Volume 18, Number 2 ISSN 2150-5187

Allied Academies International Conference

San Antonio, Texas
October 9-12, 2013

Academy of Organizational Culture, Communication and Conflict

PROCEEDINGS

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION IN THE MODERN WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Countless studies have been conducted examining the effects of job satisfaction on important workplace attitudes and behaviors. There have been an equal number of studies concerning the effects of leadership style on employee behaviors, and numerous attempts to correlate the two from various sides and angles. It has been broadly determined that management roles have implications on employee job satisfaction and workplace behaviors. Also, there have been several studies concerning the role of gender on leadership style and employee job satisfaction. However, the results of these past studies are somewhat inconsistent, so the focus of this paper is to provide a review and investigation of past research findings with the goal of shedding some light on the relationship between these variables in today's workplace.
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INTRODUCTION

Managers play a pivotal role in affecting employee job satisfaction and success. It has been suggested that men and women have varying preferences for their manager's gender (Preko, 2012). For example, past studies have provided evidence to support that males are more critical of females in leadership roles (Sinclair and Kunda, 2000; Sheppard and Aquino, 2013). Other research shows that the evaluations of female leaders are more negative even if they exhibit masculine leadership characteristics (Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992; Schieman and McMullen, 2008). In fact, the past leadership "prototype" in the U.S. tended to include male-oriented traits such as being "aggressive, objective, dominant, competitive, and decisive" (Padilla, 2006). Although past leadership prototypes tended to include traits more associated with males than females, there appears to be a evolution taking place in the 21st century workplace caused, in part, by changes in workplace demographics. In fact, some recent research suggests that many employees are beginning to prefer traits normally associated with female leaders (Girlando and Eduljee, 2010). Our modern-day workplace may be becoming more feminine in its leadership preferences (Grissom, Nicholson-Crotty, and Keiser, 2012).

Since the late 1980's, women have been a permanent fixture in workplace management in the U.S. In 2010, the U.S. Labor Department reported that 58.6 % of all women 16 years and over, or about 72 million females, were counted in the labor force. Of that 72 million, about

40% were either in managerial or professional occupations (U.S. Department of Labor Statistics, 2011). The changes to workforce demographics are inescapable and, for that reason, there have been a myriad of studies comparing the differences in male and female leadership over the past 30 years.

It has been argued by several organizational behavior researchers that the influx of "Generation Y" employees will change the culture and attitudes in the 21st century workplace, such that the workplace will become more female-oriented in its cultural characteristics and leadership traits -- emphasizing teamwork, empathy, work-life balance, and nurturing relationships. The workplace continues to change, and the need for current research to address these changes is constant. The purpose of this paper is to investigate current research in this area to determine if gender role perceptions and leadership styles are changing in light of the cultural shifts that we are beginning to see in the modern-day workplace. This paper will review past research to: (1) determine if there are certain leadership styles that are related to leader gender, and (2) investigate the link between leader gender and employee job satisfaction.

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH LITERATURE

Differences in Leadership Styles Between Men and Women

In earlier studies, researchers asserted there were no differences in leadership styles of men and women (Posner and Munson, 1979; Powell, 1990). More recently, however, there has been a shift to label the different characteristics of leadership as masculine or feminine, allowing both men and women to exhibit characteristics of either gender (Burke and Collins, 2001; Hopkins, 2002). In the past, there has been a general consensus among researchers that in the U.S. culture the stereotypical masculine approach has been idealized as the more successful leadership style. A masculine style of leadership exemplifies a more rigid approach that is productivity-driven and focuses on the end result. Hasan et al. (2011) claimed that "men are more argumentative, give their opinions and don't share any personal information" (p. 317). They continue to express that men are more direct in decision-making and are, in essence, autocratic taking little consideration for employee's opinions.

In their 1990 meta-analysis, Eagly and Johnson compiled 144 studies on leadership style in an attempt to determine if gender was a factor in defining leadership characteristics. Their research sought to match the varying study outcomes to specific leadership styles. They focused on behavioral leadership styles refined by research at Ohio State and the University of Michigan that determined there are two types of leaders: "task-oriented" and interpersonal (or "relationship-oriented"). They also used leadership research refined by Vroom and Yetton (1973) to establish the second set of leadership styles: "Autocratic" and "Democratic." Their analysis found that a leader's context dictated the type of leadership style he/she exhibited. If a leader was in a role that was congruent with his or her gender, they were more likely to exhibit task-oriented leadership, i.e., males in a masculine role and females in a feminine role (Eagly and Johnson 1990). These findings may suggest that "being out-of-role in gender-relevant terms has its costs for leaders in terms of some decline in their tendency to organize activities to accomplish relevant tasks" (Eagly and Johnson, 1990, p.248). It also suggests that a leader acting in an out-of-context gender role may be forced to validate decisions or seek input from employees more often, creating a need for an interpersonal style of leadership and giving the impression of democracy. Emphasizing the limitations of their data, Eagly and Johnson also explained that female leadership was more consistently democratic across all environments and men more autocratic. Their findings support that leaders, both male and female, in situations where there is readily identifiable value incongruence will seek input from employees in order to better understand the context of the organization mission. This value incongruence may, to some extent, support the more democratic style exhibited by female leaders. It is important to note that at the time of this study (1990), female managers were still considered token in many industries. Female leaders were many times treading uncharted waters and, in consideration of their newness and the stress on employees created by their positions, many chose to accommodate their leadership styles for everyone involved.

