

**Perceptions of Middle Managers in Cross-Border Acquisitions:
Effects of Cultural Friction and Identification in the New Organization on
Job Motivation during Post-Merger Integration**

Keywords

cross-border mergers & acquisitions, cultural friction, global mindset, work motivation, affective commitment, post-merger organizational identification

The study of mergers and acquisitions (M&As) leads to a very interesting paradox: M&As are the most popular phenomenon in the development of organizations, with the number of M&As still on the rise; however, these new organizations exhibit a high failure rate (King, Dalton, Daily & Covin, 2004; Tarba 2013).

Mergers involve a lot of challenges and significant integration problems, including worker resistance and conflicts, which start at the merger implementation stage (Seo & Hill, 2005; Shrivastava, 1986; Weber, 2011). The highly complex process of integrating two previously separate organizations represents a huge challenge to managers as well as scholars. Weber (2011) lists human behavior problems that lead to resistance and conflict in the implementation process and various detrimental factors, such as the lack of implementation strategy or a lack of value creation. King et al. (2004), in their large meta-analytic study on the effects of finance and strategy variables in M&As, conclude: “Researchers simply may not be looking at the ‘right’ set of variables as predictors of post-acquisition performance” (p. 197).

M&As lead to major upheavals in managing the organizational process (Seo & Hill, 2005) and their effects seem to increase in the international context (Very & Schweiger, 2001; Chakrabarti, Gupta-Mukherjee & Jayaraman, 2009), with failure rates higher for cross-border acquisitions (CBAs) than domestic ones (Kogut & Singh, 1989; Weber, Shenkar & Raveh, 1996). Human resource issues are rarely considered until a major problem arises (Cartwright & Cooper, 1996; King et al., 2004; Mirc, 2015). The organizational changes implied by such mergers have been studied from different perspectives and highlight the underestimation of cross-cultural issues as a major factor for high failure rates in CBA.

In studies of post-merger socio-cultural integration, some scholars have found that cultural differences impede success (Kogut & Singh, 1989; Weber, Shenkar & Raveh, 1996), while others have demonstrated the huge potential of cultural differences for creating synergies and value (Morosini, Shane & Singh, 1998; Stahl & Tung, 2015; Vermeulen & Barkema, 2001). Problems related to incompatible implementation strategies in international mergers have been highlighted (Weber, Tarba & Reichel, 2011). In one study, Meyer & Altenborg (2008) emphasized the lack of compatible strategies rather than the misfit between the two state-owned Scandinavian telecom corporations, Telenor (Sweden) and Telia (Norway). Lack of an implementation strategy, as well as incompatible strategies, may unexpectedly lead to failure, despite a context of organizational fit.

The implementation stage is interesting to study since there are specific problems that occur at this stage (Seo & Hill, 2005). Indeed, acquisitions may result in major organizational changes (Capron, Dussauge & Mitchell, 1998), yet changes involved at this stage are still understudied. There is an increasing focus on integration as a process of organizational change (Graebner & Eisenhardt, 2004), which may induce changes in job descriptions and organizational identification processes.

Organizational identification is rooted in Social Identity Theory (SIT) (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Hogg & Terry (2000) suggest that identity-related constructs and processes have the potential to inform our understanding of organizational behavior, allowing a new conceptualization of motivation associated with social identity. SIT is relevant to this study since it addresses a range of organizational phenomena and changes which take place during M&As (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Finally, the focus on middle managers is an important understudied topic with respect to their role in organizational change (Cartwright & Cooper, 2000). Interestingly, some problems appear to be connected specifically to the manager's role during the integration process (Scriber, 2012). The strategic change and M&A literature establish that middle managers are those employees most affected by organizational change (Kusstatcher & Cooper, 2005). The merger process is particularly demanding for middle managers who are caught between implementation strategy created by their superiors and subordinates' expectations and fears (Balogun & Johnson, 2004).

[Middle managers] are responsible for the implementation of top management's decisions, they are subject to decision makers' expectations, to uncertainty due to the lack of top-down information and are exposed to employees' irritations, fears and questions. Middle managers are also regularly in contact with colleagues (middle managers) from the partner company, but generally on a more informal level than top managers are. Therefore, they get more insight and confront more problems (Kusstatcher & Cooper, 2005, p. 159).

This is a very important aspect of M&A implementation, being a part of the critical phase that contains the clues for why an M&A may or may not succeed or perform as expected when the M&A decision was made (Buono & Nurick, 1992).

Researchers have so far rarely reflected on how job description changes may result in motivational outcomes. Changes such as mergers are often characterized by a decrease in organizational identification (Bartels et al., 2007), which in turn could affect motivation.

Existing research on international M&As provides a limited and insufficient understanding of this important phenomenon, especially concerning the role of middle management in the post-merger integration (PMI) process. A number of important underexplored areas in CBA research still remain to be explored, such as organizational identification with the new firm arising from the merger (Rouzies, 2011; Weber & Drori, 2011). This study addresses these gaps, looking at how managerial perceptions of cultural challenges and job changes affect job motivation and commitment in CBAs and the role of organizational identification.

In addition, I integrate the “global mindset” concept (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Levy Beechler, Taylor & Boyacigiller, 2007) that offers a perspective for exploring managerial perceptions of job changes and work-related outcomes at the individual level. This concept includes immediate relationships between cognitive processes and actions.

In this study I focused on cultural differences and integrated this factor with a general theoretical framework. I also integrated the perception of cultural challenges and cultural friction in the Oldham and Hackman model (Hackman & Oldham 1975) as a moderator of the relationship between needs’ satisfaction and work motivation outcomes.

Based on Seo & Hill’s (2005) integrative framework suggestions, JCM and social identity theory SIT will be used to better understand how changes in job design may affect work motivation outcomes, such as commitment, stress or intention to quit, through organizational identification. These effects are expected to occur through the satisfaction of basic psychological needs (satisfaction, feedback and task variety, identity and identification) as described in JCM.

In this paper I selected only the needs for autonomy and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The model assumes that autonomy and feedback are more important than the other work characteristics. Those two antecedents constitute one aspect of individual manifestations of job characteristics with respect to national level dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). I hypothesized that the strength of these motivational effects depends on a middle manager’s perception of cultural friction, global mindset, and post-merger organizational identification. Yet, little empirical evidence exists to support this hypothesis. Only a limited number of management studies have focused on identifying the factors that might contribute to post-merger integration success, rather than failure, highlighting the creative potential of highly diverse teams (Primecz, Romani & Sackmann, 2012). Stahl & Tung (2015) conclude that it is not cultural differences *per se* that lead to conflicts but rather the way the cultural differences are recognized, understood, and managed.

This study intends to make several contributions to the M&A literature to increase our understanding of the CBA integration process at the human resource level. First, by conducting a field survey to examine how middle manager's perceptions of cultural friction and changes in job characteristics could influence work motivation and looking at micro-level variables, I offer a way to reconcile the human side of M&As' other performance measures. Hardly any earlier studies on post-merger work-related outcomes focus on this motivational process. Second, by focusing on the impact of organizational identification on work motivation outcomes, I approach job transitions in a more nuanced fashion than Hackman and Oldham. Third, by introducing organizational identification, cultural friction, and global mindset as moderators, I shed light on the process through which cultural challenges in the implementation stage relate to motivational outcomes. Fourth, by applying SIT and JCM, I show that these theoretical models are useful to better understand the impact of the process of cross-border organizational changes and cultural challenges. Integration is not a static process but rather a highly dynamic one with events that are not foreseeable, such as resistance and clashes (Megli & Risberg, 2010).

