tragedy.

The book begins with an Introduction section containing two chapters. One chapter is on the foundations of positive organizational scholarship by Cameron, Dutton, and Quinn, the editors. The second introduction chapter by Peterson and Seligman looks at how lessons in positive psychology can be imported into positive organization studies. Three parts then define the main sections of the book.

Part I on virtuous processes and positive organizing contains eight chapters on virtues (Park & Peterson), organizational virtuousness and performance (Cameron), positive organizing and organizational tragedy (Weick), acts of gratitude in organizations (Emmons), organizing for resilience (Sutcliffe & Vogus), investing in strengths (Clifton & Harter), transcendent behaviors (Bateman & Porath), and courageous principled action (Worline & Quinn). Part II describes upward spirals and positive change

with six chapters on positive emotions (Fredrickson), positive and negative emotions (Bagozzi), new knowledge creation (Lee, Caza, Edmondson, & Thomke), positive deviance (Spreitzer & Sonenshein), a theory of positive organizational change (Cooperrider & Sekerka), and authentic leadership development (Luthans & Avolio).

Part III looks at positive meanings and connections in six chapters: the power of high quality connections (Dutton & Heaphy), a theory of relational coordination (Gittell), finding positive meaning in work (Wrzesniewski), meaningfulness in work (Pratt & Ashforth), positive network analysis (Baker, Cross, & Wooten), and empowerment (Feldman & Khademian). Finally, a concluding chapter by the three editors and Wrzesniewski examines how to develop a discipline of positive organizational scholarship.

The editors see positive organizational scholarship as a new worldview, or alternatively, as a fresh lens for looking at the same organizational processes from a different perspective. Its origins flow from the literatures of positive psychology, prosocial behaviors, organizational citizenship, and corporate social responsibility. Its basic assumption is that the desire to improve the human condition is a universal. Thus, by enabling and empowering the human potential of employees, organizational systems can produce extraordinary performance, which in turn delivers competitive advantages to the organization. So this is a win-win situation—employees benefit, the organization improves, and the owners see a larger profit.

With 23 chapters and journal space limitations, I cannot comment on each chapter, so I will describe several chapters that I found particularly intriguing. The chapter on lessons from positive psychology is an engaging description of how to start a new academic discipline. Most disciplines seem to evolve by trial and error. Peterson and Seligman, however, draw on what they have experienced in initiating the field of positive psychology to suggest how to develop the discipline of positive organizational scholarship. For example, you will have to deal with leaders in established fields, so try not to aggravate them too much. Create an infrastructure through fund raising largely from private sources that does not have to deal with government bureaucracy. Identify potential leaders of the new discipline who can legitimize the new discipline through seed grants to new researchers, support in journal publications, recommendations for promotion and tenure for junior researchers, and advocating new university courses in the discipline. Beware of bad company—those who superficially “talk the talk” but are not committed to the substance of the discipline. At the same time, don’t become elitist and push away legitimate supporters. Position the discipline as a unique entity. Find a natural home (arenas of life) where research and application can flourish.

Another interesting chapter is Weick on positive organizing out of organizational tragedy. He nicely juxtaposes the positive outcomes of an organizational tragedy with its negative dynamics. In essence, he is proposing positive sense making of organizational failings. He argues for organizing what has happened, which he so marvelously expresses as “wading into a rich unknowable world,” through the three macrocosms of wisdom: respectful interacting (creating sense making through trusting, wise, and public discussion), heedful interrelating (building a group mind where each member contributes to and understands the world from that mind), and mindful organizing (examining tragedy as a window on how to improve the organization). And with Weick, of course, you must read the chapter closely at least three times to ensure that you have made sense out of his theory of sense making.

Luthans and Avolio nicely tie positive organizational scholarship into transformational leadership, which results in the new concept of authentic leadership. Positive individual and organizational capabilities translate into confident, hopeful, optimistic, and resilient leadership through positive self-development efforts.

The two chapters on work meaningfulness present several interesting concepts to clarify what makes work meaningful: work as a calling, job crafting, and fostering meaningfulness “in” work and “at” work. The authors tie work meaningfulness into job design, job satisfaction, leadership, and psychological safety.

Of course, I cannot pass up the chapter on that seemingly oxymoronic term “positive deviance.” I still remember the bizarre topics in my college sociology course on deviant behavior. Spreitzer and Sonenshein, however, show that there is another side to norm-breaking behavior that increases personal well being, high quality relationships, and organizational performance.

Can I say anything negative about this book on positives? There is a somewhat heavy emphasis on philosophical and etymological roots of various concepts in several chapters, but I think that just reflects the multidisciplinary and historical bases of positive scholarship. There is a strong emphasis upon theory development and concept interconnectivity from diverse disciplines, while there is a dearth of hard supporting research. But this is what we would expect at the early stages of the development of a new discipline.

In sum, the positives about this book on positives are new concept development, extensions to existing theories, and an overall refreshing examination of the dynamics of organizational behavior (i.e., what can produce successful organizational change in an environment of resistance, negativity, and uncertainty). Finally, this book is a strong reaffirmation of the vitality of the human condition.

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Eric Abrahamson. **Change Without Pain: How Managers Can Overcome Initiative Overload, Organizational Chaos, and Employee Burnout**. Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2004, 240 pages, \$26.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Mitchell Lee Marks*, JoiningForces.org, San Francisco, CA.

Columbia management professor Eric Abrahamson contends that, although change is necessary for companies to compete, the pain that accompanies it is not. He offers a “new approach” to change—*creative recombination*—that contrasts the “creative destruction” advocated by most change agents. Rather than break down current organizational dynamics and introduce new ones, Abrahamson suggests that current organizational elements—which he calls “recombinants”—can be identified and reused.

The book begins with Abrahamson arguing the shortcomings of prevailing approaches to organizational change and supporting the value of his model. The middle chapters each describe how to “creatively recombine” five elements of one’s organization—people, social networks, culture, processes, and structure. Closing chapters discuss how to effect large-scale change using recombinants from outside the organization, the pacing of recombination, and how to pursue change without pain over the lifetime of an organization.

Abrahamson’s approach to change without pain centers on what he calls three “action techniques”: cloning, customizing, and translating. Cloning involves taking a recombinant present in one portion of an organization and replicating it in another. Customizing is altering recombinants from one part of an organization to fit different areas in the organization; essentially, refitting the recombinants. Translating occurs by reinventing recombinants from one part of an organization for application in other areas. Translating is more challenging than customizing which, in turn, is more challenging than simple cloning.

Let’s return to the main contention of Abrahamson’s book—although change is necessary for companies to grow and prosper, the pain that accompanies it is not. Sounds, too good to be true, doesn’t it? Well, it is. Abrahamson fails to make a compelling case for his “new approach” to organizational change. Specifically, this book fails to deliver on its promise in three key areas—the approach really isn’t all that “new,” the premise that you can have “change without pain” isn’t realistic in contemporary organizational life, and the book spends more time describing old business

school case studies rather than informing the reader based on actual applications of the approach.

There is very little in Abrahamson's thesis that is not already incumbent in the repertoire of organizational change. "Cloning" basically is applying best practices from one part of the organization to another. "Customizing" is modifying the practice to better fit the new area in which it is going to be applied—but we have known for years that transferring best practices in an uncritical manner is not as effective as adapting the practice to better fit its new setting. "Translating" is not much different than the reengineering that Abrahamson writes off as a management fad.

Perhaps aware of the lack of novelty in his "new approach," Abrahamson distracts the reader with a lot of unnecessary new-fangled terminology. What he labels a "recombinant" is nothing more than an element or aspect of an organization. (Couldn't Abrahamson have just followed his own advice and "cloned" what is good from current and understandable language rather than subject us to "jargon overload" akin to the "initiative overload" he cites as an inhibitor of organizational effectiveness?)

Change Without Pain is much too naïve to be relevant to the issues afflicting contemporary work organizations and their members. How can a leader know where to recombine if she does not experience some discomfort with the status quo? How does she know exactly what, where, and when to recombine if she has not taken the time to diagnose the status quo and focus her resources on desired organizational change? How can she engage her employees in the change process and get them to truly embrace the need to let go of the status quo without creating some "felt need" for change? In short, the notion of "change without pain" is unrealistic. I wholeheartedly agree with the book's contention that employees have been subjected to initiative overload and are burnt out from multiple waves of organizational changes and transitions. However, an approach that is obsessed with putting down mainstream practices and discounting a body of knowledge that dates back to the works of Lewin simply is not the answer.

The final weakness of this book is the lack of well documented applications of the "new approach." Although Abrahamson does offer many insights based on his first hand experience as a consultant and educator, far too many of the examples used to support his approach are not all that substantial. Rather than document how executives have utilized his approach to foster meaningful and significant organizational change, he uses his model to reinterpret cases of organizational change in a *post hoc* manner. Abrahamson makes liberal use of business school case studies, some decades old, and tries to convince the reader how his model explains the behavior described in the case. I would be much more impressed with *Change Without Pain* if it was supported more by proactive applications of

the “new approach” than by retrospective academic hypothesizing. Moreover, many of the examples that Abrahamson does provide—such as using a Web page to post job openings rather than a bulletin board—just don’t seem all that significant or critical to the needs of workplaces suffering from initiative overload.

Simply stated, it appears that Abrahamson created a new model, used it to retrospectively explain behavior in organizational settings, and now wants us to buy it as a revolutionary new way to enhance work organizations. He fails to provide evidence that the model works or that executives are even consciously utilizing it as they consider and implement organizational change. In one case where he does cite a contemporary example, leveraging social networks at a large accounting firm, Abrahamson describes what the network system *might* look like rather than what it actually did look like. Examples like this do not breed confidence that “change without pain” is realistic.

What Abrahamson does well is chronicle the impact of multiple waves of change initiatives on today’s work places. There has been negative—not merely neutral—impact on employee spirit, work team performance, and organizational effectiveness due to the constant specter of change and transition in many workplaces. And the premise of his model—that less pain may yield more change—is extremely relevant to many organizations that have repeatedly subjected employees to transitions like acquiring and restructuring and to management fads like business process reengineering and downsizing. A few years ago, I termed this “the saturation effect”—people can handle only so much disruption and, over time, their threshold for dealing with stress, uncertainty, and disorientation is met (Marks, 2003).

Abrahamson’s strategy of finding something that is working and applying it elsewhere in the organization, is a reasonable approach for incremental change. However, it is not helpful—as the book cover promises—for overcoming initiative overload, organizational chaos, and employee burnout. I would recommend *Change Without Pain* only to executives who want to believe that they can revitalize an organization by simply cutting and pasting. That is, executives who want to skip the difficult but necessary work of truly diagnosing, accepting, and addressing what is ailing their organizations. I do not understand—and Abrahamson has not made a case for—how a person or an organization can realize meaningful and significant change without pain.

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Jeffrey Hollender and Stephen Fenichell. **What Matters Most: How a Small Group of Pioneers is Teaching Social Responsibility to Big Business, and Why Big Business is Listening.** New York: Basic Books, 2004, 318 pages, \$26.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Gary B. Brumback*, Palm Coast, FL.

The first author is cofounder and CEO of 7th Generation, a small company that makes household cleaning products, which is, in his words, "one of the first self-declared socially responsible companies." The second author is a professional writer and one of Hollender's associates. Together they've produced a very readable and informative book on the subject.

As one of the pioneers in the corporate social responsibility (CSR) movement, Hollender is evangelical about promoting the implementation of CSR "in all of its forms." I'm not sure I know what he means by that. As he acknowledges, it's in the "mind of the beholder" because there's "no firm consensus" about what CSR means. I certainly can't criticize him for not pinning down the concept. Sims (2003), in his own book on the subject for instance, has offered five different definitions. I think Hollender equates CSR with the idea of a triple-bottom line of responsibility and accountability for fulfilling what he thinks should be the financial, social, and environmental obligations of a corporation.

Margaret Mead once said, in effect, that social change always starts and can only start with a small group of people. The small group identified in the book as pioneers in the CSR movement, include small business entrepreneurs like Ben Cohen and Jerry Greenfield of Ben and Jerry's Ice Cream, socially responsible investment funds like the Calvert Social Investment Fund, and a host of advocacy groups and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) such as the activist group, Greenpeace, and the more reserved Businesses for Social Responsibility (BSR), which was conceived as sort of an alternative Chamber of Commerce.

The book gives an interesting account of the different ways in which these pioneers promote CSR among big corporations. One way, for instance, is nonconfrontational and educative in trying to "bring big business (no matter how socially irresponsible) to the table and then move the table." For example, BSR works closely with big companies to promote a set of best practices that, it is hoped, will not only further the CSR progress of those companies, but will also entice other companies not to be left behind. Another way is confrontational, involving pressure tactics and sometimes lawsuits. Greenpeace, for example, gradually succeeded in pressuring Royal Dutch Shell to choose a more environmentally responsible way to dispose of an obsolete oil storage tanker and loading platform in the North Sea.

As you can well imagine, the notion of CSR is controversial and fraught with issues. The authors clearly know that, and for the most part deal with the issues relatively well. I'll mention and discuss a few of the issues.

Perhaps the biggest issue is over what should be the legitimate purpose of business. Hollender, understandably, totally rejects what he considers to be the "hysterical" opinion of conservative economist Milton Friedman that CSR is "fundamentally subversive" and that the only legitimate responsibility of business is to make an honorable profit. To Hollender, CSR "in all of its forms" is the legitimate purpose. Thus, a corporation that seeks to ameliorate public problems not of its own making is a more socially responsible company. He cites Coca-Cola as an example of a company persuaded by activists to modify its operations in ways to further the prevention and treatment of AIDS among its employees and those of its bottlers and suppliers. In between, Friedman and Hollender are a spectrum of views, including mine, which is closer to Friedman, and probably more than five definitions of CSR.

Three related issues are over who should be the public corporation's legitimate stakeholders, for what should it be held accountable, and over what period of time. To people in Friedman's camp, the issues are no-brainers. Shareholders are the only stakeholders, the corporation is only accountable for maximizing their wealth and doing so through legal means, and time is marked in quarterly returns. This view is basically that the conventional bottom line is the only one that matters. To people like Hollender, the issues are also no-brainers. Absolutely everyone and everything, including the environment along the company's long value chain (a new concept to me) from initial product resources to product disposal, are the company's stakeholders, and the company must be held accountable through full and transparent cost accounting to every one of those stakeholder interests, and time is marked in the long run. The conventional bottom line is thus immensely modified quantitatively and qualitatively.

