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DOUBLE MORAL HAZARD AND FRANCHISING: A DUAL CASE STUDY APPROACH

Richard S. Brown, Temple University

ABSTRACT

The issue of double moral hazard has been neglected in the Management literature while one-sided moral hazard has only been implicitly recognized by many Agency theorists. This paper introduces the notion of double-sided moral hazard and empirically studies a typical setting for such a problem—franchising systems. Using a dual case study approach of the restaurant chains Chick-Fil-A and Schlotsky's Deli, I offer both an introduction of the concept as well as potential prescriptive measures to avoid double moral hazard especially within franchising chains.

NATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED WORKPLACE DISCRIMINATION ON THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIPS OF GAY AND LESBIAN PROTÉGÉS

Robin Church, Ryerson University, Canada

ABSTRACT

The objective of this paper was to the mentoring relationships of gay and lesbian protégés and the effects workplace discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (hereafter perceived workplace discrimination) may have on the relationships. Perceived workplace discrimination was found to be an obstacle to obtaining a mentor in the United States but not in Canada. The amount of psychosocial support received by protégés was found to be affected by an interaction of perceived discrimination and nationality. Mentors in the United States were reported to provide less psychosocial support and Canadian mentors more.

INTRODUCTION

Gay men and lesbians, at 4 –17 percent of the workforce, are a larger group than many other minorities (Gonsiorek & Weinrich, 1991) yet there is very little research on gay and lesbian issues in the workplace. This study examines the effects of perceived workplace discrimination on the likelihood of the formation of informal mentoring relationships of gay and lesbian protégés and on the amount of psychosocial support reported by those in mentoring relationships. It is hypothesized that perceived workplace discrimination acts as a barrier to gaining informal mentoring relationships for gay and lesbian employees. It is also hypothesized that perceived workplace discrimination will be associated with a decrease in the amount of psychosocial support in mentoring relationships heterogeneous with respect to sexual orientation and that it will be associated with an increase the psychosocial support in mentoring relationships homogeneous with respect to sexual orientation.

Mentoring

Mentoring is defined as a senior person guiding a junior person in an organization and aiding in the junior person's development. Mentors usually have more advanced experience and knowledge (Kram, 1985) and occupy higher power positions (Ragins, 1997) than their protégés. The value of mentoring experiences for protégés has been widely studied since Kram's seminal work two decades ago (e.g. Kram, 1983; 1985). Mentoring relationships serve two functions: career functions and psychosocial functions (Kram, 1983). The career functions are elements of the mentoring relationship that assist the protégé in preparation for career advancement. These

functions include providing sponsorship, coaching, protection, exposure, and challenging work to the protégé. The psychosocial functions assist in the protégé's development of a sense of competence, sense of identity, and work-role effectiveness through role modeling, counseling, acceptance and confirmation, and friendship.

A heterogeneous mentoring relationship involves a mentor and a protégé who do not share the same group memberships associated with power differences in organizations (Ragins, 1995). Largely because of sex and race stratification within organizations, majority members are more likely to be in homogeneous mentoring relationships with other majority members and minorities in heterogeneous mentoring relationships (Dreher & Cox, 1996; Thomas, 1990). Dreher and Cox (1996) and Thomas (1990) examined mentoring relationships that are heterogeneous with respect to sex and/or race.

Empirical research indicates that perceived or actual mentor-protégé similarity is positively related to the amount of mentoring received (Burke, McKeen & McKenna, 1993; Dreher & Dougherty, 1997; Ensher & Murphy, 1997; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Thomas, 1990). This phenomenon is explained by the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971), which suggests that perceived and actual similarity influences the perceptions of shared identity and liking between two individuals. Although Byrne's (1971) original research referred to similarity in attitudes, more recent research has extended these findings to include similarity in demographic characteristics (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Liking, perceived similarity, and psychosocial and career support each contributed significantly to protégés' satisfaction with their mentor; each is an important contributor to a successful mentoring relationship, contributing significant amounts of variance in protégé satisfaction (Ensher & Murphy, 1997).

Heterosexism

Heterosexism has been defined as valuing heterosexuality as superior to and/or more natural or normal than gay and lesbian sexual orientations (Morin, 1977). Heterosexism focuses on heterosexual privilege and draws attention to the constancy of the experience and not just episodic violence and harassment (Herek & Berrill, 1992). Examples of institutionalized organizational heterosexism include the lack of policies that prohibit discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and failure to provide gay and lesbian employees benefits equal to those provided to heterosexual employees. For the purposes of this research, institutional heterosexism will be referred to as heterosexism and individual heterosexist behaviors in the workplace will be referred to as perceived workplace discrimination.

Highly heterosexist organizations have been characterized by an absence of protective legislation, the absence of supportive organizational policies and practices, workgroup composition of majority heterosexuals, and workgroup composition of majority males and each of these organizational heterosexism variables was significantly related to perceived workplace discrimination (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Organizational heterosexism has been shown to be significantly related to lower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational self-esteem, and high turnover intentions (Button, 2001; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001, Waldo, 1999) for gay and lesbian employees.

Higher levels of organizational heterosexism and the presence of perceived workplace discrimination will reduce the likelihood of gay men and lesbians disclosing their sexual orientations (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) to other gay men and lesbians as well as heterosexuals (Wood, 1994). Gay and lesbian employees are more likely to disclose sexual orientation when they perceive a more affirming organizational climate (Griffith and Hebl, 2002). This affirming climate is signaled by and enacted through organizational policies and practices supportive of gay and lesbian employees (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). These supportive policies and practices have also been shown to be associated with reduced reports of perceived discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001).

Most gay men and lesbians can choose the degree to which their sexual orientations are seen to be readily-detectable or underlying through identity management strategies of avoidance, counterfeiting, or integration (Wood 1994). Many gay men and lesbians are inhibited from forming interpersonal relationships with others in the organizations for fear of disclosure of their sexual orientations (e.g. Wood, 1994; Badgett, 1996; Day & Schoenrade, 1997). Gay men and lesbians may even actively shun other gay men and lesbians for fear of disclosure "by association" (Wood, 1994; Ellis, 1996). Fear of workplace discrimination inhibits relationship formation making informal mentor/protégé dyads for gay men and lesbians less likely to be formed. There may also be hesitation on the part of mentors to become involved with protégés of the same sex but different sexual orientations (i.e. heterosexual male mentor and gay male protégé) if the sexual orientations are known or suspected. This would be somewhat analogous to the sexual tension that can exist in cross-gender mentoring dyads (e.g. Ragins & Cotton, 1991). If sexual orientations are not known or suspected (i.e. there is a presumption of heterosexuality), gay men or lesbians in cross-gender mentoring dyads would be subject to the same sexual tensions. In the mentoring relationships that are with protégés of the same sex but different sexual orientations, not only may the mentor be subject to the possibility of sexual innuendo or rumor about the nature of the relationship as with cross-gender relationships but such innuendo or rumor would entail speculation about the sexual orientation of the mentor.

