

The Relationship of Creativity and Goal Orientation to the Demonstration of
Strategic Human Resource Competencies in the Department of Defense

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ABSTRACT

Over the past 28 years, as a human resource (HR) professional, I observed much writing and research on the need for the HR function to focus more on strategic outcomes and less on administration (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; OPM, 1999; PPS, 2010; Ulrich 1997). The shift in focus from administrative to strategic has been slow, demonstrated by the fact that from 1995 to 2010 the HR function appears to have has not changed how it allocates its time, has not increased focus on strategic outcomes, and is not engaging in higher value-added activities (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012). Absent from the literature is research on why the members of the HR function have been slow to embrace and demonstrate a strategic HR role (Beer, 1997; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012, OPM, 1999).

This study was designed to address this knowledge gap by exploring the relationship between creativity and goal orientation and demonstration of strategic HR competencies based on self-assessed competencies. Understanding these constructs and their relationship to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies can inform the nature of interventions, to include selection, certification, training and development, to facilitate the movement of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus.

Perceptions about creativity, goal orientation, and demonstration of strategic HR competencies were solicited from Department of Defense, Department of the Army civilian HR professionals. Correlational and multiple regression analyses were used to explore creativity and goal orientation and their relation to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies.

Results showed that 17% of the variance in demonstrated strategic HR competencies was explained by creativity and a learning goal orientation, both characteristics of the individual HR professionals. After controlling for pay grade, these predictors still explained 13% of the variance in the self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Suggestions for future research include replicating this study with a larger, diverse, randomized sample to validate and

expand the findings of this study in terms of affects and generalizations. In addition, research exploring the work environment in organizations that have successfully made the transition from an administrative to a strategic focus.

Dedication

This paper is dedicated to my HR colleagues at the Central Intelligence Agency, the National Reconnaissance Office, the Office of the Director of National Intelligence, and the Defense Intelligence Agency who recognized the potential for a greater role, devoted time and energy to professional development, exhibited the courage to assume new roles and risk failure, and are making invaluable contributions to the mission of the U.S. Intelligence Community.

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I began this journey in September 2000. Over the past 14 years, I experienced periods of energy and excitement about my research, and equal periods of apathy when work, life, or just plain procrastination took over.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

No matter what the industry, public or private sector, in a knowledge economy, an organization's human capital is recognized as critical to strategic success and competitive advantage (Bauhs & Diamond, 2000; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005). An organization's people are the source of the capabilities that enable the organization to differentiate itself from competitors. The key differentiator for organizations is the talent and capabilities inherent in the people they employ. Business leaders recognize that attracting, developing, and retaining talent is vital to organizational success, and is among their top concerns (Buckingham & Vosburgh, 2001; Yeung & Berman, 1997). In testimony to Congress (Walker, 2001), the Comptroller General of the U.S., David M. Walker, stated "federal agencies are experiencing human capital challenges in such key areas as (a) strategic human capital planning and organizational alignment; (b) leadership continuity and succession planning; (c) acquiring and developing staffs whose size, skills, and deployment meet agency needs; and (d) creating results-oriented organizational cultures" (p. 4). In the early to mid-1990s, several research studies reported a positive relationship between human resource (HR) practices focused on building employee commitment and business performance (Huselid, Jackson, & Schuler, 1997; Ostroff, 1995; Yeung & Berman, 1997). The competitive forces that managers faced in the 1990s and continue to face today (Ulrich, 2014) demand organizational excellence. The efforts to achieve such excellence—through a focus on learning, quality, teamwork, and reengineering—are driven by the way organizations get things done and how they treat their people. These are fundamental issues of the HR function (OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1998).

Problem Statement

Given the criticality of an organization's human capital or its employees, the HR function is among the most influential and strategically important functions in any organization. Beginning in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s, business and government leaders, HR academicians, and researchers challenged members of the HR profession to create a new role and agenda for the function. A new role and agenda that focuses not only on traditional HR activities, such as staffing and compensation, but on value-adding outcomes that contribute to

organizational performance (Ulrich, 1998; Yeung, Woolcock, & Sullivan, 1996). HR can add value in four ways:

- partner with management in strategy execution (Lawler & Mohrman, 2000b; Ostroff, 1995; Vosburgh, 2007; Yeung & Berman, 1997);
- organize work to deliver administrative efficiency and reduce costs while maintaining quality (Ulrich, 1997);
- increase employees' contribution (Ulrich, 1998; Yeung & Berman, 1997; Yeung et al., 1996); and
- facilitate continuous transformation by shaping processes and a culture that improves an organization's capacity for change (Kaufman, 2001; OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1997; Vosburgh, 2007; Yeung & Berman, 1997).

By the late 1990s, HR academicians, business and government leaders, and HR professional associations challenged HR to shed old myths, adopt new competencies, redefine roles, focus on results, and evolve into a profession that makes a difference for the organization (OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1998). In 2001, the U.S. Government Accountability Office, identified strategic human capital management (i.e., strategic HR) as a pervasive challenge in the federal government (Walker, 2001). Out of this challenge came a number of HR competency models developed to align the skills of HR professionals with changing the HR function, visions, and strategies. In 1989, Patricia McLagan conducted a study on behalf of the American Society for Training and Development to identify competencies associated with human resource development. McLagan depicted the relationship between HR development and management as a "human resources wheel." The HR management functions depicted on the wheel served as the basis for future HR competency models (McLagan, 1989). These models defined the skills, knowledge, and abilities needed if HR professionals were to transform from personnel administrators to strategic business partners (Meinert, 2012; OPM, 1999; Ulrich, Brockbank, Johnson & Younger, 2009; Yeung et al., 1996). While the models differ in terminology, all identify similar roles with associated competencies, such as business partner, change agent, leader, HR expert, and advocate (OPM, 1999; PPS, 2010; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005).

In 1987, the RBL Group and the Ross School of Business at the University of Michigan initiated a longitudinal study, the Human Resource Competency Study (HRCS), to identify what HR professionals should be, should know, and should do to be effective (RBL Group, 2013; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich et al., 2009). The HRCS is the largest global study of the HR function with data collected and a report published every five years. The results of the most recent data collection, published in January 2013, identified six competency areas: strategic positioners, credible activists, capability builders, change champions, HR innovators, and technology proponents (RBL Group, 2013). Although role and competency labels have evolved since the early HR competency models, the focus remains moving from administrative to strategic, positioning the HR function to facilitate organizational performance (Ramlall, 2006; RBL Group, 2013; Ulrich, 1997).

The Office of Personnel Management (OPM), leader in human resources management for the Executive Branch, has collaborated with Federal agencies since the 1990s to facilitate the administrative to strategic focus shift of Federal HR professionals. In 1998-1999, OPM conducted a comprehensive study on the state and future of the Federal HR function, to include readiness of Federal HR professionals to continue to deliver traditional HR services and support (e.g., recruiting, staffing, payroll, etc.) while also serving as strategic partners to agency management. The study revealed that the HR workforce faced a number of challenges to include a gap between the competencies HR professionals were currently using and those viewed as important to the HR function (OPM, 1999). Compounding the situation is that most agencies did not have a formal plan to close the competency gaps. OPM developed and published an HR competency model with five focus areas and associated competencies—business, leader, change agent, HR expert, and advocate (OPM, 1999). More than ten years after the OPM report, leaders in the Federal HR community were in agreement on the need to address the reality that too many of the 26,000 Federal HR professionals do not have the full range of competencies needed to meet the workforce challenges ahead for departments and agencies (PPS, 2010).

Several studies since the mid-1990s revealed the challenge of developing and demonstrating the competencies critical to the strategic HR roles (Lawler 2011; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Lawler & Mohrman, 2000b; PPS, 2010; Yeung et al., 1996). Yeung,

Woodcock, and Sullivan (Yeung et al., 1996) found that HR leaders estimated that only 10-35% of their HR professionals possessed the competencies needed to perform in a strategic role.

According to Edward Lawler (2011), who has extensively researched the evolution of the HR function:

HR has not progressed greatly in terms of its strategic role in corporations. The very popular ‘business partner’ HR model does not appear to have had an impact on HR professionals redefining roles in support of the organization. It has gotten HR professionals savvier about a number of business issues and made the HR function more important contributor to the business operations of corporations. However, the transformation of HR to a strategic role seems to have made little progress and seems to have stalled (p. 2).

The HR function’s harshest critics have called for the abolishment of the function if HR professionals cannot adopt a strategic role (Hammonds, 2005; Ulrich, 1998). David Ulrich (1998), a professor at the University of Michigan, who has worked in the field as a researcher, professor, practitioner, and consultant stated in a Harvard Business Review article:

I must agree that there is good reason for HR’s beleaguered reputation. It is often inefficient, incompetent, and costly. In a phrase, it is value sapping. Indeed, if HR were to remain configured as it is today in many companies, I would have to answer the question above with a resounding, Yes—abolish the thing! The competitive forces that organizations face today will continue to confront them in the future and demand organizational excellence. The efforts to achieve such excellence—through a focus on learning, quality, teamwork—are driven by the way organizations get things done and how they treat their people. These are fundamental HR issues (p.124).

The Center for Effective Organizations (CEO) at the University of Southern California began a longitudinal study of the HR management function in 1995 to track the HR function’s transition from an administrative to a strategic focus. To date, the CEO has published six reports, the most recent in 2012, based on data collected in 2010. Findings over time indicate that the HR function has made limited progress toward changing to a function that contributes to a strategic partnership and organizational effectiveness. In response to the findings of the CEO’s second study of the HR function to measure whether the HR function is changing and whether it is effective, Lawler and Mohrman (2000b) said:

Change has just begun. The next decade will probably see dramatic change in the human resource management function in most companies. The opportunity exists for human resources management to become a true strategic partner, and to help decide how

organizations will be managed, what human resources systems look like, and how human resources services will be created and delivered (p. 71).

Results from CEO's sixth study of the HR function, completed in 2010, indicated that many of the changes predicted have not yet taken place. While there has been some shift from administrative to strategic roles, "it is not the kind of game-changing change that we thought would happen" (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012, p. 163).

Throughout my almost 28 year career as an HR professional, despite research and writing on what the HR profession needs to do to remain relevant and add value to the organization, HR and organization leaders struggle with how to make it happen (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Lawler, Jamrog, & Boudreau, 2011; PPS, 2010; Ulrich 1998), short of full-scale replacement of existing HR professionals. The shift in focus from administrative to strategic has been slow, demonstrated by the fact that from 1995 to 2010 the HR function has not changed how it allocates its time and has not increased focus on becoming a strategic business partner and engaging in higher value-added activities (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2008; Ulrich, Younger, Brockbank, & Ulrich, 2011). Other evidence includes federal government studies, such as the Office of Personnel Management's 1999 study of the federal HR community that identified gaps in HR competencies of the federal HR workforce. Although this study, presented recommendations to close the HR competency gap, in 2010, the federal Chief Human Capital Officer Council reported that "the fact that far too many of the 26,000 federal HR professionals in government do not have the full range of competencies they need to help their departments and agencies meet the larger workforce challenges that lie ahead" (PPS, 2012, p. 1) continues to be a pressing issue..

Interventions such as competency models, training, and certification, the HR profession remains embedded in the administrative aspects of the profession, lacks the necessary competencies, and has made little progress in adopting and demonstrating strategic roles (Lawler & Boudreau, 2009a, 2012; OPM, 1999; PPS, 2010). Hull (2012) wrote, "HR must change dramatically if it is to evolve from transaction processor to strategic decision-making facilitator" (p. 32).

What is getting in the way of the HR profession? The elements to facilitate the movement of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus are in place: (a) a strong business case (Ostroff, 1995; Yeung & Berman, 1997); (b) academic research and practical experience (Kaufman, 2001; Ostroff, 1995; Ulrich, 1998; Yeung & Berman, 1997); (c) competency models to guide selection and development (Lawler, 2011; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Meinhert, 2012; OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1998). Since I began my career in 1986, HR professionals have entered and exited the workplace, representing at least two new generations of HR professionals. The members of the profession have been exposed to academic and business literature making the case for change, competency models, and predictions of the demise of the occupation. While much has been written about how the HR function and HR professionals need to change and the competencies and behaviors necessary to facilitate the change, little to no quantitative or qualitative research exists on why the function is slow to transition.

As a member of the HR profession in the Federal government since 1986, I experienced the evolution of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus within four Federal agencies. There appears to be a qualitative difference between the HR professionals who demonstrate strategic HR competencies and behaviors and those who do not. The HR professionals who demonstrate strategic HR competencies and have gone beyond an administrative focus tend to also demonstrate perseverance in the face of obstacles, willingness to take risks, willingness and desire to learn and explore, tolerance of ambiguity, openness to experience, and a belief in self.

Similar behaviors are associated with creativity (Amabile, 1983; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Simonton, 2000; Sternberg & Lubart, 1992) and a learning goal orientation (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). I contend that a relationship exists between an HR professional's level of creativity and goal orientation and the extent to which strategic HR competencies are demonstrated on the job. Understanding these relationships can inform the selection and development of HR professionals to perform with a strategic focus.

Creativity is a multidisciplinary concept that operates at the individual, organizational, and societal levels. At the individual level, creativity solves challenges on the job and in daily life (Amabile, 1983; Feist, 1998, 1999; Mayer, 1999; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). At

organizational and societal levels, creativity can lead to new scientific findings, new movements in the arts, and new inventions and/or social programs (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Moran, 2010; Puccio & Cambra, 2010). Creativity research has focused on the creative person (Feist, 1998, 1999; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996), product (Amabile, 1983; Puccio & Cambra, 2010; Sternberg, 2006), process (Runco, 2010), and environment conducive to creative behavior and results (Amabile, 1996). In addition, several researchers explored the construct from various psychological perspectives: cognitive processes, personal characteristics, life span development, and social context (Amabile, 1983; Batey & Furnham, 2006; Feist, 1999; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008; Simonton, 2000; Sternberg & Lubart 19;). The individual is a key component of creativity research whether the research focus is the person, product, process, or environment.

Personality research identifies a number of characteristics common to individuals identified as creative—Independent, nonconformist, open to new experiences, and accepting of risk—regardless of domain expertise (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Csikzentmihalyi, 1988; Simonton, 2000; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). Separate research in the area of goal orientation identified similar personality characteristics among individuals who demonstrate behaviors associated with a specific goal orientation—the mastery or learning goal orientation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). Goal orientation is a construct originating in the educational literature that suggests that individuals hold either a learning or a performance orientation toward tasks (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). A learning goal orientation is characterized by a desire to increase one's competence by developing new skills, mastering new situations, and taking on challenging tasks (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). In contrast, a performance goal orientation reflects a desire to demonstrate competence to others and to be positively evaluated by others (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). Research demonstrates that the two types of goal orientations influence how individuals respond to task difficulty and failure (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Martocchio & Hertenstein, 2003).

Individuals with a learning orientation tend to pursue an *adaptive response pattern* (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). This response pattern is “characterized by persistence in the face of failure, use of more complex learning strategies and the pursuit of difficult and

challenging material and tasks” (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002, p.4). The focus on skill mastery often produces high levels of performance, as a secondary effect, not as the primary focus (Simmons, 2009). Learning oriented individuals tend to establish challenging objectives and do not have a fear of failure due to an interest in learning and increasing skill mastery (Brett & Vandewalle, 1999; Dweck, 1986).

Performance orientation is associated with a *maladaptive response pattern* (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988). This response pattern is characterized by an increased propensity to withdraw from tasks, especially if there is a chance of failure; less interest in difficult tasks; less complex learning strategies; and the tendency to seek less challenging material and tasks in order to secure success (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Martocchio & Hertenstein, 2003; Porter & Tansky, 1996, 1999). In 2001, Elliot and McGregor differentiated the performance goal orientation to include a performance-prove and performance-avoid goal orientations. An individual with a performance-prove goal orientation demonstrates a desire to attain favorable judgments of competence, whereas the performance-avoid individual demonstrates a desire to avoid unfavorable judgments of competence (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Elliot & Thrash, 2002) with a focus on an avoidance of failure.

Consistent with the labels, a learning goal orientation is generally associated with more positive outcomes and a performance goal orientation is associated with either neutral or negative outcomes (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Vandewalle, Cron, & Slocum, 2001). Research focusing on sales professionals (Vandewalle, Brown, Cron & Slocum, 1999), expatriates (Porter & Tansky, 1999), managers (Dragoni, Tesluk, Russell, & Oh, 2009), and entrepreneurs (DeClercq, Hoing, & Martin, 2011) demonstrated a positive relationship between a learning goal orientation and successful job performance.

Individuals who demonstrate a learning goal orientation and those described as creative, share a number of common characteristics—perseverance in the face of challenge, a desire to learn and explore, and a propensity to take risks (Amabile, 1982; Batey & Furnham, 2006; Button et al., 1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Dweck, 1975; Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Furnham & Bachtar, 2008). Amabile’s (1983, 1996) model of creativity identified three

elements necessary for individual creativity to include domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant skills, and intrinsic task motivation. A learning goal orientation is relevant to Amabile's model as it relates to both skill acquisition and intrinsic motivation. A learning goal orientation also influences an individual's willingness to solicit and apply feedback to improve skills and competence (Vandewalle et al., 2001).

Prior research demonstrates a relationship between creativity and learning goal orientation. Gong, Huang, and Farh (2009) found that employee learning goal orientation was significant and positively related to employee creativity. Hirst, Knippenberg and Zhou (2009) applied a cross level approach to examine the influences of individual differences and team context on individual creativity. Learning goal orientation had a significant, positive relationship with creativity.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to explore the relationship of creativity and goal orientation to the demonstration of the HR competencies identified as necessary for a strategic focus and successful performance. Understanding these constructs and their relationship to the demonstration of HR competencies can inform the nature of interventions, to include selection and training of HR professionals, to facilitate the movement of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus.

Research Questions

This research was an exploration of the relationship between HR professionals' creativity and goal orientation to the self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Considering the five competencies associated with the Department of Defense's (DoD) HR Strategic Partner role (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation) together and separately, how much variation in each competency is explainable by creativity and goal orientation? More specifically, this research explores the following questions:

1. How much variation in the self-rated demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies is explained by creativity and three dimensions of goal orientation (i.e.,

- learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation)?
2. Beyond what the four predictors explain, how much more of the variation in the self-rated demonstration of strategic HR competencies is explained by their interaction?

Significance of the Study

My research contributes to the body of literature on creativity, goal orientation, and the transition of the HR function from administrative to a strategic focus by offering descriptive research results. In addition, this research will directly inform efforts by the DoD, Department of the Army to increase the proficiency and contributions of civilian HR professionals.

Definition of Terms

Competency: An underlying characteristic of an employee (i.e., a motive, trait, skill, aspects of one's self-image, social role, or a body of knowledge) which results in effective and/or superior performance (Boyatzis, 1982).

Competency Model: A competency model refers to a group of underlying characteristics required for effective and/or superior performance in a job or occupation. The number and type of characteristics in a model will depend upon the nature and complexity of work along with the culture and values of the organization in which the work takes place (Boyatzis, 1982; Mirable, 1997).

Creativity: A product or response judged creative to the extent that (a) it is novel and appropriate, useful, correct, or a valuable response to the task, and (b) the task is heuristic rather than algorithmic (Amabile, 1982).

Goal Orientation: Construct originating in educational literature that suggests that individuals hold either a learning or a performance orientation toward tasks (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988).

Human Capital (HC): The collective knowledge, skills, and abilities of an organization's employees (SHRM, n.d.).

Human Resources (HR): The function dealing with the management of people employed within the organization (SHRM, n.d.).

Human Resources Management (HRM): The formal structure within an organization responsible for all the decisions, strategies, factors, principles, operations, practices, functions, activities, and methods related to the management of people (SHRM, n.d.).

Learning Goal Orientation (LGO): A desire to increase one's competence by developing new skills, mastering new situations, and taking on challenging tasks (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988).

Performance Goal Orientation (PGO): A desire to demonstrate competence to others and be positively evaluated by others (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988).

Performance-Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO): A desire to attain favorable judgments of competence (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Elliot & Thrash, 2002).

Performance-Avoid Goal Orientation (PAGO): A desire to avoid unfavorable judgments of competence (Elliot & McGregor, 2001; Elliot & Thrash, 2002).

CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW

Throughout my almost 28 year career as an HR professional, I observed that although there has been much research and writing on what the human resource (HR) function needs to do to remain relevant and add value to the organization, HR and organization leaders struggle with how to make it happen (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; PPS, 2010; Ulrich 1997). The shift in focus from administrative to strategic has been slow, demonstrated by the fact that from 1995 to 2014, the HR function has not changed how it allocates its time and has not increased focus on becoming a strategic business partner and engaging in higher value-added activities (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Ulrich, 2014). Ulrich (1997) called for HR to create a new role and agenda for the profession that focuses not only on traditional HR activities, such as staffing and compensation, but on strategic activities to facilitate organizational performance outcomes.

Conceptual Framework

There is much research and thought about how the HR function needs to change and the competencies and behaviors necessary to facilitate the change; however, there has been little to no research on individual motivations and characteristics that support the development and demonstration of desired competencies and outcomes. In order to develop and demonstrate strategic HR competencies and achieve desired performance outcomes, HR professionals must place themselves in a state of transition. Bridges (1991) defined this transition as “the psychological process people go through to come to terms with the new situation” (p. 3). The nature of the transition of the HR occupation is such that individuals must accept that what made them successful in the past is no longer sufficient (Lawler & Boudreau, 2009b; PPS, 2010; Ulrich, 1997; Yeung & Berman, 1997) and to be successful today and in the future, new competencies must be developed and applied, and new behaviors perfected (Ulrich, 1997).