I found the authors a bit lax in relying on several of their sources about one important matter bearing on those three issues. The sources were quoted as claiming that boards of directors have a statutory obligation to maximize shareholder wealth in the short term. I questioned that claim, and one of Hollender's spokespersons acknowledged that it was a mistaken claim. But this nevertheless doesn't negate the immense pressure CEO's are under to hit the numbers each quarter. This pressure comes primarily from institutional investors, who might as well be surrogates for a statute. It takes a morally courageous CEO and a sustainable company to resist that kind of pressure. In an article featuring Hollender and Bill George, the recently retired CEO of Medtronic, the latter commented that he would say at every annual shareholder meeting that the company was "not in the

business of maximizing shareholder value,” and he believed he “got away with that because the results were so good” (Kelly, 2004).

Another related issue is over how much self-disclosure there should be of a firm’s CSR performance. Hollender proposes full “transparency,” yet acknowledges that it can make the company squirm, as his did, over the possibility that full disclosure may make the company legally liable for a product shortcoming that might not otherwise ever be known. He agonized, for example, that although one of his products was more “natural” than that of any of his competitors, he was sure some of his customers at least presumed that his product “was a bit better than it actually was.” Not being a fanatically unrealistic CSR advocate, he decided to put a “product self-critique section” on his company’s Web site, instead of putting a disclaimer on the product’s packaging. It’s a compromise, yes, but far more responsible than the values held and practiced by a baby food maker I remember as once having been charged with diluting its product.

Another related issue is whether to take a public company private to escape Wall Street analysts and record-keeping requirements. More public companies are apparently going private (Kahn, 2003), and Hollender himself is a case in point. He took his firm private and that is what it still is today. He points to the private outfitter, Patagonia, as being able to take socially responsible actions much more easily than if it were traded on Wall Street.

Yet another issue addressed, and the last one of the authors’ that I’ll mention, is over whether a small, socially responsible company should “sell out” to a larger corporation. An advantage of doing so, besides making a lot of money from the sale, is the prospect of a responsible product being introduced to a much larger market. But a disadvantage is that the seller risks seeing its values and practices diminished if not overturned altogether by the larger corporation. The authors describe how Ben and Jerry initially felt they had negotiated a deal with Unilever, the buyer of their company, to preserve the values the two pioneers held dear, only to learn later of some actions taken by Unilever that were incompatible with these values.

The authors claim that the CSR movement has become a “contagious trend.” I think that’s a bit exaggerated, and the authors offer little hard data to back up their claim. I think it is true that CSR is becoming a more popular topic, but I suspect, and the authors acknowledge, that it lends itself to tokenism or lip service for the sake of appearances or reputation. That’s why incidentally I chose to mention the authors’ examples of Shell and Coke. Shell reportedly regards the North Sea experience positively and claims there is now “increasingly open and honest communication with the communities,” yet, we read recently that its two top executives were forced to resign after lying for several years about the company’s oil reserves (Timmons, 2004). As for Coke, it’s frequently in the news for its

“cozy ties to strong arm dictators and rogue bottlers” and for other alleged wrongdoings (Klebnikov, 2003). I could also have mentioned wrongdoings by some of the other companies the authors cite as making progress of one kind or another in their CSR performance. My point is that with so much harmful wrongdoing being committed by public corporations (Nace, 2003), I would far prefer to see a relatively more restrained movement, one that simply calls for public corporations to operate “harmlessly.” Achieving that standard would be a quantum leap from prevailing corporate behavior, and I think corporations should direct their resources to taking that leap and not diverting them to the solving of problems not of their own making, or to giving guilt gifts through philanthropy or to offering isolated token efforts.

This book received a favorable review in the *Financial Times* (London, 2004), but has yet to make it to a bestseller list. The book is intended for a wide audience, including business leaders, employees, and NGOs. I personally think it deserves to be on a bestseller list and should be read by the CEO of every public corporation who has yet to decide where to position his or her company on the CSR spectrum. As for readers of this journal, those of you who want a more scholarly treatment of the subject should consider a book like the one by Sims (2003), although the issues discussed above would be worthy research topics. For the rest of you who are only seeking more conversational knowledge about CSR, this book would be perfect.

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Robert Phillips. **Stakeholder Theory and Organizational Ethics**. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 2003, 200 pages, \$34.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Robert G. Jones*, Southwest Missouri State University, Springfield, MO.

When our fearless Editor sent this book to me, I was a little worried that he was either trying to improve the woeful ethics of a person willing to run

for public office or was trying to get even for some thick tome I had sent him during my tenure as Editor. If the latter was the case, he succeeded. (I don't know if there is a cure for the dysfunctions leading to the decision to run for public office.) This book is a treatise in moral philosophy and pragmatics that attempts to give a solid normative basis for stakeholder theory, and in turn apply it to organizational ethics. Although the examples in the discourse are actually for-profit business organizations, the theory arises from Rawls' political theory, so its application to other organizations may be justified. Though the language is thick, it is short (167 pages of text) and tightly written, so the Editor was merciful in his revenge.

The flyleaf tells us that the author is not degreed in philosophy or science, but teaches at University of San Diego's business school and studied business ethics at University of Virginia. I mention this because the book lacks support from empirical scholarship in management science but appears quite solid in its philosophical foundations. This bent and some passages in the book gave me the impression that it is the latest in a series of attempts by philosophers to justify a place for themselves in business schools, perhaps supplanting the more empirically oriented faculty from fields such as psychology. The pay is better than in psychology or philosophy departments, I suppose. But, at first blush, I have problems with carving out a niche using the concept of business ethics, a concept that has always struck me both as faddish and oxymoronic. More on this problem later.

Despite these first impressions, there are some very positive qualities to this book. In particular, it takes a very systematic and fairly thorough stab at reviewing and critiquing the substantial literature on business stakeholder theory. Because philosophy is generally the basis for science and, because we do not have much in the way of mathematical axioms to work from, the sort of careful explication of ideas evident in this book seems to be good bedrock for further empirical study. This is not to say that there are readily apparent, testable propositions in the book, but readers digging for research questions might find one or two worthy of evaluation.

The book is organized into seven chapters, which the author carefully prepares us for in a short preface and in the first chapter. The first chapter also gives some good reasons to wish for an accepted organizational ethos. The aim of the second chapter, correctly named *The Limits of Stakeholder Theory*, is to instigate "a controlled burn that clears away some of the underbrush of misrepresentation in the hope of denying easy fuel to the academic arsonists and the critical conflagration that would raze the theory." (Such is some of the light prose of philosophers.) Four critical distortions and four friendly misrepresentations are "burned away," revealing glimpses of the conceptual underpinnings that the author favors in the process. Chapter 3 delineates the unique need for organizational

ethics, as distinct from ethics applied to other human activities (i.e., political, religious, and individual ethics), and specifies some speculative criteria for an adequate system of organizational ethics. Chapter 4 is a nutshell description of stakeholder theory and some of its more prominent criticisms.

The remaining chapters establish the authors' own ideas within the context described in the first few chapters, and, in the final chapter, attempt to summarize and provide directive advice. In Chapter 5, the author walks us through his candidate for a moral foundation of stakeholder theory—the principle of fairness. This chapter is written the most like a philosophy dissertation of any in the book and also has some of the clearest propositions for potential empirical testing and some of the most glaring empirical gaps. Perhaps the most interesting chapter in the book is Chapter 6, which delves into the problem of who has a “legitimate” stake in organizations. This is answered by reference to moral obligations beyond those of our shared humanity and “derivative” stakeholders created by a constituent's power over an organization's ability to protect its interests. Missing from the arguments in this chapter is a discussion of the moral legitimacy of derivative stakeholders' claims with respect to human (as opposed to organization-specific) obligations—these groups often claim a “moral conscience” role that may give them moral legitimacy apart from any coercive power they may wield. The next chapter (Stakeholder Identity) dips into this question obliquely by arguing around the problem of whether the natural environment and social activists are stakeholders. There are some notable inconsistencies in this chapter, where the author argues that managers need not consider hostile social activists ahead of their “normative” stakeholders, but that civil disobedience in the name of community values makes activists normative stakeholders (i.e., community members). Even in the final chapter, with its very direct answers to the fundamental questions posed and answered in the book, the author admits some ambiguity about how to prioritize these obligations.

One of the axioms of the old Chicago school of economics is there is no place for moral argument in economics. It is not surprising, then, that Phillips argues against Friedman's “shareholder maximization” principle early and often in this book. It is also not surprising that he conflates descriptive science with moral choice in a way that would make many empiricists cringe. A message to Dr. Phillips and other moral philosophers who might read this: The fact that we in scientific disciplines make choices about what questions we should address based on real or perceived obligations (therefore making these moral choices) does not change the possibility of our describing some part of our worlds in a relatively accurate and morally-neutral fashion. Nor should Friedman's and others' attempts to describe be confused with the applications of these descriptions

in morally-loaded ways. Moral philosophy as presented in this book helps guide our choices of research questions and the ultimate uses of what we have found, but please allow science the humble claim to neutral description of some part of the elephantine empirical system. For example, Cialdini's (2002) description of the "obligation to receive" in itself puts something of a twist into the idea presented in this book that voluntary choice of benefits and obligations is the "rational" basis for stakeholder status.

My advice to ordinary readers of this review is: If you are still thinking of reading this book, choose your chapters carefully. To those who, like me, have strayed into politics (you know who you are!), this book will provide some good food for thought.

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Karl Albrecht. **The Power of Minds at Work: Organizational Intelligence in Action**. New York: AMACOM, 2003, 260 pages, \$24.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Valerie I. Sessa*, Department of Psychology, Montclair State University Upper Montclair, NJ.

"Intelligent people, when assembled into an organization, will tend toward collective stupidity." That's Albrecht's Law. Karl Albrecht should know. He's had a 25 year career as a management consultant, futurist, speaker, and author dedicated to helping companies nurture talent rather than waste it.

And so starts this lively, interesting, fun, and yes, useful, book. It is a practical book written for organizational leaders and is an "intellectual whack on the head." Albrecht's data is his wealth of stories, examples, short cases, and experiences with organizations and top management all over the world. He reports his analysis through storytelling in which he draws together his knowledge, readings, and meetings with other well-respected management experts.

As Albrecht says in his preface, "I shall make very little effort to spare the feelings of those who might feel singled out if they see themselves mirrored in the syndromes of organizational craziness and failure that I will describe. Some names will be named, at least the names of some enterprises that deserve an intellectual spanking." He then names 17 syndromes of dysfunction, which I found blunt, realistic, and hilarious—here are a few: Anemia: Only the Deadwood Survives; Caste System: The Anointed and the Untouchables; Fat, Dumb, and Happy: If It Ain't broke . . .; Geriatric

Leadership: Retired on the Job; and Testosterone Poisoning: Men Will Be Boys.

Fortunately, Albrecht has seen the opposite of these syndromes as well, which is the target of this book—he believes smartness can be learned, just as dumbness is learned. He defines organizational intelligence (OI) as “the capacity of an organization to mobilize all of its brain power, and focus that brain power on achieving the mission.” There are seven organizational components of OI. These are strategic vision, appetite for change, alignment and congruence, performance pressure, knowledge deployment, heart, and shared fate. Each of these is defined in separate chapters.

The main theme underlying this book is management’s perceptions of the employees of the organization and its treatment of these employees. Many managers have an unconscious belief about workers or employees as being separate from, and maybe not quite as good as, “the organization.” To this day, many of our I-O practices and assumptions, and many management practices, may still be based on the assumption that employees are basically interchangeable parts of a production machine. I think this belief has had a powerful unconscious impact on our field of industrial and organizational psychology and on many management practices—one of those “unmentionables” that very badly needs to be brought into conversation and finally tossed out on its head.

Albrecht thinks this belief impacts OI. He suggests that this belief can be traced back to Taylor, the Father of Scientific Management, who concluded two things from his studies. First, that work procedures were inefficiently designed and second, that *the fundamental motivation of hired workers was to do the least amount of work as possible*. Further, Taylor is quoted as saying, “Most executives want workers who are house-broken. They talk a good game about wanting highly motivated employees who can add value, but when it comes down to particulars they really value obedience. Many executives are threatened by smart people below them.” It appears that Taylor noted this tendency in managers to think little of employees . . . and believed in it himself.

Lest you think that these beliefs went out of vogue long ago, Albrecht gives many examples throughout his book of this happening in businesses that he is consulting with *currently*. It occurs on many different levels. It can be just the way management refers to employees as “a resource” (which Albrecht finds patronizing and trite). At its worst, Albrecht calls it the “rabble hypothesis,” or the view of employees as the “great unwashed: unintelligent, unmotivated, socially naïve, and incapable of original thought.” He gives an example of “the WASM.” According to the training manual of the restaurant chain that espoused the WASM, the manager should first explain to the employee what a WASM was and why it is important to be able to give one. Then the manager should say, “Now

I'm going to demonstrate a WASM," after which he would WASM the employee. "Now it's your turn. Please demonstrate a WASM for me" after which the employee should WASM the manager. Now that your curiosity is piqued, a "WASM" is "a warm and sincere smile." When you have finished laughing, realize that the company probably thought they were following good training principles. Yes, sigh, principles developed by us I-O psychologists. Anyway, as long as this belief about employees grips us, subconscious or otherwise, OI is not a possibility—employees will quickly learn that thinking of any sort is not allowed . . . or even if they try, rules and systems will make it difficult or impossible.

What underlies Albrecht's arguments is that management needs to think of and treat employees as the self-motivated adults they are. And that's what his components of OI spell out. Strategic vision is the sense of purpose and direction of the organization. Performance pressure includes the basics to get there: performance goals, clear roles and responsibilities, and feedback. Alignment and congruence are structural in nature and include structures that are appropriate to the mission and priorities, yet empowering and enabling employees to get their jobs done. Shared fate is the "we're all in this together" feeling—that *everyone* is treated as and feels as a valued member of the organization. Knowledge deployment is the flow of information into and around the organization. It includes cultural and structural elements to encourage and allow this to happen. Appetite for change is the culture of continuous improvement. With these pieces in place, then the valued and valuable employees who have a clear understanding of the direction, who understand their role in achieving that goal and feel that they have the freedom to get their job done, who can get the information they need, and even change the organization if needed, can provide the heart. Heart is commitment to the organization accompanied by the motivation to move the entire company ahead. It goes beyond just doing one's own job (or even doing it well).

There really isn't anything *new* in this book. But I am okay with that—there are a lot of pearls of wisdom and nuggets of gold in what Albrecht has to say. He quotes Drucker as saying, "I am only going to tell you a lot of things you already know, and when I finish telling you I'm going to ask you why you are not doing all the things you already know you should be doing." I think that is what this book does as well—and that's pretty much the essence of OI.

Michael Watkins. **The First 90 Days: Critical Success Strategies for New Leaders at All Levels.** Boston: Harvard Business School Press, 2003, 208 pages, \$24.95 softcover.