The male approach has been perceived as the more successful style of leadership in most studies and, in comparison to the female approach, is more readily received as the prototype or standard for effective management (Geddes, 2001). This dominant perception of successful male leadership was clarified by Hasan et al. (2011) when they explained that the feminine style is less aggressive and more nurturing. Women typically offer support for employees, avoid conflict by cooperative talking, and are flexible (Hasan et al., 2011). The stereotypical woman is now finding herself in a conundrum. She can approach her employees as a nurturing, democratic leader and find a way to earn their respect for her leadership or adopt a more masculine approach in order to be perceived as a more authoritative figure that exemplifies control.

If one accepts the assertion that masculine leadership is preferred over feminine leadership, one would question if this preference would move women to lead with a more masculine approach in order to be more openly received as effective managers. However, there is some empirical evidence suggesting that an androgynous approach of a female leading with a masculine style can have negative effects on the perceptions of subordinates and could be a less effective leadership approach (Geddes, 2001). In fact, when observed in androgynous form, feminine traits might be more desirable than the masculine traits in today's workplace (Geddes, 2001). Schieman and McMullen (2008) followed up this research with a study of various superior-subordinate gender dyads, which provided further proof that women who are forced to act in more masculine roles or scenarios are often at a disadvantage. The study supported the notion that women filling masculine roles or taking on masculine attributes are likely to be rated lower in effectiveness and competence. Thus, it is questionable if masculine leadership traits are as desired as many previous studies have suggested.

With consideration for varying leadership styles, one would assume that the opinions of subordinates vary in terms of their preferences of supervisor leadership style and abilities. It has been suggested that men and women have varying preferences for their manager's gender (Preko, 2012). There are a variety of influences to consider that one's gender and/or leadership style has on a manager's effectiveness, including communication style, persuasion ability, and trustworthiness. Interestingly, there has been some evolution in employee's opinions on the more successful gender leadership stereotype (Grissom, 2012). In 1973, Schein's research showed that both men and women preferred male characteristics in leadership. About 15 years later, Schein teamed up with Brenner and Tomkiewicz who found that women's opinion on the superiority of male leadership waned; however, men's opinions appeared to remained stable across time (Grissom et al., 2012, p. 655).

The Relationship Between Supervisor Gender and Job Satisfaction

A lesser-discussed topic includes that of the relationship between supervisor gender and employee job satisfaction. While there are vast studies concerning employee job satisfaction, less is known of the effects of gender on the individual level of interaction that occurs between a leader and a member. Employee job satisfaction is important because it can impact several important work-related attitudes and behaviors. Over the last five decades or so, thousands of studies have shown that job satisfaction affects such work behaviors as organizational citizenship behaviors (going above and beyond the job description), counterproductive work behaviors, turnover, absenteeism, other withdrawal behaviors (Spector, 1997). It has also been correlated with customer satisfaction and loyalty, so it has a definite impact on a firm's operating costs and bottom-line (Snipes, 2005). Few studies have found a significant direct correlation between leader gender and subordinate job satisfaction. The relationship between job satisfaction and leader gender appears to be more complicated (Ashmore and Del Boca, 1986; Grissom et al., 2012).

Gender-role spillover can also affect the attitudes of organization members towards female managers. In 1990, Eagly and Johnson claimed that organization members are more likely to have negative attitudes toward female managers because they are "reflecting the subordinate status of women in the society" (p. 235). These attitudes can lead to a less supportive environment for female managers because subordinates might consider a female supervisor less qualified than her male counterpart or subordinates might be reluctant to accept a female manager because they believe she is less qualified for leadership or negatively affects morale. Many times these negative attitudes translate to compensation differences. Despite occupying the same organizational roles, males may benefit from seniority, higher salary, availability of mentors and collegial support (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). This highlights a cycle of self-fulfilling prophecies. If a woman does the same work equally well as a male counterpart, but it not compensated in equal ways, then subordinates might naturally assume there is a negative reason for her lack of compensation. This assumption validates negative attitudes about female qualifications for leadership that leads to insubordinate behaviors by or possibly conflict with employees. The conflict creates a perception that she is less effective as a manager and should therefore be compensated less. It is a very difficult cycle from which women are forced to free themselves, but if they succeed it might lead to gender-compensation nirvana. This negative environment might be exacerbated if the female is considered a *token* leader because she is the lone female leader or one of very few female leaders. Evidence also suggests that highly successful women are seen as threats to more junior female employee's self-esteem and junior employees are more likely to denigrate their more successful counterparts in order to inflate their own perception of their competence. Interestingly, men are more likely to disparage highly successful women by claiming they challenge female gender norms (Sheppard and Aquino, 2013). The duality of negative female-on-female perceptions further validates the male negative perception of females and perpetuates biases in the workplace.