The stigma (Goffman, 1974) associated with gay men and lesbians is different than the stigma attached to many other groups. Stigma by association is possible with sexual orientation. Heterosexuals who associate with gay men and lesbian may be assumed to be gay or lesbian by others. This "courtesy" stigma, obtained by associated with gay men and lesbians (Herek & Capitanio, 1996), is proposed as an additional barrier for gay and lesbian protégés finding mentors. The greater the perceived workplace discrimination, the more concern there is associated with sexual orientation. Qualitative studies have found that gay employees are excluded from mentoring and networking relationships, which impair their opportunities for advancement in the organization (Friskopp & Silerstein, 1996; Wood, 1994). Perceived workplace discrimination, therefore, is proposed to be a barrier for gay men and lesbians to obtaining an informal mentor. The above reasoning, therefore, suggests the following hypothesis:

H_1: *The likelihood of the presence of an informal mentor for gay and lesbian employees will be inversely related to the level of perceived workplace discrimination.*

It is proposed that perceived workplace discrimination will moderate the amount of psychosocial support in both heterogeneous and homogeneous mentoring relationships but in very different ways. Gay and lesbian protégés experiencing greater perceived workplace discrimination will need more psychosocial support to help them cope with the discrimination. In homogeneous mentoring relationships, the gay or lesbian mentor will be in a position to provide the additional psychosocial support. In heterogeneous mentoring relationships, there is the same increased need for psychosocial support but without the relevant similarity between the members of the dyad. In heterogeneous mentoring relationships, perceived workplace discrimination will inhibit the relationship building process that is integral to the provision of psychosocial support. In these relationships, therefore, psychosocial support will be negatively related to the level of perceived workplace discrimination. Taken together, I predict an interaction between perceived workplace discrimination and the nature of the mentoring relationship such that psychosocial support will be positively related to perceived workplace discrimination, when the relationships are homogenous with respect to sexual orientation and negatively related to perceived workplace discrimination, when the relationship is heterogeneous with respect to sexual orientation. The above reasoning suggests the following hypothesis:

H_2: There will be an interaction effect for perceived workplace discrimination and the nature of the mentoring relationship (heterogeneous/homogeneous) on the amount of psychosocial support (i.e. the association between perceived workplace discrimination and psychosocial support will be positive for protégés with gay or lesbian mentors and will be negative for those with heterosexual mentors).

METHODOLOGY

The survey conducted was accessible on-line and not email based. The sampling frame was developed through the use of gay and lesbian groups' websites, list serves and chat rooms. These organizations were approached to request providing a link to this survey's URL. The survey was also promoted on-line through unmoderated list serves and chat rooms. The sampling frame was also increased by snowball sampling.

Measures

Perceived workplace discrimination was measured using Ragins & Cornwell's (2001) modified Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994). The Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory modified for sexual orientation includes items such as: "Prejudice against gays and lesbians exists where I work" and "At work I am treated poorly because of my sexual orientation". I inadvertently dropped three items from the scale resulting in a 12-item scale. A 5-point Likert scale with *Completely Disagree* and *Completely Agree* as anchors was used. Principal component analysis yielded a single factor with an eigenvalue of 6.88 accounting for 57.3% of the variance (coefficient alpha of .93).

Presence of a mentor was assessed by asking respondents, "During your career, has there been a person who has taken a personal interest in you and your career? Someone who has guided, sponsored, or otherwise had a positive and significant influence on your professional

career development? In other words, have you ever had a mentor?" Responses indicating the presence of a mentor were coded as 1; those indicating no mentor were coded as 0.

Psychosocial support was measured using Noe's (1988) 10-item Mentoring Functions Scale, assessing the extent to which psychosocial support was provided by the mentor as reported by the protégé. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale the extent to which their relationship with their mentor was described by each of the statements (1 = *to a very slight extent*, 5 = *to a very large extent*). Sample items of psychosocial support include "My mentor has kept feelings and doubts I shared with him/her in strict confidence" and "My mentor has conveyed feelings of respect for me as an individual". I obtained a coefficient alpha of .86.

Demographic/Individual Characteristics were measured using single item measures. The characteristics included sex, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, educational levels, income, province, territory or state in which they worked, industry in which they worked, and job tenure. Respondents were asked the degree of disclosure of their sexual orientation in the workplace on a 4-item scale ranging from *No One* to *Everyone*.

For respondents from the United States, the presence of protective legislation was determined by the state of residence reported by the respondents and the statewide anti-discrimination laws and policies reported by the civil rights organization, Human Rights Campaign. At the time of the data collection, 14 states provided protective legislations against discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation, as did all provinces and territories of Canada. A 6-item scale developed by Ragins & Cornwell (2001) was used to assess the supportiveness of organizational policies and practices for gay and lesbian employees. The scale includes the following items: Does your organization: 1. *have a non-discrimination policy that includes sexual orientation?* 2. *include sexual orientation in the definition of diversity?* 3. *include awareness of gay/lesbian/bisexual issues in diversity training?* 4. *offer same-sex domestic partners benefits? offer gay/lesbian/bisexual resource/support groups?* 5. *welcome same-sex partners at company social events?*

Responses indicating the presence of the supportive policy were coded as 1; the absence of the policy as 0, and *Don't Know* was coded as missing. The items were summed to create an overall scale of organizational policies and practices with values ranging from 0 to 6 with 0 representing the absence of all listed policies and practices and 6 the presence of all. Ragins and Cornwell (2001) report a coefficient alpha of .82. I obtained a coefficient alpha of .78.

To measure the sexual orientation composition of the work group, respondents were asked about the sexual orientations of their co-workers. They were given a 4-point scale with *0-25% gay or lesbian* and *75 - 100% gay and lesbian* as anchors and a *Don't Know* option which was coded as missing data. To measure the gender composition of the work group respondents were given a 4-point scale with *0-25% women* and *75 - 100% women* as anchors and a *Don't Know* option which was coded as missing data.

Protégés were asked whether the protégé and mentor both work in the same organization, to determine if the relationship was internal or external; and whether the organization, the protégé, or the mentor initiated the mentoring relationship to determine whether the mentoring relationship was formal or informal. The analysis is limited to internal mentoring relationships to

ensure that both mentor and protégé are exposed and responding to the same potential barriers to mentoring relationships within the protégé's organization.

Protégés were asked if their mentors were aware of their sexual orientation. Protégés were asked for characteristics of their mentors, which included sex, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and whether the mentor had supervisory responsibility over the protégé. Protégés were also asked how sure they were about their mentors' sexual orientations using a 4-point scale with Completely Sure and Not Sure At All as anchors.

RESULTS

The sample consisted of individuals who self-identified as gay men or lesbians, who live in Canada or the United States, and who reported being employed. Individuals reporting that they were unemployed, retired, or self-employed were eliminated from this analysis. The sample consisted of 479 individuals, 326 gay men and 153 lesbians.

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess how well the scale items used to measure organizational policies and practices, perceived workplace discrimination and psychosocial support loaded onto their respective constructs. These analyses were conducted using AMOS 4 (Byrne, 2001). The results indicated a reasonably good fit to the data with χ^2 (df, 350) = 931.50, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .06, NFI = .97, CFI = .98. All items loaded significantly on their respective constructs with all critical ratios greater than 5.42, well exceeding the 1.96 required for significance at .05. Coefficient alphas for the scales are as follows: organizational policies and procedures .78, perceived workplace discrimination .93, and psychosocial support .86.