Reviewed by *Theodore L. Hayes*, Senior Research Consultant, The Gallup Organization, Washington, D.C.

Leadership is the only area of organizational behavior where psychologists claim to know less than your average grandmother does. As Avolio, Sosick, Jung, & Berson (2003) noted, organizational behavior (OB) specialists are almost expected to display ritualistic self-abasement when discussing the supposed puny amount of knowledge “we” have about leadership. There are two reasons for this profession of humility. The first reason OB specialists demur from deep knowledge is because the number individual difference constructs germane to leadership have been overwhelmed by the permutations of situations where leadership is needed. It seems appalling that there is not the same taxonomic pallet of leadership traits, behaviors, cognitions, emotions, and so forth, as there are situations. The second reason is that OB specialists pride themselves on being scientist/practitioners, on *not* being celebrity “leadership gurus,” and on their stubborn, snobbish resistance to the faddish mass market. But in the end one might ask: What exactly do OB specialists know about leadership that matters a whit?

The First 90 Days by Watkins covers the here-and-now earthly world of the new leader. This book is two levels up from the “dummies” series of books, which is to say it’s focused on the problem at hand and it’s light on attitude. There is precious little theory, conjecture on multiple archetypes and leaders, riffs on “creative destruction,” and so on, and although Watkins presents his own “STaRS” framework, he does not demand unwavering fealty.

What is the primary problem the new manager faces in the first 90 days? Simply put, in most situations, new managers do not have a probationary period where they can mentally as well as physically promote out of their previous roles (most likely out of a professional track into a supervisory or managerial one). Thus, new managers must intentionally negotiate the transition and establish a time frame for completion of goals. (Watkins does not provide data to establish that 90 days is the bogey—why not 60 or 100 or 120?—but if this is your initial concern with the book, just pretend it’s whatever number of days you believe to be right.) What must be negotiated? Watkins hedges his prescriptions based on the situation the unit finds itself in—start-up, turn-around, and so forth—but universally speaking, a new manager must negotiate five aspects of the relationship with his or her new boss: What situation does this unit face? How will we know whether I’m successful? How can we best work together? What resources can I have to achieve the necessary goals we share? What can I do to develop as a manager?

The book's message that the most important person you need to manage is your boss may strike some as Machiavellian, deceitful, or wrong-headed. But shrewd toadying and strategic impression management are two important skill sets in organizational life, and denying this may be itself a sign of derailment. Watkins' point is that without the support and confidence of one's boss, the new manager has already limited his or her credibility and potential for effectiveness.

Watkins notes that the new manager must first establish the relationship with his or her boss in order to have the credibility to address the core challenges any manager faces: promoting oneself into the current role; "relearning" how to learn in order to understand the challenges faced by the unit; diagnosing and aligning strategy, mission, personnel, and resources; establishing early successes; building teams and coalitions; and finally, building one's own self-esteem through a sense of achievement and a commitment to work/life balance. Most of this is tried and true research-based OB practice. Watkins puts it into perspective by packaging it all within the 90-day time frame. By the close of the book, Watkins seems out of steam—he has stopped talking about his STaRS framework, he rehashes his own material noticeably, and the few pages on new topics such as self-esteem and work/life balance are more tinny than substantial—but he has by then built his case and he is, as they say, staying on message.

Two of the most important questions that OB specialists can ask about leadership (based on Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994) are *Who should lead?* and *What must a leader do to be successful?* Concerning what a leader must do, *The First 90 Days* is strong on three fronts. The new manager must develop clear goals based on an understanding of the situation, strategy, and so forth. Second, the new manager must have the credibility to achieve these goals, and most likely this credibility needs to be built on the confidence shown by the new manager's manager (or board of directors, possibly). Third, the new manager needs to achieve goal-related success in a short period of time. There are other important criteria of success for managers, such as developing direct reports, setting long-range goals, and so on, but the genius of focusing on the eponymous first 90 days on the job is that Watkins cannot be faulted for not addressing these long-term criteria. Nevertheless, although the transition period of 90 days may be necessary for success, it is not sufficient. Those looking for advice on managing in Month 4 and beyond are not immediately served by this book.

The book is rather thin, though, on the question of who should lead. A reader might reasonably surmise that those who should lead are those who can develop goals, gain credibility of superiors, diagnose strategy alignment, and so forth. Watkins seems agnostic as to the means by which one

meets these core challenges, the individual differences assessed in the selection of leaders, leadership training required, and so on. This agnosticism might qualify as a major fault of the book if that's what one were to look for. Of course, OB specialists have the know-how to address these myriad assessment facets in detail. Without a large set of data or practice history to suggest otherwise, a practitioner would be well served by adopting these *First 90 Days* criteria and choosing at least several assessments based on them. In short, given its richness of concepts and practical procedures, this book provides a solid platform for hypothesis testing and consulting practice concerning socialization of new managers, manager education, and so on. It should be a welcome addition to any OB specialist's reading list about leadership and management.

The purpose of a college preparatory school, as opposed to high school in general, is to prepare one to get into a top college and succeed there both socially and academically. Much like prep school, *The First 90 Days* presents objective, peer-derived strategy on what one is expected to do to succeed as a new manager. The only other way to know is to find out by doing. And remember, in the school of hard knocks, not everyone passes, and that's something your grandmother could tell you.

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Janet E. Davidson and Robert J. Sternberg (Editors). **The Psychology of Problem Solving**. New York: Cambridge, 2003, 394 pages, \$75.00 hardcover, \$27.00 softcover.

Reviewed by *Morell Mullins*, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Xavier University, Cincinnati, OH.

It virtually goes without saying that problem solving is an important topic in today's workplace. Employees, managers, and executives are faced with new problems on a daily basis and must find resolutions to these problems that do the best possible job of meeting the organization's needs. Whether the problem is how to deal with recalcitrant subordinates, how to undertake strategic reorganization, or simply how to choose the right shipping company from the myriad choices available, how we approach the problem and how we follow it through to its (hopefully successful) resolution are critical questions.

On one level, *The Psychology of Problem Solving* does a laudable job of laying out what is known about problem solving from a number of different perspectives. It succeeds in its goal “to organize in one volume what psychologists know about problem solving and the factors that contribute to its success or failure.” Unfortunately, where it falls short is its lack of attention to an applied audience. Notable exceptions exist, which I will touch on shortly, but in large part the concluding sentence of the 11th chapter of the book sums up what I view as the major shortcoming of the entire text: “The current challenge facing researchers and educators is to design instructional interventions that implement these findings.”

A question I kept finding myself asking as I worked my way through the book was, “How can we help people learn how to solve problems?” I offer this as a frame to my comments, because there may be other applied modes in which the book may be read. For the purposes of this review, however, this is the question I wanted answered, and this is the question that will serve as the foundation for my observations of both the strengths and weaknesses of the book.

In terms of organization, the book is divided into four sections. Part I is an introduction consisting of two chapters that do a good job outlining the domain, and Part IV is a single chapter summarizing major thematic elements. Both chapters in Part I provide a number of problems that might be of use to the trainer interested in introducing principles of problem solving to a group of trainees. Such problems serve to help demonstrate the importance of approaching problems from nonobvious perspectives (the ubiquitous “thinking outside the box”) and can also serve as good icebreakers. The examples also demonstrate that it is possible to have too much of a good thing; at least one example (the “Tower of Hanoi” problem) recurs in three chapters. Rather than providing a sense of continuity, the recurrence of such examples gives the book an unfortunately repetitive feel.

Part II (Relevant Abilities and Skills) discusses issues related to cognitive ability, creativity, insight, working memory, and text comprehension. In several cases, the authors approach what could have been interesting applied angles, then turn away at the last minute. Wenke and Frensch, in Chapter 3, present data that there is no direct linkage between cognitive ability and problem solving skill. This obviously raises many potential questions about personnel selection and how we might hire individuals into positions that will require a great deal of problem solving skill, but because this was not the focus of either chapter or book, it receives no discussion from the authors. Similarly, Lubart and Mouchiroud suggest in Chapter 4 that creativity may be a problem because original, creative solutions may be both difficult to generate and more difficult still to get accepted by an organization. Their suggestion that “some environments are

hostile toward new ideas,” for example, is well supported in the literature on organizational climate. As such, creativity may actually *hamper* successful problem solving—a fascinating idea that touches on elements of both the climate and innovation literatures. The chapter does not, however, go much beyond identifying the problem.

The third part of the book (States and Strategies) contains my favorite chapters. My favorite is Chapter 8, Zimmerman and Campillo’s “Motivating Self-Regulated Problem Solvers.” The authors begin their discussion by identifying the disconnect that seemed to plague the first half of the book—namely, that much of the research on problem solving focuses on what they term “formal contexts,” where problems are specifically defined and have an absolute correct answer. Much more common in application are the informal contexts, where a number of possibilities present themselves as resolutions to any given problem, and many of them can be either right or wrong, depending on the specifics of how they are implemented. The challenge of the informal context, according to the authors, is that problem solvers must be able to anticipate likely outcomes of various courses of action and subsequently restructure their approach to the problem itself to adjust for potentially negative outcomes. That is, people must self-regulate. They must constantly be aware not only of the problem, but also their own thought processes in regard to the problem and what effects the potential resolutions may have in the future. Their discussions of self-regulation, although often tending toward being descriptive rather than prescriptive, provide the reader with a means by which we might be able to encourage problem solving in informal contexts such as work: Train them on self-regulatory tactics and processes, make them aware of common strategies, and encourage long-term reflection rather than simply short-term problem resolution. This chapter has some real gems.

Stanovich’s Chapter 10, The Fundamental Computational Biases of Human Cognition, runs a close second to the Zimmerman and Campillo chapter. What Stanovich does is nothing more or less than define the elusive “box” that we’re always encouraging one another to think outside of. Arguing that we automatically contextualize any problem, Stanovich points out that when we view a problem in (or from) a particular context, we automatically limit the possible solutions we will consider to those that fit the context. Put differently, if you only think about a problem from your organization’s frame of reference, you limit yourself much more than if you were to do a simple Google search and see how others have dealt with similar problems. Context creates the “box,” and if we want to encourage employees to think outside that box, what we must do is train them to decontextualize their problems. Easier said than done? Probably.

The problem with reviewing this book, then, is that *The Psychology of Problem Solving* was likely not written with applied audiences in mind. It

is a solid book, well presented and cleanly edited, which presents a variety of academic perspectives on issues relating to problem solving. If you are a psychologist interested in how problems are solved and what some of the major difficulties may be that impede their resolution, you will find much to like in this book. I myself plan to make use of several chapters in future graduate courses. If, however, you are a practitioner looking for immediate assistance in hiring people to solve problems, or training individuals on problem-solving techniques, this is likely not the book for you. Taken for what it is—a scholarly work—this is an excellent book and a worthy read. The next logical step will be a book that takes each of the topics broached in this text and begins the work of rigorously applying them. That book, I look forward to a great deal.

R. Keith Sawyer. **Group Creativity: Music, Theater, Collaboration.** Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2003, 214 pages, \$49.95 hardcover, \$22.50 softcover.

Reviewed by *M. Peter Scontrino*, Industrial-Organizational Psychologist, Scontrino & Associates, Sammamish (Seattle), WA.

I have a good friend who plays piano in a two-person jazz ensemble. I have watched and listened to this ensemble for entire performances, and I have always been intrigued by how they were able to play and improvise for 90 minute performances without ever seeming to communicate with each other and without making any obvious errors. Sheet music was available but was rarely glanced at. Sawyer's text helped provide answers to these and other questions I have had about the process of improvisation.

Sawyer's goal in writing *Group Creativity* was to contribute to the understanding of the interactional processes found in this activity. Most of his examples draw on improv theater and jazz ensembles to provide insights into group creativity. He focuses most of his attention on the presentation and elaboration of his theory of symbolic interaction in groups. In accomplishing this goal, he draws on research done in many different disciplines, as well as on the work of Dewey (1934) and Collingwood (1938). Sawyer's theory draws on previous work on group creativity and analyzes the processes that allow group creativity to emerge through improvisation. He includes research from anthropology, musicology, sociology, social psychology, organizational psychology, sociocultural psychology, and conversation analysis as he creates his theory of symbolic interaction.

The book includes seven short chapters, each 20 to 30 pages in length. The first chapter introduces Sawyer's approach to group creativity. In the second chapter, he studies group creativity through the eyes of empirical studies of jamming in jazz and improv theater. The third chapter introduces

the concept that both verbal and musical performances emerge for interactional processes that are contingent from moment to moment.

In the fourth chapter, Sawyer studies group creativity in a wide range of artistic endeavors. The fifth chapter explores the connections between group creativity and creativity in the arts and sciences. For the sixth chapter, the author applies his model to posit that group creativity is present in both improvised and ritualized performance. The seventh chapter addresses creativity, teamwork, and collaboration.

Sawyer believes that there are five characteristics that define creativity in improv groups. The first is process. In improv groups, the process is the product, so the researcher must focus on the creative processes of group creativity. Unpredictability represents the second characteristic. The outcome is unpredictable because at each point in the process of improvisation the actor can choose from a wide range of moves or actions. The third defining feature is intersubjectivity because it is often not possible to determine the meaning of an action until other performers have responded to it. Complex communication is the fourth characteristic. As a result of the unpredictability mentioned above, actors must communicate with each other while enacting the performance and without stepping out of character. Emergence is the final characteristic of creative improv groups. Emergence refers to the fact that the performance of the group is greater than the sum of the individual contributions.

While studying Sawyer's five characteristics, I was struck by their applicability to many team building sessions I have facilitated or observed. The discussion is usually the product of these sessions. The outcome is unpredictable. Intersubjectivity is clearly present. There are various levels of communication. And emergence definitely applies.

Throughout the text, Sawyer stresses the importance of group interaction. He shows how both musicians and actors must accept and elaborate on each other's contribution during a group improvisation. Effective communication interaction underlies this effective group interaction. The author suggests that three bodies of work can be used to understand this interaction: interactional synchrony, flow, and the chemistry or the group dynamic.

Interactional synchrony refers to the fact that performers must be closely attuned to each other so that they can respond to the unfolding situation. This coordination of rhythms has been investigated using the concept of entrainment, which studies how one person's rhythms become attuned to those of another person. Flow refers to the state of heightened consciousness that occurs in individual during peak experiences. Chemistry, or the group dynamic, addresses the personality styles and the interpersonal dynamics of the specific individuals.

I was particularly intrigued by Sawyer's discussion of the degrees of improvisation in group creativity, ranging from ritualized to improvisational. He identified 11 dimensions that could be used to identify the actual degree of improvisation. Examples of these dimensions include the degree of creative involvement, the presence or absence of notation, the amount of audience involvement, and receptivity to novelty.