The HR Transition as an Innovation

Beginning in the late 1980s, HR and business leaders challenged members of the HR profession to create a new role and agenda for the function that focused on value-adding outcomes that contribute to organizational performance (Ulrich, 1998; Yeung et al., 1996). The strategic role for the HR function is an *innovation* in that it was a new idea with associated new practices communicated to the members of the HR profession through various channels over the

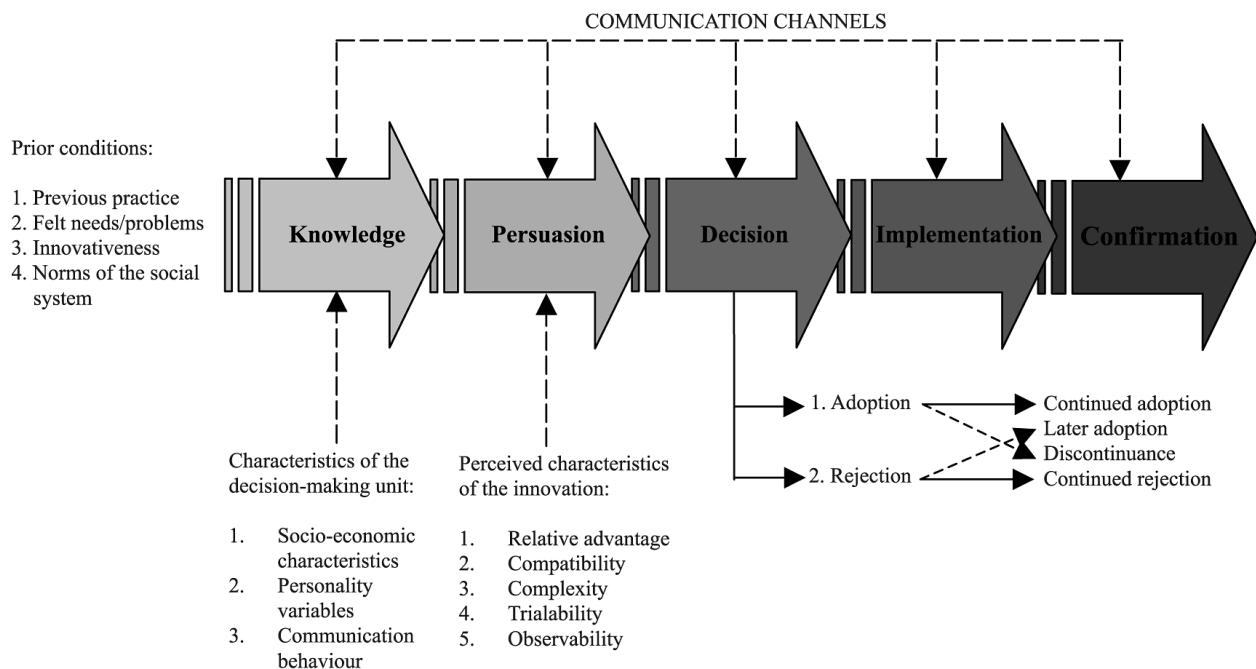
past 28 years I have been in the profession. Rogers' (2003) research on the *diffusion of innovations* provided a framework to understand what academics, practitioners, and business leaders observed as the HR function transitioned to a strategic focus.

"*Diffusion* is the process in which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among members of a social system" (Rogers, 2003, p. 5). In the case of this research study, the innovation is the diffusion of *strategic HR* competencies, behaviors, and outcomes. The key elements of diffusion of innovations include (Rogers, 2003):

- a new idea, practice, or object perceived as new by an individual or group. The characteristics of an innovation determine the rate of adoption: (a) perceived relative advantage; (b) compatibility with existing practices and norms; (c) complexity; (d) triability; and (e) observability;
- communication channels facilitate information exchange between individuals about the innovation that informs adoption of the innovation. Diffusion research indicates that when considering adoption of an innovation most individuals rely on feedback from similarly situated others who have already adopted the innovation;
- time associated with the innovation decision process through which an individual or group moves from knowledge of the innovation, to formation of an opinion, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation and use of the innovation, and to confirmation; and
- characteristics of the social system affect the adoption of an innovation.

The time element of diffusion is relevant to understanding the transition of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus. Research and observations highlight the HR function's innovation-decision process. Overlaying the diffusion of innovations theory on the experience of the HR function provides another perspective to understanding the transition. Rogers (2003) identified five steps in the innovation-decision process, as shown in Figure 2.1: (a) knowledge, (b) persuasion, (c) decision, (d) implementation, and (e) confirmation. Rogers observed that members of a social system adopt an innovation over time. He classified social system members into categories based on *innovativeness*, or the degree to which an individual is earlier in adopting new ideas than other members of a social system.

Figure 2.1. Innovation Decision Process



Source: After Rogers (1995)

Figure 2.1. The innovation decision process is the process through which an individual passes from first knowledge of an innovation, to forming an opinion toward the innovation, to a decision to adopt or reject, to implementation of the new idea, and confirmation of this decision. [Adapted from *Diffusion of Innovations*, 5th edition, by E. M. Rogers, p. 281. Copyright 2003 by The Free Press.¹]

According to Rogers (as cited in Rogers, 2003), the degree of innovativeness is expected to be normally distributed. Figure 2.2 shows the normal frequency distribution divided into five adopter categories: (a) innovators, (b) early adopters, (c) early majority, (d) later majority, and (e) laggards. As shown in Table 2.1, Rogers (2003) identified characteristics of each adopter category in relation to the innovation. It is interesting to note that the most innovative member of a social system often has low credibility with typical members of the system, and a limited role in diffusion of the innovation.

¹ Figure 5-1, p. 170: Reprinted with permission of Simon & Schuster Publishing Group from the Free Press edition of *Diffusion of Innovations*, 5th Edition by Everett M. Rogers. Copyright © 1995, 2003, by Everett M. Rogers. Copyright © 1962, 1971, 1983 by the Free Press. All rights reserved. Permission to reprint granted 5/23/2013.

Figure 2.2. Adopter Categorization Based on Innovativeness

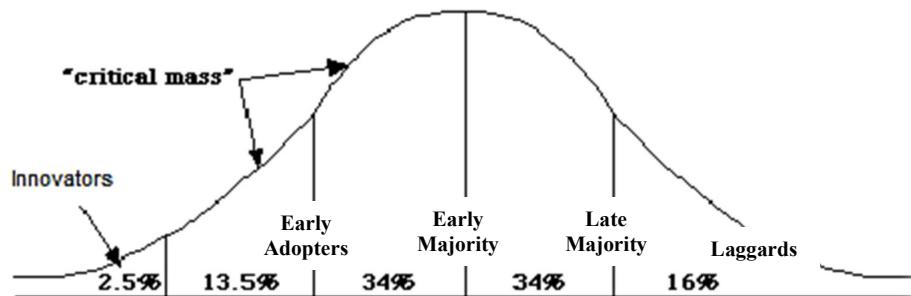


Figure 2.2. Relationship between types of adopters classified by innovativeness and location of the adoption curve. Adapted from Diffusion of Innovations, 5th edition, by E. M. Rogers, p. 281. Copyright 2003 by The Free Press.²

Houle (1961, 1980) identified similar categories and descriptions when describing professionals with respect to continuing learning: (a) innovators, (b) pacesetters, (c) middle majority, and (d) laggards. Houle identified a fifth category, facilitators that represent those engaged in activities to maintain and advance the occupation (e.g., administrators, regulators, instructors, etc.). Houle's categorization is relevant to this study in that to transition from an administrative to a strategic focus, the members of the HR function must embrace and engage in professional development.

² Figure 7-3, p. 281: Reprinted with permission of Simon & Schuster Publishing Group from the Free Press edition of *Diffusion of Innovations, 5th Edition* by Everett M. Rogers. Copyright © 1995, 2003, by Everett M. Rogers. Copyright © 1962, 1971, 1983 by the Free Press. All rights reserved. Permission to reprint granted 5/23/2013.

Table 2.1
Innovation Adopter Category Characteristics (Rogers, 2003)

Adopter Category	Characteristics
Innovator	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand and apply complex domain knowledge • Cope with ambiguity, uncertainty, and risk • Accept setbacks and failure • Effectively communicate and introduce the innovation into the social system
Early Adopter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Credibility and respect within the social system • Decrease uncertainty regarding the innovation within the social system by adopting the innovation • Effectively communicate the value of the innovation and provide a subjective evaluation of the innovation to near peers
Early Majority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Longer innovation-decision process that is the case for innovators and early adopters; however, follows with deliberate willingness to adopt the innovation • Interact frequently with peers but do not hold positions of opinion leadership in the social system • Make –up one-third of the social system ; as such, an important link in the diffusion process
Late Majority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Approach innovation with caution and skepticism • Uncertainty of innovation must be removed before feel safe to adopt • Peer pressure is necessary to motivate adoption of the innovation • Make-up one-third of the social system
Laggards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Point of reference is the past and interact primarily with individuals who have similar traditional values • Suspicious of the innovation • Must be certain that an innovation will not fail before they adopt because their resources are limited • Innovation-decision process is lengthy, with adoption and use lagging far behind awareness or knowledge of the innovation

Table 2.2
Active Practitioner Continuing Learning Categories (Houle, 1980)

Learning Category	Characteristics
Innovators	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continuously seek to improve performance • Attracted to untested ideas and practices • Not bound by the established norms of the profession and may actively oppose its institutions and leaders • Take pride in being more advanced in their discipline than colleagues; seek membership in restricted groups to leverage opportunities for learning
Pacesetters	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seek to be progressive in occupation after others have demonstrated the utility of an idea • Respected by others in the occupation for conservative approach to new ideas • Seek membership in restricted groups and learning activities to prove to themselves and others that they are part of the occupation's inner circle.
Middle Majority	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Follow the lead of the occupation's pacesetters • Believe the innovators are too extreme and removed from the practical application of new ideas • Level of participation in learning varies
Laggards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn only what they must if they are to remain in practice • Skills deteriorate and they adopt few new skills • Resistance to learning is high

Regardless of the innovation adopter or active practitioner category, opinion leaders within the social system influence the rate in which individuals adopt an innovation or engage in continual learning. Opinion leaders can be innovative and support the change, or they can oppose the new idea or change. They have a central position in the system's interpersonal communication network consisting of interconnected individuals linked by patterned flows of information. Another individual with influence in the system is professionals who represent change agencies external to the system (Rogers, 2003). In the case of the HR function, leading authors such as Ulrich, Lawler, and Boudreau served as the highest level of change agents, influencing clients such as HR and business executive to adopt the strategic HR innovation. Opinion leaders advocating the adoption of an innovation must take care not to be perceived by their peers as too much like change agents and not sensitive to the realities of the social system.

Increased innovativeness indicates overall behavioral change which is the goal of diffusion. Longitudinal research initiated by the University of Southern California's, Center for Effective Organizations (CEO) in 1995, provided evidence of varying degrees of innovativeness across the HR function (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012). While the HR function changed in terms of traditional service delivery (e.g., recruitment, staffing, payroll, etc.), little has changed with respect to HR's role in shaping strategy and building needed HR skills (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012). The HR function has a history of adapting to external forces in the form of legislation, compliance requirements, and workforce demands (Jacoby, 2003; Jamrog & Overholt, 2004). In many cases legislation such as the National Labor Relations Act of 1935 or the Civil Rights Act of 1964, left organizations no choice but to implement practices called for by these laws. Given the HR function's focus on people, it became responsible for implementing, monitoring, and reporting compliance with required practices. In these situations, the members of the HR function had no choice but to adopt the innovation.

Diffusion of an innovation can occur at the individual and organizational level and is influenced by the nature of the innovation-decision. Rogers (2003) identified three types of innovation-decisions:

- *Optional innovation-decisions* in which the individual makes the decision to adopt or reject an innovation independent of decisions made by others in the system,
- *Collective innovative-decisions* in which the decision to adopt or reject an innovation is made by consensus of members of the system.
- *Authority innovation-decisions* in which the decision to adopt or reject an innovation is made by a few members of the system who hold political, social, or technical expertise.

In many cases, as evidenced by the lack of progress of the HR function (Boudreau, 2010; Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012), even though those with power in the HR social system communicated the strategic HR innovation as an authority innovation-decision, in practice it was, and continues to be, an optional innovation-decision.

Creativity and Goal Orientation

Accounts of HR organizations and individuals that transitioned to the desired state, defined by Rogers (2003) as *early adopters*, include descriptions of focused attention on the development and demonstration of new competencies, and assuming new roles that require different behaviors (OPM, 1999; SHRM, 2010; Ulrich, Allen, Brockbank, Younger, & Nyman, 2009). A transition of this magnitude requires perseverance in the face of obstacles, willingness to take risks, willingness and desire to learn and explore tolerance of ambiguity, openness to experience, and a belief in self. These are also behaviors associated with creativity (Amabile, 1983; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Simonton, 2000; Sternberg & Lubart, 1992) and a learning goal orientation (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997).

Creativity is a multidisciplinary construct that operates at the individual, organizational, and societal level (Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). The individual is a key component of creativity research whether the research focus is the person, product, or process. Personality research identifies a number of characteristics common to individuals identified as creative—*independent, nonconformist, open to new experiences, and accepting of risk*—regardless of domain expertise (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Simonton 2000; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). At the individual level, creativity solves challenges on the job and in daily life. Viewed as an innovation, the transition of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus, presented both HR professionals and organizational leadership with the opportunity to embrace new roles and establish new expectations.

Separate research in the area of goal orientation identified similar characteristics among individuals who demonstrate behaviors associated with a specific goal orientation—the mastery or learning goal orientation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988). Goal orientation is a construct in the adult learning and educational literature. As described in the educational literature, goal orientation as a construct that seeks to explain how individuals interpret and respond to situations from three perspectives (a) controllability of personal attributes such as intelligence (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), (b) effort (Ames, 1992), and (c) task difficulty and/or task failure (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). Goal orientation research originated with children in

elementary school settings (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988) and expanded to adults in the work place (Button et al., 1996; VandeWalle, 1997).

Absent from the literature on the transition of the HR function to a strategic focus, or the adoption of this innovation, is attention to individual motivations and dispositions to support the transition. Previous shifts in the HR function were driven by *authority innovation-decisions*, in the form of new laws, leaving little individual or collective discretion. The current environment appears to lack this type of external influence as a forcing function. The overlay of the diffusion of innovations framework allowed me to explore the innovativeness of the members of the HR profession in the various adopter categories as defined by Rogers (2003).

Based on my experience with the members of the HR function within the Department of Defense (DoD) and the Intelligence Community, and supported by various authors (Hammonds, 2005; Hull, 2012; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; OPM, 1999; PPS, 2010), the characteristics of the HR transition that contribute to the slow rate of adoption include (a) perceived relative advantage, (b) compatibility with existing practices and norms, (c) complexity, (d) the lack of an authority innovation-decision (Rogers, 2003); and (e) lack of consequences for failing to transition from an administrative to a strategic focus. The purpose of this research was to explore the relationship between HR professionals' creativity and goal orientation and the extent to which HR professionals demonstrate competencies deemed necessary to perform successfully in a strategic role (i.e., adopt the innovation). Understanding these constructs and their relationship to self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies can inform the nature of interventions to facilitate the innovation decision process of HR professionals as they adopt and demonstrate a strategic focus.

Chapter II presents an account of the evolution of the HR function to provide the setting within which this study explored the relationship of creativity and goal orientation to self-assessed strategic HR competencies and behaviors. The history of the HR function will place the strategic HR innovation into context in terms of relative advantage, compatibility, and complexity. This study presents the evolution of the HR function from one that is reactive and focused primarily on compliance and administrative activities, to one focused on strategic outcomes and organizational success through optimal use of talent. Evidence of the HR

function's slow rate of adoption of the strategic HR innovation in spite of efforts by change agents and innovators, and external interventions (i.e., academic research, competency models, training, and certification programs) is demonstrated by the results of a longitudinal study by the RBL Group and the Ross School of Business at the University of Michigan (RBL Group, 2013; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich et al., 2009). The focus of this research is to comprehend aspects of the individual HR professions that contribute to the lack of progress, specifically creativity and goal orientation. To inform the exploration of the individual, I will review the creativity research with a focus on the individual, and goal orientation research across both educational and organizational disciplines with an emphasis on performance outcomes.

Evolution of the HR Function

Since early 1900's, the HR function has continuously adapted to external societal, economic, national, and international forces by taking on more and different responsibilities (Jacoby, 2003). For most of its history, the HR function has focused primarily on the administrative and compliance aspects of human resources management to include labor relations, employment, pay, and benefits (Jacoby, 2003; Lawler & Mohrman, 2003; OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1997). Beginning in the late 1980s and early to mid-1990s, opinion leaders noting the growing importance of human capital to organizational performance began to urge the HR function to evolve from administrators to *strategic business partners* (OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1997, 1998). Communications regarding the business case for transitioning the HR function from administrative to strategic and the necessary strategic HR competencies represent the knowledge and persuasion phases of Rogers (2003) innovation decision process. The history of the evolution of the HR function will place the HR administrative to strategic transition into context.

The beginnings of the HR profession can be traced to the early 1900s and the Industrial Revolution (Jacoby, 2003). The Industrial Revolution began with the substitution of steam power and machinery for hand labor. Factories brought new concepts and practices for efficient production of goods such as division of labor³ and job specialization⁴. These changes brought a

³ Division of labor is the breakdown of work into its tasks or parts and assigned to various people, groups, or machines for the purpose of efficiency (Jacoby, 2003).

widening gap between workers and owners with owners doing well in comparison with typical workers. Labor was considered a commodity to be bought and sold, and the prevailing laissez-faire political philosophy resulted in little action by government to protect the worker. Workers organized to protect themselves and improve conditions, resulting in the establishment of organized trade or labor groups (Jacoby, 1985, 2003).

The focus on “division of labor” during the Industrial Revolution, gave rise to the scientific management movement. Frederick Taylor, the father of scientific management, believed that managers could use scientific methods to increase efficiency in the workplace (as cited in Jacoby, 2003). Taylor put forth three concepts that provided the foundation for the modern HR profession:

- individuals selected to do the work should be matched physically and mentally, to the demands of the job as possible and that overqualified individuals should be excluded;
- employees should be trained carefully to ensure they perform the work exactly as specified and that in no case should an employee work at a pace that would be detrimental to their health; and
- there should be incentives for employees to follow the detailed procedures specified.

Another early influence on the development of the HR profession was the Pendleton Act of 1883, which established the U.S. Civil Service Commission. The Pendleton Act established the use of competitive examinations for admission into public service, provided job security for public employees, prohibited political activity by public employees, and encouraged a nonpartisan approach to employee selection. The major impact of this act was to foster employment promotion policies in the federal government based on merit. Toward the end of the 19th century, organizations began to focus on employee welfare and included voluntary efforts on the parts of organizations to improve the conditions of employment within the factories. Firms began to employ *social secretaries* or *welfare secretaries* to bridge the gap between management and the worker (Jacoby 1985, 2003).

⁴ Job specialization is the separation of organizational activities into distinct tasks and the assignment of different tasks to different people.

The term “personnel” began to appear about in the early 1900s. By the 1920s, personnel specialist jobs began to emerge focusing on employment, retirement and insurance plans, safety and training. The human relations movement that began in the 1920s had a major influence on the HR profession. This movement was characterized by the focus on group behavior and workers’ feelings as they relate to productivity and morale. The passage of the Wagner Act, or the National Labor Relations Act, in 1935 allowed union employees to choose representatives who would exercise collective bargaining rights for all employees in the union. After 1935, organizing activities by labor unions increased greatly. In many organizations the responsibility to keep unions out by monitoring organizing efforts, bargaining with unions, and ensuring that collective bargaining agreements were implemented and adhered to fell to the personnel, legal and/or labor relations department (Jacoby, 2003).

In the 1960s, although there was a growing body of knowledge and understanding of how people behave in organization informing the HR function, HR was viewed as “a record-keeping unit that handed out tenure awards and coordinated company picnics” (Jamrog & Overholt, 2004, p. 53). The passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 brought the HR function firmly into the realm of compliance. Class-action suits and large financial settlements of successful complaints brought against organizations highlighted the costs of improper personnel management (Dobbin & Sutton, 1998).

The late 1970s and early 1980s, brought an influx of forces that continue to affect the HR function to this day. During this period, economic forces to include high interest rates and declining productivity, and international competition lead to the demand for greater accountability across all functions of an organization (Jacoby, 2003). Methods for assessing the impact of the HR function on outcomes were not widely used, leading many executives to view HR as a “cost center” (Ulrich, 1997, p. 15) and view HR activities as “nonproductive drains on overall organizational performance” (Ulrich, 1997, p. 15). At the same time social and demographic trends such as more women and minorities in the workplace, growth of immigrants, older workers, and poorly educated workers accelerated the demands for improving work life, managing cultural and ethnic diversity, and the need for continual training and retraining

(Jamrog & Overholt, 2004). The HR function was again changing and with it, the need for members of the profession to take on new roles.

Beginning in the late 1980s and 1990s, experts noting the growing importance of human capital (i.e., the workforce) to organizational success began to urge HR to continue to evolve from administrators to *strategic business partners*. Ulrich called for HR to create a new role and agenda for the profession that focuses not only on traditional HR activities, such as staffing and compensation, but on outcomes. HR can help deliver HR excellence in four ways (Ulrich 1997; Kaufman, 2001):

- HR should become a partner with senior and line managers in strategy execution;
- HR should become an expert in the way work is organized and executed, delivering administrative efficiency to ensure that costs are reduced and quality is maintained;
- HR should become a champion for employees, vigorously representing their concerns to senior management and at the same time working to increase employees' contribution; and
- HR should become an agent of continuous transformation; shaping processes and a culture that together improves an organization's capacity for change.

