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THE EXTENT OF GIFT AUTHORSHIPS IN
BUSINESS JOURNALS

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ABSTRACT

The faculty at 15 AACSB accredited colleges of business who had co-authored published articles in business journals were surveyed for their views on: 1) the impact of AACSB on faculty scholarly efforts, 2) the preferred order of author listing on a published article, and 3) whether they had worked with co-authors who did not deserve an authorship position on a published work. Of the 181 respondents, 63.8% indicated that the AACSB has had a significant or very significant effect on faculty publishing efforts. Sixty seven percent responded that the author who had done the most work on a publication should be accorded the first author position on an article. Of major significance is that 41% reported working with a co-author who had performed very little work and 10.5% reported working with a co-author who had done no work on a published article.
LEADERSHIP ACROSS CULTURES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Successful leadership behavior of today’s more culturally diverse workforce is one of the most important challenges organizations face. Technology has driven this demographically mixed workforce toward consensus to harness the diverse talents of groups on the road to improving productivity. The need for world class leaders to address cultural and generational behaviors while operating in a more autonomously responsible world calls for fresh leadership behavior and action. This paper is a comparative analysis of specific cultural grouping, ethnicity, age and worker classification, exposed to 18 energizing leadership behaviours. Hypotheses of significant ranking differences are assessed across the cultural groups. A convenience sample of 600 non-traditional graduate students from various countries and backgrounds ranked the importance of 18 energizing leadership behaviours. A survey instrument was employed to collect data testing three hypotheses concerning significant group differences. It was determined that worker classification, alone, yields no significant ranking differences, however evidence was found that ranking by ethnicity and age group do show significant differences across the 18 energizing leadership behaviours.
THE ROAD TO SELF-LEADERSHIP

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ABSTRACT

We no longer live in a time where one leader makes all the decisions and solves all the problems. The issues and competition faced by organizations today are more complex. Leaders are empowering their followers to enlist their talents and skills in the pursuit of knowledge and gaining a competitive edge. What organizations need are self-leaders who practice leadership from within. In this article, suggestions will be given to assist the individual toward becoming a leader. The information presented has been gathered from a number of authors including Boyett, Covey, Cashman, Bennis, Capowski, Manz, Clemmer, Senge, Kotter, Kouzes and Posner, Kelley, Wolfe-Morgan, Robbins, Hughes, and Maxwell.
A MULTI-MEASURE INVESTIGATION OF THE SPECIFICITY OF SELF-EFFICACY MEASURES

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ABSTRACT

This research explores the self-efficacy-performance relationship in the classroom. Previous research done in this setting has typically reported correlations that are approximately half of what is found in other settings. This paper proposes that these lower correlations are due to a failure to consider the specific nature of the efficacy construct and a failure to construct efficacy measures in a manner suggested by most researchers. To test these propositions, multiple efficacy measures are developed, some in the style suggested by Bandura, others in the more general question style. Additionally, a test efficacy measure is designed to capture a student’s belief about their capabilities in test taking. These measures are tested with two classes of upper level college students. Results indicate that the Bandura suggested measurement style does lead to greater predictive ability, as does adding a test efficacy measure to the standard class efficacy measure.
THE DYNAMICS OF CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN WEST AFRICA: THE CASE OF VIOLENT CONFLICTS AMONG THE TIV PEOPLE OF THE MIDDLE BELT REGION OF NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

In the last few decades Nigeria has experienced violent conflicts and antagonism rooted in religion, ethnicity, and economics. Violent conflicts among the Tiv people of the Middle Belt region of Nigeria are not an exception. This paper (1) examines the environmental context and dynamics of intra-Tiv conflicts; (2) examines the causes of conflict more broadly and in Tivland specifically; (3) offers preventive diplomacy (PD) grounded in Tiv tradition and culture, as a strategy for conflict management among the Tiv; and (4) discusses policy implications for resolving conflicts and sustaining peace in Tivland.