To test hypothesis 1, logistic regressions were performed with an interaction term of *Discrimination x Canada* and with an interaction term of *Discrimination x United States*. The presence of transsexual co-workers was the only significant predictor of having an informal mentor ($p < .05$), changing the odds of having one by 3.682. The logistic regression interaction term of *Discrimination x United States* revealed that perceived workplace discrimination ($p < .05$) was a significant predictor of the odds of having an informal mentor. Having an informal mentor was associated with lower levels of perceived workplace discrimination. Each additional unit of discrimination changed the odds of having an informal mentor by a factor of 0.536. In the United States subsample, the odds of having an informal mentor are reduced by perceived workplace discrimination whereas the odds of having an informal mentor is unaffected by perceived workplace discrimination in the Canadian subsample. Hypothesis one was supported for the United States, but not the Canadian, subsample.

To test hypothesis 2, the interaction terms *Discrimination x Canada* and *Discrimination x United States* were regressed on psychosocial support. Both interaction terms were significant: *Discrimination x Canada* ($\beta = .41$, $p < .01$) and *Discrimination x United States* ($\beta = -.22$, $p < .05$). The results of the regression employing the interaction term Discrimination x Canada revealed that job tenure ($\beta = -.58$, $p < .001$) and the number of supportive policies and practices ($\beta = .75$, $p < .001$) were significant predictors of psychosocial support. Mentor being supervisor ($\beta = .21$, $p < .10$) was a marginal predictor of psychosocial support. The results of the regression employing the interaction term *Discrimination x United States* revealed that disclosure of sexual

orientation to mentor ($\beta = .22$, $p < .05$) was a significant predictor of psychosocial support. Higher psychosocial support was significantly associated with protégé disclosure of sexual orientation to the mentor.

For the U.S. subsample, psychosocial support decreased as perceived workplace discrimination increased and for the Canadian subsample psychosocial support increased as perceived workplace discrimination increased and as the number of supportive policies and practices increased.

DISCUSSION

Perceived workplace discrimination was an obstacle to obtaining a mentor in the United States subsample but not in the Canadian subsample. In the United States subsample, both heterosexual and gay or lesbian mentors provided less psychosocial support to their gay and lesbian protégés as organizational heterosexism (measured by perceived workplace discrimination) increased. In contrast, in the Canadian subsample, both heterosexual and gay or lesbian mentors provided more psychosocial support to their gay and lesbian protégés as organizational heterosexism increased. It seems that mentors in the United States were responding to the fear of courtesy stigma and misinterpretation of the relationship whereas mentors in Canada were responding to the increased need for psychosocial support.

Although seminal mentoring research was conducted in Canada (Burke, 1984), most since has been conducted in the United States. Perhaps one of the most important findings of this study is to stress the hazards in assuming that research done in the United States is generalizable elsewhere, especially research that involves sexual orientation or other social issues such as gender, race, religion – all cultural issues on which Canada and the United States are increasing divergent (Adams, 2004). This could further reduce the generalizablity of findings and theory developed through research conducted in the United States in other countries in the future.

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LAWSUITS WALK IN ON TWO FEET: THE BULLY IN THE WORKPLACE

Julie Indvik, California State University, Chico
Pamela R. Johnson, California State University, Chico

ABSTRACT

Bullying in the workplace is alive and well in these tough economic times. Bullies are predators; they are controlling, and they are dangerous. Bullies come in every race, age, religion and gender. Even though there isn't a workplace bullying law yet in the United States, bullying exposes an employer to potential legal liability, such as negligent hiring and negligent retention. In addition, there are direct and indirect costs which can total up to 43.4 billion a year. Lawsuits don't just happen; they walk into your organization on two feet.

INTRODUCTION

"Cruelty, like every other vice, requires no motive outside of itself;
it only requires opportunity."

George Eliot

The word "bully" often conjures up images of elementary school and the tough kids on the playground we all tried to avoid. But bullies are not just confined to schoolyards; they are now in the workplace (Sweeney, 2007). For generations, schoolyard bullies have tormented children. And many of these bullies eventually get jobs. But workplace bullying is complex because the victim does not always fall into a protected class or category and because there is a wide range of behaviors, from subtle to physical (Angel, 2010). In addition, bullying seems to be alive and well in these tough economic times, with many organizations unwilling to let go of bullies who have good technical skills or organizational knowledge or tenure. Add to that, many bullied employees are afraid to report workplace bullying for fear of losing their jobs. Because of record unemployment, the perfect storm has been created for bullies to thrive and continue with their tyrannical behavior (McCullough, 2011). This paper will give a definition of bullying; delineate the number of people involved; describe bullies and their targets; discuss the legal ramifications; detail the costs of bullying in the workplace; and describe what organizations can do to eliminate bullying and thus reduce their legal liability.

DEFINITION

Bullying is domestic violence where the abuser is on the payroll (Casey, 2010). Many managers belittle, isolate, intimidate and sabotage employees. Some tyrannical managers scream and send out scathing e-mails. But often, an oppressor uses a subtler, and easily covered, collection of behaviors. These actions could include purposely leaving a worker out of communications so s/he can't do her/his job well, mocking someone during meetings and spreading malicious gossip about their target. The acts may seem trivial, but as they build up over time, the ramifications can be monumental (Patrecca, 2010). Bullying can be verbal or non-verbal, direct or indirect, general or specific. Whatever form it takes, it is always undermining, humiliating, excluding, and shaming of other people. It can be intentional or unintentional. When intentional, the intended impact is one of hurting others. When it is unintentional, people have a lack of awareness of the impact of bullying behavior on others. Either way, the impact of bullying behavior on people is always devastating and often long lasting (Townend, 2008).

Number of People Involved

60 percent of bullies are men; 40 percent are women
57 percent of targets are women; 43 percent are men
74.7 percent of women targets were bullied more by bosses than men
When the bully is a woman, 71 percent of targets are women and 29 percent are men.
When the bully is a man, 53 percent of the targets are men & 47 percent are women
(Lieber, 2010).

Workplace bullying is a widespread problem; 37 percent of U.S. workforce members report being bullied at work; this amounts to an estimated 54 million Americans, which translates to nearly the entire population of the states of Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada, Arizona, and Utah (Wiedmer, 2010).

Bullies/Targets

Bullies, as children, often were victims at home and thus became bullies out in the world. They tend to be insecure individuals who project their insecurities and inadequacies onto others, as opposed to dealing with them in some constructive fashion. They are predators. They are controlling. They are dangerous. Ironically, workplace bullies do not necessarily target those less competent or less skilled than themselves. Often, it is quite the opposite. One of the complexities of bullying is that it occurs vertically and horizontally in the organizational hierarchy, including, on occasion, upward hierarchical bullying (Dalton, 2007). Recent brain-scan research has shown that bullies are wired differently. When they see a victim in pain, it triggers parts of their brain associated with pleasure. As a function of their insecurities, bullies often target highly competent individuals who they perceive as a threat to their own authority. Bullies appear to be driven by the classic zero-sum game belief that there is a finite amount of

praise, rewards, and so forth to be shared; they want, and believe they deserve, it all. Bullies believe that by pushing others down, they elevate themselves (Dalton, 2007).

Bullies come in every race, age, religion, and gender. Some of their varied characteristics are being controlling, impulsive, explosive, self-centered, insensitive to the needs of others, perfectionists, passive-aggressive, impatient, and extremely critical and nitpicking (Lieber, 2010). Managers inclined to bullying are most likely to lash out at their subordinate targets when operating in highly chaotic and disorganized workplaces (Sidle, 2009).