Several authors identified the capacity or skills of the members of the HR function to assume the roles above as an explanation for the slow of adoption of the strategic HR innovation (Beer, 1997; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012).

Knowledge and Persuasion Phases of the HR Innovation Decision Process

I traced the beginnings of the movement to transform the HR profession to a 1981 Harvard Business Review article entitled “Big Hat, No Cattle” (Skinner, 1981). Skinner lamented the failure of organizations to make use of the greatest competitive advantage—motivated, productive, cooperative, trusting people. By the 1980s, HR had the executive title; however, there was no evidence of real contribution to business success beyond the provision of traditional HR services and support (Jacoby, 2003; Jamrog & Overholt, 2004). Hammonds (2005) highlighted many of the common symptoms (i.e., gap between capabilities and job requirements, focus on efficiency verses value, drive fairness through standardization, lack of credibility in strategic decision making) of a profession that focuses on administrative activities,

requires compliance with rules, demonstrates little logical connection to strategic value, and works on functional programs and practices that have no clear connection to business goals. Most recently, an article titled, “The End of the HR World,” presents a number of trends and related forecasts, shown in Table 2.3, affecting the HR profession. The author stated, “HR must change dramatically if it is to evolve from transaction processor to strategic decision-making facilitator” (Hull, 2012, p. 33).

Ulrich (1997) called for HR to create a new role and agenda for the profession that focuses not only on traditional HR activities, such as staffing and compensation, but on outcomes. HR can deliver excellence and affect performance outcomes in four ways:

- partner with senior and line managers in strategy execution, (Kaufman, 2001, Ulrich, 1997);
- deliver administrative efficiency to reduce costs and maintain quality (Ulrich, 1997);
- implement initiatives to increase employee engagement (Jamrog & Overholt, 2004; Lawler & Boudreau, 2009a); and
- shape processes and foster a culture that improves an organization’s capacity for change (Lawler & Boudreau, 2009a; Lawler & Mohrman, 2003a; Ulrich, 1997).

In 1998, Ulrich wrote:

The competitive forces that organizations face today will continue to confront them in the future and demand organizational excellence. The efforts to achieve such excellence—through a focus on learning, quality, teamwork—are driven by the way organizations get things done and how they treat their people. Those are fundamental HR issues (p. 124).

Beginning in the mid-1990s, research to demonstrate the impact of HR practices on organizational outcomes and performance grew in popularity. Delaney and Huselid (1996) found the relationship between HR practices and perceived organizational performance measures to be generally positive. The following HR practices were positively and statistically associated with perceived organizational performance: (a) training, $r(588) = .06, p \leq .05$; (b) incentive compensation, $r(588) = .17, p \leq .01$; decentralized decision-making, $r(588) = .07, p \leq .05$. The primary limitation of this research was that organizational performance was based on individual

perceptions verses financials. Subsequent research used financial data to determine organizational performance with similar results (Huselid et al., 1997; Yeung & Berman, 1997).

Huselid et al. (1997) explored the impact of technical versus strategic HR effectiveness on organization performance. Technical effectiveness includes practices associated with traditional HR activities such as recruiting, staffing, payroll, and performance management. Strategic effectiveness are the practices associated with helping the organization ensure its human resources cannot be easily imitated such as team-based design, empowerment, and long-term development. The key result of this research was positive and significant relationships between strategic HR practices and employee productivity, cash flow, and market value. Conversely, there were no meaningful relationships between HR technical effectiveness and organizational performance. More recently, Jiang, Lepak, Hu, and Baer (2012) demonstrated that skill-enhancing, motivation-enhancing, and opportunity-enhancing HR practices contribute to organizational performance while motivation-enhancing practices do not⁵. The skill- and motivation-enhancing practices are also defined as strategic HR practices (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Ulrich, 1997). This research assumes a positive relationship between the demonstration of HR competencies and organizational performance; however, this relationship is not tested in the study.

Facilitating the HR Innovation Decision Process

Ulrich (1997) challenged HR to shed old myths, adopt new competencies, redefine roles focused on results, and evolve into a true profession that makes a difference for the organization. This same challenge came from professional associations such as the National Academy of Public Administration, the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), as well as HR academicians, practitioners, and management officials, resulting in the development of HR competency models as a way to refocus and revitalize the HR profession. These models defined the skills, knowledge and abilities needed if HR professionals were to transform from personnel administrators to strategic business partners (Meinert, 2012; SHRM, 2012). Complementing HR

⁵ Skill-enhancing HR practices include comprehensive recruitment, rigorous/informed selection, and training. Motivation-enhancing practices include developmental performance management, competitive compensation, extensive benefits, promotion and career development, and job security. Opportunity-enhancing opportunities include flexible job design, work teams, employee involvement, and information sharing (Jiang et al., 2012).

competency models was the application of traditional HR strategies of performance management and training to facilitate the development and demonstration of the needed competencies.

Ulrich (1997) introduced the Multiple Role Model that identifies the roles the HR function must undertake to operate effectively as a strategic business partner (Table 2.3). The strategic HR role focuses on aligning HR strategies and practices with business strategies (Buckingham & Vosburgh, 2001; Kaufman, 2001; Lawler & Boudreau, 2009a; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2008). Since the development of the model, it has served as the exemplar for subsequent HR competency models developed by professional associations and organizations.

Table 2.3
HR Roles, Deliverables and Activities

Role	Deliverable/Outcome	Metaphor	Activity
Management of Strategic Human Resources	Executing strategy	Strategic Partner	Aligning HR and business strategy; “organizational diagnosis”
Management of the Organizations Infrastructure	Building an efficient infrastructure	Administrative Expert	Reengineering the organizations HR processes; “shared services”
Management of Employee Contribution	Increasing employee commitment and capability	Employee Champion	Listening and responding to employees; “providing resources to employees”
Management of Transformation Change	Creating a renewed organization	Change Agent	Managing transformation and change; “ensuring capacity for change”

Note. Adapted from *Human Resource Champions* by D. Ulrich, 1997, p. 25. Copyright by the Harvard Business School Press.⁶

⁶ The table is adapted from *Human Resource Champions: The Next Agenda for Adding Value and Delivering Results*, by David Ulrich, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press. Copyright (1997) by the President and Fellows of Harvard College. Permission to adapt granted 6/5/2013.

In 1989, Patricia McLagan introduced the HR Wheel that is a graphical representation of eleven different components of human resources. This model has influenced the development of HR academic programs and HR competency⁷ models in the U.S. The HR functions depicted on the wheel served as the basis for HR competency models (McLagan, 1989). Ulrich, Brockbank, and Yeung (1989) designed one of the first role-based strategic HR competency models. Using a sample of over 10,000 participants, Ulrich and his colleagues identified a host of competencies clustered into three categories: knowledge of business, delivery of HR, and management of change. For the past 25 years, Ulrich and his colleagues at the RBL Group and the Ross School of Business at the University of Michigan addressed the question “What knowledge and abilities are necessary for successful HR professionals?” with the Human Resource Competency Study (HRCS). The HRCS is the largest global study on HR competencies (Ulrich, 2012). The results of the most recent HRCS was published in January 2013, and identified six domains of competencies—*strategic practitioner, credible activist, capability builder, change champion, human resource innovator and integrator, and technology proponent* (Ulrich, 2012).

The University of Michigan and the RBL Group extended the findings of the 2012 HRCS (RBL Group, 2013) by using multiple regression to identify the HR competency domains with the greatest impact on individual performance, and the HR competency domains that have the greatest impact on organizational performance. HR professionals rated themselves strongest at performing the *credible activist* competencies (e.g., interpersonal skills, consistent and clear verbal and written communications, and reliable) and weakest at understanding and applying technology to build efficiencies, and managing the flow of strategic data (i.e., *technology proponent* competencies). Associates of HR professionals believed that to be perceived as competent, it is important for HR professionals to exhibit proficiency in the *credible activist* competencies; and *technology proponent* competencies had the least influence on perceptions of HR professionals. *Capability builder* (i.e., creates, audits, and facilitates an effective and strong

⁷ In the early 1970s, David McClelland, a former Harvard psychologist, was one of the first persons to propose the idea of testing competency rather than intelligence. McClelland was asked by the US Foreign Service to find new research methods that could predict human performance and reduce the bias of traditional intelligence and aptitude testing, hence the notion of measuring competencies was born (McClelland, 1973).

organization by helping to define, build, and sustain capabilities), *HR Innovator and Integrator* (i.e., integrates HR practices around organizational strategy and goals), and *technology proponent* competencies were found to have the greatest impact on organizational performance.

In a January 2014 article titled, “*HR Dreams: Where HR is Headed to Deliver Value*,” Ulrich stressed the need for the HR function to create value, with value defined by employees, customers of the organization, investors (in the case of the Federal government, taxpayers), and line managers. Ulrich identified 12 capabilities the HR function must master to create value. The capabilities and supporting competencies are very similar to what Ulrich proposed in previous articles (Ulrich, 1997, 1998).

In January 2013, Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) published *Elements for HR Success*, a comprehensive competency model designed to assist HR professionals as they set out on or continue their careers (SHRM, 2012). The competency model addresses the entirety of the HR function:

- at the entry, mid, senior, and executive levels of experience;
- in small, medium, and large sized organizations;
- in private, public, non-profit, and not-for-profit sectors; and
- in organizations with multinational and domestic operations.

The SHRM competency model includes nine primary competencies: human resource technical expertise and practice, relationship management, consultation, organizational leadership and navigation, communication, global and cultural effectiveness, ethical practice, critical evaluation, and business acumen (SHRM, 2012). The model draws on existing HR competency models, relevant literature, and input from over 1,200 HR professionals during 111 focus groups in 29 cities across the world. SHRM validated the HR competency model through a survey in which over 32,000 respondents rated the accuracy, relevance, and importance of the competency model content. In late 2012, SHRM initiated criterion validation of the model in which the relationship between model elements and critical business outcomes were explored and the model published in 2013 (SHRM, 2012).

In addition to professional associations, private and public sector organizations developed and implemented their own competency models to guide the transformation of the HR profession

(Baill, 1999; DCPAS, 2011; OPM, 1999; RBL Group, 2013). As the nation's largest employer⁸, a top concern of the Department of Defense (DoD) is developing and retaining talent, in an environment of diminishing resources while preserving national security (Alexander, 2013). The DoD *Fiscal Year 2012-2016 Human Capital Plan* (DCPAS, 2012a) identified three fundamental focus areas – Total Force Readiness, Care for Our People, and creating and sustaining a Culture of Relevance, Effectiveness, and Efficiency. These focus areas are fundamental to the HR function (Ulrich, 1998). As such, the HR function is positioned to be among the most influential and strategically important functions in the DoD. Across DoD, HR professionals are expected to focus on being a change agent for the organization and a strategic business partner to the organization's management team. The DoD identified three roles for HR professionals that represent an expansion of the traditional HR transactional role and requires the behaviors and associated skills presented in Table 2.4:

- HR Specialist – Role focuses on the skills needed to perform the traditional tactical/transactional HR service delivery activities;
- HR Advisor – Role focuses on more administrative and supervisory duties and provides advice and guidance on HR-related issues and decisions to middle managers; and
- HR Strategic Partner – Role focuses on the strategic aspects of the position supporting the workforce and organization and provides HR-related advice and guidance to senior managers in DoD components (DCPAS, 2011).

Each of the HR professional roles is comprised of elements of all the roles. Typical HR Advisor responsibilities call for the demonstration of roles and competencies in the following percentages: (a) 20% HR Specialist, (b) 40% HR Advisor, and (c) 40% HR Strategic Partner. In comparison, the typical HR Strategic Partner should focus primarily the HR Strategic Partner competencies (a) 10% HR Specialist, (b) 20% HR Advisor, and (c) 70% HR Strategic Partner (DCPAS, 2011).

⁸ The DoD is the nation's largest employer with over 1.4 million active duty service members; over 1.1 million in the National Guard and Reserve forces; and over 800,000 civilians employed to maintain national security (DCPAS, 2012a).

Table 2.4
Transforming HR Roles

Going From...	Transforming to...
An employee champion	A change agent for the organization
An expert in HR administration	Promoting a results-oriented performance culture
Spending a great deal of time delivering HR services and processing transactions	 Strategically aligning HR programs and achieving goal that move the whole organization forward
Being brought in after decisions are made	Being a vital participant in formulating strategy
Performing the technical and operational functions	Serving as a strategic business partner to the organization's management team

Note. Adapted from *Understanding Change in the HR Profession* by DCPAS (2011).

In 2011, the Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service (DCPAS), the DoD enterprise leader in the development and delivery of civilian policies and HR solutions to strengthen mission readiness of DoD, published a role-based HR competency model (DCPAS, 2011) “to reinvigorate the professional HR community to optimize the balance between function and strategic expertise” (DCPAS, 2012b, p.3). A work group of DoD HR professionals developed a draft model based on academic research, published HR competency models (DCPAS, 2011; OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1998; Ulrich et al., 2009; Yeung et al., 1996), and 107 competencies identified by DoD organizations. The DoD HR competency model consists of 27 competencies specific to the evolving role of the HR professional in the DoD. The 27 competencies were cross-walked to identify how each align with the Office of Personnel Management’s (OPM) HR Line of Business which defines processes that agencies need to perform to achieve the HR mission. Subject matter experts developed proficiency descriptors for each competency and the model was validated in early 2011 (DCPAS, 2011) by DoD HR professionals.

The DoD HR Competency model aligns competencies, proficiency levels, and behaviors for each HR role—HR Specialist, HR Advisor, and Strategic Partner. Core to each role is the change management competency defined as “building energy and engagement around change by

using a systematic, structured approach to transition from the present to the desired state in individuals, teams, and organizations” (DCPAS, 2011).

Implementing and Confirming the HR Innovation

After years of research, articles and books, competency models, training and certification programs, the HR function remains focused on the administrative aspects of the work. In terms of diffusion of the strategic HR innovation, change agents have actively pursued the knowledge phase of the innovation decision process, continuing to conduct research to demonstrate the value of strategic HR practices (Huselid et al., 1997; Yeung & Berman, 1997) and communicating these findings in journal articles and conference proceedings. Professional associations (SHRM, 2012) and private (RBL Group, 2013) and public sector organizations (DCPAS, 2011; OPM, 1999) continued to develop and update strategic HR competency models. In spite of these efforts, the HR function appears to be stuck in the decision phase of the innovation decision process, or maybe the social system (i.e., HR social system) made the decision to reject the strategic HR innovation.

Evidence of the lack of progress comes from a longitudinal study referenced earlier in this chapter, conducted by the CEO that began in 1995, and has continued every three years with the most recent data collected in 2010 and published in 2013 (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012). HR professionals are asked to report the amount of time spent on strategic pursuits compared to administrative pursuits. They noted the time they remembered spending on various activities five to seven years ago, and then noted the time they currently spend on the same activities. Each year since 1995, responses suggested that HR professionals perceived a shift toward more strategic activities; however, a closer look at what HR professionals said their actual duties were over the years have provided the same percentages. While HR professionals are engaged in different activities today as compared to 1995, the focus is still largely on administrative and service-related goals, not on strategic decisions (Boudreau, 2010; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012). As recent as January 2014, Ulrich identified twelve capabilities HR professionals should master (e.g., talent management, change management, branding, performance management, collaboration, innovation, etc.) in order to add value.

In 1997, Beer observed that organizations attempting to transform the HR function to a strategic focus had limited success. He noted an inherent tension between the goals of the strategic HR role and the goals of the HR specialist in traditional roles. These roles attract and require people with very different skills, aspirations, and identity. HR professionals who have integrated both roles find it difficult to balance both roles. Often times, the demand for service delivery takes precedence over longer term planning and assisting line managers with organizational and cultural change. In addition, HR professionals who successfully perform both roles, find that their interest in traditional roles diminishes. Beer (1997) concluded, “the administrative and strategic roles do not easily coexist in the same function or the same person” (p. 51). He identified two related and mutually reinforcing obstacles to the transformation of the HR function: (a) the capacity of most human resources professionals, and (b) top management that wants a *strategic HR function*, but does not understand what it entails. Many HR professionals appear to lack the conceptual and theoretical knowledge that underpins HR theory and practice, and the analytic and interpersonal skills associated with strategic HR activities. In many organizations, the traditional HR roles and the rewards that go with the role do not attract professionals with the needed talent. Management reinforces this outcome by judging and rewarding the effectiveness of the HR in delivering administrative services and keeping the organization out of trouble. According to Beer (1997),

Overcoming these obstacles to the transformation of the human resource function will not be easy. To do so HR professionals will have to shed their ambivalence about the new role. They will have to be comfortable with the uncertainty and ambiguity associated with all change. Nothing short of a bold approach will suffice. Nor will these initiatives succeed unless HR executives take the initiative. They must impart to top managers a new vision of HR and propose frame-breaking changes in its organization. Top managers do not yet understand the activist, change agent role the HR function can and must play if they are to transform human resources in their company into a sustainable competitive advantage. (p. 55).

Lawler and Boudreau (2012), offered several reasons the HR function is slow to transition from an administrative to a strategic focus: (a) HR executives do not feel HR needs to change, (b) organizations do not demand that HR change and prefer HR to focus on administrative activities, and (c) HR professionals do not have needed skills. In all COE studies since 1995, HR executives reported that they plan to change and view the *strategic business*

partner role as important. In addition, results show an increase in the use of centralized HR services and the movement of HR activities to employees and their managers. The skills of the professionals in the HR function offer an additional reason for the slow transition of the function. HR professionals need a broad range of skills, ranging from relatively routine administrative processing skills to organizational dynamics and business skills. *Strategic contributor* effectiveness requires knowledge and in areas such as change management, strategic planning, and organizational design. It also requires knowledge of decision science for human capital that provides logical and unique strategic insights by using human capital principles. These areas involve complex judgment, and HR professionals have traditionally had little experience with them.

A transition of this magnitude requires perseverance in the face of obstacles, willingness to take risks, willingness and desire to learn and explore tolerance of ambiguity, openness to experience, and a belief in self. These are also behaviors associated with creativity (Amabile, 1983; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Simonton, 2000; Sternberg & Lubart, 1992) and a learning goal orientation (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997). Understanding the professionals that comprise the HR function in terms of creativity and goal orientation will inform actions to facilitate the transition from an administrative to a strategic focus.

Creativity

Creativity is a multidisciplinary concept that operates at the individual, organizational, and societal levels. At the individual level, creativity solves challenges on the job and in daily life (Amabile, 1983; Feist, 1999; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). At the organizational and societal levels, creativity can lead to new scientific findings, new movements in the arts, and new inventions and/or social programs (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Moran, 2010; Puccio & Cambra, 2010). Creativity research has focused on the creative person (Feist, 1999; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008; Sternberg & Lubart, 1992, 1996), product (Amabile, 1983; Puccio & Cambra, 2010; Sternberg, 2006b), process (Runco, 2010), and environment conducive to creative behavior and outcomes (Amabile, 1996).

There is no consensus on the definition of creativity, how creativity is measured, or whether creativity is a dispositional characteristic or if creativity can be developed. However, in

the introduction to the book, *the International Handbook of Creativity*, Sternberg (2006b) identified several generalizations about creativity that most researchers agree with:

- Creativity involves thinking that is aimed at producing ideas or products that are relatively novel and that are, in some respects, compelling.
- Creativity is neither wholly domain specific nor domain general. It has both domain-specific and domain-general elements. The potential to be creative may have some domain-general elements, but to gain the knowledge one needs to make creative contributions, one must develop knowledge and skills within a particular domain in which one is to make one's creative contribution.
- Creativity can be measured, at least in some degree.
- Creativity can be developed, in at least some degree.
- Creativity is not as highly rewarded in practice as it is supposed to be in theory (pp. 1-2).

The definition that most creativity researchers endorse is that creativity “is the ability to produce work that is novel (i.e., original, unexpected), high in quality, and appropriate (i.e., useful, meets task constraints)” (Amabile, 1982; Sternberg, Kaufman, & Pretz, 2002). This study is founded on Amabile’s (1982, 1983) definition of creativity in which a product or response will be judged creative to the extent that (a) it is novel, appropriate, useful, correct, or a valuable response to the task at hand, and (b) the task is heuristic rather than algorithmic.

The individual is a key component of creativity research whether the research focus is the person, product, or process. At the individual level, personal characteristics associated with creativity have long been a topic of research in terms of intelligence and personality (Simonton, 2000). Early investigations of the relationship between creativity and intelligence suggested that while the two concepts are not the same they overlap in some respects (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Sternberg & O’Hara, 1999). This research is focused on the personality aspects of creativity.

Personality research identifies a number of characteristics or traits common to creative individuals—Independent, nonconformist open to new experiences, resourceful, and accepting of risk—regardless of domain expertise (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Gough, 1979; Simonton, 2000; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). Perspectives differ with respect to the nature of personality

characteristics associated with creativity. Simonton (2000) viewed creativity-related personality as dispositional in that they are part of the make-up of the individual and tend to be enduring. In contrast, Amabile (1983) argued, “creativity is best conceptualized not as a personality trait or general ability but as a behavior resulting from particular constellations of personal characteristics, cognitive abilities, and social environments” (p. 358). She went on to say that, an exclusively trait-oriented approach to creativity assumes that creativity is set and that creative individuals can produce creative work in any domain (Amabile, 1983). This perspective is similar to the implicit person theory (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), specifically entity theory, regarding the malleability of personal attributes that affect behavior I addressed later in this chapter.

There are several advantages to viewing creativity through multiple variables (Sternberg & Lubart, 1996):

- overcomes the omission of relevant variables inherent in a unidisciplinary approach and potentially offers more explanatory power because of its multivariate nature.
- suggests one way of viewing the question of whether creativity is ordinary or extraordinary; and
- integrates different approaches to the study of creativity and relates creativity to research in several areas of psychology.