The Impact of Generation Y on Workplace Culture and Leadership Style

Recent research on cultural differences among college students supports the notion of a cultural shift (Girlando and Eduljee, 2010). A 2010 study of 246 college students measured Hofstede's (1980) five cultural dimensions, one of which is a dimension called "masculinity/femininity." Masculine cultures include assertive behaviors such as dominance, freedom on the job, competition and advancement, whereas "Feminine" cultures include nurturing traits such as interpersonal relationships, relationships with co-workers, and the social aspects of the job (Girlando and Eduljee, 2010). Hofstede asserted that these cultural dimensions are stable constructs that change very little over time. However, the results of the 2010 study indicated a change in the masculinity/femininity dimension among young people. The researchers concluded that, counter to Hofstede's assertion that these cultural dimensions are stable across time, U.S. students exhibit lower levels of "Masculinity" than Hofstede's original studies would indicate. The researchers pointed out that this cultural dimension may be malleable and "a function of the times" (Girlando and Eduljee, 2010, p. 282). Given that the new generation of employees appears to be leaning more towards female-oriented cultural environments than past generations, organizations will need to adapt their management approaches to be successful in leading employees in the future. What defines an effective manager perpetually changes as our work culture changes and as the model for business success changes.

CONCLUSION AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Grisoni and Beeby (2007) pointed out that, “shared assumptions about effective leadership behavior continue to limit women’s access to senior positions of power and authority” (p. 195). Organizational research to-date supports homogenizing gender leadership traits -- men are authoritative and task-oriented, and women are democratic and interpersonal -- and drive development of leadership theory. Unfortunately, the research to support or refute the prevailing views on gender leadership styles is conflicting, poorly gathered, and oftentimes defines gender leadership differently: demographics versus behavioral traits. Billing and Alvesson (2000) astutely point out that studies that result in little or no gender leadership differences “say more about the situations than the persons” (p. 149). It is increasingly apparent that group’s perception of the female role may be more influential on the female leader than her physical gender.

An example of the perceptions that can surround a powerful female is evidenced by the treatment of Marissa Mayer, Yahoo! CEO, who, while five months pregnant, took over as the company’s lead executive in the summer of 2012. In order to breathe life into the stumbling technology company, she announced internally that employees were no longer authorized to telecommute. Someone leaked the memo to the press and the backlash was immediate. Ms. Mayer was painted as manipulative and embodying a culture of inhibiting women's progress. An email sent to technology Kara Swisher of AllThingsD read, "when a working mother is standing behind this, you know we are a long way from a culture that will honor the thankless sacrifices that women too often make" (Guynn, 2013). An e-mail sent to technology blogger Kara Swisher of AllThingD read, "when a working mother is standing behind this, you know we are a long way from a culture that will honor the thankless sacifices that women too often make" (Guynn, 2013). Forbes staff writer Jenna Goudreau also issued a response that included "Back to the Stone Age" in the title (2013). Ms. Mayer has since claimed to be well aware of what is said about her, but insists that her stance is correct and she doesn't care what others have to say about her decisions if the business is exceeding objectives (Krasny, 2013). Although there are other factors at play in the backlash concerning telecommuting, the negativity towards Ms. Mayer's gender, her treatment by her employees and media, and her subsequent response all support the need to understand the origins of negative perceptions of women in the workplace.

Considerations for future research should include the study of the evolution of the work environment and the ways work environments are impacted by changing gender norms as societal views on all leadership changes. There is a possibility that much of the data collected prior to the 1990's is skewed because females were still relatively new to leader roles in business organizations and may have been accommodating due to their token stature. Therefore, new research should attempt to compare gender leadership differences in industries with substantial histories of female leadership and those with emerging female leadership.

This research substantiates the claim that the landscape of work environments will continue to change as they have for the last half-century. Thus, it is important to recognize the need for continual research into the relationships, stereotypes, fundamental organizational values, and leadership roles within an organization as these topics will perpetually evolve for years to come.