Targets, on the other hand, are reported to be better liked, had more social skills, possessed higher emotional intelligence, and were appreciated by colleagues, customers, and management (bullies excluded) for the warmth and care they brought to the workplace (Wiedmer, 2010). Nevertheless, numerous studies document that targets of bullying experience physical symptoms, such as fatigue, sleep difficulties, clammy hands, dry mouth, headaches and concentration deficiencies. They are also at higher risk of cardiovascular disease, hypertension, and weakened immune systems, higher diastolic and systolic blood pressure, higher use of sleeping drugs and sedatives than non-bullied employees. Targets also experience mental and emotional symptoms, such as fear, depression, anger, and guilt (McKay, Ciocirlan & Chung, 2010). Some targets even are driven to suicide.

LEGAL RAMIFICATIONS

There is a fine line of distinction between bullying and harassment. Harassment can be viewed as a subset of bullying. While both types of behavior involved degrading, intimidating and insulting the victim, harassment is discriminatory behavior that targets demographics such as gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, religion or disability. While bullying sometimes is conducted on such demographic grounds, bullying is primarily aimed at intimidating victims on the basis of the latter's workplace abilities but it may include discriminatory behavior. This distinction implies that harassment can be fought legally, while there are no laws against bullying, at least in the United States. Bullying is often more difficult to identify, as it is more subtle, less, direct, and uses psychological tools to a larger extent than harassment (McKay, Ciocirlan, & Chung, 2010).

Even though there isn't a workplace bullying law yet, bullying exposes an employer to potential legal liability on several fronts. Bullying can lead to lawsuits based on claims of negligent hiring, negligent retention, a hostile work environment or discrimination. Bullying also can lead to workers' compensation claims for stress and emotional injuries. If bullying results in physical violence, then assault and battery claims also may surface. In any of these claims, it is no defense that the bully is an "equal opportunity" bully who treats everyone in a demeaning way (Angel, 2010).

Over the past decade, 16 U.S. states have attempted (several of them up to five times) to pass antibullying legislation. The Healthy Workplace Bill scored its largest victory in May 2010, after the New York State Senate passed a bill that would allow workers to sue for physical, psychological, or economic harm due to abusive treatment on the job (Lieber, 2010).

Some management employment lawyers like to say that "lawsuits don't just happen; they walk into your organization on two feet." Potential bullies can be screened out in the hiring process with extra attention to certain behaviors and prior experiences of the applicant. The hiring team should keep in mind that applicants should be prescreened not only for job skills and experience, but also for personal traits and skills (Lieber, 2010).

Costs

Organizations incur both direct and indirect costs as a result of bullying. Direct costs include paid sick leave, absenteeism, and costs associated with the use of employee assistance plans where available. Indirect costs include productivity losses and costs of hiring and training new employees. There are also the extra costs associated with overtime, either because the bully required targets to work overtime or because co-workers had to work more to make up for the work that should have been done by the absent target. Organizations also incur subtle costs associated with the deterioration of work climate and atmosphere (Wiedmer, 2010).

In addition, approximately 25 percent of targets and 20 percent of witnesses resign because of a workplace bully. Assuming an organization has 1,000 employees, if 25 percent are bullied and 15 percent of those quit as a result, their average "desk/replacement cost" is $20,000, which comes to an annual cost of $750,000. Add to those figures two witnesses per bullied employee, with 20 percent of affected employees quitting, and that analysis quickly subtracts $1.2 million from the bottom line. Thus, a single workplace bully can easily cost an organization approximately $2 million per year (Lieber, 2010). Not surprisingly, expenses related to bullying can be significant. In fact, The International Labor Organization has estimated costs for interpersonal violence, which includes bullying, in the United States ranging from $4.9 to $43.4 billion (Stagg, 2010).

What Can Be Done

What can organizational leaders do proactively to prevent bullying from happening in the first place, instead of merely reacting to it after the fact (Sidle, 2009)?

First, employers must understand the risks and costs associated with bullying so that they are motivated to address it. Second, they must incorporate an anti-bullying message into their culture through written policies and training. Third, they must educate managers and supervisors to prevent bullying and to properly address it when it occurs (Angel, 2010). Fourth, it is important for bullies to change their behavior. Bullies need to acknowledge their disruptive actions and the consequences on others. Effective strategies for bullies may include counseling, mentoring programs, disciplinary meetings, and anger management techniques (Cleary, et. al., 2009). And finally, to eradicate workplace bullying, organizations must make it clear that respect is a core corporate value. This culture must start at the top levels of senior management (Lieber, 2010).

"Treat people as if they were what they ought to be, and you help them to become what they are capable of being."

Johann Wolfgang von Goethe

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A COMPARISON OF THE READABILITY OF NEWSPAPER COLUMNS WRITTEN BY NATIONAL JOURNALISM AWARD WINNERS

M. Wayne Rollins, Middle Tennessee State University
Stephen D. Lewis, Middle Tennessee State University

ABSTRACT

Multiple factors contribute to the readability of printed documents. Although font size and style, formatting/layout, and writing style may affect reader comprehension, readability formulas typically use other more measureable factors such as sentence length and number of multi-syllable words to determine reading grade levels needed to understand a document.

The purpose of this research was to compare the readability of newspaper columns written by National Journalism Award recipients. Specifically, articles by writers who received awards for commentary were compared to articles written by business/economics reporters.

Significant differences were found between the two groups. Business/economics writers' columns on average were written at about 2.5 grade levels above the columns written those who wrote commentaries. Readability grade levels ranged from 3.9 to 13.8 for commentary writers; for business/economics writers the range was 5.6 to 14.4.

INTRODUCTION

Communication technology improvements introduced in recent years have opened up media outlets to global audiences. Individuals in countries around the globe have Internet access to news media throughout the world, including the U.S. Thus, readership for a U.S. newspaper may extend well beyond the country's borders. With the likely increase in online newspaper readership, factors previously considered in measuring readability in print newspapers may not be sufficient (TxReadability, n.d.). *The New York Times* and Microsoft Corporation collaborated on a program to aid individuals in reading the newspaper online and with mobile devices (Microsoft News Center, 2006). Called the Times Reader, it ". . . provides the increased functionality of the Web, including continuous updates, multimedia and hyperlinks" (p. 1).

In addition to technology advancements, inexpensive and efficient transportation systems have made global travel affordable. Further, flexible immigration rules make the U.S. one of the most diversely populated countries in the world. Ponder, too, that "the concept of readability also is becoming an important aspect to consider in Web accessibility for individuals with disabilities" (p. 1). When all of these factors are considered, one can readily see that literacy and reading abilities vary tremendously throughout the populous.

Do U.S. newspaper columnists consider the diversity of their readership when composing their columns? Do they account for the reading capabilities of their potential audience, including

readers whose second language is English? Evidence exists that suggests that writers in other areas may not always be cognizant of their readers' competencies. One research study showed that 88% of privacy policy statements issued by banks were written at twelfth-grade level or higher (Lewis, Colvard, & Adams, 2008). Another study analyzed printed descriptions for museum exhibits. Of 20 international museums listed, most of which were located in the U.S., only one had exhibit descriptions written below grade level 12; and this despite the fact that "national surveys show that half the adult population reads below the 9th-level" (Plain Language at Work Newsletter, May 11, 2011).

This study examined the readability of newspaper columns written by winners of national journalism awards.