Amabile's (1983) Componential Theory of Creativity, and Sternberg and Lubart's (1992, 1996) Investment Theory of Creativity are relevant to the discussion of creativity from the perspective of the individual. These theories posit that creativity results when aspects of the individual merge (i.e., personality, motivation, and skills) to support creative behaviors or responses. I contend that creative personality characteristics and beliefs about the malleability of abilities will affect and interact to increase the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies.

The Componential Theory of Creativity

Amabile presented the componential theory of creativity in 1983. The theory supports both psychological and organizational creativity research. It describes the creative person and the various influences on the creative process and outcomes (Amabile, 1983). Two assumptions

underlie the theory: (a) there is a continuum from low, ordinary levels of creativity found in everyday life to the highest levels of creativity found in historically significant inventions, performances, scientific discoveries, and works of art; and (b) there are degrees of creativity in the work of any single individual.

According to the componential theory, three aspects of the individual influences creativity: domain-relevant skills (i.e., expertise in the relevant domain or domains), creativity-relevant processes (i.e., cognitive and personality processes that support novel thinking), and task motivation (specifically, the intrinsic motivation to engage in an activity out of interest, enjoyment, or a personal sense of satisfaction). Domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant processes, task motivation, and the social environment interact to influence the level of creativity an individual demonstrates (Amabile, 1983; Amabile & Mueller, 2008). A central tenant of the componential theory is “the intrinsic motivational theory of creativity which states that ‘people are most creative when they feel motivated primarily by the interest, enjoyment, satisfaction, and challenge of the work itself’” (Amabile & Pillerer, 2012, p. 3). Amabile’s (2012), theory specified, “that creativity requires a confluence of all components; creativity should be higher when an intrinsically motivated person with high domain expertise and high skill in creative thinking works in an environment high in supports for creativity.

Amabile published a revision to the theory in 1996 (Amabile, 1997) that modified the task motivation aspect of creativity by suggesting that although extrinsic motivators in the work environment appear to decrease intrinsic motivation, some do not. Intrinsic motivation and creativity may be enhanced by the extrinsic motivators that confirm the individual’s competence, or supports involvement in work of interest. Amabile (1997) extended the componential theory of creativity to include organizational creativity and innovation based on research in a high tech company. The purpose of the research was to determine whether and how the work environment of highly creative projects differed from less creative projects. The central prediction of the theory is that elements of the work environment affect individuals’ creativity. The theory also proposes that creativity produced by individuals and teams of individuals serves as a primary source for innovation within the organization. In 2008, Amabile and Mueller published an

additional modification based on evidence that affect, influenced by the work environment, influences creativity-relevant processes.⁹

The Investment Theory of Creativity

Sternberg (1985) identified three intellectual abilities associated with creativity: (a) the synthetic ability to see problems in new ways and escape the boundaries of conventional thinking, (b) the analytic ability to recognize which of one's ideas are worth pursuing and which are not, and (c) the practical-contextual ability to know how to persuade others of the value of one's ideas. In addition, an individual must possess a balanced application of domain-specific knowledge. On the one hand, the individual needs to know enough about a field to move it forward. On the other hand, knowledge about a field can result in a closed perspective, leading to the individual not moving beyond the way problems were perceived and interpreted in the past (Sternberg & Lubart, 1992).

Sternberg and Lubart (1991, 1992) applied Amabile's (1982, 1983) definition of creativity¹⁰ as they developed the investment theory of creativity. The investment theory of creativity proposes that creative individuals are those willing to pursue ideas that are new or not accepted but have growth potential. The general population is likely to resist such ideas, but the individual who demonstrates creative behaviors persists despite this resistance. According to investment theory, creativity involves a convergence of six distinct but interrelated resource components: intellectual abilities, knowledge, styles of thinking, personality, motivation, and environment (Sternberg & Lubart, 1991, 1992, 1996). Sternberg and Lubart (1996) claimed that creativity involves more than a sum of an individual's attained level of functioning in each creativity component.

- There may be thresholds for some components (e.g., knowledge), below which creativity is not possible regardless of the levels attained in other components.
- Partial compensation may occur in which strength on one component (e.g., motivation) counteracts a weakness on other components (e.g., environment).

⁹ While I recognize the effect of the environment on creativity, this study does not explicitly assess the environment.

¹⁰ A product or response judged creative to the extent that (a) it is novel and appropriate, useful, correct, or a valuable response to the task, and (b) the task is heuristic rather than algorithmic (Amabile, 1982).

- Interactions may occur between components, such as intelligence and motivation, in which high levels on both components could multiplicatively enhance creativity.

Sternberg and Lubart tested major claims of the investment theory of creativity in three studies conducted in 1991 and 1992. In one study, (Sternberg & Lubart, 1992, 1996), 48 adults equally divided by gender and ranging in age from 18 to 65 years were asked to produce two creative products in each of four domains (i.e., drawing, writing, advertising, and science). Participants were also asked to complete cognitive tests measuring intellectual processes related to creativity and to complete self-report measures pertaining to the knowledge, intellectual styles, personality, and motivation resources of the investment theory. Overall, the results were consistent with the predictions of the investment theory. The main findings include:

- creativity can be reliably assessed. Inter-rater reliabilities for the four domains ranged from .81 to .89, with a median of .86;
- levels of creativity were significantly and moderately correlated within a given domain. Correlations were: .63 for writing, .37 for art, .65 for advertisements, .52 for science, and .67 for overall creative performance;
- creativity appeared to be domain-specific. Correlations across domains ranged from .23 to .62. $p \leq .05$. Although five of six cross-domain correlations were statistically significant, at best they were weak to moderate; and
- all of the five tested resources (i.e., intellectual ability, knowledge, thinking styles, personality, and motivation) significantly predicted creative performance.

In a second study, Stenberg and Lubart (1996) explored the relationship between analytic abilities measured by conventional tests of intelligence and creative abilities not measured by such tests. One-hundred and ninety-nine high school students participated in the study who were identified as either *high* or *not high* in creativity abilities based on results of the Sternberg Triarchic Abilities Test (STAT) (cited in Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). The participants attended a college-level psychology course delivered in a way that either encouraged creative thinking or did not encourage it. The reliabilities of measures of creativity were .70. Correlations with measures of creativity with test of intelligence linked to creativity (i.e., the Cattell Test that measures abilities to deal with novelty) were at $r = .50$, $p \leq .05$. The correlation with analytic

abilities measures on the STAT was significant at $r = .49$. Students who tested high in creativity and placed in an instructional environment that encouraged creativity performed better in the course than those identified as creative and placed in a non-creative instructional environment. Performance on the abilities test significantly predicted course performance ($r = .33$) for all students in the study. This finding supports Amabile's inclusion of the environment as a component of creative behavior.

A third study (Sternberg & Lubart, 1996), explored the association of creativity and risk-taking among individuals identified as creative. Participants produced creative drawings and written products, and responded to a hypothetical contest situation questionnaire. Three judges assessed each product as more or less creative. In the drawing domain, high-risk takers were judged more creative than low risk takers; however, in the writing domain, high-risk takers were not judged as more creative. The authors speculate that this result may be due to the controversial positions presented in the stories.

Creative Personality

A large body of literature has focused on determining a set of personal characteristics and attributes associated with creative achievement. This research has examined personal characteristics ranging from biographical factors to measures of cognitive styles and intelligence (Amabile, 1983; Batey & Furnham, 2006; Feist, 1999; Sternberg & Lubart, 1992). These studies have shown that a stable set of core personal characteristics relate positively and consistently to measures of creative performance across a variety of domains (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Kaufman & Baer, 2004; Sternberg & Lubart 1992). These attributes include self-efficacy and a willingness to overcome obstacles, take sensible risks, and tolerate ambiguity. These aspects of personality along with beliefs about the ability to develop capability (i.e., incremental theory) may affect the development and demonstration of the roles and behaviors associated with HR Strategic Partner competencies.

Feist (1998) conducted a meta-analysis of the quantitative research on personality and creativity in science and in art separately. He used the Five-Factor Model¹¹ of personality

¹¹ The Five Factor Model of Personality is a model of personality traits aligned along five dimensions to include extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (McRae & John, 1992).

dimensions (i.e., extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness) to standardize the scales of various personality instruments, classifying personality scales into one of the five factors. Regardless of the instrument to measure personality or creativity, Feist (1998) found that individuals deemed creative are more autonomous, introverted, open to new experiences, norm doubting, self-confident, self-accepting, driven, ambitious, dominant, hostile, and impulsive than non-creative counterparts.

Amabile (1996) demonstrated the relationship of intrinsic motivation to creative behaviors and suggested that individuals rarely engage in creative workplace behaviors unless they enjoy what they are doing and focus on the work rather than on the potential rewards. This research focused on testing the intrinsic motivation hypothesis of creativity: “the intrinsically motivated state is conducive to creativity, whereas the extrinsically motivated state is detrimental” (Amabile, 1996, p. 107).

A learning goal orientation (LGO) is relevant to individual creativity in that it relates to both skill acquisition and intrinsic motivation (Hirst et al., 2009). Hirst et al., found a small to medium relationship between an LGO and creativity ($r = .25, p \leq .01$). Gong et al. (2009), research on employee learning orientation, transformational leadership, and creativity showed a similar correlation between LGO and creativity ($r = .20, p = .05$). A learning orientation focuses individuals on the acquisition of new knowledge and the development of “deep processing strategies” facilitating the mastery of challenging tasks (Elliot & McGregor, 2001, p. 501). The focus on skill development associated with a learning goal orientation implies an intrinsic interest in understanding and mastering task performance (Janssen & Van Yperen, 2004). This intrinsic motivation leads to a deeper and more intensive engagement with the task, which may result in creative behaviors and outcomes (Amabile, 1996). Other characteristics associated with holding an LGO (pursue difficult and challenging tasks, seek feedback to improve performance, focus on developing competence) likely contribute to creative behaviors and outcomes.

Goal Orientation

The term *goal orientation* is found in both adult learning and education literature. In the 1950s, Cyril O. Houle (1961, 1980) classified adult learners into three groups (Houle, 1961, 1980) according to individual beliefs about the purposes of continuing education:

- goal-oriented learners, who use learning to accomplish specific objectives;
- activity-oriented learners, who take part in learning activities for social interaction and human relationships; and
- learning-oriented learners, who engage in educational activities for the joy of learning.

Houle (1980) developed this three-factor typology through a series of in-depth interviews with twenty-two individuals identified as continuing learners. He portrayed the orientations as overlapping. Houle's goal oriented learners use learning to accomplish specific objectives and learning-oriented individuals engage in learning activities for the sake of learning.

Similar concepts emerged from the work of Dweck, Leggett, and Elliot in the 1980s (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988) with children in educational settings that was later expanded to adults in the work place by VandeWalle and others (VandeWalle, 1997; VandeWalle et al., 1999; VandeWalle et al., 2001). The focus of this study is construct of goal orientation, defined by Dweck (1986) and further defined by Dweck and Leggett (1988).

Dweck and Leggett (1988) proposed that goal orientation is influenced by implicit theories of personal attributes (i.e., Implicit Person Theory) regarding the malleability of personal attributes that affect behavior. Dweck and Leggett (1988), suggested, individuals hold one of two different assumptions about the malleability of personal attributes. One may believe that a highly valued personal attribute, such as intelligence, is a fixed, nonmalleable trait-like entity (entity theory) that cannot be changed or developed. In contrast, the incremental theory posits that the highly valued attribute can be changed and developed. Within the organizational context, studies examined how implicit theories of intelligence influence manager's judgments of subordinates (Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005), self-regulation (Wood & Bandura, 1989); self-efficacy following setbacks (Wood & Bandura, 1989), and performance on complex decision-making tasks (Heslin et al., 2005).

In education, the goal orientation construct suggests that individuals hold either learning or a performance orientation toward tasks (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988). A learning goal (LGO) orientation is characterized by a desire to increase one's

competence by developing new skills, mastering new situations, and taking on challenging tasks. In contrast, a performance goal orientation (PGO) reflects a desire to demonstrate competence to others and to be positively evaluated by others (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck 1988). This model of goal orientation contrasts with classic achievement theorists who emphasized that performance in achievement settings may be oriented toward attaining success or avoiding failure (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1953). VandeWalle and his colleagues extended Dweck's research to adults in the workplace (VandeWalle, 1997; Vandewalle et al., 1999; VandeWalle et al., 2001).

Implicit theories create a motivational framework that influences the type of activities and individual chooses to participate in, and how the individual interprets his or her performance in the activities (Dweck, 1975; Dewec k & Leggett, 1988). Robins and Pals (2002) tested a number of hypotheses involving implicit theories of intelligence and goal orientation and the stability of implicit theories over time using longitudinal samples¹² of college students. They found that entity theorists emphasized performance goals (i.e., performance prove, performance avoid) ($r = .31, p = \leq .05$), while incremental theorists emphasized a learning goal orientation ($r = -.25, p \leq .05$). In addition, measures of implicit theories of intelligence did not show any mean change throughout college, providing some evidence for the stability of implicit theories. Dupeyrat & Marine (2004) examined the relationship among implicit theories of intelligence and several constructs, to include goal orientation. Striving for competence improvement (i.e., learning goal orientation) was positively correlated with an incremental theory of intelligence ($r = .27, p = \leq .05$) and negatively correlated with an entity theory of intelligence ($r = -.31, p \leq .01$). As expected, a performance avoid goal orientation was positively correlated with an entity theory of intelligence ($r = .29, p \leq .05$) and negatively correlated with an incremental theory of intelligence ($r = -.33, p \leq .01$).

¹² Research used data from the Longitudinal Study of Self and Personality Development, a study designed to examine the development of self-esteem and personality during college. Participants were recruited during the first week of their first year of college, and assessed annually throughout college (Robins & Beer, 2001).

Two- and Three-Factor Models of Goal Orientation

Research demonstrated that the two types of goal orientations differentially influence how individuals respond to task-difficulty and failure (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck 1988; Martocchio & Hertenstein, 2003). Individuals with a LGO tend to pursue an *adaptive pattern* (Dweck 1986; Dweck & Leggett 1988). This response pattern is “characterized by persistence in the face of failure, use of complex learning strategies, and the pursuit of difficult and challenging material and tasks” (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002, p.4). The focus on skill mastery often produces high levels of performance, as a secondary effect (Dupeyrat & Marine, 2004; Robins & Pals, 2004; Simmons, 2009). Learning oriented individuals tend to establish challenging objectives and do not have a fear of failure because they are most interested in learning and increasing skill mastery (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Dweck 1986).

Performance orientation is associated with what Dweck (1986) and others referred to as a *maladaptive response pattern*. This response pattern is characterized by an increased propensity to withdraw from tasks, especially if there is a chance of failure; less interest in difficult tasks; less complex learning strategies, such as surface processing which involves the rehearsal and rote memorization of information; and the tendency to seek less challenging material and tasks in order to secure success. Consistent with these labels, a LGO is generally associated with more positive outcomes and a PGO is associated with either neutral or negative outcomes (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Button et al., 1996; Dweck & Leggett 1988; Elliot & Dweck 1988; Elliot & Harackiewicz 1996; VandeWalle et al. 2001).

In 1996, Elliot and Harackiewicz proposed a revised three-factor goal orientation model that integrated the learning/performance and approach/avoidance perspectives. In this framework, the performance goal orientation is separated into independent approach (or prove) and avoidance distinctions. As a result, three goal orientations are posited: (a) a learning goal orientation focused on the development of competence and mastery; (b) a performance-approach goal orientation directed at the attainment of favorable judgments of competence; and (c) a performance-avoidance goal orientation focused on avoiding unfavorable judgments of competence (Elliot & Covington, 1996; Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996; Elliot & McGregor, 2001). VandeWalle (1997) identified a number of concerns with existing goal orientation measures to

include (a) single-item formats, (b) inappropriate domain specificity levels, (c) generalizability, and (d) insufficient construct validation evidence. To address these issues, VandeWalle (1997) developed instrument items to support the three-factor goal orientation model proposed by Elliot and Harackiewcz (1996) (i.e., learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation).

Measuring Goal Orientation in the Work Domain

Much of the research cited above conceptualizes goal orientation as a personality trait that does not vary over time and across performance contexts. In contrast to this assumption, a growing body of research suggests that while individuals may possess a disposition goal orientation that provides a “typical” orientation across performance settings, it is likely that individuals may exhibit different situational goal orientations (SGOs) in response to the performance-related situation encountered (Button et al., 1996; Elliot & Church 1997; Elliot & Covington, 2001). Situational cues can be manipulated to induce a performance or learning goal orientation in a specific environment, such as training (Kozlowski, Gully, Brown, Salas, & Smith, 2001). These SGOs demonstrate a relationship with motivational variables, such as self-efficacy, that are independent of dispositional goal orientation’s relationship with the same variables (Breland & Donovan 2005; Kozlowski et al., 2001).

Creativity and Goal Orientation

Individuals who demonstrate a learning goal orientation and those described as creative share a number of common characteristics—perseverance in the face of challenge, a desire to learn and explore, and a propensity to take risks (Amabile, 1982; Batey & Furnham, 2006; Button et al., 1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008). Amabile’s (1983, 1996) model of creativity identified three elements necessary for individual creativity to include domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant skills, and intrinsic task motivation. A learning goal orientation is relevant to Amabile’s model because it relates to both skill acquisition and intrinsic motivation. It also influences an individual’s willingness to solicit and apply feedback to improve skills and competence (Vandewalle et al., 2001).

Gong et al. (2009) and Hirst et al. (2009) found evidence that an LGO had a statistically significant positive relationship to employee creativity ($r = .20, p \leq .01$ and $r = .25, p \leq .01$,

respectively) and negative correlations with a performance avoid goal orientation. These results contrast with the results of prior research (Jaussi & Dionne, 2003; Redmond, Mumford & Teach, 1993; Shin & Zhou, 2003) that failed to demonstrate a connection between employee learning orientation and creativity.

Is there a relationship between the creativity and goal orientation of HR professionals and the extent to which they demonstrate strategic HR competencies? Prior research indicated that in some instances there was a positive relationship between creativity and a learning goal orientation; however, results have been inconsistent (Gong et al., 2009; Hirst et al., 2009; Jaussi & Dionne, 2003; Redmone et al., 1993). This study will explore the relationship between creativity and goal orientation to self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies.

CHAPTER III: METHOD

The purpose of this research is to explore the relationship between variables representing creativity and goal orientation to the self-assessed demonstration of strategic human resource (HR) competencies reported by members of the HR occupation. This will contribute to understanding the lack of progress in the transition of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic role (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; Lawler et al., 2011; Lawler & Mohrman, 2000a; PPS, 2010; Ulrich, 1998) and inform selection, training, and development of HR professionals. The relationship was explored within the U.S. federal government environment, specifically the Department of Defense (DoD), Department of the Army (Army). This chapter outlines the research questions, participants, instruments, procedures, and analyses used in this study.

I originally proposed focusing my research on the approximately 9,300 civilian HR professionals employed across the DoD; however, a representative of the DoD, Strategic Analysis and Reporting Division advised that official DoD policy does not support academic research by providing employee contact information or encouraging employee participation (J. Caplan, personal communication, July 2, 2013). As an alternative, the representative suggested that I seek sponsorship from a large DoD organization, such as the Army. I sought approval from the Army Chief of Staff and received approval on August 8, 2013 to focus my research on the approximately 3,500 civilian HR professionals employed by the Army (J. Aronowitz, personal communication, August 8, 2013).

I planned to use the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) the *Elements for HR Success* competency model self-assessment. However, SHRM declined my request. Reasons cited included the competency model self-assessment was not ready for public use; the self-assessment is part of a larger assessment that includes scenario-based questions; and a general reluctance to support the use of SHRM-developed assessments in independent research (K. Strobal, personnel communications, September and October 2013). In response, I used the DoD HR Competency Model to support my research.

Research Questions

Considering the five HR Strategic Partner competencies included in the DoD HR competency model (i.e., *change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, systems*

planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation) together and separately, how much variation in each competency and total competencies is explainable by creativity and goal orientation? More specifically, I explored the following questions:

1. How much variation in the self-rated demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies is explained by creativity and three dimensions of goal orientation (i.e., learning, performance prove and performance avoid)?
2. Beyond what the four predictors explain, how much more of the variation in the self-rated demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies is explained by the interaction of creativity and goal orientation?

I conducted my research within the Washington, D.C., metropolitan area, located near the headquarters of the Chief of Staff of the Army and the Propensity and Evaluation Division (P&ED), responsible for the Army's civilian HR professionals. The proximity provided access to Army leadership to address questions and resolve issues related to data collection.

Participants

The target population for the study was the civilian HR professionals in the Human Resource Management (0201) occupational series¹³, employed by the Army. DoD identifies three HR roles defined by the scope of responsibility and experience: HR Specialist, HR Advisor, and HR Strategic Advisor (DCPAS, 2012). The DoD, and by extension the Army, workforce is complex, including appropriated and non-appropriated fund personnel, full-time and part-time personnel, permanent and temporary personnel, excepted and non-excepted personnel, active duty and reserve, deployed civilians, and various other categories and groups. Compounding the size and complexity of the workforce, as a DoD organization, the Army operates in an environment of diminishing resources and must reduce spending while preserving national security (Alexander, 2013).

As is the case in other private or public sector organizations, developing and retaining talent is among DoD's top concerns. The DoD *Fiscal Year 2012-2016 Human Capital Plan*

¹³ Defines occupations and specific jobs in the Federal government. A series is a subdivision of an occupational group consisting of jobs that align to a specialized type of work and qualification requirements. The Human Resource Management Series (0201) is part of the Human Resource Management Group (OPM, 2009).