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INTERACTIONAL JUSTICE DIMENSIONS AND ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST: AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE MODERATING EFFECTS OF STRESS AND A THREE-WAY INTERACTON

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ABSTRACT

The three purposes of this study are: 1) to lend support to the current justice and trust literatures by determining whether interactional justice dimensions - namely interpersonal and informational justice - exerted any independent effects on employee perceptions of trust. 2) to extend the justice and trust literatures by examining levels of stress as moderators for the effects of justice measures on trust. 3) to provide exploration into the boundary conditions of those moderating effects in the form of a three-way interactions. The results indicate that interpersonal justice was positively and significantly related to organizational trust. However, the direct effect of informational justice on trust was not significant. Support for stress directly moderating these two relationships was not found in a simple moderated relationship. However, support for stress as a moderator was discovered in the form of a three-way interaction. More specifically, that the positive relationship between interpersonal justice and trust was indeed moderated by stress but only under high informational justice conditions

IS THERE A "GLASS CLIFF?": EXAMINING THE PHENOMENON USING BOARD OF DIRECTOR APPOINTMENTS IN CANADA

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INTRODUCTION

Researchers have been examining barriers and challenges for females in leadership positions from a variety of perspectives since 1979 when the ‘glass ceiling’ concept was first used. More recently, some researchers have found evidence of another phenomenon coined the ‘glass cliff’ (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). The glass cliff suggests that females are more likely than males to hold or be appointed to senior positions in organizations that are in crisis. These positions are considered to be "precarious," and, therefore, are associated with a greater risk of failure.

Although Ryan and Haslam (2005, 2007) make a persuasive argument to support the glass cliff concept, the empirical support for such a conclusion is not yet rich or compelling; there is simply an insufficient body of evidence available. In fact, some researchers testing for the phenomenon have produced counter results (e.g.: Adams et al., 2009). In addition, the concept that females are breaking through cracks in the glass ceiling only to be placed on "glass cliffs" with significant barriers to success has drawn attention from the popular press (Judge, 2003). These practitioner-oriented stories have given the concept significant exposure, but the support for such a conclusion appears to be lacking. While it seems apparent that females are seriously under-represented in executive positions around the globe this, in itself, does not mean there is a glass cliff. While the suggestion of a glass cliff has gained some following in the popular press, empirical testing and support for this concept lags.

The purpose of this study is to further examine the glass cliff phenomenon in a Canadian context. The aims of this study are twofold. First, this research attempts to replicate the Ryan and Haslam (2005) study to seek evidence of a glass cliff in Canadian board appointments using security return performance for 25-months around the board appointment. For publicly-traded companies, security returns capture the market's view of company performance. Second, this study aims to extend the analysis by using excess as well as raw return data around the date of the board appointment. While Ryan and Haslam (2005) only use raw security returns, excess returns are more informative because they remove the basic market movement from the analysis and provides a more sensitive test for market reaction to a company-specific event. Section 2 provides a review of the relevant literature, while Section 3 describes the methodology. Section 4 provides the results, while the final section discusses the limitations of the study, considers future research directions, and concludes the paper.

METHODOLOGY

This study considers the appointments of females to the board of directors of the top 100 Canadian companies as ranked by market capitalization for 2006 and 2008. Board appointees were used as Broome and Krawiec (2008) report that these appointments send signals to shareholders and others, and that the stock market reacts to the appointments. CEO appointments were not used as the sample size would have been extremely small. To identify the Top 100 companies that made appointments to their board of directors during 2006 and 2008, company regulatory filing on SEDAR or company websites were used. The company name, name and gender of each appointee, the appointment date, the rank of the company in the top 100, and the industry sector of the company were collected. (Note that no database was available that provided this data, so the sample was hand collected.) Female appointees were then separated and became part 1 of the sample used for the study. A control sample of male board appointees, from the top 100 companies in the same industry (or as close as could be found) in a similar time frame was also collected, and became part 2 of the sample. This was done for both years. The final sample consisted of 19 matched board appointments (38 total appointments) for 2006, and 12 matched appointments (24 total appointments) for 2008.

To evaluate the impact of the appointment on the company's common share price, an event study methodology is used. In this case, the impact the appointment of a new board member had on the stock market performance of the company is examined. Returns in the month of the appointment, as well as for 12 months on either side of the appointment are used. In this way, the immediate impact of the appointment (month 0) can be observed, as well as in the pre- and post-appointment period. With this method it is possible to observe whether an appointment is made after positive (negative) market performance, and market performance in the month of and after the appointment.

Two data sets for each year were generated, one for female appointees, another for the matched sample of male appointees. Raw returns and excess returns were then calculated for each month in the 25-month study period. With each month's raw and excess return calculated, a cumulative return for both the raw and excess returns were calculated for the period prior to the appointment (months -12 to -1) and subsequent (months +1 to +12). The month of the appointment (the event month) was considered separately.