INTRODUCTION

The African continent has been, and continues to be, embroiled in one conflict after another. Over the last 40 years nearly 20 African countries, or about 40% of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), have experienced at least one period of civil war (Elbadawi & Sambanis, 2000). Elbadawi & Sambanis estimate that 20 percent of SSA's population now live in countries which are formally at war, and low-intensity conflict has become endemic to many other African states. This state of affairs has created stereotypes of Africa as a doomed continent with inescapable ethnic cleavages and violent tribal conflicts. As the most populated African nation with over 140 million people, Nigeria has not been spared its share of violent conflicts, particularly ethnic conflicts. Some of these ethnic/communal conflicts have been characterized as crises of identity (Isa, 2001) or competition for control of the political space (Egwu, 1998). These pose a fundamental threat and challenge to the state, and erode current attempts at institutionalizing virile and durable democracies in Africa, and particularly in Nigeria.

Since conflict prevention has not taken sufficient root in Nigeria, ethnic conflicts have now become pervasive. As Isa aptly notes “Ethnic conflicts in Nigeria have attained a situation of pervasive phenomenon; it has turned Nigeria's urban and rural communities into battlefields and killing grounds” (p. 1). The sheer number of recent inter-ethnic/communal clashes compels us to refocus our efforts at attempting to understand the causes of violent inter-ethnic/communal conflicts, and ways of preventing them. The Ife-Modakeke communal conflicts of Oyo/Osun States, 1999; Hausa/Fulani and Kataf of Zangon Kataf in Kaduna State, 1999; Ijaw and Estekiris of Warri in Delta State, 1999; Hausa/Fulani and Yoruba ethnic conflicts in Oyo and Lagos States respectively, 1999/2000; Jukun/Chamba and Kuteb, Jukun and Tiv in Taraba State, 1998/1999; Igbakwu-Omor, Aguleri and Umuleri communal conflicts of Anambra State, 1999 (Isa, 2001) are manifestations of these conflicts. In Tivland, some of the most prominent conflicts include the following: The 1947 chieftaincy riots in Makurdi, Ushongo-Iharev, Isherev-Utyondu, Tiv-Jukun, Tiv-Udam, Inyambuan,
Shoja Patali, Atemyo, and the militia. Currently there are low-grade conflicts within Tivland that have not received any media attention.

Two key questions with profound policy implications could be asked: (1) What explains the high incidence of intra-Tiv conflicts? (2) What strategies can be used to reduce the incidence of intra-Tiv conflicts and sustain peace in Tivland?

ENVIRONMENTAL CONTEXT AND DYNAMICS OF INTRA-TIV CONFLICTS

Historically, the Tiv people are said to have migrated from central Africa to where they are now found in what is generally described as the Middle Belt of Nigeria, but specifically some 150 miles east of the confluence of River Benue with River Niger. They settled on both sides of the River Benue, also known as the Upper and the Lower Benue River Valley. Other accounts trace Tiv origin to the Bantu tribe (Bohannan & Bohannan, 1953). The Tiv are mainly subsistence farmers, dispersed in seven states of Federal Republic of Nigeria--Benue, Taraba, Nassarawa, Plateau, Niger, Kogi, and Kaduna States. In 1952 they numbered about 800,000 (Bohannan & Bohannan). The Tiv can also be found in the Republic of Cameroon, Nigeria’s neighbor to the east. The population of the Tiv people, by various accounts, was approximately 5 million in 1991, and continues to grow.

CAUSES OF CONFLICT IN GENERAL AND IN TIVLAND

Several theories have been used to explain the causes of conflict. The first involves four factors that appear repeatedly as prominent causes of conflict: Insecurity, inequality, private incentives, and perceptions (Gardner, 2002). These factors often work in tandem: Economic inequalities may exacerbate security concerns, and perceptions fuel incentives to initiate or support conflict. Increasingly emphasized in the literature is the role played by economic factors such as economic inequalities or the economic incentives of subnational actors. The second involves two factors that interact with each other across time--structural causes and mobilizing factors--that more directly precipitate the outbreak of conflicts. Structural factors are the deeply rooted, underlying causes of conflict that may not always develop into violence. Mobilizing factors are more immediate to the conflict and often involve the actions of elites and/or masses. Thus, prevention efforts must use a multi-pronged approach, addressing multiple factors in a coordinated fashion, and emphasizing previously neglected economic factors. Prevention must also target underlying structural causes with long-term approaches and mobilizing factors with short-term prevention efforts—the latter focused on the role played by local actors, particularly the elite.