(2012a) identifies three fundamental focus areas: Total Force Readiness, Care for Our People, and creating and sustaining a Culture of Relevance, Effectiveness, and Efficiency. These focus areas are fundamental to the HR function (Ulrich, 1998). As such, the HR function is positioned to be among the most influential and strategically important functions in the DoD. In order to do so, the professional members of the DoD HR function must develop and demonstrate the strategic HR competencies identified in the SHRM (2012) and DoD HR competency models. The Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service (DCPAS), the DoD enterprise leader in the development and delivery of civilian policies and HR solutions to strengthen mission readiness of DoD, established a goal to enable the professional HR community to optimize the balance between function and strategic expertise (DCPAS, 2012). Army civilian HR professionals, as a subset of the larger DoD civilian HR workforce, face similar challenges and expectations to demonstrate strategic HR competencies.

Participant Selection

The sample for my research was drawn from the Army's 3,500, appropriated fund¹⁴, civilian HR professionals located worldwide at all pay and experience levels. At a 95% confidence level and an error rate of +/- 5%, the target sample size was 349 (Creative Research Systems, 2010). Assuming a 50% response rate, the P&ED staff used a proportionate, stratified random sampling method to identify a representative sample of 700 from the Army's 3,500 civilian HR professionals (Creswell, 2008).

Procedures

Structuring the Questionnaire

I conducted a literature review of scholarly and practitioner publications to identify appropriate self-assessment measures of creativity, goal orientation, and demonstration of strategic HR competencies. From these sources, I organized the content of the questionnaire. I identified four categories of variables (a) creativity, (b) goal orientation, (c) HR competencies, and (d) demographic. I used items from three existing instruments to explore the relationship of creativity and goal orientation to self-assessed level of strategic HR competencies and behaviors:

¹⁴ Funds approved by Congress each year for a specific use, in this case, civilian pay costs.

the Creative Personality Scale (CPS) (Gough, 1979) of the Adjective Check List (ACL) (Gough & Heilburn, 1983), to examine the creative personality variable; VandeWalle's (1997) three-factor work domain goal orientation instrument; and the DoD HR competency model (DCPAS, 2011).

Pilot Study

I piloted the survey with five HR colleagues prior to finalizing the instrument. The respondents agreed to complete the survey and provide feedback to include the length of time it took to complete the survey and the clarity of the instructions and questions. Respondents reported that the survey took 10-15 minutes to complete and the items were clear and unambiguous. One colleague, a GS-13 HR professional, commented that her current position did not afford the opportunity to perform many of the behaviors associated with the HR Strategic Partner competencies.

Population Engagement

I received approval from the Army, Deputy Chief of Staff, in August 2013, to include Army civilian HR professionals in my study by completing an online questionnaire. The Chief, P&ED recommended that the invitation to participate in my research be sent from an official Army office e-mail address instead of my personal e-mail address. Given the volume of e-mail communications received by the Army's civilian HR professionals on a daily basis, a known e-mail address was more likely to be opened. The Chief, P&ED sent the invitation to participate to the sample on November 4, 2013 with reminder e-mails on November 18 and 25, 2013.

Data Collection

I completed the *Training in Human Subjects Protection* on-line training course provided by Virginia Tech in March 2013. The Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) granted approval to conduct my research on August 5, 2013. On October 21, 2013, I submitted a revision to report a change to my target population. The IRB approved my revision on October 22, 2013.

Included in the IRB approval was an invitation to participants in the form of an e-mail. The e-mail provided the sample population with an introduction to my research and described the purpose and objectives of the study, the role of the researcher and participant, confidentiality,

and how data collected will be used. The invitation included instructions for accessing the survey via SurveyMonkey.com from a secure website. I invited participants to contact me directly with questions and offered to provide aggregate results of my study.

Participation in this study was voluntary and anonymous; only I had access to the collected data. I agreed to provide Army leadership aggregated data and results following my dissertation defense.

Instruments

In support of the research questions, I collected perceptions about individual creativity, goal orientation, and the self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies from Army civilian HR professionals. To examine these variables, I used items from three existing instruments: Creative Personality Scale (CPS) (Gough, 1979), Work Domain Goal Orientation Instrument (VandeWalle, 1997), and the DoD Strategic HR Partner competencies and associated behaviors (DCPAS, 2011). The CPS may be used for research at no cost (CPS, 1979) and the Work Domain Goal Orientation instrument (VandeWalle, 1997), and the DoD HR Competency models are in the public domain and may be used. I discuss each instrument below.

Measure of Creativity

Creativity is a multidisciplinary concept that operates at the individual, organizational, and societal level (Sternberg & Lubart, 1996). Instruments to measure creativity at the individual level are typically self-report or external ratings of creativity-relevant personality characteristics (Batey & Furnham, 2006; Feist, 1999; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008; Gough, 1979), past behavior in comparison with others deemed to be creative (Runco, 2010) or attitudes toward creativity (Basadur & Hausdorf, 1996). I focused on self-ratings of creativity-relevant personality characteristics that may reflect creative potential and achievement using the CPS, included in the Adjective Check List (ACL) (ACL, 1985; Gough, 1979).

The ACL, designed as an instrument for use by observers to describe others, has evolved as a method of self-description in personality research. Specifically, the ACL identifies personal characteristics of individuals for assessing personality and perceived psychological tendencies (ACL, 1985). The instrument is composed of 300 adjectives that depict a wide range of human behavior. Between 1952 and 1985, use of the ACL in personality research, resulted in the

development of 37 subscales (Teeter, 1985; Zarske, 1985) using relational and other quantitative methods (ACL, 1985). One of these subscales is the CPS developed by Gough in 1979. Although the CPS is included in the commercially available ACL through MindGarden®, the CPS may be used for research or teaching at no costs (Appendix E).

The CPS is a 30-item scale empirically derived from the 300 items of the ACL (Gough & Heilbrun, 1965). The CPS scale was developed and cross validated on samples that totaled over 1,700 individuals. The samples covered a wide range of ages and types of work. Ratings of creativity from expert judges, faculty members, assessment staff, and interviewers were assessed for seven groups of men and five groups of women who had completed the ACL. Correlations with individual items with creativity ratings were used to select 18 positive and 12 negative items. Internal consistency coefficients in the samples ranged from .73 to .81. The CPS was significantly correlated with six other measures of creativity scales previously derived from the ACL (.30 to .76, $p \leq .05$). The CPS is positively and significantly, ($p < .01$) related to other creativity measures and surpassed them in its correlations with criterion evaluations. Results indicate that the CPS is a reliable and moderately valid measure of creative potential (Gough, 1979). Zampetakis (2010) confirmed that the CPS adjectives measure the same construct using the Graded Unfolding Model to binary responses. I selected this instrument for a number of reasons to include:

- the singular focus on the personality characteristics associated with creativity and rigor in the development and validation of the instrument (Gough, 1979, Gough & Heilbrun, 1965);
- the continuous use of the CPS in creativity research since its creation in 1979 (Carson, Peterson, & Higgins, 2003; Gino & Ariely, 2011; Madjar, Ildham, & Pratt, 2002; McCrea, 1987; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Sheldon, 1995; Zampetakis, 2010; Zhou, 2003);
- one of the most widely used paper-and-pencil list of creative (Oldham & Cummings, 1996); and
- brevity, simple and unambiguous structure and ease of completion (Gough, 1979); and

- unlike other, more recently created measures (Kelly & Kneipp, 2009; Zhou & George, 2001), the CPS does not include the term “creative” or derivatives of the term “creative” in any of the items. This is important because creativity can be defined and researched from different perspectives--person (Feist, 1999; Gough, 1979; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996), product (Amabile, 1983; Puccio & Cambra, 2010; Sternberg, 2006), process (Runco, 2010), and environment (Amabile, 1996) leading to different interpretations of the term.

Respondents were asked to place a check mark next to each adjective that you think describes you. Of the 30 adjectives, 18 describe highly creative people (e.g., capable, clever, egotistical, inventive, original, unconventional). Checked adjectives were given a value of +1. The remaining 12 adjectives describe less creative people (e.g., artificial, conservative, honest, narrow interests, sincere, submissive). Checked adjectives were given a value of -1. I summed the values to form a CPS index with a score from -12 to +18. For the purpose of interpreting results, I created two groups of scores using median-split (a) *highly creative* includes scores above the median, and (b) *less creative* includes scores below the median (Carson et al., 2003; Oldham & Cummings, 1996).

The use of the median-split is a common, yet discouraged, form of dichotomization, where the independent variable is split at the median to form high and low groups, which are compared with respect to their means on the dependent variable (MacCallum, Zhang, S., Preacher, & Rucker, 2002). While I used the median-split to differentiate *highly creative* respondents from *less creative*, the approach will not be applied to the statistical analysis of the construct. I will provide descriptions of the *highly creative* and *less creative* respondents.

Measure of Goal Orientation

Goal orientation is a construct originating in the educational literature that suggests that individuals hold either a learning or a performance orientation toward tasks (Dweck 1986; Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck 1988). A learning orientation is characterized by a desire to increase one’s competence by developing new skills, mastering new situations, and taking on challenging tasks. In contrast, a performance orientation reflects a desire to demonstrate competence to others and to be positively evaluated by others (Dweck, 1986; Elliot

& Dweck, 1988). Goal orientation research initially focused on adolescents in academic settings (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Legget) and expanded to adult populations in the mid-1990s (Button et al., 1996; VandeWalle, 1997).

Early work by Dweck (1986) conceptualized goal orientation as a unidimensional construct on a single continuum with strong performance and strong learning goal orientation at either end of the spectrum. Button, Mathieu, and Zajac (1996) were among the first to develop a two-factor measure of learning and performance goal orientation. A number of issues limited the use of the two-factor measure of goal orientation in work domains. Specifically, confirmatory factor analysis uncovered inadequate fit (Button et al., 1996). VandeWalle (1997) attributed this to the fact that performance goals were assessed unidimensionally, and goals were assessed at a broad, general level rather than a level specific to work. Research results using this two-factor measure were inconsistent. Based on the work of Elliot and Harackiewicz (1996) in which the performance goal orientation differentiated into performance-prove and performance-avoid goal orientations, VandeWalle (1997) developed and validated a three-factor measure to assess goal orientation of adults in work domain. The three factors include (a) learning goal orientation, (b) performance-prove goal orientation, and (c) performance-avoid goal orientation with reliabilities of .89, .95, and .88, respectively (VandeWalle, 1997).

I assessed goal orientation with VandeWalle's (1997) 13-item instrument. As shown in Table 3.1, the instrument has three subscales: (a) five items measuring a learning goal orientation, which is the desire to develop the self by acquiring new skills, mastering new situations, and improving one's competence; (b) four items measuring the prove dimension of a performance goal orientation, which is the desire to prove one's competence and to gain favorable judgments about it; and (c) four items measuring the avoid dimension of a performance goal orientation, which is the desire to avoid disproving of one's competence and to avoid negative judgments about it. A six-point Likert-type response, ranging from 6 (*strongly agree*) to 1 (*strongly disagree*), was used for each item. I averaged each subscale to calculate a score for the variables.

Table 3.1
Three-Factor Work Domain Goal Orientation Measure (VandeWalle, 1997)

Learning Goal Orientation: The desire to develop the self by acquiring new skills, mastering new situations, and improving one's competence.

1. I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
3. I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I will learn new skills.
4. For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks.
5. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.

Performance-Prove Goal Orientation: The desire to prove one's competence and to gain favorable judgments about it.

6. I am concerned with showing that I can perform better than my co-workers.
7. I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work.
8. I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.
9. I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.

Performance-Avoid Goal Orientation: The desire to avoid the disproving of one's competence and to avoid negative judgments about it.

10. I would avoid taking on a new task if there were a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.
 11. Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.
 12. I am concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would show that I have low ability.
 13. I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.
-

Measure of HR Competencies

To sustain the transformation of the HR functions, HR professionals must develop and demonstrate a new set of competencies to fulfill their changing roles and responsibilities (Yeung et al., 1996). Competency models have served as the foundation of HR skill and role transformation since the 1990s (DCPAS, 2011; Lawler & Boudreau, 2009b; OPM, 1999; Rodriguez, Patel, Bright, Gregory, & Gowing, 2002; SHRM, 2012; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich, 1998). Competency models refer to collections of knowledge, skills, and abilities, and other characteristics needed for effective performance. According to SHRM, competencies are a leading method for diagnosing, framing, and improving most aspects of HR (SHRM, 2012). Although the role and competency labels have evolved since the early HR competency models, the focus remains moving from an administrative to a strategic and positioning the HR function to facilitate organizational performance (RBL Group, 2013; Ulrich, 1997).

In 2011, the DCPAS published a role-based HR competency model (DCPAS, 2011) to reinvigorate the professional HR community to optimize the balance between functional and strategic expertise (DCPAS, 2012). DoD HR subject matter experts developed the HR competency model using academic research, existing HR competency models, and knowledge of the challenges faced by the DoD (OPM, 1999; Ulrich, 1998; Ulrich et al., 2009; Yeung, et al., 1996). The DoD HR competency model consists of 27 competencies specific to the evolving role of the HR professional in the DoD. The 27 competencies were cross-walked to identify how each aligns with the Office of Personnel Management's HR Line of Business, which defines processes that agencies need to perform to achieve the HR mission. Subject matter experts developed proficiency descriptors for each competency and the model was validated in early 2011 (DCPAS, 2011) by DoD HR professionals.

The DoD HR Competency model aligns competencies, proficiency levels, and behaviors for each HR role—HR Specialist, HR Advisor, and HR Strategic Partner. Core to each role is the Change Management competency defined as “building energy and engagement around change by using a systematic, structured approach to transition from the present to the desired state in individuals, teams, and organizations” (DCPAS, 2011). The Strategic HR Partner role aligns to the strategic HR roles described by researchers since the late 1990s (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; OPM, 1999; PPS, 2010; RBL Group, 2013; Ulrich, 1997; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005). The competencies associated with the HR Strategic Partner role include change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation (DCPAS, 2011).

Participants rated the extent to which they demonstrate behaviors associated with the HR Strategic Partner competencies. Using a five-point Likert-type response, ranging from 1 (*not at all*) to 5 (*to a very great extent*), participants responded to questions such as:

- I lead, facilitate, and sustain change initiatives in order to improve workforce performance;
- I articulate to organizational leaders and decision-makers a vision for HR, its potential opportunities and threats, and develop an effective strategy in line with business needs with milestones to meet enterprise-wide organizational goals; and

- I lead/oversee processes to develop and implement key business drivers and ensure HR processes and systems deliver the required business outcomes.

I averaged responses to items within each of the five competency areas will be averaged to determine five competency scores. Additionally, I computed individual competency scores by averaging the ratings on individual behaviors and an overall competency rating by averaging the scores for the competencies that align to the HR Strategic Partner role.

Analyses

Data to inform this study were collected via SurveyMonkey®, a commercial, on-line questionnaire tool and exported responses to SPSS version 22 for analysis. I checked data for completeness and performed descriptive statistical analyses, to include frequencies and percentages for the demographic information. Reliability estimates for scales and subscales were calculated and compared to previously published reliabilities. Means and standard deviations were determined for each scale. Table 3.3 presents the six criterion variables, four predictor variables, and five demographic variables explored in this study.

I used multiple regression statistical analysis to learn about the relationship between creativity and goal orientation (predictor variables) and self-assessed levels of HR Strategic Partner competencies and behaviors (criterion variables). I conducted six hierarchical regression analyses, one for each of the five competencies and one for the overall competency rating (criteria). I entered the creativity variable in the first step to determine the variance explained by creativity, and the three goal orientation variables were entered in the second step to determine the variance explained by goal orientation beyond what is explained by creativity.

Table 3.2
Criterion, Predictor, and Key Demographic Variables

Variable	Number of Items	Reliability
Criterion Variables		
HR Competencies		
a. Change Management	9	Not available
b. Strategic Planning	6	Not available
c. Enterprise Integration	6	Not available
d. HR Systems Planning	11	Not available
e. Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation	8	Not available
f. Total	40	
Predictor Variables		
Creativity	30	0.70
Goal Orientation		
a. Learning Goal Orientation (LGO)	5	0.89
b. Performance Prove Goal Orientation (PPGO)	4	0.95
c. Performance Avoid Performance Goal Orientation (PAPGO)	4	0.88
Demographic Variables		
Human Resources Role		
	a. HR Specialist	
	b. HR Advisor	
	c. HR Strategic Partner	
	d. Executive Level	
How long have you been in current role?	years/months	
How long have you been in the HR profession?	years/months	
What is your current grade?	GS-05 to GS-15; SES	
Gender	Male/Female	
What year were you born?	year	
What is your highest level of education?		
	a. 12 years or fewer, no diploma	
	b. High school graduate or GED	
	c. Some college credit, no degree	
	d. Associate's degree or equivalent	
	e. Bachelor's degree	
	f. Some graduate credit , no degree	
	g. Master's degree	
	h. Doctoral or Professional degree	

CHAPTER IV – ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

My research was an exploration of the relationship between human resource (HR) professionals' creativity and goal orientation to the self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Considering the five HR Strategic Partner competencies included in the Department of Defense (DoD) HR competency model (i.e., *change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation*) together and separately, how much variation in each competency and total competencies is explainable by creativity and goal orientation? More specifically, I explored the following questions:

1. How much variation in the self-rated demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies is explained by creativity and three dimensions of goal orientation (i.e., learning, performance prove and performance avoid)?
2. Beyond what the four predictors explain, how much more of the variation in the self-rated demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies is explained by the interaction of creativity and goal orientation?

I performed statistical analyses on survey results from civilian HR professionals in the HR Specialist occupational series, as defined by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) employed by the Department of the Army (Army). I used the SPSS statistical package, version 22, for all analyses. This chapter provides a description of the respondents and the relationships between and among the criterion variables (i.e., demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies) and the predictor variables (i.e., creativity and the three types of goal orientation).

Respondent Demographics

The population consisted of approximately 3,500 appropriated fund civilian HR professionals in the 0201 occupation series employed by the Army. A member of the Plans and Strategic Analysis Branch, Proponency and Evaluation Division (P&ED) staff generated a random sample 700 of Army civilian HR professionals to receive an invitation to participate in my research by completing an on-line questionnaire.

Response Rate

In Chapter III, I set a goal of 349 participants. This number was determined using a sample size calculator (Creative Research Systems, 2010) with a 95% confidence level and an error rate of +/- 5%. Assuming a 50% response rate, the invitation to participate in my research was sent to a random sample of 700 Army HR civilians.

Initially, I requested the e-mail addresses of the sample and planned to forward the invitations from my personal e-mail account. However, to increase the likelihood of the sample opening the e-mail containing the invitation, the Chief, P&ED suggested that he send the e-mail to the sample from an Army e-mail address. Given the volume of daily e-mails, he believed a recognizable e-mail address would increase participation. Invitations requested that employees participate on a strictly voluntary basis and included instructions with a link to the survey instrument.

On November 4, 2013, the Chief, P&ED sent invitations to participate in the study the sample of HR professionals by e-mail using internal Army e-mail addresses. By the end of the first week of data collection, I received 35 responses; and as of November 29, 2013, 182 of the 700 HR professionals in the sample responded, for an overall response rate of 26%. The response rate was lower than the anticipated 50%.

Two unrelated situations occurred that might have affected the response rate. I planned to initiate data collection on October 1, 2013; unfortunately, October 1, 2013, was the start of the 2013 Federal government shutdown¹⁵. The period leading up to and during the shutdown was a time of uncertainty, angst, and increased workload for most DoD civilian HR professionals as they not only prepared themselves for the shutdown, but also the employees they support. I delayed the start of data collection to from October 1 to November 4, 2013, hoping to avoid distractions caused by the shutdown and improve the response rate. I originally planned to collect data through November 16, 2013, with a reminder e-mail sent on November 11, 2013. However, on November 7, 2013, I learned that during the previous week, a university sent an unauthorized e-mail survey to the members of my population. In response, DoD advised

¹⁵ DoD civilian employees were affected by the 2013 Federal government shutdown from October 1-7, 2013 (DoD, 2013)

employees not to respond to the survey. This helped to explain why only 35 participants responded by the end of the first week. I discussed options with Chief, P&ED, and decided to send an e-mail to the sample informing them that my survey was authorized and could be completed, and extend data collection through November 29, 2013. The Chief, P&ED sent the reminder e-mail to the sample on November 18, 2013, to include notification of the data collection extension. A third and final reminder was sent on November 25, 2013, and by the end of the week, I received 182 responses.

While I cannot identify the specific impact of the government shutdown on the response rate, given the likely effects of the on the sample (e.g., anxiety, backlog of e-mail and other work upon returning from the government shutdown, etc.), completing a survey was likely not a priority. In addition, the guidance from Army leadership regarding the unauthorized survey may have caused confusion, resulting in respondents electing not to participate. I think each contributed to a reduced response rate.

Demographic Profile

As shown in Table 4.1, the 182 respondents were predominately female (61% versus 38% male). The average age was 53 years, with more than half the respondents being age 45 or older (63%) and only 6% were under age 35. In comparison with the Army civilian HR population, as shown in Table 4.2, respondents tended to skew more male than the population even though more females responded. Respondents were slightly older, on average, than the population. The respondents' Federal civilian service is comparable to that of the population.

The respondents are well educated, with 45% having graduate courses or holding a masters or doctoral/professional degree. It is interesting, but not surprising, that very few respondents are current members of HR or HR-related professional associations, or hold an HR certification from the HR Certification Institute, the leader certification for the HR profession. Professional association memberships and certifications tend to be more valued in private sector organization to promote networking and increase competitiveness for higher entry-level salaries (Latham, 2012). HR professional associations, such as the Society for Human Resource Management, are advocates and facilitators of the HR transformation though activities such as

the development of strategic HR competency models, training and other forums dedicated to developing strategic HR expertise.