HYPOTHESES

The cumulative raw returns (CRR), cumulative excess returns (CER), and return for the month of the announcement (month 0) are the main focus of this study. To see if the differences in returns between the matched samples are significant, t-tests were conducted. Based on the literature, the following three hypotheses are tested:

H1 *The CRR and CER for companies that appoint females to the board of directors, are lower than for companies that appoint males to the board in the 12 month period prior to the appointment.*

H2 *The average raw and excess monthly stock market returns in the appointment month (month 0) are negative (or more negative) for female appointees due to the increased level of scrutiny and scepticism that female appointments seem to attract.*

H3 *The CRR and CER for companies that appoint females to the board of directors, are no different than for companies that appoint males to the board in the 12 month period following to the appointment.*

RESULTS

In 2006 and 2008, respectively 19 and 12 female board appointments were included in the final sample. A matching sample of male appointees was also collected. Then average raw and excess returns for each of the samples for each of the 25-months were calculated. This resulted in 100 monthly raw and excess returns; 25 for each of the female and male appointees for two years, or 200 returns in total. To increase the sample size, the two years were also combined resulting in another 25 raw and excess returns for both the male and female appointees. So, in total, 150 average monthly raw and excess returns were available, or 300 returns overall. (Note that this data is not included in the paper, but is available from the authors on request.)

In addition, the average cumulative raw returns (CRR) and average cumulative excess returns (CER) for the pre-appointment period (months -12 to -1) and post appointment period (months +1 to +12) for the male and female appointments were calculated. This was done for 2006, 2008, and for both years combined. These results, together with the average returns for the appointment period (month 0), are provided in Table 1. The Table includes six average returns for each of the male and female appointees for each year and combined years, or 36 overall. So, in total, 336 average returns are available to test for reaction to the appointment of board members. To determine whether any of these numerous returns are significant, four types of t-test analyses were used.

The results indicate that all three hypotheses that are based on the literature can be rejected; companies appointing females to their boards exhibit superior stock market performance in the pre-appointment (months -12 to -1) period, and the appointment period (month 0). These findings are counter to results reported by Ryan and Haslam (2005), and inconsistent with the concept of a glass cliff. It appears that women appointments are greeted positively by the market, and also follow a period of relatively good performance. In the post-appointment (months +1 to +12) period, companies appointing males to their boards exhibit superior stock market performance. This result is consistent to the original Judge (2003) contention that companies with all male boards tend to perform better than those with females on the board, but inconsistent with the theory of a glass cliff.

CONCLUSION

This study tested whether differences exist in security market performance for companies that announce the appointment of a female versus a male board member. The motivation for the study was the work of Ryan and Haslam (2005) who reported that females tend to be appointed to leadership positions when company performance is poor. Accordingly, these positions tend to be more risky and precarious. The relevant population considered was the top 100 Canadian companies as determined by Canadian Business in the years 2006 and 2008. A matched sample methodology was used whereby a female board appointment in a given year was matched with a male board appointment in the same industry at about the same time of the year.

Table 1
Raw and Excess Returns For the Pre-Appointment,
Appointment, and Post- Appointment for
Male and Female Board Members in 2006 and 2008

2006	Male Appointees	Female Appointees	T-test of difference
Period -12 to -1			
Raw Returns	9.44% (1.13)	17.52% (2.36)*	-0.72
Excess Returns	1.29% (0.19)	3.50% (0.62)	-0.25
Month 0			
Raw Returns	-0.83% (-0.38)	2.66% (1.44)	-1.21
Excess Returns	-1.34% (-0.67)	3.60% (2.09)*	-1.86**
Period + 1 to +12			
Raw Returns	9.70% (1.32)	3.68% (0.55)	0.61
Excess Returns	2.15% (0.33)	-7.99% (-1.52)	1.21

2008	Male Appointees	Female Appointees	T-test of difference
Period -12 to -1			
Raw Returns	-12.39% (-1.14)	-3.51% (-0.49)	-0.68
Excess Returns	-2.19% (-0.23)	0.05% (-0.01)	-0.19
Month 0			
Raw Returns	3.04% (1.63)	-1.31% (-0.35)	-0.42
Excess Returns	-3.28% (-1.45)	-2.77% (-0.77)	-0.12
Period + 1 to +12			
Raw Returns	-7.83% (-0.80)	-9.45 (-0.54)	0.08
Excess Returns	16.37% (1.88)**	14.21% (0.80)	0.11

2006 & 2008	Male Appointees	Female Appointees	T-test of difference
Period -12 to -1			
Raw Returns	0.99% (0.15)	9.38% (1.68)**	-0.95
Excess Returns	-0.06% (-0.01)	2.17% (0.48)	-0.31
Month 0			
Raw Returns	-1.68% (-1.11)	1.12% (0.62)	-1.18
Excess Returns	-2.09% (-1.40)	1.13% (0.63)	-1.38
Period + 1 to +12			
Raw Returns	2.91% (0.49)	-1.40% (-0.18)	0.44
Excess Returns	7.65% (1.44)	0.61% (0.08)	0.75