In Tivland, elites have and continue to play a central role in fuelling conflicts. They are often motivated by opportunities for private accumulation and use shared ethnic/clannish ties and discrimination primarily for their own achievement of power. In some cases, ethnicity and ideology have been used as instruments by leaders to pursue political goals. Those who choose to follow leaders may have direct incentives for economic or other benefits if they are widely distributed. Leaders become less important in the path to conflict when the potential advantages will be conferred directly on group members; conversely, followers are most likely to support elites when they lack alternative sources of income.

Additionally, others who profit from conflict (e.g., business opportunists or criminals) may prefer continued conflict to resolution, thus erecting obstacles to, or spoiling settlement. Prevention or resolution of conflict must address private incentives of leaders and followers in order to be effective, as well as remove potential spoilers from the equation. The final report of the Carnegie Commission on Preventing Deadly Conflict (1997) emphasizes that conflict arises from deliberate political decisions; leaders can be persuaded or coerced to use peaceful means of conflict resolution and followers' incentives to fall prey to violent arguments can be averted by alleviating the basis for grievances.
From the preceding review, conflict emerges from a combination of underlying insecurity and inequality, colored by perceptions and acted upon by individuals with private incentives. Thus, neither underlying conditions nor human mobilizing actions alone are sufficient explanations, but rather both are necessary to describe the incidence of intrastate conflict. The challenge, therefore, is developing and implementing strategies that include institutionally uniting long- and short-term strategies; defining and articulating the mandate for prevention, especially long-term; dealing with recalcitrant communities, often both the crux of structural problems as well as the conduit for prevention efforts; and understanding the incentives driving local leaders and followers to mobilize.

PREVENTIVE DIPLOMACY (PD) STRATEGY AS A MEANS FOR RESOLVING INTRA-TIV CONFLICTS AND SUSTAINING PEACE IN TIVLAND

Preventive diplomacy (PD), first coined by UN Secretary General Dag Hammarskjöld, refers to efforts “to keep localized international disputes from provoking larger confrontations between the superpowers” (Jentleson, 1998). PD also has a basis in international law and the UN goal to “take effective collective measures for the prevention and removal of threats to peace.” (Hampson & Malone, 2002). In the post–Cold War era, however, the evolving interest in PD has been directed at expanding the concept to address a wide variety of different kinds of conflicts (ethnic, civil, intrastate, interstate) from escalating. Boutros Boutros-Ghali (1992) defined PD as “action to prevent disputes from arising between the parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflicts and to limit the spread of the latter when they occur.” The Carnegie Commission (1997) defined PD as “frontline diplomacy” undertaken by ambassadors, senior foreign office officials, and personal envoys of the UN Secretary-General in a crisis where the threat of violence is high.

The instruments of PD which can be used to conflict management tools, defined broadly, include: (1) confidence-building measures such as the exchange of military missions, risk reduction centers, information exchanges, and monitoring of regional arms control agreements; (2) fact-finding in accordance with the UN Charter, (3) early warning; (4) preventive deployments, that is, inserting armed forces before a crisis develops; and (5) demilitarized zones. PD instruments have been expanded to include mediation and negotiation (George, 1999; Lund, 1996). As George (1999) appropriately suggests, PD is essentially about techniques of conflict avoidance and conflict resolution such as mediation, peacekeeping, peacemaking, confidence- and trust-building measures, and unofficial track-two diplomacy. PD may also involve “urgent efforts” through “bilateral, multilateral, and unofficial channels” to “pressure, cajole, arbitrate, mediate, or lend 'good offices' to encourage dialogue and facilitate a nonviolent resolution of the crisis” Carnegie Commission (1997).