In the following sections, I discuss the theoretical framework used for the empirical study. I introduce an integrated model based on job characteristics and their effects on work motivation outcomes, such as organizational affective commitment, job stress, and intention to quit. This integrated model includes the moderating effects of identification to organization, perceived friction, and global mindset.

Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Development

In the area of human resources, the socio-cultural literature on M&As focuses primarily on understanding employees' psychological and behavioral reactions to an acquisition. M&As increase negative reactions, such as anxiety (Ivancevich, Schweiger & Power, 1987); ambiguity (Risberg, 2001; Vaara, 2003); and lack of organizational commitment (Cartwright & Cooper, 1996). An important M&A stream of research focusing on merger integration challenges indicates that human factors are major reasons for failure (Björkman, Stahl & Vaara, 2007; Calori, Lubatkin & Véry, 1994; Cartwright & Schoenberg, 2006; Gomez, Angwin, Weber & Tarba, 2013; Gomes, Cohen & Mellahi, 2011; Gomes, Weber, Brown & Tarba, 2011; Sarala, Junni, Cooper & Tarba, 2014; Stahl, Angwin, Very, Gomes, Weber, Tarba, ... & Yildiz, 2013; Stahl & Voigt, 2008; Teerikangas & Véry, 2006; Weber & Tarba, 2011).

Integration is decisive for value creation in acquisitions (Haspeslagh & Jemison,

1991). There are multiple ways to create value. If a firm finds good reasons not to integrate (Paruchuri, Nerkar, & Hambrick, 2006; Puranam, Singh, & Chaudhuri, 2009), nobody will be adversely affected. Researchers in organizational behavior have often depicted acquisitions as leading to negative outcomes for acquired employees (Sales & Mirvis, 1984; Buono & Bowditch, 1989) and organizational theorists have characterized some acquired companies as misfits (Thorton, 2001) or even failures (Carrol et al., 1996).

Weber et al. (2011) in a study combining pre-and post-merger stages show that different integration approaches may fit different cultural settings. Strategic compatibility is advanced as a crucial factor in CBA success. Meyer & Altenborg (2008) emphasize the lack of compatible strategy rather than the misfit between the two state-owned Scandinavian telecom corporations, Telenor & Telia. Their research suggests that the strategy of implementation leads to failure, unexpectedly, despite a context of organizational fit. Even M&A with good organizational fit and complementarities may have to deal with problems if there is strategic incompatibility. The problem lies in the challenge of realizing potential synergies (Ahammad & Glaister, 2013)¹.

However, despite the significant amount of research carried out on the human side of M&A, the psychological and cognitive dimension of the phenomenon have been underestimated and the role of people in CBA performance is often placed in a marginal position (Kusstatcher & Cooper, 2005). The motivational process in CBA settings is interesting and important to understand; therefore, this study focuses on performance from the human perspective.

Job Characteristics Model

Changes in work content in M&As can be perceived very negatively (Buono & Bowditch, 2002). The job characteristics model (JCM) (Herzberg, 1966; Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980) offers a window for exploring job changes and work motivation outcomes at the individual level. Hackman & Oldham (1975; 1976; 1980) argue that the most effective means to motivate workers is through job design. In JCM they present a set of principles and recommendations to optimize job designs and to implement job design in the organization. The model includes the immediate relationship between the job and the performer. The classic JCM (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; 1976; 1980) can be used to redesign jobs to engage work

¹ See also Straub (2007) for a comprehensive analysis of the reasons for frequent failures in M&As.

motivation. It may also prove useful to explain the effects of job changes in the context of cross-border M&As.

Work motivation can be influenced by various situational job characteristics. I expect these motivational and demotivational paths to occur through satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively, of job antecedents as formulated by Hackman and Oldham (1976, 1980) in their situational approach to work motivation.

JCM is a useful research tool for this area of study on job changes. According to a review of a large number of findings about the usage of JCM, it is a robust, reliable, and tested instrument to analyze the effect of job change (Oldham & Hackman, 2010). The model assumes that autonomy and feedback are more important than the other work characteristics, and they have been the most studied variables. Hence, in regard to cross cultural focus of this study, I choose to focus on those two antecedents as they constitute one aspect of individual manifestations of job characteristics with respect to national level dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). I focus on the need for autonomy and the need for feedback as antecedents since they are likely to be the more salient variables in the context of cross border M&As.

Hackman & Oldham (1975) define the need for autonomy as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” and define supervisor feedback as “the degree to which the employee receives clear information about his or her performance” (p. 162). Integration as a process of organizational change may induce changes in job descriptions. This in turn results in changes regarding job antecedents, such as satisfaction of the need for autonomy and the need for feedback. According to the JCM, failure to satisfy these needs as antecedents of individual work motivation might have negative effects, and, in particular, effects on work motivation in PMI settings.

The central proposition of job design models is that optimal functioning is related to job satisfaction and depends on the joint satisfaction of psychological needs. Indeed, research has found that needs satisfaction in a work context enhances work motivation, job performance, psychological well-being, commitment, and employee retention (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Gagne & Deci, 2005).

With regard to job related outcomes, several empirical studies have found autonomy to be significantly related to commitment (Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993; Losocco, 1989; Rabinowitz et al., 1977); performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975); and job satisfaction (Becherer et al., 1982; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kulik, Oldham & Langer, 1988). Concerning

turnover outcomes, empirical research on top management turnover demonstrates that acquired executives may leave the organization due to removal of autonomy and status and feelings of inferiority in relation to the acquirer (e.g. Hambrick & Cannella, 1993; Lubatkin et al., 1999).

Cross-cultural research has pointed out that work autonomy affects work satisfaction and job performance differently across cultures. Erez (2010) suggests that culture moderates the effect of job autonomy on employees' self-motivation and on performance outcomes. According to Erez, when designing jobs in different geographical zones, the national cultures, as well as the economic conditions, should be taken into consideration. Hence, in the cross-border M&A context, national cultures and/or issues could be a moderator of the relation between job design and work outcomes. In a study on the cultural influence of job characteristics on job satisfaction, Hauff, Richter & Tressin (2015) demonstrated the moderating effect of key dimensions of national culture on the relationship between situational work antecedents and work motivation outcomes. Robert, Probst, Martocchio, Drasgow and Lawler (2000) found that in India, employees who were empowered by their boss were less satisfied than employees who were simply told what to do. They argued that low satisfaction resulted from the conflict of this form of work with cultural deference to hierarchy and status. However, they said it would be premature to conclude that autonomy is less valued in Indian culture. In earlier studies on autonomous work groups in Indian textile companies, Rice (1958) described how autonomous work groups emerged relatively spontaneously; on the basis of the workers' "intuitive recognition" (p. 81) that this was a more satisfying method of work organization than the traditional methods. Thus, whether members of different cultures vary in their responses to enriched work design remains to be established.

Kirkman & Shapiro (1997) demonstrate how cultural values might influence autonomy through authority and power distance. Cordery (1999) has shown that a directive style of management can act to constrain autonomy. The opposite was found for employees in the United States, who were more satisfied when given high rather than low autonomy (Robert et al., 2000). Work autonomy and empowerment are considered to be key motivational factors in individualistic cultures. These job characteristics are congruent with individualistic values, which emphasize freedom of choice and provide the opportunity to influence outcomes and take credit for them (Chua & Iyengar, 2006; Chirkov et al., 2003).