Table 4.1
Respondent Demographics (N = 182)

Variable	Category	N	%
Gender	Female	111	61.0
	Male	68	37.0
	Not identified	3	1.6
Age	25-34 years	11	6.0
	35-44 years	20	11.0
	45-54 years	55	30.2
	55-64 years	70	38.4
	65 years and older	17	9.3
	Not identified	9	5.0
Education	High school or GED	2	1.1
	College credit, no degree	48	26.4
	Associates	17	9.3
	Bachelors	32	17.6
	Graduate credit, no degree	10	5.5
	Masters	58	31.9
	Doctoral/Professional	12	6.6
	Not identified	3	1.6
Major	HR	27	14.8
	HR-Related	21	11.5
	Business Administration	48	26.4
	Other	59	3.0
	Not identified	27	14.8
HR Certification	None	148	87.1
	PHR	15	8.8
	SPHR	7	4.1
HR Professional Association	None	145	83.8
	SHRM	26	15.0
	IPMA	4	2.3
	NHRA	2	1.2
	Other	4	2.3

Table 4.2
Comparison of Population and Respondents

	Army 0201 Population	Respondents
Gender		
Male	23%	38%
Female	77%	61%
Average Age		
Male	47 years	52 years
Female	46 years	53 years
Service		
Male	12 years	11 years
Female	17 years	18 years
Age Group		
25-34 years	16%	6%
35-44 years	20%	11%
45-54 years	38%	30%
55-64 years	24%	38%
65+	2%	9%

Note: Army 0201 population data as of July 2012 provided by Chief, P&ED

Job-Related Characteristics

A criterion for sample selection was assignment to the 0201 occupation series and I was not surprised that the majority of respondents (98%) were in the 0201 occupation series. This served to validate that I had the needed sample in terms of occupation. As shown in Table 4.3, more than 90% of the respondents were in the HR Advisor or HR Strategic Partner roles. As noted in Chapter II, each of the HR professional roles is comprised of elements of all the roles. For example, the typical HR Advisor's responsibilities include: (a) 20% HR Specialist, (b) 40% HR Advisor, and (c) 40% HR Strategic Partner (DCPAS, 2011). The pay grade of the respondents aligned to their HR professional role, with the majority in pay grades GS-11 to GS-13 (60%) and the HR Advisor role. The majority of respondents (60%) were on staffs versus assigned to line organizations.

Table 4.3
Job-Related Characteristics (N = 182)

Variable	Category	N	%
Occupation Series	0201 HR Specialist	174	95.6
	Other	5	2.7
	Not identified	3	1.6
HR Role	HR Specialist	14	7.7
	HR Advisor	108	59.3
	HR Strategic Partner	45	24.7
	Other	6	3.3
	Not identified	3	1.6
Work Location	Operations	59	32.4
	Staff	107	58.8
	Other	13	7.1
	Not identified	3	1.6
Time in Current Role	Less than 1 year	7	3.8
	1-3 years	20	11.0
	4-6 years	49	26.9
	7-10 years	27	14.8
	More than 10 years	25	13.7
	Not identified	54	29.7
Time in HR Profession	Less than 1 year	2	1.1
	1-3 years	0	0.0
	4-6 years	12	6.6
	7-10 years	21	11.5
	More than 10 years	89	48.9
	Not identified	58	31.9
Time with Army	Less than 1 year	5	2.7
	1-3 years	6	3.3
	4-6 years	20	11.0
	7-10 years	24	13.2
	More than 10 years	73	40.1
	Not identified	54	29.7
Pay Grade	7	5	2.7
	9	9	4.9
	11	37	20.3
	12	21	11.5
	13	50	27.5
	14	31	17.0
	15	14	7.7
	Other	12	6.6
	Not identified	3	1.6

Highly Creative and Less Creative Characteristics

Using the results of the Creative Personality Scale (CPS), I grouped respondents as (a) *highly creative* and (b) *less creative*, based on the median-split for the range of possible scores, which was 6. The *highly creative* group includes respondents with CPS scores above the median, and the *less creative* group includes scores at and below the median. This grouping is for purposes of describing *highly creative* versus *less creative* groups. Other than to compare means, I did not use the creativity groupings in any statistical analyses¹⁶.

As shown in Appendix A, a higher percentage of males (52%) were in the *highly creative* group as compared to females (31%) ($\chi^2 = 7.7, df = 1, p = .01$). Almost 70% of the females in the sample were in the *less creative* group. The average age of the groups were comparable at 52.3 years for *highly creative* and 53.1 for *less creative*. The *highly creative* group was more educated with 53% having taken graduate courses or holding a masters or doctoral/professional degree, versus 48% in the *less creative* group ($\chi^2 = 13.1, df = 2, p < .01$). More HR Specialists (57%) and HR Advisors (68%) were in the *less creative* group, and more HR Strategic Partners (51%) and GS-14 to GS-15 (53%) were in the *highly creative* group. Differences between the two groups were statistically significant for the criterion and predictors variables. The *highly creative* group had higher mean scores for total HR competencies ($t(168) = -6.1, p \leq .01$), creativity ($t(168) = -19.3, p \leq .01$), and learning goal orientation ($t(168) = -6.3, p \leq .01$), but lower mean scores performance avoid goal orientation ($t(168) = 2.7, p = .01$) for were statistically significant and higher than the same scores for the *less creative* group.

Criterion and Predictor Variables

Prior to exploring the relationship between HR professionals' creativity and goal orientation to the self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies, I conducted preliminary analyses for the criterion (i.e., HR competencies) and predictor variables (i.e., creativity, learning goal orientation, performance prove learning orientation, and performance

¹⁶ Dichotomization of quantitative variables is not recommended for statistical analyses because it can result in the loss of information about individual differences, loss of effect size, and loss of measurement reliance. It is a legitimate method when there is support for a qualitative comparison of two groups (MacCallum et al., 2002).

avoid goal orientation). As shown in Table 4.4, I determined means (M) and standard deviations (SD) for each scale and compared the reliabilities (alpha) of the measures with previously published studies presented in Table 3.2.

I calculated the reliability of the CPS index ($\alpha = .72$) using a weighted composite technique (as cited in Oldham & Cummings, 1996). The CPS measures two dimensions: (a) higher creativity and (b) less creativity, as such, a single Cronbach's alpha would not result in a meaningful reliability statistic. To account for the CPS structure, I split the index into a positive subscale made up of the 18 variables that describe highly creative individuals and a negative subscale that included the 12 adjectives that describe less creative individuals. A Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each subscale. The reliability of the total CPS index was calculated using "a linear combination weighted for the number of items on each subscale and the correlation between the subscales" (Oldham & Cummings, 1996, p. 616).

Table 4.4
Reliabilities, Means, and Standard Deviations for Criterion and Predictor Variables (N=177)

Variables	# Items	alpha	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Criterion Variables				
Total HR Competencies	40	0.98	2.7	1.1
a. Change Management	9	0.96	3.1	1.2
b. Strategic Planning	6	0.96	2.7	1.4
c. Enterprise Integration	6	0.96	2.7	1.3
d. HR Systems Planning	11	0.95	2.6	1.2
e. Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation	8	0.96	2.3	1.2
Predictor Variables				
Creativity	30	0.72	5.1	3.4
Goal Orientation				
a. Learning Goal Orientation	5	0.93	5.2	0.9
b. Performance Prove Goal Orientation	4	0.86	3.4	1.3
c. Performance Avoid Goal Orientation	4	0.87	2.3	1.2

Note: Respondents rated the extent to which they demonstrated HR Competencies on a five-point Likert-type scale with 1 = *not at all* and 5 = *to a very great extent*. Creativity scores had a potential range of -12 to 18; actual range was -3 to 12. Goal orientation was rated on a six-point Likert-type scale in which 1 = *strongly disagree* and 6 = *strongly agree* in response to achievement-related statements.

Criterion Variables (HR Strategic Partner Competencies)

As discussed in Chapter III, I used the role-based HR competency model developed by Defense Civilian Personnel Advisory Service (2011) to measure each of the five HR Strategic Partner competencies included in the model (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation) and calculate an overall competency score.

As shown in Table 4.4, the HR Competency subscale means ranged from 2.3 to 3.1 ($SD = 1.1$ to 1.4) with an overall mean of 2.7 ($SD = 1.1$) on a five point Likert-type scale with 1 = *not at all* and 5 = *to a very great extent*. These values indicate that the respondents saw themselves demonstrating the HR Strategic Partner competencies to some extent. Given that 90% of the respondents were in roles that require the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies (i.e., HR Advisor and HR Strategic Partner), I expected the means to be higher. I will address this observation and possible explanation in Chapter V.

The highest mean was for *change management* at 3.1 ($SD = 1.2$). The respondents tended to agree that they demonstrate change management-related behaviors such as “lead, facilitate, and sustain change and change initiatives in order to improve workplace performance;” however, not to a great extent. As discussed in Chapter II, the *change management* competency is core to each of the DoD HR roles (i.e., HR Specialist, HR Advisor, and HR Strategic Partner) and can be considered a prerequisite for developing and demonstrating other HR competencies.

The lowest mean score was for *enterprise-wide mission orientation* at 2.3 ($SD = 1.2$). Enterprise-wide mission orientation focuses on applying an understanding of the organization’s mission, requirements, and capabilities to development and implementation of value-adding HR initiatives and interventions. As discussed in Chapter II, critics of the HR functions cite the lack of attention to aligning programs and initiatives to business goals as a competency and performance gap.

Predictor Variables (Creativity and Goal Orientation)

I measured creativity and goal orientation with two existing instruments, the CPS and the Three-Factor Work Domain Goal Orientation Measure.

Creativity. The CPS asks respondents to identify from a list of 30 adjectives (18 describe *highly creative* people and 12 describe *less creative* people) those that best describe them. *Highly creative* adjectives were given a value of +1 and the *less creative* adjectives were given a value of -1. Scores could range from -12 to 18. The CPS had an acceptable reliability (.72) when calculated using the weighted composite technique described earlier in this chapter. The CPS mean was 5.1 ($SD = 3.4$), indicating that on average, respondents were somewhat creative.

For the purpose of interpreting results of the CPS, I created two groups of scores using median-split at 6 with (a) *highly creative* includes scores above the median, and (b) *less creative* includes scores at and below the median. This approach was not applied to the statistical analysis of creativity; however, it informed descriptions of the *highly creative* and *less creative* respondent groups presented earlier in this chapter.

Goal Orientation. As shown in Table 3.1, the Three–Factor Work Domain Goal Orientation Measure (VandeWalle, 1997) consists of three subscales: (a) five items measuring a learning goal orientation (LGO); (b) four items measuring the performance prove goal orientation (PPGO); and (c) four items measuring the performance avoid goal orientation (PAGO). A six-point Likert-type response, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 6 (*strongly agree*) was used to rate each item. The three goal orientation subscales were not combined to form an overall score and the individual subscale scores are applied independently to statistical analysis.

The LGO subscale mean is relatively high at 5.2 ($SD = 0.9$) indicating that respondents desire self-development by acquiring new skills, mastering new situations, and improving one's competence. Items included, "I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from," and, "I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I will learn new skills" (VandeWalle, 1997). This may also be an indication that there is a tendency for respondents to hold an incremental theory of intelligence and believe that with effort one can increase competence. Dupeyrat & Marine (2004) attributed similar high LGO rating to social desirability.

Respondents agreed the least with the items in the PAGO scale with a mean of 2.3 ($SD = 1.2$). Items included in the PAGO include items such as, "Avoiding a show of low ability is more

important to me than learning a new skill” and “I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly” (VandeWalle, 1997). I am concerned that the negative wording of the PAGO items may have caused some respondents to rate the items lower.

Relationship Among Variables

I used multiple regression to learn about the relationships between seven predictor variables (i.e., creativity, learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, performance avoid goal orientation, and three derived interaction variables), and a criterion variable (i.e., HR Strategic Partner competencies). The validity of the multiple regression was based on certain assumptions that were satisfied. These include the distribution of means and low correlations between pairs of predictor variables. The exception to the low correlation assumption was the correlations between interaction variables (creativity x LGO, creativity x PPGO, and creativity x PAGO) and the corresponding lower order variables (i.e., creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO). This is a common problem when including interaction variables in regression models. I calculated and entered the interaction variables into the regression model to rule out any significant contribution by interactions in explaining HR competencies.

In this section, a correlation matrix is provided for the predictor and criterion variables. Table 4.5 includes the intercorrelations for the predictor and criterion variables.

Table 4.5
Intercorrelations among HR Competencies, Creativity, and Goal Orientation (N=177)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
HR Competencies										
1. Total HR Competencies	1.00									
2. Change Management	0.92	1.00								
3. Strategic Planning	0.90	0.85	1.00							
4. Enterprise Integration	0.93	0.84	0.89	1.00						
5. HR Systems Planning	0.87	0.71	0.65	0.75	1.00					
6. Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation	0.90	0.76	0.80	0.82	0.70	1.00				
Creativity										
7. Creativity	0.33	0.33	0.29	0.30	0.31	0.25	1.00			
Goal Orientation										
8. LGO	0.37	0.32	0.29	0.31	0.38	0.27	0.42	1.00		
9. PPGO	<i>0.03</i>	<i>-0.01</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>-0.03</i>	<i>0.04</i>	<i>0.10</i>	0.21	0.17	1.00	
10. PAGO	-0.25	-0.27	-0.18	-0.25	-0.25	-0.13	-0.26	-0.19	0.24	1.00

Note: Correlations from -0.13 to 0.10 are **not** statistically significant (italics). LGO = learning goal orientation; PPGO = performance prove goal orientation; PAGO = performance avoid goal orientation.

Correlations within Criterion Variables

The five HR competency variables (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise planning, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientations) were significantly and strongly related to each other (.65 to .89, $p \leq .01$). The strongest correlation was between strategic planning and enterprise integration ($r = .89$). The overall competency score was significantly and strongly related to each individual competency (.87 to .93, $p \leq .01$).

Correlations within Predictor Variables

The creativity score was represented by a single value; and, three subscales (i.e., LGO, PPGP, and PAGO) represented goal orientation. The goal orientation variables were fairly independent of each other with significant correlations of .17, $p = .03$; -.19, $p = .01$; and .24, $p < .01$), respectively. As was the case in previous research, learning goal orientation was negatively and significantly correlated with performance avoid goal orientation (-.19, $p = .01$). This relationship is expected given the wording of the learning and performance avoid goal orientation items.

Creativity was statistically and significantly correlated with each of the goal orientation variables (i.e., LGO, PPGO, and PAGO) with varying strengths and direction (.42, $p \leq .01$; .21, $p = .01$; and -0.26, $p \leq .01$, respectively). Based on discussion in Chapter II, regarding the behaviors and personality characteristics associated with LGO, PPGO, and PAGO, the correlations with creativity were not surprising.

Predicting HR Competencies

The purpose of my research was to develop an understanding of the relationship of variables representing creativity and goal orientation (i.e., learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation) to the self-assessed demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, enterprise-wide mission orientation).

Research Question 1: Overall Variance Explained

I used a simultaneous multiple regression to determine how much variance in HR competencies was explained by the predictor variables (i.e., creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO) thereby answering Research Question 1. As shown in Table 4.6, together, the creativity, learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation variables explained 19% of the variance in the overall demonstration of HR competencies ($R^2 = .19$, $F(4,172) = 10.04$, $p \leq .01$). The beta weights suggest that creativity and LGO are the main contributors to explaining the variance in the demonstration of HR competencies.

Table 4.6
Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting the Demonstration of HR Competencies (N = 177)

Predictors	<u>HR Competencies</u>		
	β	t-test	p-value
Creativity	0.20	2.40	0.02
Learning Goal Orientation	0.25	3.30	<0.01
Performance Prove Goal Orientation	-0.02	-0.29	0.77
Performance Avoid Goal Orientation	-0.14	-1.91	0.06
R^2	0.19		
$F(4, 172)$	10.04		

I conducted the same simultaneous multiple regression on each of the individual HR competencies (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation). The results are presented in Appendix B. The variance explained for the individual HR competencies ranged from 10% to 19% with creativity and learning goal orientation contributing the most in each case.

As shown in Table 4.7, I conducted a four step hierarchical multiple regression, entering the predictor variables in the following order: creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO. Creativity alone explains 11% ($R^2 = .11, F(1, 175) = 21.8, p \leq .01$) of the variance in HR competencies. The addition of LGO explained an additional 6% ($\Delta R^2 = .06, F(2, 174) = 17.8, p \leq .01$) of the variance, and PAGO explained an additional 2% ($\Delta R^2 = .02, F(4, 172) = 10.0, p \leq .01$) of the variance in HR competencies. PPGO did not add anything further to the explanation of HR competencies variance.

Table 4.7
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting the Demonstration of HR Competencies (N = 177)

Predictors	HR Competencies			
	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value
1. Creativity	0.11	0.20	2.46	0.02
2. Learning Goal Orientation	0.06	0.25	3.30	<0.01
3. Performance Prove Goal Orientation	0.00	-0.02	-0.29	0.77
4. Performance Avoid Goal Orientation	0.02	-0.14	-1.91	0.06
R^2	0.19			
$F(4, 172)$	10.04			

I conducted the same four step hierarchical multiple regression on each of the individual HR competencies (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation). The results are presented in Appendix C. Creativity explained from 6% to 11% of the variance in the five individual HR Strategic Partner competency scores. LGO explained an additional 3% to 8%. The two performance goal orientation scores each added from less than 1% to 2% to the explanation. The

explanatory power of creativity and LGO together was: 18% of HR system planning, 15% of change management, 12% of enterprise integration, 11% of strategic planning, and 10% of enterprise-wide mission orientation.

Research Question 2: Additional Variance Explained

I was also interested in understanding how much additional variance in the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies was explained by the interaction of creativity and the three goal orientation dimensions. I conducted a hierarchical multiple regression analysis entering the four predictor variables (i.e., creativity, learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation) in step 1 and the three interaction variables (creativity x learning goal orientation, creativity x performance prove goal orientation, and creativity x performance avoid goal orientation) in step 2. The interaction between creativity and goal orientation explained an additional 3% of the variance in the demonstration of HR competencies for a total of 22% of the variance in the demonstration of HR competencies explained by the predictors. I conducted the same two-step hierarchical multiple regression on each of the individual HR competencies (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation) with the interaction variables explaining a small amount of additional variance in the demonstration of the individual HR competencies. The results are presented in Appendix D. The interaction variables did not explain much of the overall variance in the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies, thereby allowing me to focus on the relationships between the core predictor variables and the demonstration of HR competencies.

Refining the Prediction

The variance in demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies explained by creativity, learning goal orientation, performance prove goal orientation, and performance avoid goal orientation was not as compelling as I anticipated. I suspected that one or more of the demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, education, HR role, and pay grade) might be interacting with the predictor variables (i.e., creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO). As shown in Table 4.8, three demographic variables correlate significantly with one of the HR Strategic Partner competencies or the overall HR Strategic Partner competency score. Education is significantly

Table 4.8
Intercorrelations Among HR Competencies, Creativity, Goal Orientation, and Demographic Variables (N=177)

Variable	11	12	13	14	15
HR Competencies					
1. Total HR Competencies	<i>0.00</i>	<i>-0.03</i>	0.15	0.56	0.55
2. Change Management	<i>-0.04</i>	<i>0.02</i>	<i>0.10</i>	0.60	0.60
3. Strategic Planning	<i>0.01</i>	<i>-0.08</i>	<i>0.11</i>	0.55	0.51
4. Enterprise Integration	<i>0.03</i>	<i>-0.01</i>	0.17	0.54	0.58
5. HR Systems Planning	<i>0.02</i>	<i>-0.07</i>	<i>0.12</i>	0.40	0.39
6. Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation	<i>0.02</i>	<i>0.00</i>	0.20	0.47	0.45
Creativity					
7. Creativity	-0.24	<i>-0.07</i>	0.29	0.17	0.21
Goal Orientation					
8. LGO	<i>0.14</i>	<i>0.00</i>	<i>0.08</i>	<i>0.12</i>	0.20
9. PPGO	<i>-0.10</i>	<i>-0.16</i>	<i>0.09</i>	<i>-0.11</i>	<i>-0.07</i>
10. PAGO	<i>0.08</i>	<i>-0.16</i>	0.17	<i>-0.14</i>	<i>-0.08</i>
Demographic Variables					
11. Gender	1.00	<i>0.08</i>	<i>-0.31</i>	<i>-0.09</i>	<i>-0.12</i>
12. Age		1.00	<i>-0.15</i>	0.21	0.20
13. Education			1.00	<i>0.10</i>	<i>0.15</i>
14. HR Role				1.00	0.72
15. Pay Grade					1.00

Note: Correlations from -0.15 to 0.15 are **not** statistically significant (italics). LGO = learning goal orientation; PPGO = performance prove goal orientation; PAGO = performance avoid goal orientation.

correlated with the overall HR Strategic Partner competency score, $r(175) = .15, p = .05$; enterprise integration, $r(175) = .17, p = .03$; and enterprise-wide mission orientation, $r(175) = .20, p = .01$. Although significant, education's effects are small and not likely to add much to explaining the variance in the demonstration of HR competencies, therefore, I did not include education in a multiple regression as a control variable.

HR role and pay grade are significantly correlated with $r(175) = .72, p \leq .01$. This is not surprising given that each HR role aligns to a specific pay grade range. To simplify the analysis, I used pay grade as a control variable because it is likely that respondent data is more accurate

for pay grade than it is for HR role. Pay grade correlated significantly and was moderately to strongly related to HR role (.39 to .60, $p \leq .01$), total HR competencies, and each individual HR competency (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation).