While some scholars advocate for including coercive diplomacy (“power-based approaches) within the general rubric of PD, this paper favors “noncoercive” or “problem-solving” approaches that rely on the rule of law and negotiation (Peck, 1998). This is consistent with the Tiv tradition. Further, this paper suggests that, as a strategy for sustainable peace in Tivland, PD reflects a “short-term problem solving” approach that must be complemented by “long-term structural approaches” that tackle the deep roots, or “causes,” of conflict such as poverty, underdevelopment, proliferation of arms, denial of human rights, and the like (Burton, 1999; Carnegie Commission, 1997).

Jentleson (2000) argues that successful PD depends upon the following elements: (1) negotiators who gain and keep the trust of the major parties; (2) terms of the negotiation that allow all sides to be able to show their domestic constituencies that there are real gains to be had from cooperation; (3) special envoys and lead diplomats who enjoy credibility with the parties; (4) actions that have “to be taken early, early, early” because “one of the strongest, least conditional conclusions we can draw is that the longer you wait, the more there will be to do and the more difficult it will be to do well”; (5) sanctions that are an important part of a mixed strategy (comprehensive, decisive, and tightly enforced sanctions work better than partially or incrementally enforced sanctions,
although the partial-incremental sanctions with lax enforcement are more common than comprehensive, tightly enforced ones); (6) inducements such as the lure of membership in major international and regional organizations or the threat of expulsion; and (7) political, especially “executive” leadership, which is a key ingredient for effective PD.

CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS FOR RESOLVING TIV CONFLICTS

Preventive diplomacy (PD) offers the best strategy for managing and sustaining conflicts within Tivland. The causes of conflicts in Tivland are complex, and therefore require a strategy that recognizes this complexity. The strategies and policies to manage such conflicts must, of necessity, be multipronged. Therefore, the paper proposes the following ways of managing conflicts and sustaining peace in Tivland. (1) Adopt and adapt relevant PD instruments discussed earlier, and apply them in resolving intra-Tiv conflicts. This also entails a deliberate public policy of building the capacity of law enforcement agents to perform their constitutional duties more effectively; and tackling the systemic causes of conflict such as poverty, underdevelopment, proliferation of arms, and denial of human rights within Tivland. (2) Use “noncoercive” or “problem-solving” approaches that rely on the rule of law and negotiation in Tivland. The Tiv people are avid negotiators. Examples abound of the negotiation skills of the Tiv. A specific example is the negotiations involving marriage customs (the practice of paying bride price) among the Tiv. (3) Improve methods of gathering information about impending crises and develop better early warning indicators of crises within Tivland. (4) Provide positive economic, political, and security incentives and inducements to key actors to prevent armed conflict and to encourage cooperation between and among combatants. The government must revisit the policy of land reform and land redistribution in Tivland. (5) Enhance the capacity of public officials to govern to ensure stability and harmony in Tivland. (6) Involve the faith-based community such as churches and mosques and other social organizations as active participants in conflict resolution. For example, the Roman Catholic Church which has established the Department of Conflict Resolution, and is working actively to ameliorate internal conflicts in Tivland. (7) Revive the traditional means of resolving conflicts in Tivland. The Tiv people value tradition. Therefore, the role of traditional rulers and community leaders should be encouraged and enhanced to assist in resolving conflicts. The dire need for effective and sustaining intra-ethnic conflict management strategies in Africa calls for more scholarly work in this area.

REFERENCES


ON THE THEORY OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS IN FAMILY FIRMS

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ABSTRACT

Issues of fairness, justice, trust, integrity, and agency relationships are widely discussed in the family business literature as they relate to family member and non-family member employees. To date, however, psychological contracts have not been utilized to address the obligations between employees and the family firm. Psychological contracts are individual beliefs in a reciprocal obligation between the individual and the organization including perceived promises, valued payments, and acceptance of exchanges. Examining psychological contracts in family firms is essential in light of these two unique groups. This paper addresses the topic by providing a theoretical model of the role of psychological contracts in family firms supported by propositions. We believe this provides a more comprehensive approach to issues such as fairness, trust, and justice because of the element of reciprocity, where mutual and cooperative relationships are examined.