In CBA, the level of need for autonomy may change across managers with different cultural backgrounds. Yildiz (2016) shows that cultural differences imply different needs.

Status has a particular impact on the success or failure of a CBM&A. In line with these results, how individuals react to removal of autonomy in PMI is likely to depend on the level of power distance in a culture (Angwin, 2001; Goulet & Schweiger, 2006). Power distance reflects the extent to which a society accepts and endorses authority, status privileges, and unequal power distribution in organizations (Hofstede 1980). Higher power distance indicates a greater acceptance and reliance on centralization of authority. Thus, in societies with higher power distance, subordinates tend to display a greater tolerance for lack of autonomy, and they are accustomed to taking orders from their supervisors. Various studies have found that job autonomy has a stronger effect on job satisfaction in lower power-distance cultures than in higher power-distance cultures (e.g. Hui et al., 2004; DeCarlo & Agarwal, 1999). Conversely, we can expect autonomy removal to be met with less negative reactions for managers from a higher power-distance culture than those from lower power-distance cultures. Comparative studies have shown that Germany has significantly lower power distance scores than Singapore and most other Asian countries (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004). German takeover targets are thus more likely to respond negatively when subjected to high levels of integration and a resulting loss of autonomy than do Singaporean takeover targets. Angwin (2001) has argued that German employees are not accustomed to high levels of supervision and control. Disregarding this could lead to PMI negative outcomes.

Regarding the role of autonomy in mergers of equals, although, theoretically, the integration process should result in a balanced merging of the two organizational cultures and workforces, this balance rarely occurs. Instead, the acquiring firm typically removes autonomy from the acquired firm and imposes a rigorous set of rules, systems, and performance expectations to gain quick control (Jemison & Sitkin, 1986; Marks & Mirvis, 1998; Pablo, 1994).

Regarding the need for feedback, Bassett (1994) argued that feedback is the most effective device for improving job performance. Empirical research has shown that supervisor feedback is an important predictor of employees' job related outcomes, such as satisfaction (Churchill, Ford & Walker, 1976; Teas and Horrell, 1981; Teas, Wacker & Hughes, 1979; Becherer et al., 1982). Feedback has been shown to be positively related to commitment (Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993; Hunt, Chonko & Wood, 1985; Johlke & Duhan, 2000; Moch, Bartunek & Brass, 1979; Porter & Steers, 1973).

Cross-cultural studies point out different expectations concerning the need for feedback (Masumoto, 2004). What about new expectations from supervisors or subordinates as a result of the implementation of CBA, regarding initiative, responsibility, or obedience? In

collectivistic cultures, workers are more willing to accept feedback on collective versus individual performance (Van de Vliert, Shi, Sanders, Wang & Huang, 2004). Masumoto (2004) showed that American interns who spent the summer in a Japanese company complained about not getting enough feedback from their Japanese manager. This can be easily understood through the high value that Japanese, as a collectivistic culture, put on group harmony and saving face. Providing explicit feedback to individual members is a threat to group harmony. If one team member is recognized as better than the others, group harmony is jeopardized because this member is singled out as different from the rest of the in-group (work team). It may also affect the likelihood of being accepted by the team since this person is no longer the “same as us.” (Yildiz, 2016). On the other hand, if the feedback is negative, the person may lose face. Losing face has negative implications for the individual’s sense of belonging to the group. Moreover, failure of one team member puts the reputation and performance of the entire team at risk. For these reasons, Japanese managers typically provide implicit feedback, often not when the event occurs, but informally when they think it is the right time (Earley, 1997). To summarize, the type of feedback, whether explicit or implicit, and whether directed to the individual employee or to the team, seems to have different effects on employees in collectivistic versus individualistic cultures (Erez, 2010). Nevertheless positive feedback is universally perceived as having a positive effect, as also shown in a cross-cultural study comparing China and the Netherlands (Lam, 2002; Van de Vliert et al., 2004). Furthermore, collectivists are more open to accepting feedback on collective versus individual performance (Van de Vliert et al., 2004). For similar reasons, feedback-seeking varies across cultures, with individuals from individualistic and low power distance cultures (e.g., United States) being more proactive seekers, and members of collectivistic and high power distance cultures (e.g., Hong Kong) seeking feedback far less (Chen, Brockner, & Katz, 1998; Morrison, Chen, & Salgado, 2004).

In that regard, I propose to integrate cultural perceptions of challenges with Oldham and Hackman’s model as a moderator of the relationship between needs’ satisfaction and work motivation outcomes. What is the role of cultural friction perception on work motivation? Does that inhibit or enhance work motivation outcomes? Does that moderate the effects of the satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and feedback?

In sum, this study focuses on work motivation, using individual, work-related attitudes (such as work commitment, job stress and intention to quit) and looks at how cultural and work-related factors affect motivation. I use a simplified version of the Hackman and Oldham model as shown in Figure 1. The study model is centered on direct effects of satisfaction of

the two work antecedents: the need for feedback and the need for autonomy on work motivation.

Insert Figure 1 here

Work Commitment

The concept of work commitment has been defined in many ways and has been extensively studied in the organizational behavior field (Allen & Meyer, 1991; Morrow, 1993; Mowday et al., 1982). “Commitment occurs when individuals identify with and extend effort towards organizational goals and values” (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604). The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Porter and his colleagues is the primary operationalization of this definition.

Several forms of commitment can be identified, such as organizational commitment or job commitment. I will refer to job commitment as the likelihood that an individual will “stick with a job, and feel psychologically attached to it, whether it is satisfying or not” (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983, p.430). I deliberately choose not to use the concept of organizational commitment as “the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226) because it does not distinguish between commitment to and identification with the organization. Theoretically, the constructs of identification and commitment are not necessarily the same (Mael & Tetrick, 1992; Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006; Van Dick, Wagner, Stellmacher & Christ, 2004): Identification reflects the extent to which the organization is incorporated in the self-concept, whereas commitment focuses on the attitudes that employees hold towards their organization by considering costs and benefits (Van Dick et al., 2004). Blending these concepts could be confusing in this study. Nevertheless, the findings of organizational commitment studies are of interest because the two constructs may—to a certain extent—overlap: There appears to be a strong relationship between employees’ identification and their commitment (Siegel & Sisaye, 1997; Witt, 1993). The concept of commitment to organizational change also offers an interesting perspective, especially in this context of organizational change associated with a merger. It is defined as “a psychological state that binds an employee to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative.” (Herscovitch, 1999, p.17). Yet, this conceptualization of commitment could overlap with the concept of readiness for change (Holt et al., 2007).

Meyer & Allen (1991) conceptualize commitment as multidimensional, including three components: affective, normative and continuance. Affective commitment is described

as “the employee’s emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991,; p.67) and it has been studied in correlation with change settings (Meyer et al., 2007; Rafferty & Restubog, 2010). According to Meyer & Allen (1991) the concept is probably best represented by the work of Porter and his colleagues (1974; 1976; 1979), who conceptualize and measure commitment with strong affective attachment (intention, decision and act) and demonstrate links with turnover in longitudinal studies.

Huy (2002) investigated the importance of managing the emotional states of employees in a radical change situation. His research findings show that managerial emotional commitment (affective) to change situations, as well as the capacity of attending to employees’ emotions, can facilitate successful organizational adaptation.