Sawyer has a short discussion on collaboration and teamwork in both educational setting and in organizational settings in the final chapter of the text.

Throughout his text, Sawyer stresses that group creativity cannot be explained using traditional structural models because it is unpredictable, it is collective, and it is emergent. He does emphasize the importance of improvisation, emergence, and interaction in many of his examples.

I found the text to be quite interesting both because of the topics covered and the fact that I could relate the concepts to my personal experiences. As an organizational psychologist, I was intrigued by the far-reaching examples Sawyer used to develop his theory of group creativity. Early in my career I studied the concept of interaction analysis. This text struck me as a very comprehensive and complex example of interaction analysis.

I recommend this text to the serious student of group creativity. It is, after all, a text that focuses on theory—with many interesting potential applications.

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Thomas Blass. **The Man Who Shocked the World: The Life and Legacy of Stanley Milgram**. New York: Basic Books, 2004, 360 pages, \$26.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Wayne Harrison*, Associate Professor of Psychology, University of Nebraska at Omaha, Omaha, NE.

“May 1962. Interaction Laboratory at Yale University.” Stanley Milgram's narration of his famous film, *Obedience*, opens with this sparse description of the setting. His concluding statement, in contrast, is eloquent and chilling.

The results, as I observed them in the laboratory, are disturbing. They raise the possibility that human nature cannot be counted on to insulate men from brutality and inhumane treatment at the direction of malevolent authority. A substantial proportion of people do what they are told to do, irrespective of the content of the act and without limitations of conscience, so long as

they perceive that the command comes from a legitimate authority. If in this study, an anonymous experimenter could successfully command adults to subdue a 50-year old man and force on him painful electric shocks against his protests, one can only wonder what government, with its vastly greater authority and prestige, can command of its subjects.

This research was groundbreaking and widely discussed in its time and remains significant today. To observers predisposed to a dispositional attribution as the only possible explanation for such behavior, the baseline trials revealed a startlingly high level of obedience. As Blass shows in his description of this research, a number of arbitrary decisions contributed to this base rate, but Milgram's manipulation of independent variables resulted in obedience levels varying from 10% to 93%, a most impressive mapping of the phenomenon. The forced revision in our beliefs resulting from these studies may account for their near iconic status in social psychology. Milgram's obedience research is widely known outside the academic discipline as well and was recently cited internationally in discussions of the Iraqi prison abuses.

If the obedience experiments laid bare and contradicted our dispositional assumptions, it is perhaps ironic that Blass addresses the same question with regard to the designer of the studies, namely, "Who was Stanley Milgram?" Blass is knowledgeable and painstaking in his attempt to portray Milgram; this book is absolutely authoritative in its sources and documentation. Blass interviewed Milgram's wife, siblings, children, colleagues, and students. He had access to the Stanley Milgram Papers at Yale University and is thoroughly familiar with Milgram's publications, films, and other writings. This material is skillfully interwoven (if limited to a straightforward chronology) and often revealing, for example, Milgram's comment in an interview on his dissatisfaction with Asch's conformity research having focused on judgments about *lines*. Milgram was determined to study group pressure with regard to something more important and initially designed the obedience paradigm as a kind of control group to see how far an individual would go in the absence of group pressure.

Blass's description of Milgram's research career clearly establishes that Milgram's *modus operandi* was not that of traditional hypothetico-deductive science. He was endlessly curious about social forces, especially situations requiring the resolution of conflicting demands. He had a great eye for the sometimes subtle yet powerful demands of social situations. As an experimenter, he was enormously creative, almost never thinking "within the box." Blass argues that Milgram was a situationist at heart, recognizing the role of individual differences, but not pursuing them in his own research. Milgram was a great tinkerer, ranging widely in his studies of social behavior (described by Tavris, 1974 as "a man of 1,000 ideas"). His abundant curiosity and methodological inventiveness reminded me of

Thomas Edison. One of his great strengths, and arguably a foundation of his lasting impact, is that he studied *behavior*. In contrast to today's graduate training injunction to employ multiple, sensitive, interval-level dependent variables, Milgram's were frequently simple dichotomous assessments of action. In a black-and-white fashion, Milgram measured behavioral responses to conflicting impulses.

Milgram was an enormously innovative empirical researcher but not a theoretician. The other figure brought to mind in reading Blass's account is a fictional one. In *A Scandal in Bohemia*, Sherlock Holmes argued, "It is a capital mistake to theorize before one has data. Insensibly one begins to twist facts to suit theories, instead of theories to suit facts." Milgram would likely have agreed with this reasoning. His curiosity about social pressures led him to pose "what if" questions rather than theory-derived hypotheses. As in the obedience studies, his research typically involved establishing a phenomenon and then varying some situational factors to see how they affected the behavioral response. His research is perhaps less cumulative in scope due to this largely empirical approach. Although he employed some very creative (and instructive) variations of the obedience trials (Milgram, 1974), he recognized that obedience in his paradigm was ultimately "perseverative," which he failed to explore. He also did not assess real groups and their role in rebellion against authority (*cf.* Gamson, Fireman, & Rytina, 1982). Certainly others were inspired to further study and theorizing, for example, Tyler's (1997) work on *why* authorities are viewed as legitimate and thus deferred to.

Experimental realism may have been the hallmark of Milgram's research. His contributions to social psychology go well beyond the obedience studies that he conducted at the beginning of his career. Blass engagingly describes the range of issues that Milgram investigated (it perhaps required a social psychologist to write this volume). Milgram's move to the City University of New York in 1967 was more a result of circumstance than desire (situational forces again!). However, he immediately delved into city life as a topic of study in a manner unlike any previous social psychological work. He assessed behavioral norms on the subway, had urban dwellers draw mental maps of the cities in which they resided, proposed the concept of information overload to account for apparent apathy, and examined the unique relationship of repeated exposure to specific individuals one never actually meets (the familiar stranger). One can almost see the wheels turning in Stanley's head as he lives life in the city.

Two of his lines of investigation are especially current today. The first of these is the lost-letter technique, in which he unobtrusively polled geographic areas by "losing" letters addressed to attitude-specific organizations (e.g., "Equal Rights for Negroes") and recording how many were mailed. (He once tried using an airplane drop of such letters, but this did

not work out.) Even better known is his initial description of the so-called six degrees of separation. Milgram was interested in social networks and created a novel, behavioral assessment of the number of social links connecting random individuals. This work has led to some enormously important theoretical modeling of both social and nonsocial networks (e.g., Barabási, 2002).

This book is an enjoyable read for those interested in social psychology or the sociology of science; it is fascinating to compare Milgram's interests and experiments to those of the mainstream social psychology of the time. As a biography, I found this book to be somewhat less than completely satisfying. In this regard, the dust cover photo is wonderfully apropos. It portrays the shock generator used in the obedience studies front and center with Milgram himself only partly visible to the side. A possible criterion for evaluating a biography is the feeling upon finishing it that the reader *knows* the biographical subject, rather than just *knowing about* the person. Milgram was certainly enigmatic and, in many respects, eccentric. Blass reports well and thoroughly, yet one does not end up "getting" Milgram. This may be because Milgram himself was not a coherent whole (low entitativity). He had a marvelous wit but was also often rude and abrasive. His curiosity led him in diverse directions such that his research career cannot be easily packaged either.

Whether any biographer could have done more is debatable. Yet, questions remain. Why did Milgram continue the obedience trials after seeing the trauma experienced by some participants? Why did he both respect and look down on Asch? Why was he denied tenure at Harvard? Is his curiosity alone a sufficient explanation for his proposed studies of "the tyrannical mode of interaction?" Partial answers are provided in this biography, and that is likely the best we can hope for, yet it is oddly unfulfilling.

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Gerald Matthews, Ian J. Deary, and Martha C. Whiteman. **Personality Traits** (2nd edition). New York: Cambridge University Press, 2003, 493 pages, \$30.00 softcover, \$85.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Scott Davies*, Manager of Research and Development, Hogan Assessment Systems, Tulsa, OK.

Matthews, Deary, and Whiteman (2003) provide a spirited and intelligent presentation and review of the classic British model of personality as handed down by Cattell (1946) and Eysenck (1967). The book is based primarily on empirical research, with many interesting findings, and the conclusions follow from the premises. The text would provide graduate level students a solid grounding in an important perspective on personality. But the nonspecialists (e.g., most undergraduates enrolled in their first personality course) should be aware that this is just one point of view on personality, and although it is very influential (represented in the U.S. by Costa and McCrae, 1977), it is just one point of view and the assumptions on which it rests are debatable. In particular, the model: (a) confuses prediction with explanation and leads to a tautology—trait words are used to both describe and explain behavior; (b) ignores the distinction between personality from the actor's and the observer's perspective; (c) confuses observer and self-reports (i.e., as observers we attribute traits to others); however, actors rarely, if ever, explain their behavior in terms of traits; (d) poorly specifies the term trait as an endopsychic variable; and (e) builds on factor analyses of observer descriptions, not self-descriptions. Eysenckian trait theory is like a good stem wall—it is the foundation for a building but not the building.

The authors offer what the title promises: a strict focus on a trait approach to personality. Posited as “an essential text for students,” it is probably less than essential and not appropriate for students in general, because the book does not provide adequate breadth of theory for an undergraduate course on personality (the authors acknowledge this and refer to the broader treatment found in other personality texts as “Hall of Fame”). However, the book may provide value as a supplemental read in a graduate level course. The authors, two with medical backgrounds, provide an extraordinarily British—and particularly narrow—perspective on this area of psychology. Although this perspective is a useful addition to the field, it needs to be supplemented by Celtic, German, Asian, and U.S. influences.

To their credit, the authors include a chapter on alternatives to trait theory, a section on situational effects, and a section on an interactionism perspective of personality. The authors also review Mischel's (1968) critique of trait theory. Unfortunately, only a limited number of alternatives are discussed, and this discussion of alternatives is not woven throughout the book.

The layout of the book is logical: the nature of traits is described in the first 128 pages and four chapters (with 18 pages devoted to alternatives to traits). The causes of traits are presented in the next 102 pages and three

chapters, and the consequences of traits appear in the final 170 pages and six chapters. The structure of each chapter is consistent and user-friendly with an overview at the beginning and end, a conclusions section, and additional readings. The empirical references are up to date and relevant throughout the content areas. Graphic representations abound, with 53 figures (including some quite complex structural models), 60 tables, and 28 boxes. The number of figures and tables reflect the depth of presentation of psychometric issues, which is fairly accurate and written clearly enough for a student to follow. It would have been useful to include recent IRT research on personality items (see Zickar, 2001).

The authors make a long and strong case for the biological and genetic bases for personality traits. Nearly 70 pages of the book are devoted to these arguments, with compelling evidence from adoption studies and twin studies that extraversion is inherited. The evidence for the psychophysiological bases of traits is less clear, with a cautionary note from Zuckerman (1991) concerning the possibility of isomorphism between personality and brain structures. The authors also acknowledge social causes of traits, primarily as drivers of knowledge development through cognitive structures. The book includes an interesting set of chapters on consequences of traits, with much of the focus on stress and other health related topics.

Three issues in the chapter on personality assessment are worth mentioning. First, the British influence is quite noticeable here, with only the Occupational Personality Questionnaire (Saville, Sik, Nyfield, Cramp, & Maybe, 1984) mentioned as an exemplar assessment used in organizational settings, although several better alternatives have been available on the international market for several years. Second, the authors state that "if factor structure is robust, choice of analytic method should have minor effects only." This contradicts much of the literature on factor analytic methods (see Preacher & MacCallum, 2003) and may lead students to faulty conclusions regarding their choice of methods and interpretation of results. Finally, the six pages that are devoted to emotional intelligence assessment would have been better devoted to other topics in personality assessment not included in the book, such as integrity testing, leadership evaluation, and workplace violence.

It is interesting how few books have been written over the past 10 years that focus specifically on trait theory of personality. According to an APA *PsychINFO* search, there have been 94 books published in the last decade with "personality trait" listed as a subject. Out of this list, 48 focus on personality as it is related to other psychological issues, 29 focus on personality related to applied issues, 9 focus on general theories of personality, and only 8 books focus primarily on trait theory of personality (one of which is the first edition of this book), and 3 others focus specifically on the Five Factor Model. On the one hand, it appears

that this book may be filling a void, on the other hand, given that the authors claim that “trait psychology is becoming the dominant paradigm for personality research,” one must ask why more books on this topic have not been published in the last decade.

Perhaps the lack of published work is due to a general problem with trait theory—at least three of the key propositions of the theory are unsound. One, traits are presented as both causes of behavior and descriptors of the individuals who display the behaviors. This tautology provides a single factor as both the predictor and explanation of behavioral processes. Two, strict trait theory as presented in this book reifies psychological constructs. Kroger and Wood (1993) provide a useful argument regarding the danger of reifying personality traits. Three, important cognitive and metacognitive topics, such as volition, free will, and life strategies are disregarded in trait theory. Given the emphasis on a cognitive revolution in psychology in general, and in I-O psychology in particular (Lord & Maher, 1991), this is unfortunate and may limit the current and future viability of trait theory.

For students of Eysenck and Cattell, Matthews et al. (2003) provide a very comprehensive, up to date review of empirical work in this area of personality research. For those working in the more general field of personality research, the volume may serve as a useful reference to the specific area of personality trait theory. Practitioners will find the text too academic and narrowly focused to be of value to their work. Overall, the concepts and research presented in this book are most useful when considered in the broader context of personality theory and cognitive psychology.

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Stale Einarse, Helge Hoel, Dieter Zapf, and Cary Cooper (Editors). **Bullying and Emotional Abuse in the Workplace: International Perspectives in Research and Practice.** New York: Taylor & Francis, 2002, 420 pages, \$110.00, hardcover.

Reviewed by *Catherine S. Daus*, Associate Professor of Psychology, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville, Edwardsville, IL.

When I received the edited book, *Bullying and Emotional Abuse in the Workplace*, my mind immediately recalled scenes from the movie, *A Christmas Story* (“... you’ll shoot your eye out!”) and the bullying that the lead character, Ralph, endured throughout the story. Although emotions in the workplace is the research area that I claim as home, to be honest, I had never thought much about *bullying* in the workplace. So I was quite interested and curious to review the book. And then I actually took a good look at it. The book is 420 pages with 25 chapters!