Notes: The sample size is 19 matched appointments in 2006, and 12 in 2008. The combined results are for 31 matched appointments.
* The return is significant at the 95% confidence interval; ** The return is significant at the 90% confidence interval

Based on a matched sample of 31 board appointments for 46 Canadian companies in 2006 and 2008, this paper reports that there were no significant difference in security return performance in either the month of the appointment, the 12 months previous to the month of the appointment (period -12 to -1), or in the period subsequent to the appointment (months +1 to +12). These insignificant findings are not affected if raw or excess returns are used, for each of the years, and for the total sample of all appointments for the two years. Therefore, the hypotheses for this study are not supported.

This finding is counter to Ryan and Haslam's (2005) study which reported that females, in contrast to males, were appointed to boards after a period of relative company underperformance. This finding is also slightly different than Adams et al. (2009), who focused on 48 female CEO appointments across 13 years using two control groups of male CEO appointees, and three measures of stock price performance. They concluded that the females were appointed CEO's of companies that had superior stock market performance prior to the appointment than the male appointees. They concluded that" “female and men appointed to the CEO position at US firms are on a level playing field” (Adams et al., 2009, p.10). This is consistent with the finding in the current study where little difference is observed in market performance for the board appointees.

In conclusion, while females may face many challenges in business, this study does not provide evidence of a trend of placing females in precarious leadership positions. If the glass cliff exists, it is important to understand how it impacts the choices of females seeking leadership positions and to explore how females feel about taking these precarious leadership positions - do they take on these positions because they see no alternate route through the glass ceiling? Although incremental, the increasing number of females in the board room is a positive development. However, if advancement to more precarious or risky positions is the only option, then females must understand the potential career impacts as a result of assuming such positions.

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SUSTAINABILITY PROGRAM LEADERSHIP FOR HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PROFESSIONALS: A COMPETENCY MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Human Resources Development (HRD) professionals are uniquely positioned to play a strategic role in advancing sustainability programs in organizations. However, research shows that human resources plays a supportive role, if any role at all, in sustainability initiatives. I propose that by identifying key competencies for sustainability program leadership, a model can provide the foundation for future engagement of HRD professionals in such endeavors. To create the model, I conducted a literature review and synthesized the information into a Four Critical Factor model.

My paper focuses on the following research questions:

(1) What are the sustainability leadership competencies required of employees to prepare them for leadership roles in organizations with sustainable development as a business strategy?

(2) What are emerging roles and challenges for human resource development professionals in leading the "people-side" of sustainable development efforts within organizations with sustainable development as a business strategy?

ENTITLEMENT & ETHICS IN CHINA, GHANA, SAUDI ARABIA, TURKEY, THE USA, & VIETNAM

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ABSTRACT

In the current paper we examine the constructs of entitlement and ethics within a range of countries including China, Ghana, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, the USA, and Vietnam. We find differences in terms of whether assessments are done in rural, suburbs, or urban areas – with larger variations within the countries than between the countries. We do however find that as one's sense of entitlement increases that the behaviors which would generally be deemed unethical tend to increase. Suggestions for future research are provided.

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IMPACTS OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT INNOVATIONS ON PRODUCTIVITY AND EFFECTIVENESS IN A NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to conduct an empirical study on how human resources management (HRM) can positively affect productivity and effectiveness, while investing in employee health and wellness, lowering employee turnover, implementing technology, and maintaining autonomy. Various research has been done on productivity and effectiveness in the work place, but no prior studies have investigated the impacts of HRM innovations on productivity and effectiveness in a non-profit organization. This paper will fill in the gap in the HRM literature involving productivity and effectiveness. A survey of employees in the non-profit organization was conducted to collect sample data by the means of a questionnaire. A multivariate statistical analysis was performed to develop a regression model on productivity and effectiveness. Results have proven that there is a statistical significance in the overall model of productivity and effectiveness. The results have also shown that autonomy, technology, and health and wellness are factors in the relationship to employee productivity and effectiveness.

Keywords: Autonomy, Technology, Turnover, Health and Wellness

ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT AND IMPACT ON EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT IN UNIVERSITY OF ABUJA.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigates the prevailing organizational behavioural components of the management of University of Abuja and the impact this has on the performance of employees in the institution.

The study models a set of factors that have a causal relationship with performance; the independent variable being the various components of the organizational climate including academic culture, operational infrastructure, motivational incentives, work environment among others. While employee commitment, a derivative of organizational climate is manifest in job satisfaction, high morale, cooperativeness, punctuality and effectiveness.