A strong interest in studying work commitment in CBA is justified by the conceptualization commonly expressed in the literature that employees who are committed are those who are least likely to leave the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974). Evidence suggests that the reasons behind corporate failure in CBA are increasingly connected to the “human factor” (Cartwright & Cooper, 1992; Stahl et al., 2013; Teerikangas & Very, 2006; Teerikangas, Very & Pisano, 2011; Weber & Fried, 2011), with organizational commitment, as a psychological variable, part of the analysis. Some studies have examined organizational or work commitment in the PMI stage and show that it is an important means for people retention (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982) and knowledge-sharing (Thompson & Heron, 2005; Van den Hoof & De Ridder, 2004). Work commitment seems to be critical to the success of M&As, yet this topic has received little attention and remains an underexplored factor in the success of CBM&As (Hassett, 2012).

Affective commitment is defined as the emotional attachment, identification, and involvement that an employee has with the organization and organizational goals, and their willingness to remain in the organization (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Researchers have found *affective commitment* to be the key sub-dimension of organizational commitment and have focused on it in their research (Purba et al., 2015; Buitendach & Witte, 2005; Rafferty & Restubog, 2009). Similar approaches have been observed in research on affective commitment during mergers (e.g., Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). In the organizational change context, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) define affective commitment as “a desire to provide support for a change based on a belief in its inherent benefits,” which is essentially the construct that we are interested in and that I aim to adapt to a merger context (p. 475).

In this study, I expect that two job characteristics (satisfaction of the need for autonomy and the need for feedback) would be antecedents with positive effects on work affective commitment.

Organizational Identification as a Moderator of Work Motivation

First, I expect that the motivating and retaining impact of work characteristics on work motivation outcomes is moderated by the degree of post-merger organizational identification i.e., identification with the new-born firm.

Organizational identification has become an increasingly important domain of inquiry for scholars and is now recognized as key in efforts to understand strategic change (He & Brown, 2013) and also a key issue for managers.

Organizational identification is rooted in Social Identity Theory (SIT) (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). To varying degrees, people derive part of their identity and sense of self from the organizations or work-groups to which they belong. Thus, the development of SIT is relevant to contribute to the context of this study since it can particularly address a range of organizational changes such as M&As. Hogg and Terry (2000) developments advance our understanding of social identity processes in intergroup contexts and the way in which people may internalize group norms and align their behavior with these norms.

Although SIT is a well-established theory in social psychology, scholars have only begun to apply it to the context of multinationals. At the individual level of analysis, a stream of research examined the antecedents and consequences of the identities that subsidiary managers hold toward the local subsidiary and the wider multinational company (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998; Reade, 2003; Vora & Kostova, 2007). At the team level, studies have focused on the factors that explain the salience of identity-based categories and their implications for intra-group cooperation (e.g., Hinds & Mortensen, 2005; Salk & Brannen, 2000).

M&As are a particular group phenomenon since they benefit from an extension of SIT self-categorization, capturing the inter-play of inter-group and intra-group relations (Hogg & Terry, 2000). SIT offers an interesting explanation of why employees often react so negatively to organizational changes or mergers (Hogg and Terry, 2000). The changing nature of those specific organizations creates new opportunities to study employee organizational identification. M&A is a cause of fundamental change in an organization that has implications for the workers (Van Dick & al., 2004; Van Knippenberg & al., 2002).

Mergers may be perceived as a threat to the stability and continuation of employees' current identities. Group membership is important in the creation and development of the self-concept. Social identity evinces inter-group social comparisons that seek to confirm or to establish in-group evaluative distinctiveness compared with the out-group and motivated by an underlying need for self-esteem (Turner, 1975).

In cross-border mergers, where group identities are even more salient because of multiple sources of differences, such as organizational and national levels of culture, in-group and out-group effects can be exaggerated (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Tajfel and Turner indicate that intergroup categorization leads to in-group favoritism or biases and discrimination against the out-group. Stereotyping process are more robust, relations between groups become competitive, and mistakes or violations of social rules by members of another group are met with less tolerance (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Strong attachment to the in-group, combined with current conflicts and/or a history of conflicts between the groups, will intensify these effects. In PMI processes, those group biases can help in better understanding surrounding problems, and the increase in conflicting identities between merging organizations, which create strong feelings of "us vs. them" and additional barriers to achieving socio-cultural integration (Stahl & Voigt, 2008; Yildiz, 2015). Differences in the two organizational cultures can lead to competition between employee groups and hostile "we-they" attitudes.

SIT serves as a basis for self-evaluation as well as for comparison with others via in-group identification (Salk & Shenkar, 2001). Organizational identification is defined in this study as "the perception of oneness with or belongingness to an organization, where the individual defines him- or herself in terms of the organization(s) in which he or she is a member" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 104). Firm members will identify more strongly with an organization when they experience similarities between the organizational identity and their own personal identity, and when they feel acknowledged as a valued member. The extent to which employees are willing and able to identify themselves with the post-merger organization can be considered a key factor in the socio-psychological success of mergers (Van Knippenberg & Sleebos, 2006).

In a study focusing on pre-merger identification, Jetten, O'Brien & Trindall (2002) found that high initial organizational identification had a positive effect on long-term organizational commitment. Rouzies (2011) focused on dynamics of identification change throughout the merger process. Rouzies concludes that the process of identification is not that employees identify with the newborn company, giving up their identification with the old one,

but that the two co-exist. Weber and Drori (2011) likewise draw attention to the role of organizational identification with acquired workers during and after a merger. This variable has a direct effect on acquired management's behavior and also acts to moderate the effects of culture clash in M&A, thus explaining contradictory findings in the literature.

In this study, I expect a positive relationship between satisfaction of work antecedents and work motivation. This relation is increased by post-merger identification. When middle managers do not identify with the newborn organization, the relationship between work characteristics (commitment) and motivation will be lower than when these managers identify with the organization.

In the following sections, using socio-cultural integration literature to investigate managerial perceptions of cultural friction and their effects on work motivation in cross-border M&As, I posit that the friction perceived can lead to either motivating or demotivating effects. More specifically, I add two moderating variables with potential antagonist roles: cultural friction and global mindset.

Moderating Role of Cultural Friction

The question raised here is how, when and why perception of cultural friction affects work attitudes of managers in CBA settings. Cultural friction (Shenkar, 2001) builds on the culture distance hypothesis: The difficulties, costs, and risks associated with cross-cultural contact increase with an increase in cultural differences (Kogut & Singh, 1988). Harzing & Pudelko (2015) question the usefulness of the "distance concept" and suggest an alternative approach. They call for contextualization regarding home and target country in international business (IB) research. They recognize that focusing on managers' actual problems rather than preconceived solutions is difficult, yet they urge a return to groundwork more commonly practiced by prior generations of scholars, rather than applying generic distance measures (Harzing & Pudelko, 2015; Stahl & Tung, 2015).

Friction at a conceptual level is better than distance, emphasizing contacts between two entities, but not operationalized. Shifting the attention from the macro level of countries to the micro level of acting managers renders the concept of distance meaningless (Ambos & Hakanson, 2014). As no one has operationalized the "friction concept" at the micro level, the grounded critical incidents generated from an exploratory study (Durand, 2015) are an appropriate starting point to capture the nature of intercultural friction from the field.