As there are positives and negatives to most anything, the length of the book is no exception. On the positive side, this book is a completely comprehensive coverage of the topic “bullying in the workplace” (but it doesn’t deliver so much on the “emotional abuse” part of the title). It is incredibly logically organized, flows well, covers both theory and practice, and has nice summaries (both at the end of the chapters and book). It would be an excellent resource for either a researcher in this area or a practitioner wanting information about bullying in the workplace in regard to policy implementation, the legalities, and rehabilitation and counseling. However, at times I found the book to be a bit redundant, with some chapters unnecessary and/or only peripherally related—a bit of “overkill” on the topic. In addition, because of the cost and “heft” of the book, I would not recommend this as a “ready reference” type of book for someone to have in his or her personal library—unless she were a researcher in the area. However, it would be an excellent library resource. In fairness, the book definitely delivers on its stated “main aim”: “to present the reader with a comprehensive review of the literature, the empirical findings, the theoretical developments, and the experiences of leading international academics and practitioners in the field of bullying at work.”

Regarding the organization of the book, it is divided into five parts and most chapters fit logically in their respective part. Part I (The Problem), comprised of four chapters, sets up the “problem” of bullying at work, empirically and practically. In the first two chapters (Concept of bullying at work: The European tradition; Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, & Cooper; American perspectives on workplace bullying; Keashly & Jagatic), the reader is presented with an overview of bullying at work research in Europe, Australia, and America. The reader gets a full sense of the endemic nature of the

problem supported by many descriptive statistics. We also begin to get a sense of the definitional inconsistencies in the literature and some of the methodological difficulties in studying the construct (because of a necessary over reliance on self report data, norms for suppression, etc.). Chapters 3 (Bully problems in school; Olweus) and 4 (Sexual harassment research in the US; Pryor & Fitzgerald), however, appear to be only tangentially related and are two chapters (as mentioned above) that really aren't necessary for the book. Although both chapters are excellent overviews of their respective topics by noted scholars in their fields, *and* it is simple to make the connections between bullying at work and their content, because of the substantial length of the book, I feel these chapters should not have been included.

In Part II (The Evidence), it seems difficult to disentangle from "the problem," and as such, I feel these two sections could have been combined (with some chapters deleted as noted). In fact, I was confused for a bit on how Chapter 5 (Empirical findings on bullying in the workplace; Zapf, Einarsen, Hoel, & Vartia) is different from Chapters 1 and 2. Nevertheless, all three chapters are well organized and provide an excellent review of empirical research, individual effects of bullying at work (Chapter 6; Einarsen & Mikkelsen), and organizational effects (Chapter 7; Hoel, Einarsen, & Cooper).

For explanations of the problem (Part III), we have a review of antecedents at the individual (Chapter 8; Zapf & Einarsen), social (Chapter 9, Neuman & Baron), and organizational levels (Chapter 10; Hoel & Salin). These three chapters provide compellingly logical, theoretically sound, and empirically backed explanations for understanding bullying at work. They are also intriguing to read. From these chapters, the reader has a clear perspective that this problem has multilayers and is multiply determined by the individuals, the group and organizational environment, and the social and cultural milieu. Once again, however, I question the inclusion of the remaining two chapters in that section (Chapter 11, Explaining bullying at work: Why we should listen to employee accounts; Liefoghe & Davey; and Chapter 12, which sets the topic in a postmodern experience; Mccarthy). Did someone really need convincing that it is important to listen to employees regarding bullying at work? And is it critical for our elucidation of the topic that we understand how bullying at work can be explained using a postmodern framework? I digressed for an hour or so on the Internet trying to get a definition and understanding of what "postmodernism" really is, much like I felt the book digressed from its main aims quite substantially with those two chapters. Although I do feel the chapters were written well enough (and, honestly, were reasonably interesting), they don't appear to add much value to the overarching goals of the book.

Part IV (Best Practices) and (some of) Part V (Remedial Actions) are highly recommended for practitioners. In Chapter 13 (Bullying policy; Richards & Daley), we get excellent advice from two experts in the field on how to go about developing, implementing, and monitoring policies on bullying at work. There are several helpful examples throughout the chapter (e.g., a list of bullying behavior, an example of flexible reporting procedures, and an example of mediation at work), and one is convinced that she has a “handle” on policy issues from this chapter. Chapter 14 (Investigating a complaint of bullying; Merchant & Hoel) is also an excellent resource on this specific aspect of bullying at work. Good advice, words of wisdom, and specifics (on everything from how to schedule an interview to recommendations for where/how people should sit in the interview), abound in this chapter. Tehrani (Chapter 15, Counseling and rehabilitation) presents a practitioner’s comprehensive overview of the counseling aspect of bullying, providing nice case studies to illustrate different therapy techniques.

Again towards the end of the section, I found the remaining chapters to be somewhat superfluous. In Chapter 16 (Vartia, Korpoo, Fallenius, & Mattila), we read about recommendations for the role of the occupational health specialist (much of this material overlapped the other three chapters in the section). Hubert argues compellingly in Chapter 17 that to prevent and overcome the problem, we need to take a systemic approach to the bullying at work. My thoughts are that the whole book argues this point both within specific chapters, as well as *de facto*, because of its inclusiveness of perspectives and explanations. Chapter 18 by Marais-Steinman presents a view of workplace bullying from the perspective of a developing country, South Africa. I found this particular chapter fascinating and appreciate furthering my knowledge of South Africa. Yet, it seems to add unnecessarily to the length of the book.

Part V is a compendium of various topics related to taking action against workplace bullying. Spurgeon (Chapter 19) frames addressing bullying at work from a risk management perspective and Lewis and Rayner (Chapter 22) from an HRM perspective—both of which are things that I couldn’t disagree with. Keashly & Nowell (Chapter 20) suggest that we could learn valuable lessons from the conflict management literature about how to deal effectively with bullying at work, and I agree with them. They make a thoughtful and compelling case. Ironside and Seifert (Chapter 22) discuss the importance of unions and collective action in preventing and addressing bullying. They feel strongly that unions are critical to preventing workplace bullying, which disagrees with the “tenor” of Lewis and Rayner’s chapter. Yamada (Chapter 24) provides a nice overview of the legal environment relevant to workplace bullying. All of these chapters provide a plethora of information on their respective topics; however, in

keeping with my main criticism of the book, I question the necessity of understanding the general history of HRM, collective bargaining, theoretical orientations regarding conflict management, and so forth *for the main purpose of the book*. I, of course, have the same criticism for my favorite chapter on the emotional aspect of bullying at work (and the learning organization; Chapter 21, Sheehan & Jordan). Yet, I loved reading and thinking about the emotional aspects and implications of bullying at work. I also thought that using a learning organization framework to capture the complexities of the phenomena was a nice touch. In fact, given the title of the book, *Bullying and emotional abuse in the workplace*, I was disappointed that more chapters aren't focused on the emotional aspects, either implicitly or explicitly.

Overall, as I mentioned in the beginning, the book is an extremely comprehensive overview of the topic, useful for practitioners and academics. I feel as if the editors could have condensed and . . . *edited* . . . somewhat, to make a more "user-friendly" resource. I also feel like they "cheated" a bit by having *so many* of the chapters written in part or whole by one or more of the editors. I have gotten symposia rejected for doing that very thing. Yet truly, the editors should be commended for compiling an impressive international set of discourses on this topic, and their summary (Chapter 25) does an excellent job of summarizing a huge amount of material and highlighting the main themes and important points. I was certainly convinced regarding the importance of this topic and feel quite well informed after having read it. I would be a much better known academic if my own work consistently met those two criteria.

Bill Fenson and Sharon Hill. **Implementing and Managing Telework: A Guide for Those Who Make It Happen**. Westport, CT: Praeger, 2003, 349 pages, \$64.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Michael Hansen*, Job Analyst, North Carolina State University, Charlotte, NC.

Despite North Carolina's mild winters, the rolling piedmont region is often hit by a significant snow or ice storm once each winter. Given that municipalities generally lack the tools to cope with storms of such magnitude, these storms pack an economic wallop. Businesses close and send employees home, many employees don't brave dangerous roads to make it to work, and many other employees must stay home with children as schools close for several days. *What is the dollar figure for the lost commerce and employee productivity during these freeze-outs?*

The potential for telework to ameliorate such economic losses was one of the most interesting lessons from *Implementing and Managing Telework*. According to Fenson and Hill, telework is the "substitution of

information technologies (such as telecommunications and/or computers) for normal work-related travel; moving the work to the workers.” The benefits for employers in adopting systematic telework programs (as they are listed in the introductory chapter) cluster into four categories: (a) productivity benefits (e.g., expansion of service hours, reduction of absenteeism and tardiness, and reduction of nonproductive, water-cooler time); (b) financial benefits (e.g., reduction of health and life insurance and workers’ compensation costs, and reduction of costs associated with facility expansion, new real estate, and parking); (c) workforce benefits (e.g., increases in employee satisfaction, a competitive advantage in the attraction of employees, and the expansion of the labor pool); and, (d) social or ecological benefits (e.g., reduction of air pollution and gas consumption, reduction of traffic congestion, assistance in compliance with legal statutes such as the American with Disabilities Act [ADA], and community revitalization).

Despite the topical chapter format, this is a reference book at heart. A more bouncy title like “The Best Practices Bible of Telework” would not have been misleading. Fenson and Hill are exhaustive in citing numerous organizations across many industries that have found success in their telework programs, in great detail in some cases and very little in other cases. A telework novice charged with starting a telework program will appreciate this book. There is an extensive list of resources for learning more about certain aspects of telework. The discussion of the available telework products from home computer security software to hoteling reservation systems is very thorough; the vendors of the many products mentioned will certainly appreciate the advertising. The legal and legislative discussions are likely informative not only for telework managers but also municipal, state, and federal policymakers. In addition, there are two useful appendices that reprint numerous union agreements and policies, sample contracts, telecommuter self-assessments, and program evaluation forms.

A reference book doesn’t always make for a good read, and *Telework* was difficult to read for review. Although exhaustive, the style is very dry and lacks organization and narrative flow. The frequent use of bulleted lists makes for some repetitiveness and discontinuity. But the best possible review for a book like this one is a personal recommendation to use it. I have already offered such a recommendation—to my wife, an organizational development manager in a company considering alternative work arrangements.

Despite the stylistic and organizational problems, most chapters are very informative. Chapter 2 (In the Beginning) describes some of the origins of both government and business telework programs. In Chapter 3 (Keeping It on the Up and Up), the authors trace some of the legislative and legal history of telework. The Clean Air Act Amendment of 1990 provided some impetus for telework implementation. They also discuss the role of

OSHA, discrimination and constructive dismissal, ADA demands for accommodation through telework, and protections for collective bargaining on company equipment and on salary time.

The focus of Chapter 4 (Feeling Safe and Secure) is the security of home office equipment (either employee or company owned). The authors thoroughly review firewalls, antivirus software, safe password habits, file-erasing software, and system-backup, antitheft, and recovery mechanisms. In Chapter 5 (Home Away from Home), the authors consider the mixed success of teleworking centers. Impressive savings are possible with such practices as hoteling—the process of reserving shared office or desk space in telework centers. For example, the U.S. Department of Commerce Trademark Office projects annual real estate savings of more than \$900,000 by using hoteling to increase the number of workers per desk.

In Chapter 6 (An Organized Response), the authors describe the role and response of organized labor to telework. In the U.S., unions have appeared to handle telework on a case-by-case basis involving locals in contract negotiations. The approach by European and Canadian labor organizations has been more proactive, establishing policies and sets of recommendations. In Chapter 7 (Preparing for Disaster), Fenson and Hill mention some of the telework-focused disaster management activities—contingency telework, they call it—that go beyond the often small-scale telework programs. In this context, telework plans can really save the day. Although typical telework programs deliver incremental results, contingency telework can likely help prevent major losses.

In outlining the 7-step telework program Implementation Process (Chapter 8), Fenson and Hill touch on some of the social and personnel processes that often interest psychologists and organizational development practitioners. Unfortunately, they do so unevenly. Although the authors identify some characteristics of successful teleworkers (e.g., low affiliation needs, plenty of job knowledge, a tendency for self-direction, and time management skills), they give little attention to non-self-assessment procedures. And although the authors nicely detail the utility of pilot programs to enhance buy-in and to sell the program to resisters, discussion of relevant organizational development issues such as training and organizational learning and structure is thin or nonexistent. Likewise, personnel issues such as retention and career development are absent from this chapter and the book in general. Professionals interested in detailed discussion of job analysis, selection, and performance management in the telework context may want to consult other literature.

Chapter 9 (Clearing the Hurdles) covers challenges such as attitudes and resistance to telework and the controversial practice of electronic employee monitoring. The authors provide a helpful primer on (pending)

U.S. legislation of employee monitoring. In addition, they detail some of the products available for remotely monitoring employees and teleworkers (including spyware that can be installed on computers remotely and surreptitiously).

Implementing and Managing Telework should find its way to many a practitioner's bookshelf. To be honest, however, the best place for the information in this book isn't a bookshelf, but the World Wide Web. Not only is the Web the ideal medium for organizing and communicating information about resources such as those in this book, it is the best medium for efficiently and inexpensively updating information on rapidly changing resources. And many know how effective the Internet can be for networking and sharing best practices. It is not that *Implementing and Managing Telework* does not deserve to be in print, but just a case in which the goal of providing resources and best practices to practitioners of telework would be best served by an online format. The value of *Implementing and Managing Telework* is clear, but its impact could be greater if it was published in the right medium.

Robert L. Cardy. **Performance Management, Concepts, Skills and Exercises.** Armonk, NY: M.E. Sharpe, 2004, 208 pages, \$39.95 softcover.

Reviewed by *John R. Ogilvie*, Associate Professor of Management, Barney School of Business, University of Hartford, West Hartford, CT.

Performance reviews strike terror in the hearts of managers and employees alike. Few like them. Any attempt at constructive feedback often yields resentment and defensiveness. Performance management seems even more illusive. Cardy aptly characterizes the situation: "Performance management is a messy process." Nonetheless, companies are demanding performance at all levels. Managers and their subordinates need to know the process, its shortfalls, and how to make it work best. This book is an effective tool preparing managers and workers for this important but demanding task.

Although addressing important issues, the book is far from intimidating. At first glance it seems a bit light. Of the 208 pages in the text, over half (roughly 127) are devoted to skill building exercises and appendices that contain slide masters. With only 81 pages left for supporting explanations and theory, it would seem that it could not provide much substance, but that assumption would be incorrect. Cardy strikes a delicate balance between application and theoretical foundation. Without overwhelming the reader, he demonstrates the strong research foundation upon which his models and advice are based. This foundation is presented with only two pages of references, making it more accessible to managers and beginning students.

Cardy's stature as a well-published expert in the field adds further weight to the book. In addition, he received endorsements from other experts in academia (Murphy, Cleveland, Rynes) and business practitioners as well, lending further weight. I concur with Rynes' endorsement that Cardy "does an excellent job of explaining why performance management is so crucial."