READABILITY EXPLAINED

Wikipedia defines readability as ". . .the ease in which text can be read and understood" (Readability [1], n.d.). Multiple readability formulas have been developed to aid writers in developing documents that meet the needs of their readers. Most formulas produce numbers that show the grade level at which one would have to read to comprehend the material. Factors used to determine readability include sentence length and syllabic intensity, with reading difficulty positively correlated with longer sentences and multi-syllable words. Other items, such as writing style, layout, font size and style, also affect readability; however, the impact of these items is difficult if even possible to measure. Although applying different formulas to the same writing sample might show different results, the differences would be slight. Frequently cited readability formulas include the Gunning Fog Index, the Fry Readability Graph, and the Flesch Readability Formula.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this research was to compare the readability of newspaper columns written by columnists and reporters whose writings had been recognized by the Scripps Howard Foundation with National Journalism Awards. Columns in two specific categories were analyzed: *commentary* and *business/economics*.

METHODOLOGY

An Internet search provided a list of award-winning journalists who write in a variety of subject areas for newspapers throughout the United States (National Journalism Awards, n.d.). Two subject areas were chosen. *Business/Economics Reporting* was selected because of the authors' teaching and research interests. *Commentary* was chosen as a comparison group since several of the award- winning writers were well-known, nationally syndicated authors. Names of annual winners in the commentary division were listed for 1997 through 2008, a total of 12 writers. Although 11 awards were presented in the business/economics category for 1998

through 2008, only six were given to individuals. The remaining awards were presented to specific newspapers.

An additional Internet search was conducted to locate columns written by the award winners for the two specified categories. In an attempt to obtain representative writing samples, three recent columns were selected for each writer. This resulted in 36 *commentary* columns and 18 *business/economics* columns.

Each column was copied and pasted into a Microsoft Word document to complete the readability analysis. Microsoft Word ". . .uses the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level test, which provides the grade level at which someone must read in order to comprehend the material" (Lewis, Colvard, & Adams, 2008, p. 89). The formula for Flesch-Kincaid is:

$$(L \times 0.39) + (N \times 11.8) - 15.59$$

where L = average sentence length and N = average number of syllables per word (Readability [2], n.d.).

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents the mean reading grade level scores in ascending order for the six business/economics writers. Scores ranged from 5.6 up to 14.4, indicating that someone with a fifth or sixth grade reading level could comprehend the material in one document while the other would require a reading comprehension beyond the second year of college.

Table 1: Reading Grade Levels for *Business/Economics* Columnists (sorted in ascending order by mean grade level, rounded to nearest tenth)

Columnist	Article No. 1	Article No. 2	Article No. 3	Mean
1	13.6	11.3	14.4	13.1
2	13.8	13.8	10.7	12.8
3	12.8	13.1	12.2	12.7
4	9.7	12.3	12.4	11.5
5	11.9	11.7	9.8	11.1
6	5.6	7.2	11.1	8.0
Group Mean				11.5

Table 2 displays the mean reading grade level scores in ascending order for the 12 commentary columnists. Grade level scores for these writers ranged from 3.9 up to 13.8.

Table 2: Reading Grade Levels for *Commentary* Columnists (sorted in ascending order by mean grade level, rounded to nearest tenth)

Columnist	Article No. 1	Article No. 2	Article No. 3	Mean
1	13.8	8.4	11.70	11.3
2	11.2	10.3	11.9	11.1

Table 2: Reading Grade Levels for *Commentary* Columnists (sorted in ascending order by mean grade level, rounded to nearest tenth)				
Columnist	Article No. 1	Article No. 2	Article No. 3	Mean
3	8.8	10.6	12.9	10.8
4	9.6	10.2	12.0	10.6
5	9.5	9.8	11.5	10.3
6	10.8	7.6	10.9	9.8
7	8.3	11.8	8.8	9.6
8	7.4	7.7	7.5	7.5
9	7.7	6.2	8.5	7.5
10	7.2	8.6	6.1	7.3
11	7.0	5.8	7.1	6.6
12	6.1	7.4	3.9	5.8
Group Mean				9.0

ANALYSIS OF DATA

A two-sample t-test was run to test the hypothesis that the reading grade level group means for business/economics columns and commentary columns were equal. A test statistic yielded a P-value of 0.000, thus the hypothesis that the group means were equal was rejected with 99% confidence. Table 3 shows the two-sample t-test statistics. A one-way ANOVA also indicated a significant difference between the two groups with the same P-value.

Table 3: Two-Sample T-Test for Business/Economics vs. Commentary Columns						
	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	SE Mean	T-Value	P-Value
Business/Economics	18	11.52	2.30	0.54		
Commentary	36	9.02	2.28	0.38		
					3.80	0.000

A one-way ANOVA was run to test whether the mean reading grade levels were the same for all *business/economics* writers. For business/economics writers, a P-value of 0.029 offered a 97% confidence level that the mean reading grade levels were not equal among these writers; thus the hypothesis that there was no significant difference in the reading grade level for this group was rejected. A review of the data in Table 1 will show means for the business/economics writers ranged from a low of 8.0 to a high of 13.1.

Similarly, a one-way ANOVA test among the commentary columnists showed a significant difference in mean reading grade levels (P-value = 0.001; 99% confidence level). Mean reading grade levels for this group ranged from 5.8 to 11.3 (see Table 2).

DISCUSSION

Would readers expect that the readability grade level for business/economics columns would be higher than for commentary columns? Perhaps a plausible explanation for this difference is the intended reading audience. Those who write commentaries might well expect a broad readership of individuals from all walks of life. Business writers, on the other hand, may target a narrower reading group whose backgrounds and interests provide preparation for and expectation of a higher reading level. Targeting the audience is a technique applied by major publications. Reader's Digest, for example, is written at an approximate eighth-grade reading level while the Wall Street Journal is written at roughly thirteenth-grade level (Readability and Word Count, n.d.).

Curiously, one of the commentary columns was written at the fourth-grade (3.9) reading level. The other two articles written by the same columnist were written at the sixth- (6.1) and seventh-grade levels. In each case a conversational (dialogue) style was used with extremely brief sentences and paragraphs.

The range of readability grade levels among commentary writers was intriguing as well. Strangely, almost 10 grade levels (3.9 to 13.8) separated the lowest and highest reading comprehension levels.

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WHAT ARE THE EFFECTS OF PSYCHOPATHIC TRAITS IN A SUPERVISOR ON EMPLOYEES' PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTRESS?

Cynthia Mathieu, Universite du Quebec a Trois-Rivieres
Paul Babiak, Anubis-Research
Daniel N. Jones, University of British Columbia
Craig Neumann, University of North Texas
Robert D. Hare, University of British Columbia

ABSTRACT:

Psychopathy, a construct with roots in forensic psychology, has recently been applied to the corporate context (Babiak, & Hare, 2006; Babiak, 2007). The goal of this study is to determine whether there is a relationship between supervisor's score on a measure of psychopathy and employees' psychological distress. One hundred and sixteen employees from a branch of a large Canadian financial institution have scored their supervisor on a psychopathy measure (B-Scan-360 psychopathy subscale; Babiak, & Hare, in press) and have completed a self-measure of psychological distress (General Health questionnaire-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1991). Results from regression analyses indicate that supervisor psychopathy and predicts employees' psychological distress. The present results highlight the importance of screening for problematic personalities such as psychopathy for selection and promotion.