Friction is defined this way in the present paper: When values, behavior, and practices are incoherent to a well-organized system, it provokes contradiction. This tension results from behaviors and practices, including conflicting demands for individuals involved and willing to solve the dilemma.

A grounded instrument complements the existing theory-based measures, institutional and national “hard” data or direct measurement, and could help M&A scholars understand the dynamics of middle managers involved in the CBA processes, operationalizing their perceptions of cultural friction.

The grounded instrument used in this study redresses one measurement problem when studying cultural effects, relying on ready-to-use measures in CBA studies. In this operationalization, the focus is on one aspect of friction, i.e., derived from face concerns (behaviors associated with saving, keeping, giving, and not losing face), arising from grounded critical incidents (Durand, 2015). Cultural friction occurs, under certain conditions, when individuals from different cultural backgrounds interact and are in discord.

Cultural friction related to the concern for face is a particularly sensitive issue when the cultural backgrounds of the actors involve different work values and practices. Face concern as a sense of dignity, respect, and honor is a way to maintain harmony within the group in a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2001). Causing someone to “lose face,” even if done by accident, is an infraction rarely forgiven (Ho, 1976). One may try to restore face using indirect and subtle communication, gift-giving, honoring, and complimenting. People concerned about face-saving may not talk openly about a problem to avoid losing face and may not challenge their superior in front of others. In a conflict resolution study, researchers found that US respondents tend to use more direct conflict styles, such as domination, whereas participants from collectivist cultures (e.g., Chinese, South Korean, and Taiwanese) are more likely to use indirect, mutually face-saving conflict styles, such as connoting either high mutual face or concern for the other’s face (Cocroft & Ting-Toomey, 1994).

In the strategies proposed to manage CBA successfully, Rottig (2007) highlights the need for understanding and being sensitive to face. Business practice has shown that in a large number of acquisitions, managers failed to treat this sensitive issue carefully, i.e., did not treat the acquired workforce with the necessary deference (Rottig, 2007). In a case study describing the failure of the CBA between Siemens and BenQ, Cheng and Seeger (2012) described face concern as a subtle cultural factor, specifically, how the directors at BenQ rejected chairman Lee’s resignation to protect him from losing face and to save face for the

firm and the use of an intermediary to reduce loss of face from the perspective of stakeholders.

The friction derived from face concerns is part of the cultural challenge managers have to confront. Managers may have a hard time finding the behavior required by such situations; yet it can be decisive in managing long-term, cross-border relationships with colleagues, partners, and customers (Brannen & Wilen, 1998; Rottig, 2007).

I expect that cultural friction, in combination with needs' satisfaction (need for autonomy and feedback), affects work outcomes. In line with this reasoning, a few studies have found conflict to lower the demotivating impact of emotional and physical demands. Conflict is not necessarily "dysfunctional and disruptive" (Coser, 1956: 23), but can have positive effects and create synergy (Morgan, 1997; Shenkar & al., 2008). In a recent publication, Stahl & Tung (2015) observe that traditional IB studies on the effect of cultural differences tend to overemphasize the negative over the positive and call for a more nuanced understanding of the multifaceted relationship between culture and IB processes and outcomes. There is more and more evidence that friction is a so called "double-edged sword" (Reus & Lamont, 2009; Doz, 2016) of cultural diversity, that can be both an asset and a liability in multicultural teams (Stahl et al., 2010).

Moderating Role of Global Mindset

The global mindset concept (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Levy et al., 2007) offers a perspective for exploring managerial perceptions of job changes and work-related outcomes at the individual level. The concept includes the immediate relationship between cognitive processes and actions. Levy et al.'s model (2007) of global mindset may be useful to explain the effect of job changes and organizational identification on work-related outcomes at the individual level as this model is directly linked to managerial identity constructions.

Researchers who study the concept of global mindset at the individual level (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Estienne, 1997; Maznevski & Lane, 2004; Rhinesmith, 1992, 1993, 1996; Tichy et al., 1992) suggest global mindset managers reorganize their way of thinking and achieve an altered mindset so that they are able to recognize complex interconnections, as in the case of a CBA. A global mindset involves cultural self-awareness, openness to and understanding of other cultures, and selective incorporation of foreign values and practices.

A number of researchers have suggested that meeting globalization challenges and, by extension, CBA challenges, requires the development of a managerial global mindset (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; Javidan & Teagarden, 2011; Kedia & Mukherji, 1999; Levy et al., 2007).

Levy et al. (2007) is one of the best reviews of the field to date. They made a comprehensive study of previous research. Based on that review and their own findings, they combined information processing perspectives and social identification theory to build their model. Managerial global mindsets have been associated with expatriate success (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2016; Javidan & Teagarden, 2011), effective management, and the ability to grasp a competitive advantage (Levy et al., 2007), having a better understanding of the dynamics of operating in diverse marketplaces and cross cultural settings. Global mindset allows managers to make decisions in a way that increases the ability of their firms to compete internationally (Maznevski & Lane, 2004). It is associated with higher risk tolerance (Harveston et al., 2000). A transnational mindset is hypothesized to lead to superior long-term performance (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1989, 1990).

The managerial global mindset challenges complex global realities, and then has to hold a global perspective supported by appropriate skills and knowledge to increase and maintain organizational effectiveness (Kedia & Mukherji, 1999). Managers with a global mindset have a broader global outlook and a “global business orientation and are adaptable to the local environment and culture” (Story & Barbuto, 2011, p. 380). For Kedia & Mukherji (1999) it is an orientation to the world that allows individuals to see certain things that others do not, the skill of “scanning the world” from a broad perspective.

The global managerial mindset is characterized by this ability to recognize, understand and manage cultural differences and deserves attention from a cognitive perspective of CBAs study. According to Story and Barbuto (2011), global mindset managers demonstrate more organizational commitment than those without it.

Following the reasoning above and according to research on the impact of job design on motivation (e.g., Hackman & Oldham, 1980), I propose that when those characteristics are fulfilled, both satisfaction of the need for feedback and for autonomy, they are related to positive work motivation outcomes.

Applying the above-described research to CBM&A settings, I made the following hypotheses:

H 1: *Satisfaction of a middle manager’s need for autonomy will enhance work motivation.*

H 2: *Satisfaction of a middle manager’s need for feedback will enhance work motivation.*

H 3a: *Post-merger firm identification will moderate the relationship between satisfaction of the need for autonomy and work motivation.*

H 3b: *Post-merger firm identification will moderate the relationship between satisfaction of the need for feedback and work motivation.*

H 4a: *Cultural friction will moderate the relationship between satisfaction of the need for autonomy and work motivation.*

H 4b: *Cultural friction will moderate the relationship between satisfaction of the need for feedback and work motivation.*

H 5a: *Global mindset will moderate the relationship between satisfaction of the need for autonomy and work motivation.*

H 5b: *Global mindset will moderate the relationship between satisfaction of the need for feedback and work motivation.*

The research model below (Figure 2) depicts the relationships hypothesized: a direct relationship between job characteristics (autonomy and feedback) and work motivation outcomes (work affective commitment, job stress, and intention to quit); and the moderating effects of organizational identification, global mindset, and cultural friction.

Insert Figure 2

Empirical Study: Research Method and Measures

To test my model, I collected data through an online survey using Qualtrics on line survey software and analyzed the collected data using the partial least squares regression (PLS) model (Chin, 1998; Fernandes, 2012). I followed the two steps of the PLS model: first, building latent variables on the basis of the manifest variables (items in the questionnaire), and second, testing the structural model with latent variables.