Questionnaires were used to source primary data using the Likert scale method. A sample of three hundred and thirty seven (337) employees was selected from a total University staff population of two thousand one hundred and sixty five (2165) using the Bowley sampling technique. The statistical Programming for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze data towards deriving indices used in testing formulated data.

The research findings revealed a state of inadequacy of organizational climate components which hampers the effectiveness of employee efforts. Recommendations were made which includes the provision of organizational infrastructure (offices, classrooms, teaching aids and (so on). Research and development should equally be financed to ensure currency of knowledge and sufficient capacity building.

KEYWORDS: ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOUR, ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE, EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT

CORPORATE CULTURE AND PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the linkage between corporate culture and performance. Corporate culture and performance are defined, factors that impact the formation of organizational culture are examined, types of organizational culture are identified, and the necessity of organizational cultures to adapt to their environments is discussed. Measures of performance are noted and relationships to organizational culture are explored. Finally, implications and directions for future research are presented.

POLITICS IN THE WORKPLACE: AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER, PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS, AND JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

Most of the past research in the organizational behavior literature has found that employees generally perceive workplace politics in negative terms. However, there are differences in the way that employee view and react to organizational politics that are based on individual employee differences (demographics and personality) and on the objective(s) of the political behavior. Employee job satisfaction is an important employee attitude and it is one of the most studied variables in the organizational behavior literature. It is an important work attitude because it has been correlated with so many important work behaviors. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between employee gender, perceived organizational politics, and job satisfaction. We will test a model of hypothesized relationships based on past research in this area with the goal of shedding some light on this topic. It is hoped that this study will provide managers with recommendations on managing political behaviors within the workplace to increase productivity and ensure continued employee satisfaction and loyalty.
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INTRODUCTION

Politics is an inevitable phenomenon within any group and workplace politics is a reality of organizational life. Most people perceive politics in a negative light -- as having as its main objective the protection and enhancement of individual self-interests (Bodia and Danish, 2009). Much of the research on workplace politics in the organizational behavior literature has found that employees generally perceive workplace politics in negative terms. In fact, prior research has found a negative correlation between perceived organizational politics and important work attitudes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement, and a positive correlation with negative behaviors such as aggression and turnover intentions (Mahood and Rizwan, 2009; Eran, 2002). However, there are differences in the way that individual employees view and react to organizational politics that are based on employee differences (demographics and personality) and on the objective(s) of the political behavior. For example, recent research has shown that employees may view political behaviors that are designed to foster cooperation and teamwork in a more positive light than those political behaviors that are perceived mainly self-serving (Sonaike, 2013). Other research has shown that organizational politics is perceived more negatively when the distribution of workplace outcomes was unfair (Harris, Andrews, and Kacmar, 2007). Additionally, some research indicates that gender differences exists: males may respond differently than females to workplace politics. This indicates that there are some individual variables that account for the differences in reactions to organizational politics.

Employee job satisfaction is one of the most studied variables in the organizational behavior literature. It is an important work attitude because it has been correlated with so many important work behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (i.e., going above and beyond the job description to ensure the effective functioning of the organization), job involvement, job engagement, absenteeism and turnover. Research has also shown that job dissatisfaction can increase the incidences of deviant and counterproductive work behaviors. Furthermore, job satisfaction has been linked to customer satisfaction and loyalty, so it has a definite impact on the firm's operating costs and long-term market success (Snipes, Oswald LaTour, and Armenakis, 2005).

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between employee gender, perceived organizational politics, and job satisfaction. We will test a model of hypothesized relationships based on past research in this area with the goal of shedding some light on this important topic. It is hoped that this study will provide managers with recommendations on managing political behaviors within the workplace to increase productivity and ensure continued employee satisfaction and loyalty.

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LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS: A PLACEBO EFFECT OR AN INDUCTIVE PHENOMENON FOR ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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ABSTRACT

In this article, the researchers explore the relationship between the three types of commitment i.e. affective, continuance and normative and the seven components of learning organization. The aim of the study is to examine the effect of learning organization and its impact on improving employee's attachment to organization. Survey was distributed and collected from 150 employees working in small and medium Lebanese companies. The statistical analysis shows that there is a positive correlation between the seven components of learning organization and employees' commitment.
Keywords: *Affective Commitment, Continuance Commitment, normative Commitment, seven components of Learning Organization*

INTRODUCTION

For the past decades, and following epidemic economic crises, organizations were forced to undertake drastic organizational restructuring and job reengineering to survive in competitive markets. This ultimately dwindled employees' loyalty towards the companies in which they operate, caused amplified levels of job insecurity, and rendered lack of commitment a prevalent phenomenon.