As shown in Table 4.9, I conducted a two-step hierarchical multiple regression, entering pay grade in step 1 as a control variable and the predictors of interest in step 2 (i.e., LGO, PPGO, and PAGO). Alone, pay grade explained 30% of the variance in the demonstration of overall HR Strategic Partner competencies. This seems reasonable, as pay grade is a proxy for experience and with greater experience, assignment to HR roles (i.e., HR Strategic Partner, HR Advisor) that require a greater demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies. Controlling for pay grade, creativity and LGO explained an additional 13% of the variance, which is not that much lower than the 19% the predictors of interest explained themselves. This finding validates that the predictors of interest (i.e., creativity and LGO) are providing independent explanation of the variance in overall HR Strategic Partner competencies, even if it is a rather small proportion.

Table 4.9
Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting the Demonstration of HR Competencies while Controlling for Pay Grade (N = 177)

Predictors	<u>HR Competencies</u>			
	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value
1. Pay Grade	0.30	0.47	7.80	< 0.01
2. Creativity	0.13	-0.14	2.08	0.04
Learning Goal Orientation		0.47	7.80	< 0.01
Performance Prove Goal Orientation		0.22	3.40	< 0.01
Performance Avoid Goal Orientation		0.03	0.42	0.40
R^2	0.43			
F (5,169)	25.5			

CHAPTER V – SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of my research was to develop an understanding of the relationship of creativity and goal orientation to the demonstration of the human resource (HR) competencies identified as necessary for a strategic focus and successful performance. Understanding these constructs and their relationship to the demonstration of HR competencies can inform the nature of interventions, to include selection, assignments, and training of HR professionals, to facilitate the movement of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus.

This chapter begins with a summary of my research and discussion of results related to the research questions. I present limitations of my research related to the sample, procedures, instrumentation, design, and execution. I conclude this chapter with a discussion of implications for theory and practice, recommendations for future practice, and conclusions.

Summary and Discussion of Results

Beginning in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s, business leaders, HR/business academicians, and HR professional associations challenged members of the HR profession to focus not only on delivering traditional HR services (e.g., recruitment, staffing, performance evaluation, payroll), but on value-adding outcomes that contribute to organizational outcomes and performance. I experienced the adoption and demonstration of the strategic HR role as an innovation in the process of diffusing for almost 28 years. Beer (1997) identified the inherent tension between the goals of the strategic HR role and the goals of the traditional HR specialist. The roles represent distinctly different kinds of work and require individuals with different, skills, and identity. HR professionals who have integrated both roles find it difficult to balance the demand for service delivery over longer term planning and assisting managers with organizational and culture change. According to Beer (1997), in order to change, HR professionals “will have to be comfortable with the uncertainty and ambiguity associated with all change” (p. 55), inferring they must be willing to develop and demonstrate new competencies in unfamiliar roles. My research explored the relationship of an individual’s creativity and goal orientation to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies.

I collected self-assessed ratings of creativity, goal orientation, and demonstration of strategic HR competencies from civilian HR professionals employed by the Department of the Army (Army) through an on-line survey. I combined several existing instruments and a role-based competency model to create the survey. Respondents also provided demographic data on gender, age, education, Federal service, HR role, and pay grade. A random sample of 700 from the approximately 3,500 appropriated fund civilian HR professionals, in the 0201 occupation series, employed by the Army were invited to participate by completing the on-line survey. A total of 182 of the 700 HR professionals participated in my research by completing the survey, for an overall response rate of 26%, which was much lower than expected. The majority of respondents (90%) were in HR Advisor or HR Strategic Partner roles. Given that 40% of the responsibilities associated with the HR Advisor role require the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies, and 70% of the responsibilities associated with the HR Strategic Partner role require the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies, I expected higher HR competency scores; however, this was not the case.

The overall HR competency score was 2.7 ($SD = 1.1$) and individual competency (i.e., change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation) scores ranged from 2.3 to 3.1. These results are consistent with the findings of the longitudinal research conducted by the Center for Effective Organization (CEO), which revealed that since 1995 little has changed with respect to HR roles in shaping strategy and demonstrating the associated strategic HR competencies. In the CEO's most recent report, published in 2012, based on data collected in 2010, Lawler and Boudreau (2012) acknowledged some progress in shifting from an administrative to a strategic focus; however, not to the extent anticipated in the 2000 CEO report (Lawler & Mohrman, 2000b). The results are also consistent with findings by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM, 1999) and the Partnership for Public Service (PPS, 2010).

Diffusion of Innovations Model

Considering these results in light of the diffusion of innovations model explained in Chapter II, the knowledge and persuasion phases are supported by years of research and associated interventions such as competency models, certification programs, and training (Baill,

1999; Beer, 1997; DCPAS, 2011; Jamrog & Overholt, 2004; Lawler, 2011; Lawler & Mohrman, 2003; OPM, 1999; Ostroff, 1995; Ulrich, 1997). The characteristics of the strategic HR innovation may be contributing to the rate of adoption by the Department of the Army HR professionals such as perceived relative advantage, compatibility with existing practices and norms, complexity, triability, and observability (Rogers, 2003). Reasons, cited by several authors, for the lack of progress of the HR functions may explain the HR competency ratings reported by the Army HR professionals. These reasons include (a) organizations do not demand that HR change and prefer HR to focus on administrative activities (Lawler & Boudreau, 2012); (b) top management that wants a strategic HR function, but does not understand what it entails and what should be expected from HR professionals (Beer, 1997); and (c) HR professionals do not have the needed skills (Beer, 1997; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012; PPS, 2010). Beer (1997) observed tension between the goals of the strategic HR role and the goals of the HR specialist in a traditional role. The roles require individuals with very different skills and interests.

I speculate the Army civilian HR professionals are faced with an optional innovation-decision with respect to fully adopting the strategic HR innovation, in that each individual makes the decision to adopt or not adopt the strategic HR innovation. At the individual level, questions about relative advantage and complexity of the shift from an administrative to a strategic focus are likely contributing to the relatively slow rate of adoption of the strategic HR innovation. Absent a leadership decision (i.e., authority innovation-decision), with meaningful rewards and consequences, requiring the demonstration of the competencies and behaviors associated with the strategic HR innovation, the pace of change will likely continue at the present rate.

On average, the Army HR professionals rated themselves strongest in change management (e.g., apply knowledge of the impact of change on people, processes, procedures, leadership, and organizational culture; align leaders to enable them to become “change champions” with specific roles and action plans that drive and anchor successful enterprise-wide transformational ideals) and weakest in enterprise-wide mission orientation (e.g., oversee total workforce strategy execution; develop strategies to deal with management challenges of a blended workforce). HR professionals who participated in the 2013 Human Resources Competency Study (HRCS) rated themselves strongest at performing the credible activist

competencies (e.g., interpersonal skills, consistent and clear verbal and written communications, and reliable) and weakest at understanding and applying technology to build efficiencies, and managing the flow of strategic data (i.e., technology proponent competencies). Although the strong and weak competency areas differ, the results are similar in that HR competency scores do not reflect the demonstration of strategic HR scores at the levels deemed necessary (OPM, 1999; PPS, 2010; DCPAS, 2011, 2012b; Ulrich, 1996, 2014).

Creativity, Goal Orientation, and Demonstration of HR Strategic Partner Competencies

I am interested in understanding the relationship of creativity and goal orientation to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Results of previous creativity and goal orientation research led me to suspect that there was a relationship between an individual's creativity and goal orientation and the demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Prior research demonstrated relationships between creativity and performance (Amabile, 1982; Feist, 1988; Jassen & Van Yperen, 2004; Mayer, 1999; Sternberg & Lubart, 1996), goal orientation and performance (DeClercq et al., 2001; Dragoin et al., 2009; Porter & Tanskey, 1999; VandeWalle et al., 1999), and creativity and goal orientation (Gong et al., 2009; Hirst et al., 2009). Using the HR competency scores as an analog for performance, my results are similar to those cited above with moderate correlations between creativity and the HR competency scores ($r = .25$ to $.33$, $p \leq .05$); and moderate correlations between learning goal orientation (LGO) ($r = .27$ to $.38$, $p \leq .05$) and performance avoid goal orientation (PAGO) ($r = -.18$ to $-.27$, $p \leq .05$) and HR competency scores. The performance prove goal orientation (PPGO) was not significantly related to any of the HR competency scores.

The HR competency scores for the *highly creative* group were statistically significant and higher than the same scores for the *less creative* group. The *highly creative* group likely shares a number of characteristics (Amabile, 983; Batey & Furnham, 2006; Button et al., 1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Dweck, 1986) that contributed to developing and demonstrating HR Strategic Partner competencies (e.g., perseverance in the face of challenge, a desire to learn and explore, and a propensity to engage in challenging tasks). In addition, the *highly creative* group was more educated with more than 50% having taken graduate level course or earned an

advanced degree. This may be indicative of holding a learning goal orientation with a focus on continued development (Dweck & Leggett, 1988; Elliot & Dweck, 1988; VandeWalle, 1997).

Amabile's (1982, 1983, 1996, 2012) computational theory of creativity identified three aspects of the individual that influence creativity (a) domain-relevant skills, (b) creativity-relevant processes, and (c) task motivation. Through my research, I measured these components of creativity (i.e., overall HR competency score = domain-relevant skills; creativity score = creativity-relevant skills; and goal orientation scores = task motivation). Considering the overall HR competency scores as an analogue to successful performance, the *highly creative* group had statistically significantly higher scores in all creativity components (i.e., domain-relevant skills = 3.0; creativity-relevant skills = 8.7; and goal orientation: LGO = 5.7 and PAGO = 1.9) as compared to the *less creative* group (i.e., domain-relevant skills = 2.2; creativity-relevant skills = 2.9; and goal orientation: LGO = 5.0 and PAGO = 2.4). While the score differences are not great, they support Amabile's computational theory of creativity.

Predicting HR Competencies

I used simultaneous and hierarchical multiple regression to address the research questions presented in Chapter III. I found that when entered together, creativity, LGO, PGO, and PAGO explained 19% of the variance in the overall HR competency score, and explained 10-19% of the individual HR competencies (change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation). Based on the results of prior research (Gong et al., 2009; Hirst et al., 2009) and similarities in the characteristics demonstrative by creative and LGO individuals, I expected creativity and LGO to have the greatest explanatory power of HR Strategic Partner competencies. I tested this expectation with a four-step hierarchical multiple regression in which creativity and LGO explained 17% of the variance in total HR competencies and PPGO and PAGO explained an addition 2% of the variance. The interactions between creativity and the three goal orientation dimensions explained an additional 3% in the demonstration of HR competencies for a total of 22%. The additional variance explained by the interactions was small enough for me to conclude that the interactions were not taking away from the explanatory power of the primary predictors (i.e., creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO).

My results were not as compelling as I anticipated. Given the demographic and occupational background differences among the respondents, I suspected there might be a demographic variable influencing the outcome. I conducted a final two-step multiple regression, controlling for pay grade with pay grade entered in step 1 and creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO entered in step 2. Controlling for pay grade, creativity, LGO, PPGO, and PAGO continued to explain 13% of the variance in the demonstration of HR Strategic Partner competencies.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

Survey Design

The survey was designed to collect self-assessed perceptions of creativity, goal orientation, and the demonstration of strategic HR competencies, providing a single perspective for each variable. The wording of items may have been perceived as more positive or more negative influencing the respondent's choice of answer. In addition, the competency descriptors were subject to interpretation by the respondent. Data collection provided input from the perspective of the individual without the benefit of validation from a supervisor or other workplace observer.

Sample

The sample was drawn from the population of over 3,500 U.S. Army civilian HR professionals and included individuals in all DoD HR roles (i.e., HR Specialist, HR Advisor, and HR Strategic Partner) rated against HR Strategic Partner competencies. Respondents may have found themselves in a situation of not having the opportunity to perform a competency outside their assigned HR role.

Data Collection

Two unrelated situations occurred that likely affected the response rate (a) the Federal government shutdown from October 1-7, 2013, and (b) an unauthorized survey distributed to members of the sample by a university. The Federal government shutdown delayed the start of data collection from October 1, 2013 to November 4, 2013. In response to the unauthorized survey, Army HR professionals were directed by leadership to delete the survey invitation.

Generalization of Findings

A number of factors limited the generalizability of my study: (a) the sample was limited to civilian HR professionals employed by the Army and involved those willing to participate in my research; (b) the response rate was small with only 182 out of 700 (26%) of those sampled responded to the survey; (c) the survey was conducted on-line and while respondents were invited to contact me with questions regarding interpretation of items, I expect that some completed the survey without a clear understanding of phrase or item meaning.

Implications for Theory

My findings contribute to the creativity, goal orientation, and strategic HR transition literature. The relationship between creativity and a learning goal orientation was validated in that increased creativity scores tended to correspond to increased levels of learning goal orientation. Conversely, increased creativity corresponded to lower performance avoid goal orientation. This indicates that those with higher creativity agree less with statements such as “avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill” (Vandewalle, 1997), inferring that an individual with higher creativity will accept risk associated with learning and demonstrating a new skill.

In Chapter I, I stated there is little to no research on why, the members of the HR function have not changed how they allocate time and appear to have not embraced the strategic HR role (Beer, 1997; Lawler & Boudreau, 2012). My research and findings begin to explore the characteristics and motivations of HR professionals with respect to the transition from an administrative to a strategic focus. My results show that 19% of the variance in demonstrated strategic HR competencies are explained by creativity and goal orientation, both characteristics or dispositions of the individual HR professionals and not related to aspects such as gender and education.

Suggestions for Practice

The knowledge that creativity and learning goal orientation explain 17% of the variance in the demonstration of strategic HR competencies can inform the nature of interventions for organizations wanting to drive the transition of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus. Specific and similar characteristics have been attributed to creative and learning

oriented individuals to include perseverance in the face of failure, a desire to learn and explore, and a propensity to take risks and learn from failure (Amabile, 1982; Batey & Furnham, 2006; Button et al. 1996; Csikszentmihalyi, 2996; Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Dweck ; Furnham & Bachtiar, 2008). Selection officials can screen for these characteristics with carefully constructed behaviorally based interview questions. Consultants and professional associations have formed business lines around the development of strategic HR competencies. Understanding that training is not the sole intervention to developing a strategically oriented HR function, will allow organizations to make informed decisions regarding investing in the development of strategic HR competencies.

In Chapter III, I noted an observation from a colleague who participated in my survey pilot study (anonymous personal verbal communication, October 15, 2013). She stated that although her current job does not provide the opportunities to demonstrate strategic HR competencies expected in her role and pay grade, she believed if given the opportunity she could develop and demonstrate strategic HR competencies. Her statement is supported by the my research in that although 90% of my respondents were in HR positions that required the demonstration of HR competencies, average HR competency scores did not exceed a 3.0 on a five-point rating scale.

In Chapter II, I suggested that the nature of the innovation-decision regarding developing and demonstrating strategic HR competencies was optional and given the characteristics of the strategic HR innovation, an authority-based innovation decision may be required along with consequences for not adopting the innovation. In practice, supervisors of HR professionals must be willing to structure jobs to allow the development and demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Assuming that organizations truly desire a strategic HR function, leadership must help the diffusion of the strategic HR innovation by directing the change and holding HR professionals accountable for the desired strategic HR performance.

Suggestions for Future Research

I suggest replicating my research with a larger, diverse randomized sample to better understand the relationship between creativity and goal orientation to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies to validate and expand my findings in terms of affects and

generalizations. Included would be a more generalized competency assessment, such as the Society for Human Resource Management's *Elements for HR Success* competency assessment (SHRM, 2012) developed for general use across all HR populations, and supervisor validation of self-assessments and other supervisory pertaining to creativity and goal orientation. Implicit personal theories upon which goal orientation is based can serve as a more enduring and understandable construct. In addition, I suggest replicating my study using the construct of implicit theories of intelligence in place of goal orientation. I suspect that social desirability influenced respondents' responses to the Work Domain Goal Orientation Instrument (VanDeWalle, 1997), as the items related to the performance avoid goal orientation (e.g., I would avoid taking on a new task if there were a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others) could be viewed as negative. In contrast, instruments measuring implicit theories of intelligence may be perceived as more neutral (Dupeyrat & Marine, 2004; Heslin et al., 2005; Robins & Pals, 2002).

Beer (1997) observed an inherent tension between the goals of the strategic HR role and the goals of the HR specialist in traditional roles. These roles attract and require people with very different skills, aspirations, and identity. HR professionals who have integrated both roles find it difficult to balance both roles. He identified two related and mutually reinforcing obstacles to the transformation of the HR function: (a) the capacity of most human resources professionals, and (b) top management that wants a *strategic HR function*, but does not understand what it entails. Research to validate Beer's observations may provide additional explanation for the ongoing effort to transition the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus.

In addition, future researchers may use a qualitative approach to explore the work environment in organizations that have successfully made the transition from an administrative to a strategic focus. Specifically, a comparative case study of an HR organization that has made the strategic HR transition and one that has not. I believe that organizations tend to underestimate the magnitude of change and difficulty of holding individuals accountable to develop and demonstrate strategic HR competencies. Understanding what is involved may better prepare individuals and organizations for the change.

Conclusion

The results of my research indicate that while there is a relationship between creativity and goal orientation to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies, the relationship is not as strong as I anticipated. Creativity and learning goal orientation explain the majority of the variance in self-assessed demonstration of strategic HR competencies. Other findings, such as the positive and strong correlation between creativity and learning goal orientation support previous research. The results of the HR competency assessment supported claims that the HR function, represented by the sample, has not mastered the competencies needed to perform as an HR Strategic Partner.

In addition to HR professionals lacking the needed skills and competencies to perform in a strategic role, Beer (1997) and Lawler & Boudreau (2012) offer other reasons (a) top management wants a strategic HR function, but does not understand what it entails and continues to reward based on the effectiveness of HR in traditional roles, and (b) organizations do not demand that HR change and prefer HR to focus on administrative activities. To date, the HR transition from an administrative to a strategic focus has been a voluntary effort or an optional innovation-decision, meaning that choice to adopt or reject the need to develop and demonstrate strategic HR competencies rests with the individual HR professional. Absent an authority innovation-decision, I believe the HR function will continue at the pace it has since 1986, when I joined the profession..

I return to my colleague, a mid-career HR professional, who participated in the pilot of my survey. She commented that her job did not provide the opportunity to perform many of the behaviors associated with strategic HR competencies, but she believed she could if given the opportunity. This is a professional who has reached the mid-career level, and based on pay grade should be performing in an HR Advisor role and spending 40% of her time performing HR Strategic Partner competencies. This individual, and many like her, continue to be compensated and rewarded for performing below what DoD identified as required for the job. While aspects of the individual affect the transition of the HR function from an administrative to a strategic focus, the opportunity to perform HR Strategic Partner competencies and expectations for performance may have even greater influence.