Sample and data collection

Respondents were middle managers selected randomly among a data base because of their anglo-saxon background (native and/or professional) from different countries, different industries, different company size, and having experienced at least one CBA. A total of 163 middle managers completed the online questionnaire in May 2016. I excluded 21 respondents from the data analysis because they did not have cross-border M&A experience. A total of 142 respondents with CBM&A experience were retained. They were all English speakers (native language or professional language), and they matched the population I was targeting (global company, international experience, English speaker, CBM&A experience). The questionnaire included 63 questions (17 questions for the profile, and 46 for the variables studied). It was anonymous to avoid responses with desirability biases. A mobile-friendly

version was also available to increase the response rate. Among respondents, 37.3 % were females, 62.7% were males. The average age for 51.4% of respondents was 25-34 years old; 36.6% were 35-44 years old; 9.9% were 45-54 years old; and 2.1% were 55-64 years old. About 47% of the respondents had only one CBA experience in their work life; 37%, between 2 to 4 experiences; 9%, between 5 and 8; and 6% had more than 8 CBA experiences.

Measurements and variables construction

Dependent variable measurement: work motivation

The latent variable, job motivation, is constructed based on the 3 manifest variables corresponding to the means of work affective commitment, job stress, and intention to quit.

Work affective commitment is measured with the scale developed by Meyers & Allen (1991) since it has become the standard approach to measuring commitment (Hassett, 2012). This scale comprises of six items, which the respondents have to rate on a 5-point Likert-type scale their degree of agreement from 1 = *totally disagree*, 5 = *totally agree* (e.g., « *I am proud to belong to this organization* »).

Turnover intentions are measured with the three-item “Intention-to-Quit” scale from Jiang and Klein (2002). A sample item is “*As soon as I have the opportunity, I will leave this organization.*” Responses are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “1” (*strongly disagree*) to “5” (*strongly agree*).

I measure job stress using part of the scale developed by House and Rizzo (1972). The scale used includes 5 items (e.g., “*My job tends to directly affect my health*”). Responses are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from “1” (*strongly disagree*) to “5” (*strongly agree*).

Independent Variable Measurements: Need for Autonomy and Need for Feedback

The two independent variables are represented by the work antecedents, satisfaction of the need for autonomy and satisfaction of the need for feedback. Those variables are constructed based on the items affected by each dimension. To measure the satisfaction of the need for autonomy and the satisfaction of the need for feedback, I used the scale developed by Oldham & Hackman’s (1980). Need for autonomy and need for feedback address the degree to which a worker has control over “how” and “when” work is done. Respondents are asked to rate 6 items on a 5-point Likert-type scale, 3 items for satisfaction of the need for autonomy (e.g., “*In general, how much influence do you have about the range of tasks you do in your job?*”)

and 3 items for satisfaction of the need for feedback (e.g., *“In general, how much influence do you have about control over the pace at which you work?”*).

Moderating variables measurements: organizational identification, cultural friction, and global mindset

Post-merger organizational identification is measured using a three-item model based on Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, Monden & De Lima (2002). Respondents are asked to portray themselves according to their degree of agreement or disagreement on a 5-point Likert-scale from “1” (strongly disagree) to “5” (strongly agree). For instance, the items include *“When someone criticizes my organization, it feels like a personal insult to me.”*

To measure the perception of cultural friction, I created a friction index which captures and quantifies the relative differences of alternatives in situations of perceived cultural friction using a grounded methodology and critical incident technique (Durand, 2016). The self-developed scale contains the following parts: 1) seven items (i.e. situations) based on critical incidents; 2) for each situation, 2 sub-questions ask the respondent to position himself on a 5-point Likert scale, according to the degree of agreement from “1” (strongly disagree) to “5” (strongly agree). I had previously tested an earlier version of this index (with four of the final seven items) in a lab study with international business students who had international experiences and the result (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .605$) was low but acceptable for purposes of exploratory research (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986). For the present study, I added 3 extra critical incidents in a successful attempt to increase the reliability of this scale. I tested the structure of the items that I proposed for the cultural friction index (21 items, # 48 to 68), one item is disregarded loading to both factors (thus not discriminant between high versus low friction). Two factors are highlighted, both measure friction (derived from face concerns). One is related to the positive attitude (low culture friction: 12 items/b+c); the other one to the negative attitude (high culture friction: 6 items/a). The following text is an example of a critical incident question and possible answers:

You are sent to a country for shipping contracts negotiation. Your new colleague (from the merged company) approaches the task very differently than you have done in the past. He just rejected a first offer without even trying to negotiate. As a result, other shippers lose interest in negotiating with you and your new partner. Finally, one of the shippers offers to work with you, but at a price that is 20% higher than the original offer.

- a: You accept this offer, BUT make a point of not working with this shipper in the future
- b: You apologize for having offended the shipper and try to repair the relationship
- c: For the above question I would have behaved the same way if the person was from my own country

The latent variable of cultural friction is constructed on the basis of two manifest variables corresponding to the means of the two dimensions defining the concept.

Global mindset was measured using the scale developed by Govindarajan & Gupta (2001) and Gupta & Govindarajan (2002). It is composed of 6 items, and respondents have to answer on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from “1” (strongly disagree) to “5” (strongly agree)(e.g., “*In interacting with others, does national origin have an impact on whether or not you assign equal status to them?*”).

Control variables measurements

I included three control variables: gender, age, and speed of integration. I tested the model with and without these control variables. Both models yielded the same results. In line with the recommendation of Becker (2005) and Carlson & Wu (2012), I report the results of the model without the control variables, except for speed of integration correlated with satisfaction for the need for autonomy ($P = .261^{***}$) that I keep in the correlation matrix (see Table 4).

Estimation of PLS model

I used the XLSTAT version 2014.1.03 to estimate measurements and the structural model. The first step in the PLS regression analysis focuses on the external or measurement model between the latent constructs and their measures (Fernandes, 2012). It includes analyses of three indicators: Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (α), composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). Cronbach’s alpha coefficient scores and the composite reliability scores were above 0.8, indicating good measurement reliability (except for cultural friction, yet acceptable (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986). Discriminant validity was assessed examining whether each latent variable shared more variance with its measures (manifest variables) than with other constructs in the model (Chin, 1998) using AVE. All AVE scores were above 0.5, which confirmed good discriminant validity between the variables in our model, except for

Satisfaction of the need for autonomy. This suggests that the items are reliable, but not discriminant compared to other items (see Table 1).

Insert Table 1 here

The second step in the PLS regression analysis focuses on the internal or structural model between the latent constructs (Fernandes, 2012) to test the hypotheses. I first tested the direct effects of the work antecedents on work motivation. Secondly, I added the interaction effects between work antecedents and work motivation, including global mindset, cultural friction, and identification with the new organization. Thus, we obtained 2 models, one for direct effects and one for interaction effects.

Detailed results of the PLS path model and the hypotheses tests are reported in Tables 2 & 4. The GOF coefficients that estimate overall validity of the PLS regression model (Tenenhaus et al., 2005) range from 0.47 for direct effect and 0.45 for interaction effects.

Insert Table 2 here

Results

Direct effects of latent and control variables on work motivation are analyzed in the first model. Analyses partially support my hypotheses and highlight specific relationships between work antecedents and work motivation. I hypothesized that the satisfaction of the need for feedback increases work motivation. Results tend to support the first hypothesis (H1). The satisfaction of the need for feedback has a positive impact on work motivation ($b = 0.13$, $t = 1.98$, $p \leq 0.05$).