A BROADER PERSPECTIVE FOR GLOBAL LEADERSHIP: ECONOMIC, POLITICAL AND ANTHROPOLOGICAL

Michael McCullough, University of Tennessee- Martin
Sam Faught, University of Tennessee-Martin

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper will be to begin the process of constructing a coherent argument for a model of global leadership that broadens the focus of traditional organizational leadership to include global- economic, political and anthropological perspectives.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND GAP ADDRESSED BY PROPOSED PAPER

Paradigms (Kuhn, 1961) of the American-centric version of organizational leadership research migrated over time across traits, behaviors, situations, and a series of others more recent; but the subject matter is closer to management than to leadership, if as part of your definition of leadership you include attention to values, vision, a systems perspective, and political influences; and if as part of your definition of management you assume it is okay to treat these as irrelevant externalities, more suitable for study in other disciplines. The research around this version of organizational leadership has been something of a tempest in a teapot, given that such a narrow version of leadership leaves out input from scholars from disciplines whose ideas should be considered relevant, but have not been. For example, the Path-goal theory of leadership (House and Mitchell, 1974) assumes leaders choose to be either participative, supportive, directive, achievement-oriented, depending on personality characteristics of followers, demand characteristics of the job, as well as satisfaction and performance levels; as if external factors such as power and resulting politics, micro- and macro-economic realities and cultural values within which the leader-follower dyad interact; play no role at all.

Northouse (2007) summarized the paradigms of organizational leadership research and in the next-to-last (13) chapter of his book he mentioned the relationship between leadership and culture and in the final chapter he discussed leadership and ethics, with a brief allusion to those advocating for a "humane" perspective among leaders; but these are budding areas of interest and as such, only highlight how long the field has ignored them.

In a book designed to prognosticate the future of leadership and management in the 21st century, William Starbuck wrote of four future conflicts between: the affluent and the poor, companies and nations, managers and stakeholders, and the short run and long run. As can be seen from the conflicts he cites, Starbuck has in mind a more global version of organizational leadership than prevailed throughout the 20th century.

In the same volume, Chris Argyris, speaking to the academic side of the house, brought out his usual argument for productive versus defensive reasoning; and although he stopped short of doing so, we believe his reasoning can be applied to the study of organizational leadership; in that, those who operate as the definers and defenders of organizational leadership thought, have tended to protect it as much as possible from the systems perspective that has so thoroughly washed over management and organizational studies. Argyris says organizations are prone to cover up their lack of productive thinking with defensive thinking and, we believe, such is the case with the history of organizational leadership research and theorizing. With an attempt to globalize leadership research, we may be moving toward a broader view of leadership and moving toward productive and less defensive reasoning.

With the relatively recent expansion of leadership thought into the global arena, we still largely see an absence of a systems perspective, and a field slow to open up to more economic, anthropological and political perspectives. But how long can this denial of the connection across disciplines be permitted? It is not as if leadership issues can forget how broad they are while being studied so narrowly.

Mendenhall raises this issue in his treatment of the scope of global leadership, citing a "lack of multidisciplinary thinking or linking, as leadership studies have been conducted in various disciplines with only scarce mutual benefit or bridging." [Mendenhall, et.al. 2008]

Not dealing with governmental and economic power and national politics while discussing leadership is akin to ignoring issues of climate when talking about the weather. "Science" may be rendered easier if "externalities" are vanquished from the discussion, but what sort of externally-valid insights can be gained from such a hermetically-sealed field of study?

If managers are concerned mainly with planning, organizing, directing and controlling and leaders something broader having to do with influencing values and inspiring a shared vision, then it makes sense the domestic leader would need to operate with domestic values and vision, whereas the global leader would need to ascertain and adapt to global values and vision.

"Global leaders are individuals who effect significant positive change in organizations by building communities through the development of trust and the arrangement of organizational structures and processes in a context involving multiple cross-boundary stakeholders, multiple sources of external cross-boundary authority, and multiple cultures under conditions of temporal, geographical and cultural complexity," (Mendenhall, et.al. 2008, p. 17).

The political environment within which leadership occurs is dynamic. For example, in the Middle East, many governments have been deposed by restless citizens, including the ongoing struggle in Libya. Organizational leaders operate in these unstable environments and this turmoil can surely not be irrelevant to the nature of that leadership. What type of government will result from political takeovers? It could range from a total democracy to a dictator that will be worse than the one they have thrown out. The results of conflicts in other Middle East countries are also unpredictable. Political, business and not-for-profit leadership continues in the midst of all this uncertainty and can never been sealed off from it.

Government leaders in Western Europe are also being challenged by their citizens. Financial crises in these countries may lead to changes in government. Leaders of NGOs or private companies will make few decisions not directly affected by these economic, political and

cultural realities, but if you read the leadership literature, you might not suspect that to be the case. The United States government goes through changes every two to four years that greatly impact business or NGO leadership. We've seen a Republican president with Democrat houses. Then, we elected a total Democrat government and now a Democrat president and Senate, and a Republican House of Representatives. An election in 2012 may lead to a totally different makeup of the United States political scene. Local politics in the United States will also change as elections are held every two to four years. The current economic upheaval around the globe is surely a different climate in which to be a leader than the one that existed, for example, in the 1990s.

While business organizations perform under the assumption that profit maximization is critical to their survival, they must become aware of the changes in natural resources that may help or hinder this goal. For example, new technology may help to drill for more oil, but are we sure that this drilling will be safe. As we use up some natural resources such as timber from forests, it will take many years to replace this timber. While each country wants its citizens to have a higher standard of living, managers much recognize the changes from global competition that will affect their own decision. For example, China emerging as a major consumer of oil will change the supply and price of oil for many countries. Leadership never operates outside the influence of this reality?

For-profit business leaders have to recognize that while their employees want higher wages and benefits, they must compete in a global economy where many workers are under paid and must work in substandard conditions. Change in these countries comes at a slow pace and leadership in more developed countries must be prepared to plan for this type of competition.

Humanity's behavior is also changing and affecting both the political and economic environments. While workers in developed nations have had a high standard of living for many years, workers in developing nations are now able to see and want the benefits of luxuries that other nations have. Leaders will have to deal with the reality that as their workers seek to maintain their wages and standard of living, there are also workers in other countries who are changing their standard of living and demanding an even higher one, so that whereas a more autocratic or even despotic form of leadership might have worked in developing countries before, such may no longer be the case.

Concern for the natural environment is widespread today. During the Industrial Revolution, less efficient usages of natural resources was of little concern to the general public. That attitude is different today and leadership will necessarily take into account such concern for the natural environment.

In the past leaders could become amoral and not be concerned with the ethics of running a business, but today's organizations are under much more public scrutiny than in bygone eras; prior to Enron, World Com, and other ethical disasters, leaders have to be not only financially scrupulous but morally so as well. The banking industry and housing bust are good examples of where greed has created great problems and demonstrate just one more constraint on the nature of modern leadership.

THE ESSENCE OF THE PROPOSED MODEL

This paper is intended to explain our belief that global leadership should encompass not only global economics, national and international politics, but also what we refer to as an anthropological perspective. To assert that a global leader should understand and operate from global values and vision is quite a claim, since values and vision often depend on where in the world you are located. In short, there may be no clear global consensus on values and vision for the future of our planet. However, some invariances do exist across corporations and governments; and furthermore, just as corporations and governments share certain values and vision, so too do most of the citizens of the globe, what we refer to as anthropological (human) values and vision.