Structurally, the book is organized into seven chapters. The first chapter describes a model that serves that organizes most of the remaining chapters. One figure and six pages explain what follows in a succinct fashion. Chapter 2 through 7 not only explain the relevant concepts, but each is followed with six to eight activities. The activities are predominantly in-class thought questions but also include surveys, self-assessments, brief cases, and role-plays. All are conveniently summarized in a table in the appendix, along with time and difficulty estimates. The summary is a great aid for instructors or trainers in planning learning experiences.

Chapter 2 on performance represents basic I-O psychology. The concepts of job analysis and performance criteria are introduced. Cardy's description of criterion issues ranges from the familiar ultimate criterion framework to choosing between behavioral and outcome criteria. Furthermore, the eight, end-of-chapter activities extend the text material, giving the learner practice at critical incidents and value-based criteria. Several were excellent. In contrast, the job analysis coverage was so insubstantial that it would be hard for a novice to actually conduct one. Cardy's interest and expertise is clearly with the criterion portion of the chapter.

The third chapter addresses diagnosis or more directly observation and retention of performance information. Cardy's basic recording device is a cube with the dimensions of workers, projects/roles, and observations. Although the specific technique is not crucial to rest of the book, it does make the case for the importance of having detailed performance observations upon which to base evaluations. As with Chapter 2, exercises add depth to the chapter with activities related to attribution theory and job anecdote files particularly useful.

Chapter 4, "Evaluation," describes the issues related to assessing or judging performance. Though there is no color in the text, several drawn figures greatly enhance the text material. One figure depicts managers applying different measurement devices to the same employee, very effectively illustrating potential measurement issues. Besides this conceptual understanding, the chapter also includes many practical suggestions, including use of job aids, training and development considerations. This chapter also introduces the topic of frame of reference training and has an activity to practice it. Although important and useful, I found this coverage too brief to enable a manager or HR professional to implement this practice. Supplemental material would be needed.

The focus on feedback as performance, not the person, is the theme of Chapter 5. The brief and simple text material is enhanced by some of the best activities in the text. A survey for managers on the focus of feedback is a great self-awareness tool. One activity presents behavioral scales for evaluating performance while giving performance feedback. These scales clearly illustrate important behavioral standards when delivering feedback. Other potentially useful activities address team feedback, electronic tools for providing feedback, and thought questions about the judge/coach role dilemma in giving feedback.

Dealing with Feedback, Chapter 6, logically follows and represents one of the greatest practical problems in this area of practice. It is also not given sufficient attention in many books on the topic. Building on his own research, Cardy identifies the emotional issues that can untrack performance discussions. Perspectives of both evaluator and worker are identified. This chapter makes a unique contribution and adds to our understanding of how to make performance management work. Activities address disagreement, self-efficacy, and differences between self- and other-developed evaluations.

The final chapter is titled Improving Performance. It could be subtitled, An Application of Expectancy Theory of Motivation. This chapter is perhaps the most theoretical of any and a somewhat surprising way to end the book. On the plus side, it strongly makes the case for the role of the system (i.e., not the person) or larger work environment in identifying the causes of performance problems. This theme loops back to the earlier diagnosis chapter. Perhaps, covering some of this information earlier would have yielded a more succinct and satisfying conclusion. The detail in this chapter was inconsistent with the more concise prior chapters.

This book has little direct competition. Alternatives are either simple how-to books with limited foundation or somewhat dated scholarly descriptions without much application. The firm foundation with application stands alone.

Although well written and easy to follow, I found several aspects of the text in need of improvement. The diagrams used small fonts that were difficult hard to read and that seemed to deemphasize points. Many of the exercises were useful, but some built on prior ones. You could not use them if you had not done the prerequisite ones. A few exercises were too sketchy, asking the student or learner to find a situation without a lot of structure or guidance.

Cardy's better activities provided more of a context for the learner, such as the activity where a widely observable job like news broadcaster is the basis for observation. This activity is also structured around Borman's dimensions for judging a performance review session. As mentioned earlier in the review, some activities often extend material in the chapter, such as

more detail on attribution theory or outcome/procedural justice and self-efficacy in Chapter 6. These activities allow for more efficient presentation of information.

Overall, *Performance Management* represents an applied contribution to the practice of this important topic. Trainers and professors of I-O psychology or human resource management should review it. The exercises and guide to exercises in the appendix are very useful. I believe the book would be most effective for managers who have had some training on performance reviews. Its concise coverage can remind them of key issues and update them on some new ones. It can be useful in a survey or specialized course, but as a stand-alone text it may need supplemental coverage of a foundational text. Likewise, newcomers who need to implement programs may need further details to actually set up the programs. The accessibility of the text does yield a trade-off in depth and detail.

Stephen M. Colarelli. **No Best Way: An Evolutionary Perspective on Human Resource Management.** Westport, CT: Praeger, 2003, 334 pages, \$66.95 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Mark A. Wilson*, Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC.

While I was growing up as a Midwesterner, I constantly heard “If you can’t say something nice about somebody, don’t say anything at all.” My self-assigned book review beat concerns possible texts that I-O types might use in the classroom. I have been lucky in that I liked the previous texts I was sent to review. Well, my luck has run out and, with all due respect to my mother and grandmother who tried hard to pass along their values, I have nothing nice to say about this book. Whether your criteria are clarity, content coverage, objectivity, or exposition of key facts, you are likely not to like this book much either.

I must admit I had high hopes. I thought I was going to be treated to a real systems approach to human resource management (HRM) from an ecological perspective. We need to spend more time speaking and writing in systems terms about I-O. We often present the field in a piecemeal fashion that omits the power of the integrated approach to organizations. No such luck with *No Best Way*. What we get instead is an introduction and five chapters from an “apostate in industrial and organizational psychology.” For a moment, let’s put aside that I-O is supposed to be about data and not about beliefs. We learn most of what we need to know about this book in the introduction. Apparently, the author’s attempts to apply I-O to the real world did not go well when he got out of graduate school. Then he began to notice that we often do not practice what we advocate when we are hiring fellow faculty members. He began to realize that we

have not evolved to use data-based decision making in HRM. We have evolved to have face time and size people up in person. I think that is what he means by "traditional methods." What we do not get in the introduction or anywhere else is any real research to support the author's points.

The central point of the book is that I-O requires decision makers to act in ways that are not in agreement with how they have evolved to behave and make decisions. I am sure our behavior evolved along with everything else, but unfortunately, behavior does not leave any fossils. The discussion of how humans behaved several thousand years ago will remain nothing more than speculation and has no place in a serious science of behavior until someone invents a time machine. We are constantly told that "traditional methods" are preferred to the I-O approach, especially in the private sector. A reasonable alternative hypothesis as to why decision makers do not want to use data-based decision making is because they fear it will reduce their power to control the organization.

So I think much of what this author calls evolutionary HRM is little more than idle speculation. By the way, the fact that I prefer a data-based approach to traditional methods is because I suffer from "technocratic hubris, vanity, and veiled self interest." Maybe you do not have these issues with the evolutionary approach. So if you are really interested in evolutionary psychology should you read this book? I do not think so. There are many other reasons not to like this book. It is not clear to me at whom the book is aimed. I doubt it is going to change any minds among the I-O set. It describes behaviors that decision makers already use, so I do not see what they would have to gain from reading it. Maybe it is some kind of psychoanalytic cathartic exercise for the author. Someone in I-O must have been very unkind to this guy, because he really does not like us anymore.

In the first two chapters, we examine the bad mechanistic approach to HR (yes, that would be I-O) and the good evolutionary approach. You would think if evolutionary psychology had so much to offer HR, it would not take two chapters out of five to compare and contrast the two approaches. Written as a free-flowing, almost stream-of-consciousness style, these two chapters are long and sometimes hard to follow. Maybe it is because I am mechanistic, but I would have appreciated a little more of a linear approach. To emphasize the literary nature of what we are doing, these chapters have cool names: "Clocks, Caves, and Utopias" and "Storms, Pilots, and Byzantium." Here we learn over and over again how out of touch we are with how human behavior has evolved and that our HR technology ignores how people actually make decisions.

The next three chapters deal with selection and training. No, you did not misread. An evolutionary perspective on HRM turns out to deal only with selection and training. I am sure my colleagues on the organizational

side of the house are having a good laugh about now. I was at least hoping to get some good evolutionary perspective stuff to throw at them in committee meetings, but I was disappointed. Turns out that will have to wait for other books. In these chapters, we learn that scientific methods really are not much better than the old look the horse in the mouth (or rather eyes) approach. At least we get more cool chapter titles. My favorite is *Splinters in the Mind*. Try naming the next manuscript you submit to *JAP Splinters in the Mind* and see how far that gets you. The bottom line here is that this book would not work as a text for a class on *An Evolutionary Perspective on Human Resource Management* without a lot of supplements (assuming they exist). Even the author admits that HR has not been adequately covered in this book. A better and more honest title would have been *An Evolutionary Perspective on Selection and Training*.

Authors have every right to speculate on anything they want when they write a book. This author includes a lot of speculation and not much research to illustrate his points. The premise is bad, he does not deliver on what he says he is going to cover, and the book is hard to read without throwing it across the room several times. I wonder how books like this get published. The work was funded by the Earhart Foundation, which is known for funding future Nobel winners. Maybe they see something I cannot see. Every now and then, I will admit to wanting to lay down the burden of a data-based approach to what I do. The research is often messy and inconclusive, but it is the only thing that separates us from all the hucksters out there.

Susan T. Fiske, Daniel L. Schachter, and Carolyn Sahn-Waxler (Editors). **Annual Review of Psychology, Volume 55**. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, 2004, 944 pages, \$65.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *Lynn Summers*, Workscape, Framingham, MA.

Although this year's *Annual Review* packs 200 more pages than last year's, there are still no signs of the hardcore I-O psychology topics. But, as Brooklyn Dodgers' fans used to say, just wait till next year! In the meantime, there are a few of the current volume's 28 chapters that may be of practical interest.

Three chapters are interesting because they place heavy emphasis on technology. A lot of research is being done these days on the Internet. Birnbaum's chapter, *Human Research and Data Collection via the Internet*, notes that conducting experiments, as well as surveys, over the Internet can be incredibly efficient. But there are drawbacks. For example, subjects tend to drop out of Web-based experiments at a higher rate than lab studies. Undaunted, Web researchers have come up with some interesting methods

to counter this. In the “high-hurdle” method, people are asked to perform irritating tasks (e.g., filling out lengthy personal information forms, waiting for big Web pages to load) before being randomly assigned to treatments, thus forcing at least some people who are likely to drop out to go ahead and drop out.

A few years ago a report suggesting that the Internet was destructive to the nation’s social fabric grabbed headlines (Kraut, Patterson, Lundmark, Kiesler, Mukhopadhyay, & Scherlis, 1998). Bargh and McKenna, in their chapter on The Internet and Social Life, conclude that, “[d]espite past media headlines to the contrary, the Internet does not make its users depressed or lonely, and it does not seem to be a threat to community life—quite the opposite, in fact.” Internet interactions, for example, allow people to present themselves more authentically and openly than face-to-face interactions. Heavy users of the Internet are more heavily involved in community activities. One remarkable finding that they report claims that 22% of a random sample of participants in Internet newsgroups reported they are now married to, engaged to, or living with someone they met in the newsgroup.

The Internet is simultaneously serving as a medium through which significant research can be conducted and a phenomenon that is perhaps transforming society. Given both its importance and its ubiquity, it is not surprising that conducting Web-based studies raises issues not only of methodology but also of ethics. A recent *American Psychologist* article (Kraut, Olson, Banaji, Bruckman, Cohen, & Couper, 2004) addresses the ethical side of Internet research and would be a good supplement to the Birnbaum and the Bargh and McKenna chapters.

Amidst all the advances in technology and communication, you would think that the folks who conduct survey research would be sitting fat and happy. Not so. Tourangeau, in his chapter, Survey Research and Societal Change, itemizes the woes brought on by technological and other parallel societal changes that have befallen our survey colleagues who still rely heavily on the telephone. It is increasingly difficult to contact respondents, who increasingly employ answer machines and caller ID. Once prospective respondents are finally contacted, they are increasingly likely to refuse to participate. As Tourangeau elegantly phrases it, there has been a “decline in the level of civic engagement.” People have less free time, are increasingly sensitive to privacy issues, have been driven beyond irritation by telemarketers, and fear identify theft. The cure? Repeated callbacks can partly overcome the difficulty of making contact and offering incentives can boost the participation rate. Both remedies, of course, drive up survey costs.

The Web is affording surveyors an exciting alternative to traditional telephone surveys. One major problem is that there is no central listing

of everyone with email addresses, unlike readily accessible telephone listings, and, thus, nothing for sampling methods to grab hold of. However, the big debate among the survey techies, according to Tourangeau, is around static versus dynamic representation of surveys online. The relative merits of the two approaches are being studied.

Besides these technology-skewed chapters, there are four chapters that address substantive content that would be of interest to many I-O psychologists. These chapters look at group decision making, creativity, social influence, and midlife development.

In their Group Performance and Decision Making chapter, Kerr and Tindale cast a skeptical eye over the literature. One of the most reliable findings in group studies is that groups suffer from process loss—that is, they perform less well than would be expected given the capabilities of their members. Very seldom do groups achieve an “assembly bonus effect” (which must be a new term for synergy). Similarly, brainstorming in a group seldom produces stellar results—nominal (noninteracting) groups usually outperform brainstorming groups. It could be, they suggest, that the intense interaction of brainstorming interferes with getting a train of thought going. On the positive side, the authors report that certain facilitation techniques can reduce process loss and that electronic brainstorming can have dramatically positive effects. It would be interesting to compare the findings reviewed in this chapter with Surowiecki’s (2004) popular book touting the effectiveness of “collective intelligence” over expert teams.

Although we have heard a lot about social loafing, probably because we see it happening all around us, there has been much less talk about social compensation. This is when group members increase their efforts to compensate for other members’ anticipated poor performance. Of most interest to me is the continuing work on stress and group performance. There are some useful findings here: Time pressure (a major form of stress) creates a drive for uniformity, which results in a centralization of power and a “closing of the group mind.” Under such conditions, groups are inclined to accept, even welcome, autocratic leadership.

Runco, the author of the Creativity chapter, is described as “an extremely active author” in his biography at the Cal State Fullerton Web site. Indeed. At least 43 of 242 references in his chapter are to his own publications, not to mention a slew of other authors he cites whose entries appear in his *Encyclopedia of Creativity*. This man has been busy. One of his goals for this chapter is to convince the reader that creativity research has expanded far beyond its focus a quarter century ago on creativity’s relationship to intelligence and personality. To make the point, he mentions everything from studies of Sperry’s commissurotomy subjects (his split-brain research was an important source of the fashionable right brain/left

brain hokum), to the dissection of Einstein's brain, to clinical studies of schizophrenia and creativity. I am convinced.