The second hypothesis (H2) predicted that satisfaction of the need for autonomy increases work motivation. This hypothesis is supported but demonstrates a negative impact of the satisfaction of the need for autonomy on work motivation ($b = -0.15$, $t = -2.35$, $p \leq 0.05$). Global mindset has no direct effect on work motivation outcomes ($b = -0.03$, $t = -0.39$, $p > 0.05$). Cultural friction tends to underscore a positive direct effect on work motivation ($b = 0.25$, $t = 2.48$, $p \leq 0.05$). A greater positive impact of post-merger identification on work motivation tends to be supported ($b = 0.39$, $t = 4.06$, $p \leq 0.001$).

A second model tested interaction effects. None of my moderating effect hypotheses are supported, except for BA*GM. The hypothesis predicted a moderating effect of global

mindset that increases the impact of the satisfaction for the need for autonomy on work motivation. This hypothesis is supported ($b = 0.17$, $t = 2.49$, $p \leq 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

Both the satisfaction for the need for autonomy and the need for feedback have not been fulfilled, yet results show a high level of post-merger identification and high level of commitment. Thus, the work antecedents measured were not responsible for the high levels of identification and commitment. According to the JCM, the satisfaction of the needs for autonomy and feedback as antecedents of work motivation for individuals might have negative effects on job motivation if not fulfilled. In PMI settings, the question remains why the motivational process is not affected by needs' satisfaction as stipulated in Hackman and Oldham's model (1980).

In CBA, the level of need for autonomy may change across managers with different cultural backgrounds. Maybe the Anglo-Saxon background of respondents contributed to the low level of satisfaction since individuals in those cultures may have a higher degree of expectation regarding autonomy and feedback, and they are not satisfied even though objectively there is autonomy.

The lack of supportive findings can also partly be explained by the insufficient number of respondents, the high level of stress demonstrated despite the time passed after the merger and middle/high level of turn-over intention, which is counter-intuitive. Literature supports findings that national cultural differences in M&A produce increased stress, negative attitudes toward the merger, lower commitment, and executives with negative experiences quitting their jobs (Krug & Hegarty, 2001; Very, Lubatkin, Calori, & Veiga, 1996; Weber, Shenkar, & Raveh, 1996).

If we look at the variables composing the latent variable of work motivation, there is no surprise that job stress and turnover intention are correlated. Rouzies (2011) shows that employees who are committed to their job are less likely to leave the organization. In terms of job related outcomes, mergers can be threatening to some employees and lead to absenteeism, poor performance, and high turnover. Davy et al. (1988) blamed employees for 1/3 to one half of merger underperformance. In Walsh's (1988) study on turnover, departure of key employees and demotivation are amongst the more frequently cited factors. Cartwright & Cooper (1992) stress that when employees leave they often take with them competent staff members and clients, which could severely hamper the new organization's financial profile. Adequate HR management is then highlighted to contribute to the success of M&A (Weber &

Tarba, 2010; Weber, Tarba & Reichel, 2011), decreasing turnover and competent employee departures.

Some studies focus on organizational commitment in the PMI stage and show that it is an important means for people retention (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mowday et al., 1982; Porter et al., 1974). Yet, autonomy removal is the variable that usually predicts high turnover intention for executives (e.g. Hambrick & Cannella, 1993; Lubatkin et al., 1999).

In organizational changes such as mergers, traditional relationships between work antecedents, such as identification, and work outcomes may change (Rouzies, 2011). Work affective commitment is high, but seems to be linked exclusively to the high level of post-merger identification. Thus, in this study, we assumed that if identification is high, stress and turnover intention would be low. Regarding job related outcomes, several empirical studies have found autonomy to be significantly related to commitment (Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993). Other studies have found *affective commitment* to be the key sub-dimension of organizational commitment (Purba, Oostrom & Van Der Mollen & Born, 2015; Rafferty & Restubog, 2009). Similar approaches have been observed in research on affective commitment during mergers (e.g., Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). In the organizational change context, Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) define affective commitment as “a desire to provide support for a change based on a belief in its inherent benefits” (p. 475). Based on the direct effect demonstrated above, the post-merger identification variable may explain high work commitment, with implications for human resources management in cross-border M&As.

Another interesting results lies in the moderating effect of global mindset which boosts work motivation outcomes. Individuals with a high global mindset, meaning a combination of awareness and openness to the diversity of cultures (Javidan and Teagarden, 2011), have the ability to create and implement a strategy to improve individual performance in cross-cultural settings (Maznevski and Lane, 2004).

Limitations

Even though JCM offers a window for exploring job changes and work motivation outcomes at the individual level, some criticisms have to be addressed. JCM design is culturally biased since it doesn't take into account culture challenges. Hackman and Oldham (2010) themselves admit that cultural variables have been neglected. Hackman and Oldham (2010) suggest incorporating cultural variable in their model. Consequently in the context of cross-border M&As, I focus on cultural differences. I integrate this factor into the general theoretical framework since the relative salience of particular work characteristics will depend on the

context. For Hackman and Oldham, these differences in work context offers opportunities for new directions on work motivation. “The phenomenon has changed but the issues have not” (Hackman & Oldham, 2010).

The contradictory, yet interesting, results probably stem from the research context and the characteristics of the sample that might have induced biases. First, I did not check acquired vs. acquiring background of the middle managers. Yet, this could have been important *a posteriori* as a control variable to include in the online survey.

Second, since identification to the new organization is influenced by individual interaction intensity (Rouzies, 2011), I could have measured the frequency of contacts between members of both firms to make sure the organizational identification questions were appropriate.

Third, I should have checked the *level* of satisfaction regarding the need for autonomy and need for feedback or inserted more items in the questionnaire for those two independent variables. Results supported only the need for feedback as a motivating factor. Despite the fact that respondents show a high level of affective commitment to their work, a negative effect for the need for autonomy is shown. This is a counter intuitive and so far I couldn’t find any support in the literature for this finding.

Fourth, in addition to measuring the level of satisfaction for autonomy and feedback needs, I could have studied the transition magnitude variable before and after the merger. West and colleagues (1987) asked how a similar new job was compared with the previous one (1 = *almost identical*, 3 = *almost completely different*) in relation to (a) the tasks or job content.

Finally, the central proposition of JCM is that optimal functioning in terms of work motivation depends on the joint satisfaction of the three psychological needs. In my study I only use two job antecedents, need for autonomy and need for feedback (not task variety, task identity and task significance). This might have biased the model, or the model might not be relevant to post-merger integration in CBAs.

However, the cultural friction perceived in this study is rather low, and managers seem to have developed global mindsets. The high stress level observed could not be related to lack of cultural awareness. It is perhaps due to the context of organizational changes induced by the merger that might have biased the results.

Managerial implications

Results regarding the crucial roles of organizational identification and global mindset capital give practitioners two perspectives to consider during the integration stage in CBM&As. They may find these propositions useful to develop programs to select individuals high in global mindset, as well as programs to develop and sustain competencies associated to global mindset.

Post-merger identification might be anticipated ahead to make sure that during the integration stage, managers are encouraged to identify strongly with the newborn organization in order to insure high affective commitment and performance. The SIT thus provides an especially powerful lens through which to describe, explain and ultimately intervene in organizational life (Hodkingson, 2013).