Business or corporate values begin with the requirement to maximize profit. Furthermore, when the business or corporate community looks out across humanity they see producers and consumers, not merely as sentient beings with interests beyond the marketplace. The business community sees the earth's supply of natural resources as standing in reserve (Heidegger, 1962), there for the taking and effectively a natural supply of materials for their processes, rather than a globe of precious minerals, air, water, and vistas. "Everywhere everything is ordered to stand by, to be immediately at hand, indeed to stand there just so that it may be on call for a further ordering. Whatever is ordered about in this way has its own standing, namely standing in reserve (*Heidegger, 1962*)." In short, when those in the business community look out on the world, they only see it through an economic lens and every other perspective is blurred. "The corporation's legally defined mandate is to pursue relentlessly and without exception its own economic self-interest, regardless of the harmful consequences it might cause to others." (Bakan, 2004).

Governments share values and vision as well, to the extent that they see their people as clients or in the case of democracies, voters. They define natural resources as domestic or foreign, meaning they see whatever minerals, water, air, or other categories of resources as belonging to their nation and those in other lands as not belonging to them. Governments primarily focus on maintaining power over their people and their nation's influence in the community of nations.

On the other hand, anthropological or human values and vision cast people as sentient beings, natural resources as a means of supporting these and other sentient beings, that is other species; and the primary focus of these values is well-being or happiness.

Although corporate and governmental leaders are constrained to take the perspective of their roles, the most informed and ultimately successful among them will acknowledge and seek to include in their values the perspective that says all life forms should be supported in their endeavor to thrive. Anything other than this more magnanimous stance, is almost certain to lead to parasitical and even pathological behavior on the part of the leader and country or government with which they have been charged.

The current U.S. President Barack Obama said: "I always believe that ultimately, if people are paying attention, then we get good government and good leadership. And when we get lazy, as a democracy and civically start taking shortcuts, then it results in bad government and politics." Corporate leaders, it could be argued, often have more power than heads of state or

heads of even international agencies such as the IMF or World Bank; both within their borders and around the globe. In the United States, the recent Citizens United decision of the supreme court gave corporations unlimited opportunity to contribute to political campaigns to advance their interests, a right that not even individual citizens have. So to say that corporate or business leaders are not also "political leaders" would be disingenuous at best and naïve at worst.

Most national political systems have major barriers to entry so power is concentrated in the hands of a few and political leadership outside of the formal structure is limited to grassroots movements, NGOs or informal arrangements, ranging from open and scrupulous to quite the contrary. Well mobilized grassroots movements, NGOs or lobbying campaigns can affect tremendous change and the fact that corporate leadership is heavily involved, directly or indirectly; secretively or openly; in such campaigns should be acknowledged and accounted for in the academic literature.

While business leaders are active in national and international politics despite historical obstacles such as laws and constitutions, informational asymmetry, and other related factors, their role is considered indirect or ancillary. On occasion, however; as was the case with the BP oil spill in the U.S. gulf in 2010, corporate leadership comes directly under the control or influence of political leadership. The global political leader must be able to think and legislate not only in national terms, but also global; and just as importantly, so too must the global business leader. The realist's zero sum game logic must be subordinated to the idealist's views of cooperation and integration in both political and corporate global leadership.

While including political action and the research surrounding it in our models of business leadership is necessary it is not enough since a more apt model of global business leadership must also include global economics and ultimately, an anthropological perspective on international business affairs.

Moving on to the economic lens in relation to global leadership, it is important to remember Franklin D. Roosevelt's words, "True individual freedom cannot exist without economic security and independence. People who are hungry and out of a job are the stuff of which dictatorships are made." Trade and product development has become significantly more globalized in the recent decades, such that no country can be isolationist for fear of economic or political loss. Most corporations have factories located around the globe for cheaper access to resources, and many components of products are internationally created and assembled. This globalization phenomenon is inevitable (although its form is negotiable) and the belief that drives it is that economic advantages can be realized and the standard of life across the world can be improved.

While major institutions such as the World Trade Organization, International Monetary Fund, and World Bank all advocate the complete removal of trade barriers, especially in the developing world, more attention must be placed on the reduction of protectionist measures in the developed world (Chang, 2008). A major example of this is in agricultural subsidies. As the United States has long pursued a policy of strong agricultural subsidies, these same policies have had a devastating effect on the development of agriculture in the third world. As so many international institutions have argued vigorously for trade liberalization, it is clear that more must be done to liberalize the policies of the largest and most influential economies so that those

developing world may more easily and fairly experience the conditions by which to expand local agricultural capacity and thus self-sufficiency.

Just as the Neolithic Agricultural and Industrial Revolutions forever changed the destiny of humanity, so too has the modern version of globalization; redefining both human potential, international cooperation, and the further integrating the planet. While globalization has led predominately to gains for much of the world, there have been some serious losses and growing pains. What must be avoided is that the gains experienced by the workers of the developing world, which are only a fraction of the wages previously paid to their first world counter-parts, stagnating or even declining as profit margins are expanded. While the old model of organized labor is clearly facing serious challenges today, it is obvious that there is certainly still a demand for labor representation and "fair" conditions. The struggle between the emerging world and developed world's labor and the drive for higher profits will necessitate clear leadership with a global, rather than national, perspective in mind.

While the corporate model of leadership is important, this broader business model, to include politics and economics must also be developed; but it would be a mistake to stop there. The business leadership model needs to be broadened to cover all three perspectives: the political, the economic and the anthropological.

For example, as fuel costs increase and the developing world gains increasing demand for the same resources as the developed world, there will undoubtedly be demand-pull inflation. This means already stretched personal income will bring even less buying power. In order to maximize buying power, utility, and to minimize waste, local solutions like farmers markets and other similar programs and innovative local leadership will be the key to driving the positive change. The development of localized systems across the globe, though local in scope, can be often repeated and thus have a global effect.

Anthropologist Michael Schiffer said "Anthropology is the only discipline that can access evidence about the entire human experience on this planet." These words echo as the focus turns to the last of the component of the central model, the anthropological. As Dr. Schiffer's words suggest, anthropology, or the study of humanity itself, is the only science broad enough to fully encapsulate the scope of the material not directly covered by the political or economic perspectives

While political analysis can well explore the very human drive for power and the economics can evaluate the human impulse for wealth and both describe major means of social organization, it is anthropology that stands as the science with the means to fill in the gaps and add a more human emphasis rather than merely political power or economic wealth.

Anthropology is especially important in the discussion of global leadership since increasingly previously different cultures and societies are required to confront their differences. The study of business leadership cannot escape important questions such as gender discrepancy, racial discrimination, and religious intolerance; among other manifestations of inequity; and cannot leave those fields to those studying political or economic leadership. An anthropological perspective encompasses norms and institutions and shaping political and economic realities.

While political analysis aims toward power accumulation and maintenance and tends to focus on national action, the anthropological considers the quality of lives being lived in

societies and around the globe. The economic perspective focuses on wealth acquisition and retention especially in the "person" of the corporation. While political action and economic development might eventually end social improvement and justice, anthropology begins with these aims.

For a comprehensive global leadership model, the fundamental human drive for power and the derivative drive for money, must both be curtailed and balanced with equity and justice.

As the government power has decline in the past few decades relative to corporate power in the world, the economic perspective has come dominate public debate as well as business leadership research. The profit motive is one of the greatest forces in the world today. Just as government have no pre-defined lifespan, neither do corporations. Alone, the test of individual benefits outweighing individual loss is problematic when it is made part of a global model. Under an individual or institutional framework for global leadership, actions leading to public loss, such as is the case with air or water pollution, are not only justifiable but encouraged. This is why a more comprehensive view of global leadership is necessary. It is vital to fully understanding economic factors, examine political conditions and incorporate the broader anthropological goal of quality of life.