But what is there in this far-ranging creativity work that is relevant to organizations? Not much more than the usual cast of good things. Autonomy, positive role models, resources (including time), encouragement, and freedom from criticism all foster creativity. It's inhibited by lack of respect, bureaucracy, time pressure, competition, and unrealistic expectations. But, as usual, nothing is simple. Sometimes, as Runco reminds us, creativity springs from the most horrid of conditions ("Necessity is the mother of invention"), or fails to materialize under the most ideal of conditions (creative loafing?).

There is a large amount of substantive research reviewed in Cialdini and Goldstein's chapter, *Social Influence: Compliance and Conformity*. The findings are organized around what they consider the three main drivers of our responses to others' attempts to influence us: to be right (accuracy), to be liked (affiliation), and to avoid looking foolish (maintenance of a positive self-concept). The authors observe that recent work has focused on situations where these motives are nonconsciously or automatically elicited. One such finding that I find rather delightful is behavioral mimicry, where one person mirrors the gestures and body posture of the person he or she is conversing with. What is especially mind-boggling is that one person's affinity for the other is actually boosted when the other deliberately mimics the person's gestures.

What is it about social psychology that is so intriguing, yet so frustrating? Perhaps I am speaking only for myself here. But consider another recent finding in the compliance literature: People associate monologues with strangers, dialogues with friends. Thus, people are more inclined to comply with a request after a stranger has engaged them in a short, trivial conversation (dialogue) than if the stranger makes an outright request of them (monologue). This effect, of course, finds immediate application in the hands of sales people who attempt to engage you in some artificial dialogue before making their pitch. When this happens to me, the power of dialoguing is immediately supplanted by a desire not to let someone else control my behavior.

I had high hopes for Lachman's *Development in Midlife*, the chapter's subject being a particular favorite of mine. I was disappointed. There is no coherent framework that has popped to the surface to help us understand what goes on developmentally between the ages of—well, seems like there's not even agreement on the age brackets for "midlife." The respected names that appear consistently and often are those of Erikson, Neugarten, and Vaillant, suggesting that this subject area lacks a contemporary leader. I should also note that the author has an irritating tendency to note "significant" research projects, longitudinal studies, and surveys

but not to report any major findings or discoveries that have emerged from them. This leads me to suspect that nothing of significance has emerged from the studies. Generalizations from the research findings are commonsensical. For example: There are multiple paths people can take through midlife. Health and financial issues loom large. Decrements in cognitive functioning—to some extent memory and to a larger extent speed—can be compensated for by experience.

As always, the *Annual Review* is full of findings, insights, and ideas waiting to be mined and put to use. For my fellow I-O psychologists and I, we can always wait till next year for “our” chapters to have their turn at bat.

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Karen S. Cook and John Hagan (Editors.). **Annual Review of Sociology, Volume 29**. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, 2003, 649 pages, \$70.00 hardcover.

Reviewed by *James A. Wilson*, Department of Sociology, Fordham University-Lincoln Center, New York, NY.

In a recent series of statements in the American Sociological Association’s monthly publication *Footnotes*, several authors debated the merits of a ranking system of sociological journals/publications in terms of their “core” influence (see Allen, 2003; 2004; Koffler, 2004; Marsh, 2004). Given that the *Annual Review of Sociology* (hereafter *ARS*) has become the third most cited journal among peer sociological publications, a noteworthy part of this exchange hinged on questions regarding the relative influence of *ARS*, with the different parties agreeing on its significance to the discipline but disagreeing as to its merits as a “core” journal. The point to be made is that *ARS* is generally intended for a specific audience and is an annual series that “publishes analytical reviews of the current state of research and theory on a specific topic” (Allen, 2004). The *Annual Review of Sociology*, which does not publish original research (like all *Annual Reviews*, and as the name suggests), is a series whose articles are noted for their synthesis and integration of a broad range of primary research in

order to provide a comprehensive and critical review of the current state of sociological knowledge on a specific topic. Articles in the *Annual Review* series broach numerous subject areas in a single volume thereby providing the reader with an in-depth view of a broad range of topics.

I am of the mind that academics and research-oriented readers of *Personnel Psychology* are likely to gain the most from articles in *ARS*, especially those essays directly relevant or peripheral to their fields of interest. The esoteric quality of many of the reviews are largely oriented towards academics or other specialists with specific interests, or emerging scholars who wish to acquire a basic understanding of the current sociological thinking underlying a specific topic. This is without doubt the primary audience of the annual review series. This is not to say that *ARS*, however, is a barren wasteland of information for others as individual readers with specific interests will surely find the reviews both informative and substantive. However, the broad range of topics is probably more than most readers might find useful. The volume reviewed here, for example, covers an array of diverse subject areas highlighted by sections (and individual articles) on Theory and Methods, Institutions and Culture, Political and Economic Sociology, Differentiation and Stratification, Individual and Society, Demography, and Urban and Rural Community Sociology.

Of note in this volume, for example, are a number of papers with organizational links. Handel's "Skills Mismatch in the Labor Market" is one essay from a framework within economic sociology addressing what is often perceived as a public issue that is associated with negative social consequences, in this case, rising inequality in wages. Handel succinctly summarizes the available evidence regarding the changing supply of worker skills compared to the demands of the labor market (e.g., is it an increasing demand for more complex skills or is it declines in human capital due to failing schools), and, although offering no firm conclusions, does address existing misperceptions about some of the issues. He points out for example, that "reports of declining test scores, educational attainment, and school quality are typically exaggerated" and "stories of absolute cognitive skill declines among young people have little empirical basis." Although there is a clear disconnect between the sociological interest of such a discussion to issues of inequality and the interest of employers in terms of labor force supply, organizations and employers may find the review informative in its general applicability to human resource problems.

In a data-driven society, information becomes a form of currency that impacts all aspects of life and, from an organizational perspective, reduces the uncertainty of the environment within which it operates. Too often however, there is too little focus on the way in which information is collected and the meaning it holds (reliability and validity). Schaeffer

and Presser (“The Science of Asking Questions”) provide an excellent overview of the survey research literature that has broad applicability, including academic, market, and public opinion researchers to name a few. My only qualm with the essay is there is little focus on the complexity of survey methodology in different modes of delivery (perhaps because I am constructing an Internet-based survey for the first time and was explicitly looking for more detail). Given that Schaeffer and Presser state that the “interactional mode (interviewer or self-administered) and technological mode (computer or paper) influence the nature of both a survey’s questions and the processes used to answer them,” I had hoped for more emphasis on different approaches. Nevertheless, I am aware of the limitations of a review article and what can and cannot be addressed.

I harken back to a previous life in managerial and other work positions in reading and assessing the general usefulness of *ARS*. Readers of *Personnel Psychology* with a more applied or practitioner background are, generally speaking, unlikely to find much of interest in *ARS*. Organizations, managers, practitioners, and the general public are likely to consider much of the work too dense and perhaps obscure for their purposes. Although I view much of the work reviewed as having significant practical or policy application, these applications are seldom drawn out or highlighted in the reviews. Given the focus of the essays, perhaps this is as it should be.

In reading Swedberg’s “The Changing Picture of Max Weber’s Sociology,” for example, I find grains of material that I am likely to incorporate in my future teaching, particularly Swedberg’s discussion of Weber’s concepts of interest, institution, and orientation. However, the value and applicability of these concepts to those outside the discipline and of Swedberg’s essay in general, seems largely limited. Clearly, there are other articles within the volume that are likely limited in both their appeal and their scope. Callero’s “The Sociology of the Self,” and “The Potential Relevances of Biology to Social Inquiry” by Freese et al., for example, seem highly discipline-specific and are most likely to appeal to even smaller subsets within the discipline.

In light of this assessment, are there essays that the less academically oriented are likely to find interesting or even useful in their day-to-day work? Perhaps. I take Furstenberg’s review of teenage childbearing as a compelling story, a rejection of the stereotypical views of teenage childbearing, and a caution about the interpretations of research. Most importantly, Furstenberg provides an account of nearly 40 years of research experience that questions the continuing public perceptions regarding teenage births and the public policy choices that seldom confront the reality of those births.

Other articles of note are Visher and Travis' "Transitions from Prison to Community," a solid review of the issues perceived to be integral to the ultimate success or failure of individuals returning home from prison. Given our current social experiment in mass incarceration, and its consequences for individuals, families, and communities, the topics addressed here have practical implications for social policy beyond the criminal justice system. And as a new adoptive parent, Fisher's (Still "Not Quite as Good as Having Your Own"? Toward a Sociology of Adoption) questioning of the negative views stereotypically associated with adoption is consistent with my own experience thus far. Fisher points out that adoption touches many lives, and is seldom studied by sociologists (and family researchers in particular). That adoption has typically been stigmatized and associated with negative life outcomes is often held as truth by the public and media, and Fisher brings a light to this issue that counters the stereotypes.

Although it is not possible to adequately address the breadth of the *ARS* essays in this review, my general contention is that *ARS* is likely to be a valuable resource for most scholarly readers of *Personnel Psychology*, and perhaps less so for those with a more applied focus or practitioners. However, the diversity of subjects addressed and the styles in which they are written means that many of those essays may certainly appeal to an audience broader than those that cite *ARS* articles in their own manuscripts. My own choices as to what is most interesting (as well as those essays I consider less so) are obviously driven by my own interests in issues of crime and criminal justice, educational achievement and the quagmires often created by public policy decisions. These interests will clearly be different from those of most scholars, organizations and employers, practitioners, managers, and the general public, especially given the more practical issues of interest to many of these groups on a day-to-day basis. However, I encourage the readers of *Personnel Psychology* to explore the contents of *ARS* for themselves and to make their own determinations about the publication's contents. Although the essays in *ARS* cannot in anyway be construed as a bedtime snack and are better characterized as a substantial meal, interested readers of all stripes will certainly come away with more than they arrived.

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Robert O. Brinkerhoff. **The Success Case Method: Find out Quickly What's Working and What's Not.** San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler, 2003, 233 pages, \$24.95 softcover.

Reviewed by *Gloria E. Miller*, Associate Professor, Organizational Analysis, Faculty of Administration, University of Regina, Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada.

Focusing on the negative often creates “a feeling of pervasive frustration and depression” (Miller, 2002) “as if there is no way out—no way to make significant and lasting changes . . . yet changes are made everyday” (Lorber, 1994). Although Lorber was referring to change for women, and I had been referring to the use of personal consciousness raising in feminist's sharing stories of discrimination on the basis of their gender, this may also apply to change efforts in organizations. Srivastva and Cooperrider (1990), for example, suggest that it is time “for the discipline of organizational behaviour to venture outside its own culture of pessimism.” And it is also possible that reports of the overwhelming lack of success in creating organizational change (e.g., Beer & Nohria, 2000) have more to do with a focus on what did not work, rather than on what was successful. Brinkerhoff's *The Success Case Method: Find out Quickly What's Working and What's Not* focuses on the positive. In the spirit of Weick's (1984) *Small Wins: Redefining the Scale of Social Problems*, Brinkerhoff says that the Success Case Method (SCM) “looks for success no matter how small or infrequent (and) helps new initiatives grow and become more successful.”

The Success Case Method: Find out Quickly What's Working and What's Not is well written and well organized. It is a very clear, detailed description of a particular method of evaluating successful, and unsuccessful, implementations of change processes in organizations, and on the basis of that information, adapting the program. Brinkerhoff begins with an overview of the method, its underlying questions, and potential applications. He goes on to summarize the five steps the method uses: focusing and planning a success case study, creating an “impact model” that defines what success should look like, designing and implementing a survey to search for best and worst cases, interviewing and documenting success cases, and communicating findings, conclusions, and recommendations. He concludes this chapter with the story of how he had inadvertently developed the method during the process of carrying out an evaluation survey in an organization. The next five chapters detail each of the steps in the process.

Each of the five chapters that detail the steps in the method is, in turn, broken down into step-by-step procedures. Chapter 3, Focusing and Planning a Success Case Study, for example, is organized by describing

eight steps, or considerations, that must be taken into account. Interspersed with the descriptive text are stories that illustrate best practices or problems arising because of the neglect of the step being carried out. Having read the book, one could easily use this method.

As said earlier, the book is appealing because of its focus on successes instead of deficits, it is well written, clear, detailed, and useful. For me, however, these are not the most appealing aspects of the book. The most appealing characteristic of *The Success Case Method* for a qualitative researcher, who takes a nonpositivist world view, is that the book is based in that view, which I suggest is much more consistent with current conceptualizations of organizations. This book applies qualitative methods to organizational evaluation and, in spite of Brinkerhoff's assurances that the method is "scientific," we know that qualitative methods and the paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994) underlying them are still not considered mainstream "science." The worldview, or ontology, underlying qualitative research asserts that reality exists only in the meaning systems of human beings (i.e., is socially constructed, which means that there are multiple realities that can be studied only holistically). This is in contrast to the assumption that reality is an objective entity that exists independently of the researcher and the researched, which may be reduced to its component parts, and that the whole is simply the sum of the parts. Qualitative approaches differ in several other important ways from the traditional science, "positivistic," perspective. Rather than the belief that the researcher and the "subjects" are independent, the qualitative approach argues they have an interactive relationship, simultaneously producing, and being produced by, the study. Thus, studying, and being studied, changes those involved. Another fundamental difference in assumptions is related to the temporal and contextual nature of knowledge. The qualitative approach argues that all knowledge is time bound and context bound, thus, limiting generalizations to other times or places. The traditional view is based upon the belief that generalizations in the form of laws are possible and are, in fact, the overarching goal of research. The two approaches also differ in their views regarding cause and effect, with the qualitative approach arguing that they cannot be distinguished because all entities or events are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping, and the traditional view based upon the assumption that it is possible to determine the preceding, or simultaneously, occurring causes to specific isolatable effects. The final difference in the assumptions underlying the two approaches is related to neutrality or objectivity. Traditional science argues that inquiry is value free and that use of the scientific method guarantees that neutrality. The qualitative approach suggests that all studies are value bound in several ways, but particularly in the way the problem is chosen, framed, bounded, and focused. Thus,

this approach argues that all studies are affected by the values of the researcher.

The implications of these differences in worldviews are reflected in the actual conduct of a study in several important ways. For studies employing interview methods, such as is used in *The Success Case Method*, some general characteristics have been identified by Bogdan and Biklen (1992). Some of the more important include the idea that “meaning” is of essential concern. There is a focus on the people being studied to discover “what *they* are experiencing, how *they* interpret their experiences, and how *they* themselves structure the social world in which they live” (Bogdan & Biklen). Because researchers in this paradigm “assume that human behaviour is significantly influenced by the setting in which it occurs” (Bogdan & Biklen), the everyday, natural setting is the direct source of data and that data are nonnumerical, that is, they are descriptive. And, finally, there is a focus on process rather than only outcomes or products.