Future research orientation

The research method pursued for this particular study was appropriate. In future research this method might be complemented by semi-structured interviews with male and female respondents in order to delve deeper into managers' perceptions around the appropriateness of implementation strategies. Research might extend across varying contexts using a triangulation methodology.

Conclusion

This study offers some insights about the human side of cross-border mergers and acquisitions. Researchers can learn from this research, especially regarding the extreme importance of organizational identification. This has been already highlighted (Mirc, 2014), yet in this study post-merger identification appears in the foreground. Consideration of the level of managers' post-merger identification is crucial for successful post-acquisition integration and managers should not neglect or downgrade organizational identification to second place.

Further, global mindset capital seems to be a must for managerial motivation and work affective commitment in cross-border acquisitions.

The Job Characteristics Model might not be adequate to explain the effects of job changes in the context of cross-border M&As.

Finally, cultural friction tends to underline a positive direct effect on work motivation. This result seems counter intuitive at the first sight. However this result highlights the positive effect of friction when dealing with foreign counterparts to enhance work motivation. This is a major contribution since the main stream of cultural perspective in CBM&As in post merger integration stage often emphasizes the negative effects of cultural issues on M&A performance, and especially from the human side (Stahl& Tung, 2014).

As claimed by authors (Mudambi& Swift, 2009; Stahl & Tung, 2014) these results involve that cultural differences are not necessary disruptive, but rather necessary to increase post merger identification of middle managers, and managerial work commitment. These findings offer a new lens to cultural friction and effects of perceptions of differences, in a positivist perspective. It is definitely time to revisit the cultural challenges experienced from the individual level of analysis, and to approach friction not as a threat for CBM&As performance and individual motivation with new and fresh eyes, avoiding to focus on the negative side of cultural challenges for managers experiencing CBM&As, in post merger integration stage.

Acknowledgements

Many thanks to Mikael Sondergaard for his support, reviews and comments, and Liu Yipeng for his insights during EDEN seminar on M&As. I want to thank also the researchers who reviewed this paper at different points in time and gave me feedback on method and analysis: René Diaz Picardo and Simona Grama.

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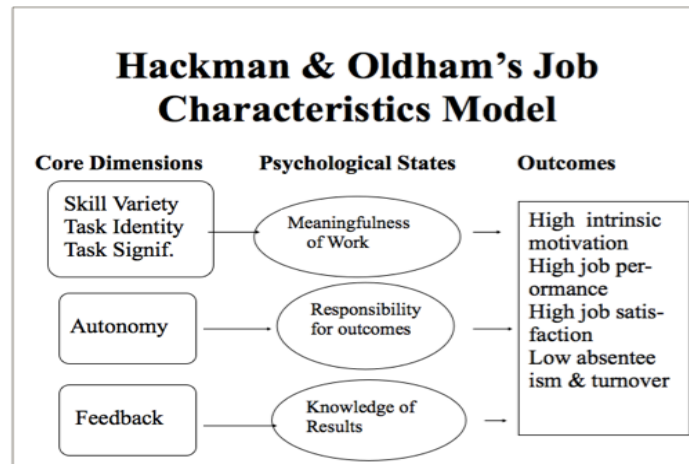


Figure 1: Hackman & Oldham's revised model (1981)

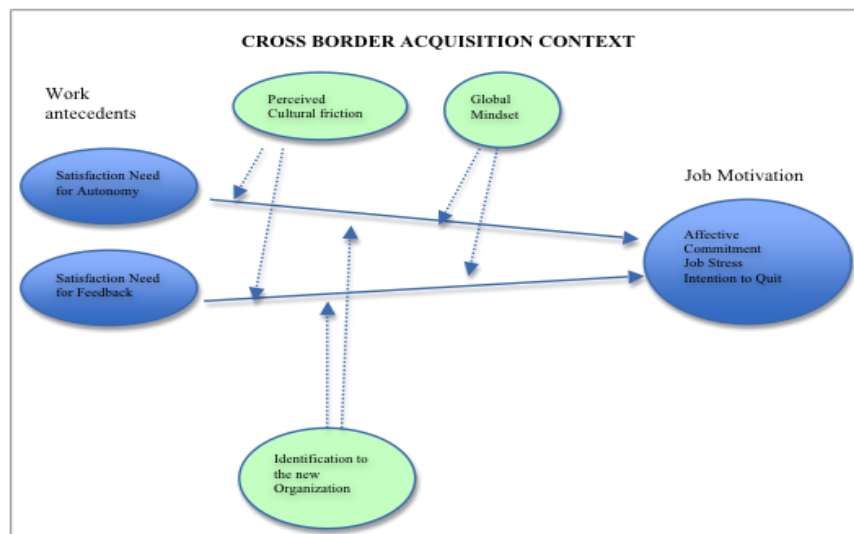


Figure 2: Integrated model and hypotheses: moderating effects of organizational identification, perceived culture friction and global mindset on job motivation in a CBM&A setting

Table 1. Reliability and validity of latent variables

Variables	Alpha	Rho	AVE
Work motivation	0.8		0.482
Satisfaction of the need for autonomy	0.86	0.914	0.133
Satisfaction of the need for feedback	0.82	0.893	0.731
Post merger identification	0.93	0.954	0.873
Cultural friction	0.62	0.839	0.721
Global mindset	0.83	0.884	0.600

Table 2: The three latent variables of work motivation

Work affective commitment	<p>This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me</p> <p>I am proud to belong to this organization</p> <p>I really feel a sense of belonging to my organization</p> <p>I do not feel emotionally attached to my organization</p> <p>I am proud to belong to this organization</p> <p>I really feel as if my organization's problems are my own</p>
Job Stress	<p>My job tends to directly affect my health</p> <p>I work under a great deal of tensions</p> <p>I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job</p> <p>If I had a different job, my health would probably improve</p> <p>Problems associated with my job have kept me awake at night</p>
Intention to Quit	<p>As soon as I can find a better job I will leave this company</p> <p>I am actively looking for a better job at another company</p> <p>I am seriously thinking about quitting my job</p>

Table 3: Correlations

Path coefficients (JM / 1)

:

Variable latente	Valeur	Erreur standard	T	Pr > t	Borne inférieure (95%)	Borne supérieure (95%)
BA	-0,146	0,062	-2,348	0,020	-0,350	0,200
GM	-0,028	0,072	-0,389	0,698	-0,214	0,186
CF	0,246	0,099	2,476	0,015	-0,057	0,503
OI	0,393	0,097	4,057	0,000	0,190	0,723
AGE	0,020	0,065	0,315	0,753	-0,087	0,114
GENDER	-0,094	0,062	-1,506	0,135	-0,284	0,104
SPEED	0,033	0,065	0,514	0,608	-0,124	0,191
CBA CROSS	0,037	0,064	0,585	0,560	-0,116	0,214
BF	0,133	0,067	1,982	0,050	-0,088	0,277
LV12	0,097	0,089	1,098	0,274	-0,231	0,302
LV13	-0,173	0,109	-1,587	0,115	-0,421	0,106
LV14	0,168	0,067	2,494	0,014	-0,287	0,404
LV15	-0,023	0,080	-0,293	0,770	-0,242	0,233
LV16	-0,126	0,104	-1,214	0,227	-0,366	0,227
LV17	0,008	0,113	0,072	0,943	-0,341	0,309

Table 4 : PLS Regression