The anthropological serves as not merely another perspective, but the first among them as it is the guiding and central component. While the anthropological is vital, it is still crucial to recognize it as part of a larger model. Though the anthropological point of view is important, alone, it would ignore the pragmatic realities of humanity and the political and economic means by which humanity improves. Justice, power and economic security are all important drivers of human behavior.

All these perspectives should play a role in any global leadership model. The truly successful leader should strive to formulate and implement business strategies taking all three factors into account. Policy inconsistency, or disharmony, leads to wasted resources and social loss. This is not merely in the form of inefficient resources use or reduced profits, but also in the way of reduced happiness and social satisfaction.

In the end, this paper will discuss global leadership and offer a unique and emerging holistic mechanism to evaluate the emerging field, the political-economic-anthropological model. The three perspectives of the model will be discussed, how they are currently imperfectly connected, and how the central task of global leadership will be to seek harmony among these perspectives.

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HOLDING THE HELM: EXPLORING THE INFLUENCE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON GROUP CREATIVITY, AND THE MODERATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING CULTURE

Simone T. A. Phipps, Macon State College
Leon C. Prieto, Savannah State University
Satish Verma, Louisiana State University

ABSTRACT

This article will explore the moderating effects of organizational learning culture (OLC) on the relationship between transformational leadership (TFL) and group creativity (GC). Research has indicated some effect of TFL on creativity. However, there are empirical and theoretical reasons to believe that this effect may be intensified by an organizational culture that promotes continuous, valuable learning. The article will investigate various components of TFL, and offer propositions on their influence on group creativity, as well as the interaction between organizational learning culture and TFL that affects group creativity. A conceptual model and suggestions for future research in the field will also be provided.

Keywords: transformational leadership, group creativity, organizational learning culture

CORRESPONDENCE BIAS, SUSPICION AND INGRATIATION

Paula W. Potter, Western Kentucky University

ABSTRACT

"People care less about what others do than about why they do it" (Gilbert & Malone, 1995, p.21). It is not unreasonable to assume that we all try or sometimes struggle to make sense of others' behaviors. From a student's compliment about our class to baseball tickets given to us by a colleague; have we not all asked ourselves "why did that person do that?" Attribution theory explains how people attempt to understand why others do what they do by examining the person's dispositional tendencies and the contextual factors of the situation. Correspondence bias occurs when people attribute the target's behavior disproportionally to that person's unique disposition and pay less attention to the situational influences that may have affected the target. However, recent research suggests that when individuals have suspicions about a person's behavior, decisions regarding dispositions are suspended (Echebarria-Echabe, 2010; Fein, Hilton, & Miller, 1990). Additionally, other research implies that people may sometimes be more interested in learning about the situation rather than the actor (Krull, 1993). These findings may have important implications for results from a field study conducted to learn more about ingratiation as an influence tactic (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Research findings regarding ingratiation as an influence tactic have been inconclusive. It is expected that the use of ingratiation, which is the use of compliments or flattery, would increase positive regard and encourage cooperation. In general, research on influence tactics has traditionally been conducted to determine how often and what particular kinds of influence tactics are used in the workplace. This paper offers an antidote to the correspondence bias and may have implications for research conducted on influence tactics.

THE RELATIVE EFFECTS OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT BREACH

Bruce Teague, Eastern Washington University
K. Damon Aiken, Eastern Washington University
George Watson, Southern Illinois University, Edwardsville

ABSTRACT

This study explores the relative influence of direct versus indirect breach of psychological contract on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. As expected, both forms of psychological breach significantly explained variation in both dependent variables. Though both forms of psychological contract breach are significant in explaining variation in organizational commitment and job satisfaction, their importance is reversed. Thus, being perceived as keeping promises to your employees is more critical in explaining their self-reported commitment to the organization. However, keeping promises to customers proved to be more important in explaining job satisfaction.

Though it was our intent with this study to explore the relative influence of these two different breaches of psychological contract, we found this explanatory reversal to be surprising upon first review. With time to reflect upon this result, we suggest that it may be explained by the different causal pathways through which each type of perceived breach operates. If the employer keeps their promise to the customer, the customer is happier which increases the number of positive customer-employee interactions and decreases the number of negative customer-employee interactions. This increase in positive on-the-job interactions and corresponding decrease in negative on-the-job interactions should naturally enhance the job experience resulting in higher job satisfaction.

Similarly, if the employer keeps their promises to the employee, the employee is likely to experience more positively met work expectations and fewer negatively met work expectations. This should lead to an increased desire to stay with the current employer and conversely, a reduced desire to depart. One might also view this as increasing the risk of a less-positive work situation should one change jobs, thus increasing the perceived risk associated with job change.

When both psychological contract pathways are considered, it makes sense that keeping promises to customers, in the absence of keeping promises to employees would still positively enhance the work environment but not the desire to stay with the employer (assuming the employee is there for practical purposes, rather than just experience). Similarly, keeping promises to employees would deal with the practical side of the implied work contract and perhaps make the employee more interested in staying, but would not necessarily enhance the work environment in the absence of keeping promises to the customer.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

We view this work as a starting point to a new stream in the psychological contracting literature. The results of this study indicate that both direct and indirect psychological contract breach have attitudinal consequences for employees. While both independent measures (i.e., direct and indirect psychological contracting) explained variation in our dependent variables (i.e., organizational commitment and job satisfaction), the relative importance differed dramatically. Breach of the direct psychological contract was much more important in explaining employee commitment to the organization. Breach of the indirect psychological contract proved more valuable in explaining employee job satisfaction.

Based upon these results, we believe that the relative influence of direct versus indirect contracting needs further study using other employee related outcome variables. Similarly, the results cause us to wonder what the relative influence of direct versus indirect psychological contract breach has on the perceived experience of the customer.

Additionally, the Robinson and Morrison models (1997, 2000) provide a rich theoretical platform upon which to generate testable hypotheses related to the influence and causal action of indirect versus direct psychological contract breach.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

For practitioners, our results indicate the importance of understanding the indirect influences of failing to meet or exceed the expectations of employees and customers. There is spillover between these violations—at least from the customer to the employee (though it is reasonable to expect spillover in the opposite direction, as well).

The psychological contract represents expectations that have been established either explicitly or implicitly in the mind of employee and customer. Additionally, the employee perceives a set of explicit and implicit expectations between organization and customer. Breaching the psychological contract formed between the organization and the employee will decrease their commitment to the organization, and likely result in increased turnover if the pattern is pervasive. Breaching the psychological contract with the customer will likely result in an increase in the number of unpleasant interactions experienced by the employee, resulting in decreased job satisfaction.

This conclusion places an onus on organizations and their agents to be aware of the expectations they are creating with both customer and employee. Managing the perception of promises made and kept benefits the organization and the employee.

CONCLUSION

To date, this study represents the first explicit attempt to examine the relative influence of direct versus indirect breach of psychological contract. Our findings demonstrate that both forms of breach have consequences for employee commitment to the organization and employee job satisfaction. However, we find that while breach of the direct psychological contract is more

pertinent to explaining variation in employee reported commitment to the organization, it is breach of the indirect psychological contract that is more important when explaining variation in reported job satisfaction.