Why should we care about which set of underlying assumptions structures the evaluation of an organizational change program? I suggest that it makes most sense to match the tool to the job at hand and the traditional, positivistic approach treats organizations as rational, linear, logical, machine-like systems, in which behavior is measurable and predictable. A growing number of writers on organizations suggest they are anything but that. Wheatley (1992), for example, argues they are nonlinear, dynamic, organic systems that have the power to self-organize. The use of success stories, which is similar to Weick’s (1984) small wins argument, may be fairly compared to the “butterfly effect,” which says that a butterfly flapping its wings in one part of the world may cause a tornado in another, far distant, part. Its basic argument is that small differences in initial conditions can cause completely unpredictable outcomes. This book is based upon assumptions consistent with such a view of organizations. *The Success Case Method* is a tool that is well matched to the very difficult job of evaluating the effectiveness of change programs.

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Klaus Krippendorff. **Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology (2nd edition)**. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 2004, 413 pages, \$89.95 hardcover, \$44.95 softcover.

Reviewed by *John M. Ford*, Research Psychologist, U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board,* Washington, DC.

Krippendorff has updated his influential treatment of content analysis methodology (Krippendorff, 1980). This is both an advanced textbook and a guide for experienced researchers venturing into content analysis for the first time. The second edition excludes some material from the first edition and greatly expands coverage of computer-based methods. Personnel psychologists will encounter familiar discussions of sampling, reliability, and validity. They will also be introduced to issues unique to analysis of texts. Given the increasing use of text mining technologies (e.g., Berry, 2004), the treatment of computer-aided content analysis is timely.

The author acknowledges that 2 decades have changed how content analysts work. Changes include the pervasiveness of computers, diffusion of content analysis methods to numerous disciplines, large text archives available on the Web, and an increased need for coordination between teams of content analysts. The 14-chapter exploration of this field is organized into three sections that present foundational material, content analysis design, and analysis and interpretation.

In the first chapter, the author outlines the history of content analysis. He includes well-chosen examples as he traces its development from its origins in Renaissance analysis of religious texts, through early 20th century focus on newspaper content, World War II concerns with propaganda, and postwar expansion into broadcast media and advertising. Beginning with the 1960s, he chronicles the emerging influence of computers, electronic storage, and the Internet. Psychologists will enjoy several examples from our discipline, such as Allport's (1942) early work on the analysis of diaries.

Krippendorff's second chapter introduces the conceptual foundations of content analysis. The conception of *content* has evolved from an inherent

*The opinions expressed in this review are those of the reviewer.

property of text, through a property of text authors, to the modern perspective that content is always analyzed from a particular perspective in a specific context. Psychologists will recognize parallels with the evolution of the *validity* concept. Six case studies from the research literature are effective illustrations of the author's perspective.

Chapter 3 presents recommendations about the research questions that content analysis is best suited to address. Krippendorff's typology of research questions includes making extrapolations about future or missing data, identifying rhetorical patterns in narratives, and comparing text to standards of accuracy or content coverage. The author describes traditional content analysis measures and proposes criteria for identifying productive directions in future research. Personnel psychologists can readily extrapolate this discussion to applications such as coding of open-ended survey questions, analysis of critical incidents, and structured scoring of essays.

The next three chapters (4–6) combine traditional and content analysis-specific topics as the author explores research design, operationalization and sampling issues. For example, content analysts often need to segment or *unitize* narrative text into distinct parts before analysis. This process is invisible in text with natural boundaries, such as answers to different open-ended survey questions, but requires conscious decisions when text is narrative, such as for focus group transcripts. These unitizing decisions have implications for sampling and subsequent analysis. In this context, the author discusses traditional sampling approaches as well as solutions to common content analysis sampling problems. Psychologists will enjoy the discussion in this section of McClelland's (1992) work identifying instances of achievement motivation in text.

Chapter 7's discussion of recording and classification of data will be familiar to psychologists who have designed structured interviews or assessment center exercises. Krippendorff discusses best practices for selecting raters, training them, providing them with effective job aids, and ensuring their performance is replicable. He warns against overreliance on consensus and weakening construct validity by excluding content that is difficult to code reliably. Personnel psychologists engaged in applied content analysis will find this material helpful.

Chapters 8 through 10 discuss data management, making inferences from data and statistical analysis. All three chapters contain less than a full treatment of their subjects. This is intentional and works well in the data management and statistics chapters—the author points to comprehensive treatments elsewhere. It disappoints in Chapter 9, *Analytical Constructs*. Here the author discusses *abductive reasoning* processes to make valid inferences from text to conclusions about the world outside of text. He raises potential weaknesses of these inferences resulting from oversimplification, inadequate categorization schemes, and theory-driven

bias. This discussion is thought provoking but would benefit from additional description and more of the examples that are so effective in other chapters.

Chapter 11 begins with a broad characterization of reliability, analyzed into its separate facets of stability, reproducibility, and accuracy. The author suggests strategies for training and checking raters to increase reliability, but cautioning against sacrificing validity to obsession with statistical reliability. Readers, like the reviewer, will forgive the author for his extended exploration of Krippendorff's alpha as a reliability statistic. This discussion is useful, but seems out of balance with abbreviated treatments that other topics receive in the text. It ends abruptly—I could have used the author's help in digesting this material.

Chapter 12 is the strongest chapter in the book. It presents a solid review of current computer-aided content analysis tools. It does not digress into a "shoot-out" style feature comparison but organizes these tools into a framework based on how they support the researcher. Adopting a cautionary tone about the limits of computers, Krippendorff distinguishes between simple text management and search tools, computer-aided content analysis software such as WordStat (Peladeau, 2004) and Diction (Hart, 2000), and interpretive aids such as NUD * IST used by qualitative researchers. He emphasizes the concept of *semantic validity*—the need for computer generated solutions to be validated by informed human judgement—and proposes strategies for investigating and establishing it.

Krippendorff's review is enriched with fascinating "nuggets" of information and illustration. My favorite is the subtle differences in meaning and context in an investigation of the word "rights" as used by Republicans and Democrats. Researchers will also appreciate his list of large electronic text archives and his guidance for building content dictionaries. The review includes not only dictionary approaches, but statistical association, semantic networks, and "memetic" strategies, which trace the flow of ideas between documents—including cascades of newsgroup messages and genealogies of plagiarized college essays. The chapter closes with speculation about future innovations from computational linguistics, artificial intelligence, and the commercial marketplace.

Chapter 13 addresses validity, recognizing the minimal importance of *face validity*, the consequential concerns of *social validity*, and the technical requirements of *empirical validity*. Concerned that the testing profession unduly influences mainstream approaches to validity, the author develops his own validity framework. Krippendorff reprises and underscores the concept of *semantic validity*. The open-ended nature of many texts and the unknown conditions under which they are produced require additional care to ensure analysis does not become an artifact of the researcher's method.

Chapter 14 is a practical integration—it outlines content analysis proposals and reports with references to key sections of the other chapters. Krippendorff closes by distinguishing between research projects motivated by knowledge-driven research questions and those motivated primarily by availability of texts or specific tools. Although all three can be legitimate, tool-driven approaches merit extra scrutiny because of the possibility that researchers will pursue them carelessly.

There is much to recommend this book. The work psychologists do with text in job analysis, testing, and survey research is applied content analysis. We should examine perspectives from outside of our discipline for ways to improve practice in these areas. Content analysis also provides a methodological lens through which we can examine tool-focused uses of text mining in personnel psychology. Krippendorff's perspective on these tools and our obligation to critically evaluate their output is valuable and timely.

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Joop Hox. **Multilevel Analysis: Techniques and Applications**. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 2002, 304 pages, \$79.95 hardcover, \$37.50 softcover.

Reviewed by *S. Bartholomew Craig*, Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC.

Multilevel methods seem to be *en vogue* these days. You know this if, like me, you have recently observed an increase in the frequency with which your reviewers say things like “Good paper, but I would like to see these data reanalyzed using hierarchical linear modeling (HLM).” OK, maybe the “good paper” part isn’t that frequent, but the “HLM” part

certainly feels like it's on the rise. But in all seriousness, any recent upsurge in sensitivity to levels-of-analysis issues is long overdue. Such issues potentially exist in any data set with a hierarchical or "nested" structure, such as students nested within classes, employees nested within departments, or departments nested within companies. The basic premise of multilevel analysis is that, when variables at one level (e.g., the department) affect relations among variables at other levels (e.g., individual employees), care must be taken so that effects are not inadvertently collapsed to a single level or otherwise misinterpreted as occurring at the wrong level. Failure to accurately specify the appropriate variables and effects at each level when analyzing multilevel data can (and probably will) lead to substantial misinterpretation of results, so some familiarity with multilevel analysis methods should be considered mandatory for researchers working with organizational data. Indeed, training in multilevel analysis—a longtime staple of graduate programs in educational research—is becoming increasingly common in psychology programs, including industrial-organizational psychology programs.

Instructors wishing to introduce graduate students to multilevel analysis and researchers who just want to acquaint themselves with the topic (perhaps to appease those reviewers) should consider Hox's (2002) *Multilevel Analysis: Techniques and Applications* as a viable resource. *Multilevel Analysis* is the second volume in Erlbaum's *Quantitative Methodology for Business and Management* series to address multilevel analysis techniques (the other being Heck & Thomas, 2000). This book is best suited for students in education, management, and the social sciences for whom emphasis is on analyzing data to answer substantive research questions. Instructors wishing to emphasize a deeper level of understanding through dissection of specific theorems and proofs (e.g., instructors in statistics departments) may find this book works best as a complement to a more in-depth treatment from another source. Hox's preface describes the book as "an introduction to multilevel analysis for applied researchers." The book's stated aim is to present basic multilevel models in nontechnical terms, reserving more technical language for the extensions and special applications covered later in the volume. My own reading suggests that is an apt description, though the beginning student will likely raise an eyebrow at the "nontechnical" claim. Equations and formulae are in no short supply, even in the presentation of basic models, but Hox generally succeeds at limiting them to instances where they support conceptual explanations given in the text. It is in these conceptual explanations where the book really shines; Hox excels at translating statistical concepts into plain English. This emphasis on conceptual description is likely to delight students in applied fields but may frustrate those who prefer to think in purely mathematical terms.

Broadly, the book is organized into chapters addressing multilevel regression (often called hierarchical linear modeling by other authors) and chapters addressing multilevel structural equation modeling (SEM). All chapters assume the reader's familiarity with multiple regression and the chapters that address multilevel SEM additionally assume familiarity with ordinary SEM and factor analysis. The first chapter provides a good conceptual overview of what it means for data to be multilevel and includes a discussion of common errors of the wrong level and their consequences. Chapters 2 through 11 cover multilevel regression (HLM). This section of the book provides a clear conceptual introduction to the basic multilevel regression model and proceeds to more advanced topics such as parameter estimation procedures, modeling longitudinal data, logistic models, multilevel meta-analysis, multivariate models, and power analysis. Chapters 12 through 14 address multilevel SEM, which is covered in a somewhat more technical fashion and assumes more prior knowledge than do earlier chapters. These final three chapters address multilevel factor models, unbalanced designs, multilevel path models, and latent curve modeling of longitudinal data. An appendix provides background information regarding the sources of the example data sets used throughout the book, along with the Internet address of the author's personal Web site (<http://www.fss.uu.nl/ms/jh/mlbook/leabook.htm>). The Web site will be an important resource for adopters of the book because it allows the example data sets to be downloaded in a variety of file formats and provides a brief list of *errata* (three, as of this writing). Those considering purchasing the book can even download the first two chapters for free. Interestingly, Hox has made his older (1995) book on multilevel analysis available as a free download from this site also.

The book generally presents material in a logical order, progressing from less to more complex. This is true both within and across chapters. Within each chapter, Hox succeeds at presenting concepts in a layered fashion such that later material builds upon earlier, so the order of presentation feels intuitive. Instructors, who have had to assign material out of its textbook sequence for it to make sense, will appreciate this feature. The book is well documented, providing an excellent array of references to other sources for the reader seeking more detail or greater depth. Hox makes effective use of examples throughout the book, relying on a combination of real and simulated data. Although the number of examples provided is adequate to demonstrate key concepts and procedures, the book isn't exactly brimming with them. Some instructors may find they need to supplement the examples provided in the book with others of their own device. In addition, despite the publisher's "Methodology for Business and Management" series moniker, most of the book's examples come

from the educational domain, with only a scattering from management, medicine, and general psychology.

Few of us would get very far with any advanced analytic procedure without good computer software. Hox makes frequent reference to a variety of software that can be used for multilevel analysis (e.g., SAS, SPSS, HLM, MLwiN, MPlus) but he stops short of offering detailed instructions for performing analyses in specific software packages. This is by design, he says, because the high rate at which software is evolving would quickly render such instructions outdated. Instead, the book focuses on more general explanations of procedures and leaves readers to grapple with the user's manual for their software of choice. Hox does comment on the different capabilities of certain programs and notes when specific examples require features not present in all software.

In sum, this book is worthy of consideration by applied researchers and those who train them. Its clarity of conceptual explanation and excellent organization put it ahead of the pack in terms of accessibility to beginning students. Hardcore statisticians may find the book lacks the depth they crave in some areas but that audience will likely still find it a useful introduction with pointers to other sources. Instructors who do adopt it should probably consider whether this book alone is sufficient or should be used in conjunction with another text. I believe the book would serve well as the only multilevel text in a broader course not exclusively focused on multilevel analysis. Instructors of semester-long multilevel courses (especially in nonapplied subject areas) will need to consider whether this book provides the technical depth they are looking for. But for a clearly articulated conceptual introduction to multilevel issues, this book will be hard to beat.

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*The publications listed are either already scheduled for review and/or are included as a new listing. Readers interested in reviewing for *Personnel Psychology* are invited to write our Book Review Editor, Dr. John W. Fleenor, Center for Creative Leadership, One Leadership Place, Greensboro, NC 27410—or email him at fleenorj@leaders.ccl.org—providing information about background and areas of interest.

- Study of 62 Societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2003, 818 pages, \$125.00.
- Johnson, Michelle T. *Working While Black: The Black Person's Guide to Success in the White Workplace*. Chicago: Lawrence Hill Books, 2004, 217 pages, \$14.95 softcover.
- Krippendorff, Klaus. *Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology (2nd edition)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, 2004, 413 pages, \$89.95 hardcover, \$44.95 softcover.
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