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APPENDIX A
Highly Creative and Less Creative Characteristics (N=177)

Variable	Highly (%)	Less (%)	χ^2	p-value
Gender				
Male	51.5	48.5	7.7	0.01
Female	30.6	69.4		
Education				
No College Degree	22.0	78.0	13.1	<0.01
Associates or Bachelors Degree	32.7	67.3		
Graduate Courses or Advanced Degree	52.5	47.5		
HR Role				
HR Specialist	42.9	57.1	5.2	0.07
HR Advisor	32.5	67.5		
HR Strategic Partner	51.0	49.0		
Grade				
GS-07 to GS-09	42.9	57.1	7.8	0.05
GS-11 to GS-13	30.6	69.4		
GS-14 to GS-15	53.3	46.7		
Other	50.0	50.0		
Federal Service				
Less than 1 year	0.0	100.0	5.2	0.26
1-3 years	33.3	66.7		
4-6 years	50.0	50.0		
7-10 years	29.2	70.8		
More than 10 years	39.7	60.3		
	Highly (<i>M(SD)</i>)	Less (<i>M(SD)</i>)	t-test	p-value
Age	52.3 (10.9)	53.1 (9.1)	0.50	0.65
Federal Service (years)	16.1 (10.5)	14.9 (11.1)	-0.62	0.54
HR Competencies	3.0 (1.1)	2.2 (1.0)	-6.10	< 0.01
Creativity	8.7 (1.4)	2.9 (2.2)	-19.30	< 0.01
Learning Goal Orientation	5.7 (0.4)	5.0 (0.1)	-6.30	< 0.01
Performance Prove Goal Orientation	3.6 (1.4)	3.3 (1.3)	-1.70	0.08
Performance Avoid Goal Orientation	1.9 (1.2)	2.4 (1.1)	2.70	0.01

APPENDIX B
**Simultaneous Multiple Regression Predicting the Demonstration of
Individual HR Strategic Partner Competencies (N=177)**

Predictors	Change Management			Strategic Planning			Enterprise Integration		
	β	t-test	p-value	β	t-test	p-value	β	t-test	p-value
Creativity	0.22	2.73	0.01	0.20	2.45	0.02	0.18	2.29	0.02
LGO	0.20	2.65	0.01	0.20	2.55	0.01	0.22	2.82	0.01
PPGO	-0.05	-0.71	0.48	-0.05	-0.67	0.51	-0.07	-0.97	0.33
PAGO	-0.16	-2.12	0.04	-0.06	-0.77	0.44	-0.12	-1.62	0.11
R^2	0.18			0.12			0.15		
<i>F</i>	9.43			6.20			7.78		
	(4, 175)			(4, 175)			(4, 175)		

Predictors	HR Systems Planning			Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation		
	β	t-test	p-value	β	t-test	p-value
Creativity	0.15	1.96	0.05	0.14	1.68	0.01
LGO	0.29	3.84	< 0.01	0.19	2.40	0.02
PPGO	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.05	0.68	0.50
PAGO	-0.13	-1.73	0.09	-0.07	-0.93	0.36
R^2	0.19			0.10		
<i>F</i>	10.06			4.92		
	(4, 174)			(4, 173)		

APPENDIX C
**Hierarchical Multiple Regression Predicting the Demonstration of
 Individual HR Strategic Partner Competencies (N=177)**

Predictors	Change Management				Strategic Planning				Enterprise Integration			
	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value
1. Creativity	0.11	0.22	2.73	0.01	0.08	0.20	2.49	0.02	0.08	0.18	2.29	0.02
2. LGO	0.04	0.20	2.65	0.01	0.03	0.20	2.55	0.01	0.04	0.22	2.82	0.01
3. PPGO	0.01	-0.05	-0.71	0.48	0.01	-0.05	-0.67	0.50	0.01	-0.07	-0.97	0.33
4. PAGO	0.02	-0.16	-2.12	0.04	0.00	-0.06	-0.77	0.44	0.01	-0.12	-1.62	0.11
<i>R</i> ²	0.18				0.12				0.15			
<i>F</i>	9.43				6.20				7.78			
	(4, 175)				(4, 175)				(4, 175)			

Predictors	HR Systems Planning				Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation			
	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value
1. Creativity	0.10	0.15	1.96	0.05	0.06	0.14	1.68	0.01
2. LGO	0.08	0.29	3.84	< .01	0.04	0.19	2.40	0.02
3. PPGO	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.05	0.68	0.50
4. PAGO	0.01	-0.13	-1.73	0.09	0.00	-0.07	-0.93	0.36
<i>R</i> ²	0.19				0.10			
<i>F</i>	10.06				4.92			
	(4, 174)				(4, 173)			

APPENDIX D

Hierarchical Multiple Regression with Interaction Variables Predicting the Demonstration of HR Strategic Partner Competencies (N=177)

Predictors	<u>Total HR Competencies</u>				<u>Change Management</u>				<u>Strategic Planning</u>			
	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value
1. Creativity	0.19	-1.37	-1.88	0.06	0.18	-0.64	-0.86	0.39	0.12	-1.08	-1.41	0.16
LGO	-0.01	-0.06	0.95		0.06	0.46	0.65		0.00	0.01	0.99	
PPGO	0,09	0.61	0.54		-0.07	-0.42	0.67		0.08	0.47	0.64	
PAGO	-0.20	-1.51	0.13		-0.12	-0.87	0.39		-0.18	-1.24	0.22	
2. Creativity x LGO	0.03	1.72	2.35	0.02	0.01	0.93	1.25	0.21	0.02	1.36	1.78	0.08
Creativity x PPGO		-0.19	-0.73	0.47		0.56	0.21	0.83		-0.23	-0.85	0.40
Creativity X PAGO		0.14	0.69	0.49		-0.05	-0.22	0.83		0.23	1.08	0.28
R^2	0.22				0.19				0.14			
F	6.70				5.85				4.01			
	(7, 169)				(7, 172)				(7, 172)			

Predictors	<u>Enterprise Integration</u>				<u>HR Systems Planning</u>				<u>Enterprise-wide Mission Orientation</u>			
	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value	ΔR^2	β	t-test	p-value
1. Creativity	0.15	-1.17	-1.56	0.12	0.19	-1.39	-1.90	0.06	0.10	-1.96	-2.58	0.01
LGO	0.02	0.17	0.87		0.03	0.19	0.85		-0.15	-1.06	0.29	
PPGO	0.06	0.35	0.73		0.15	0.98	0.33		0.19	1.20	0.23	
PAGO	-0.29	-2.04	0.04		-0.19	-1.38	0.17		-0.16	-1.15	0.25	
2. Creativity x LGO	0.02	1.37	1.83	0.07	0.03	1.75	2.40	0.02	0.05	2.27	2.97	0.00
Creativity x PPGO		-0.24	-0.90	0.37		-0.26	-0.99	0.33		-0.23	-0.82	0.41
Creativity x PAGO		0.31	1.47	0.14		0.14	0.69	0.49		0.20	0.95	0.35
R^2	0.17				0.22				0.15			
F	5.00				6.75				4.27			
	(7, 172)				(7, 171)				(7, 170)			

APPENDIX E

Permission to Use the Creative Personality Scale

PsycNET - Display Record

Page 1 of 2

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Citation

Database:
[Test Development]
Creative Personality Scale (CPS)
Gough, Harrison G.
1979. doi: [10.1037/004639-000](https://doi.org/10.1037/004639-000)

Summary

- Developed as a subscale for the The Adjective Check List (ACL; Cough & Hellbrun, 1965), the Creative Personality Scale (CPS; Gough, 1979) was developed as a measure of creative potential. Thirty items (18 positive and 12 negative) were selected for inclusion in the Creative Personality Scale (CPS) on the basis of item analysis. In scoring a protocol, 1 point is given each time one of the 18 positive items is checked, and 1 point is subtracted each time one of the 12 negative items is checked. The theoretical range of scores is therefore from —12 to +18. The samples covered a wide range of ages and kinds of work. The CPS was found to be positively and significantly ($p < .01$) related to other creativity measures but surpasses them in its correlations with the criterion evaluations. Results indicate that the CPS is a reliable and moderately valid measure of creative potential and that it may properly be included among the scales to be scored on the Adjective Check List.

Unique Identifier

9999-04639-001

Reported in

Gough, Harrison G. A creative personality scale for the Adjective Check List. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol 37(8), Aug 1979, 1398-1405. doi: [10.1037/0022-3514.37.8.1398](https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.37.8.1398)

Construct

Creativity

Purpose

The purpose of the Creative Personality Scale is to provide a method of assessment that can identify creative talent and potential within an individual.

Acronym(s)

CPS

Language

English

Author

Gough, Harrison G.

Correspondence Address

Gough, Harrison G.: University of California, Institute of Personality Assessment and Research, Berkeley, California, United States, 94720

Affiliation

Gough, Harrison G. University of California Institute of Personality Assessment and Research

Format

Thirty-item measure; 1 point is given each time one of the 18 positive items is checked, and 1 point is subtracted each time one of the 12 negative items is checked. The theoretical range of scores is therefore from —12 to +18.

Number of Items

The CPS consists of 30 items: 18 positive and 12 negative.

Administration Method

Paper

Permissions

May use for Research/Teaching

Fee

No

Commercial

No

Reliability

Internal consistency: Alpha coefficient reliabilities were computed on four subgroups defined for the item analysis. The coefficients were .77 for a male composite group, .73 for male graduate students, .81 for a female composite group, and .73 for female graduate students.

Validity

Convergent validity: The CPS was found to be positively and significantly ($p < .01$) related to all six of the prior measures of creativity it was compared to but surpasses them in its correlations with the criterion evaluations.

Population

Human; Male; Female

Population Details

Male Samples: Architects
Mathematicians
Research Scientists
Undergraduate & Graduate Students

Keywords

Creative Personality Scale; Test Development

Index Terms

Creativity; Personality Measures; Rating Scales; Test Construction

Release Date

20110912

<http://psycnet.apa.org.ezproxy.lib.vt.edu:8080/index.cfm?fa=search.display&includeHistor...> 10/8/2012

APPENDIX F

Approval to Use Figure 2.1 – Innovation Decision Process and Figure 2.2 – Adopter Categories Based on Innovativeness



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May 22, 2013

Mary C. Byers
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Dear Ms. Byers:

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Best wishes.

APPENDIX G

Approval to Use Table 2.2 – HR Roles, Deliverables and Activities

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APPENDIX H

Invitation to Participate in HR Research

Dear HR Professional:

You have been selected to participate in this survey about the demonstration of strategic *HR* competencies in the Department of Defense (DoD) because of your designation in the 0201, Human Resources Management (HRM) occupation series. As an HR professional, I am sure you are familiar with efforts within the DoD, the Federal Government, the private sector, and HR professional associations to respond to new and increasing demands in support of workforce transformation through competency models, certification programs, training, and other initiatives. The Army Deputy Chief of Staff has approved the distribution of this survey to collect input from the Army's civilian HR professionals.

This survey, developed in accordance with AR 600-46, is associated with a Virginia Polytechnic and State University (Virginia Tech) dissertation research study that examines HR professionals' perceptions about creativity and goal orientation, and how these relate to the demonstration of strategic HR competencies. The survey has five sections: (1) HR Competencies, (2) Creative Personality Scale, (3) Work Domain Goal Orientation Instrument, (4) Occupation Background Information, and (5) General Background Information.

Providing information in this survey is voluntary. There is no penalty for not responding to any question and you may withdraw at any time. However, you are encouraged to participate so that the data is complete and representative of Army civilian HR professionals.

The survey is available 24/7 until November 16, 2013 and should take 20-25 minutes to complete. A reminder e-mail will be sent on November 18, 2013. This data collection effort is for research purposes only. Individual responses will not be reported or provided to anyone in your organization.

Thank-you, in advance for your assistance in this data collection and research. To access the survey, please click on the ULR below or copy and paste the URL into your browser. By clicking on the link below you are consenting to participate in this study and accepting that the information will be electronically supplied to the researchers to document your participation. If you have questions or concerns about participating in this study or are interested in the results of this study, please contact me at the e-mail address below. You will receive a reminder e-mail one week prior to the completion of the survey period.

CLICK THE FOLLOWING ULR TO BEGIN THE SURVEY or copy and paste the URL into your browser: <http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/HRCompetenciesResearch>

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APPENDIX I

Reminder to Participants in HR Research

Dear HR Professional:

On November 4, 2013, you received the invitation below to participate a survey about the demonstration of strategic HR competencies in the Department of Defense (DoD). You were selected because of your designation in the 0201, Human Resource Management occupation series. If you have completed the survey, thank you for supporting this data collection and research of a topic of critical importance to the DoD, the Army, and members of the HR profession.

If you have not yet responded, you may do so by clicking on the link below, or you may copy and paste the URL to your favorite browser. The survey will be open through November 29, 2013. By clicking on the link below you are consenting to participate in this study and accepting that the information will be electronically supplied to the researchers to document your participation.

Research results will be provided upon request. To request research results, please reply to this e-mail with your request.

CLICK THE FOLLOWING ULR TO BEGIN THE SURVEY or copy and paste the URL into your browser: <http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/HRCOMPETENCIESRESEARCH>

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APPENDIX J

Survey

Creativity, Goal Orientation, and HR Competencies

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this survey. Your opinions are important and there are no right or wrong answers.

Instructions

The survey is broken up into five sections: (1) HR Competencies, (2) Adjective Check List, (3) Goal Orientation; (4) Occupation Background Information; and (5) General Background Information.

In order to progress through this survey, please use the following navigation buttons:

- Click the Next button to continue to the next page.
- Click the Previous button to return to the previous page.
- Click the Exit the Survey Early button if you need to exit the questionnaire.
- Click the Submit button to submit your questionnaire.

In accordance with the Privacy Act of 1974 (Public Law 93-579), this notice informs you how the survey findings will be used. It also provides information about the Privacy Act and about Informed Consent.

This survey asks Department of Army HR Civilians to share their experiences and opinions on topics related to their government work. The information collected in this survey will be used by Army policymakers to develop programs that will improve the workplace for all Army Civilian employees. Your survey responses and comments will be treated as confidential. Only group statistical data will be reported and only persons involved in collecting or preparing the information for analysis will have access to completed questionnaires. The data collection procedures are not expected to involve risk or discomfort for you. There are procedures in place to protect against accidental or unauthorized disclosure of individual survey responses. Survey responses will be collected on a secure server.

Your participation in this study will expand the understanding of the development and demonstration of HR competencies. Thank you.

Section I: HR Competencies

The first section of the survey is based on the Department of Defense, HR Professional Career Framework competencies for the HR Strategic Partner role. The competencies include change management, strategic planning, enterprise integration, HR systems planning, and enterprise-wide mission orientation. These competencies have been broken into specific behaviors. In the next five parts of the survey, you will be asked to consider the behavior(s) associated with each competency and indicate the extent to which you demonstrate the behavior(s).

1. As an HR professional, to what extent do you demonstrate each of the following change management behaviors/activities? Please respond on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “to a very great extent.”

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 1.1 | I lead, facilitate, and sustain change and change initiatives in order to improve workforce performance | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.2 | I engage all levels of employees, and establish credibility and trust in relating to others about impending change. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.3 | I coach others on helping employees to accept and take ownership of change. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.4 | I identify early adopters and enlist their help in overcoming resistance to change. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.5 | I recommend policy and procedures changes as appropriate to the Army’s changing environment. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.6 | I align leaders to enable them to become “change champions” with specific roles and action plans that drive and anchor successful enterprise-wide transformation ideals. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.7 | I provide leadership on managing change and advocate positive cultural changes to support a high performing organization. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.8 | I establish an environment, by design and example, in which positive change and innovation are encouraged. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 1.9 | I oversee alignment and implementations of change management activities with the organization’s mission, vision, and values. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

2. As an HR professional, to what extent do you demonstrate each of the following strategic planning behaviors/activities? Please respond on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “to a very great extent.”

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 2.1 | I articulate to organization leaders and decision-makers, a vision for HR, its potential opportunities and threats, and develop an effective strategy aligned to business needs, with milestones to meet enterprise-wide organizational goals. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2.2 | I lead/oversee processes to identify critical issues and develop strategies. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2.3 | I monitor direct reports’ progress and success as they accomplish key goals/objectives and teach others how to develop and implement strategies. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2.4 | I create strategic development approaches to align organization’s people, capital, and skill sets with the organization’s workforce strategy. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2.5 | I guide executive and director-level staff through strategic planning processes that include HR-focused strategies. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2.6 | I lead/oversee the implementation of HR strategic plans and their integration with workforce and human capital strategies and maintain forward momentum. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

3. As an HR professional, to what extent do you demonstrate each of the following enterprise integration behaviors/activities? Please respond on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “to a very great extent.”

- | | | |
|-----|---|-----------|
| 3.1 | I lead/oversee processes to develop and implement key business drivers and ensure HR processes and systems deliver the required business outcomes. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3.2 | I apply an understanding of the vision, mission, functions, resources, business strategies, and constraints of the organization and how HR strategy contributes to the organization’s performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3.3 | I articulate and influence organization leaders’ and decision-makers’ enterprise-wide and business unit performance expectations and values. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3.4 | I shape and redefine the capabilities of the HR function to support changing business needs and overall workforce performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3.5 | I serve as an authority and provide leadership in the integration of HR program requirements into larger organizational performance metrics. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3.6 | I demonstrate a depth of knowledge and experience in understanding the linkages and interactions of enterprise business processes and support systems with the HR function; and guide executives and director-level staff through processes to align common systems/practices to achieve overall workforce success. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

4. As an HR professional, to what extent do you demonstrate each of the following HR systems planning behaviors/activities? Please respond on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “to a very great extent.”

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 4.1 | I evaluate the appropriateness of information technology and human resources management tools and practices. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.2 | I integrate computer technology with human resources activities in order to resolve operational problems. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.3 | I provide advice and guidance to management officials on complex issues related to automated modeling of HR systems. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.4 | I perform analysis of data to identify workforce trends and implications of data. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.5 | I interpret data and situations to identify multiple frameworks or divergent paradigms. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.6 | I develop long-range strategic plans to design flexible automated HR systems that can accommodate changes. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.7 | I serve as an expert in designing and implementing organization-wide automated HR systems. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.8 | I experiment with and implement new processes or technologies to improve HR systems, strategies, or services. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

- | | | |
|------|--|-----------|
| 4.9 | I demonstrate an expert functional grasp of HR management and practices and a sound understanding of other key business functions. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.10 | I advise and coach leaders on methods and actions to improve individual, team, and organizational performance. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4.11 | I actively seek opportunities for aligning common systems/practices beyond the immediate business unit or HR product/services group. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

5. As an HR professional, to what extent do you demonstrate each of the following enterprise-wide mission orientation behaviors/activities? Please respond on a scale from 1 = “not at all” to 5 = “to a very great extent.”

- | | | |
|-----|---|-----------|
| 5.1 | I lead/oversee the process of developing mission critical occupational categories. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.2 | I develop and execute a Total Force workforce strategy. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.3 | I develop strategies for dealing with the management challenges of a blended workforce (e.g., full-time, part-time, contractor, civilian, military, etc.) | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.4 | I use persuasiveness to build consensus for ideas. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.5 | I apply an understanding of personality traits for better decision making in a cross-functional policy and operations environment. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.6 | I develop and initiate integration of HR and workforce management accountability measures with Total Force success. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.7 | I lead/oversee the development and implementation of a system of mission critical competency models. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5.8 | I lead/oversee the development and implementation of the integration of HR and workforce accountability measures for Total force success. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

Section II: Creative Personality Scale

6. From the list of adjectives, please check all that best describe you.

Section III: Work Domain Goal Orientation

7. To what extent do you agree with the following statements: Please respond on a scale from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 6 = “strongly agree.”

- | | | |
|-----|---|-------------|
| 7.1 | I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 7.2 | I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 7.3 | I enjoy challenging and difficult tasks at work where I can learn new skills. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |
| 7.4 | For me, development of my work ability is important enough to take risks. | 1 2 3 4 5 6 |

7.5	I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.6	I am concerned with showing that I can perform better than my co-workers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.7	I try to figure out what it takes to provide my ability to others at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.8	I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.9	I prefer to work on projects where I can prove my ability to others.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.10	I would avoid taking on a new task if there were a chance that I would appear rather incompetent to others.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.11	Avoiding a show of low ability is more important to me than learning a new skill.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.12	I am concerned about taking on a task at work if my performance would show that I have low ability.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7.13	I prefer to avoid situations at work where I might perform poorly.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Section IV: Occupational Background Information

8. What is your current occupational series?

1 = 0201 Human Resource Specialist

2 = Other

9. What is your human resource role?

1 = HR Specialist (pay grades 5, 7, and 9)

2 = HR Advisor (pay grades 11, 12, and 13)

3 = Strategic Partner (pay grades 14, 15, and SES)

4 = None. I am not an HR Specialist, Advisor, or Strategic Partner

10. Where do you work?

1 = Operations (e.g., CPAC, Regional Office)

2 = Staff (e.g., HQDA, HQ CHRA, Command)

3 = Other

11. How long have you been in your current HR role with the Army? years/months

12. How long have you worked as an HR professional? years/months

13. How long have you been employed by the Army as a civilian? years/months

14. What is your current pay plan?

1 = GG

2 = GM

3 = GS

4 = Senior Executive Service

15. What is your current pay grade?

- 1 = 5
- 2 = 7
- 3 = 9
- 4 = 11
- 5 = 12
- 6 = 13
- 7 = 14
- 8 = 15
- 9 = Senior Executive Service
- 10 = Other

16. In what areas of HR have you worked. Select from a list of 21 HR service areas.

Section V: General Background Information

17. Are you:

- 1 = Male
- 2 = Female

18. In what year were you born? year

19. What is your highest level of education?

- 1 = 12 years or fewer of school, no diploma
- 2 = High school graduate or GED
- 3 = Some college credit, no degree
- 4 = Associate's degree or equivalent
- 5 = Bachelor's degree
- 6 = Some graduate credit, no degree
- 7 = Master's degree
- 8 = Doctoral or Professional degree (Ph.D., M.D., J.D., Ed.D., etc.)

20. Indicate your major area of study for your highest degree.

- 1 = Human Resource Management
- 2 = HR-Related
- 3 = Business Administration
- 4 = Other

21. To what HR professional association(s) do you belong? Check all that apply.

- 1 = None
- 2 = Society of Human Resource Management
- 3 = International Personnel Management Association
- 4 = National Association of Personnel Services
- 5 = National Human resources Association
- 6 = Other

22. What certifications do you have from the HR Certification Institute? Check all that apply.

- 1 = None
- 2 = Professional in Human Resources (PHR)

3 = Senior Professional in Human Resources (SPHR)

4 = Global Professional in Human Resources (GPHR)

5 = Human Resource Management Professional (HRMP)

6 = Senior Human Resource Business Professional (SHRBPs)

APPENDIX K

Institutional Review Board Exempt Approval Letter for Research



Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120, Virginia Tech
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
email irb@vt.edu
website <http://www.irb.vt.edu>

MEMORANDUM

DATE: August 6, 2013
TO: Mary C Byers, Clare Klunk
FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires April 25, 2018)
PROTOCOL TITLE: The Relationship of Creativity and Goal Orientation to the Demonstration of Strategic Human Resource Competencies

IRB NUMBER: 13-614

Effective August 5, 2013, the Virginia Tech Institution Review Board (IRB) Chair, David M Moore, approved the New Application request for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report within 5 business days to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at:

<http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm>

(Please review responsibilities before the commencement of your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved As: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 2**
Protocol Approval Date: **August 5, 2013**
Protocol Expiration Date: **N/A**
Continuing Review Due Date*: **N/A**

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals/work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

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APPENDIX L

Institutional Review Board Amendment Approval Letter for Research



Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120, Virginia Tech
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
email irb@vt.edu
website <http://www.irb.vt.edu>

MEMORANDUM

DATE: October 22, 2013
TO: Mary C Byers, Clare Klunk
FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires April 25, 2018)
PROTOCOL TITLE: The Relationship of Creativity and Goal Orientation to the Demonstration of Strategic Human Resource Competencies
IRB NUMBER: 13-614

Effective October 22, 2013, the Virginia Tech Institution Review Board (IRB) Administrator, Carmen T Papenfuss, approved the Amendment request for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report within 5 business days to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at:

<http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm>

(Please review responsibilities before the commencement of your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved As: Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 2
Protocol Approval Date: August 5, 2013
Protocol Expiration Date: N/A
Continuing Review Due Date*: N/A

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals/work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

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