Intense research efforts have been exerted in the study of organizational commitment holistically (see for example: Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, Kanchana & Panchanatham, 2012). Similar to various constructs in the world of organizational psychology, researchers tackled commitment through a conceptualized framework and examined its variable through different medleys. It has been linked to job satisfaction, retention, turnover, performance, organizational climate…

Recently, Learning organizations have been hailed as a pillar in improving employees' learning and development through adopting continuous learning techniques. Studies have positively linked this concept to motivation, empowerment, commitment, job satisfaction and lower turnover (see for example: Egan et al., 2004, Marsick and Watkins, 2003, Cullen, 1999; Otala, 1995). A research by Tseng (2010) has indicated a relationship between organizational commitment and learning organization in general.

This study intends to further this relationship by empirically assessing the relationship between the three types of commitment (i.e. affective, normative and continuous) and each of the seven elements of learning organization (i.e. Continuous Learning , Dialogue and Inquiry , Team Learning , Embedded Systems , Empowerment, System Connections , Leadership). Its aim is to investigate the extent to which a Learning Organization (LO) can effectually induce amplified levels of commitment exhibited by employees in the Middle Eastern region.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

A well-structured and integral hypothetical framework of organizational commitment was developed by Allen & Meyer (1996; 1990). They depicted organizational commitment as "a psychological link between the employee and his or her organization that makes it less likely that the employee will voluntarily leave the organization" (p.252). On the other hand, Mowday et al. (1982) defined organizational commitment as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p.27). Other researchers perceived organizational commitment as a process through which the individuals' and organizations' goals align with one another and ultimately yield a congruent model that drives the organization to success (Hall et al. 1970).They categorized organizational commitment into three key categories: affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment in light of Morrow's (1993) structural framework of organizational commitment.

Affective Commitment is interpreted as the individual's affirmative emotional association to the organization. An individual who exhibits affective commitment stoutly conforms to organizational goals and strives to linger as an integral element of the organization. As such, the individual commits to the corporation because of his/her incessant desire to relate to the corporation. In the course of conceptualizing affective commitment, Meyer et al's (1996) model stems from Mowday et al's (1982) notion of commitment that originally stems from that developed by Kanter (1968).

Continuance Commitment arises from the individual's perception of the high costs that may result when his/her organizational membership is terminated (Becker, 1960), including financial and social costs. As such, the individual strives to sustain his/her membership because of his/her need to do so.

Normative Commitment, on the other hand, is induced by the individual's feelings of compulsion to sustain his/her membership within an organization. Such sentiments may be derived from various sources including "moral obligation" to continue to serve and contribute to the organization as a repayment for the resources put forth to train that particular individual. It may also resonate one's internalized norms that force him/her to exhibit loyalty to the organization in which he/she operates. As such, the individual is expected to adhere to his/her loyalty to organization because he/she is obliged to do so.

LEARNING ORGANIZATION

The mounting interest in transforming business firms into Learning Organizations is an immense proof that the ability to learn is a cornerstone for the actualization of competitive edge that allows organizations to stand out and excel in the market in which it operates (Marquardt, 1996). Pedlar et al. defined Learning Organization (LO) as "an organization that facilitates the learning of all its members and continuously transforms itself in order to meet its strategic goals".

The development of Learning Organization requires conscious efforts to initiate learning activities and spawn development and adaptation capabilities (Lien et al., 2006). According to Watkins and Golembiewski (1995), learning is crucial for organizations and their related communities rather than for individuals. Learning subsists in various fields at progressive levels and via medleys of approaches (Hilgard and Bower, 1967). Marquardt (1996) emphasizes the need for learning and justifies the latter through the mere fact that our knowledge, attitudes and behaviors are the outburst of learning.

Last but not the least, the remaining two dimensions include “Strategic Leadership” and “System Connections”. While “Strategic Leadership” involves the support and employment of learning by the leaders of an organization to yield value adding results, “System Connections” requires associating the organization to its business environment granting its individuals broader insights into impact of their work on the organization as a whole (Marsick and Watkins, 2003).

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND LEARNING ORGANIZATIONS

For the past decade, Organizational Commitment has been perceived a dynamic construct that associates with variable organizational outcomes including job satisfaction and employee turnover. In his paper, Lim (2003) depicts the paramount relationship between organizational commitment and learning organization. He also managed to highlight the significance of establishing learning organization and its inductive effect on an employee’s organizational commitment.

H1 *Affective Commitment is positively related to the seven dimensions of Learning Organization*

H2 *Continuous Commitment is positively related to the seven dimensions of Learning Organization*

H3 *Normative Commitment is positively related to the seven dimensions of Learning Organization*

HYPOTHESES & METHODOLOGY

For this research, the researchers have decided to focus on employees working at medium size organizations to assess the employees’ commitment and its effect on the learning organization components. To measure the learning organizational level among the different organizations, the researcher used the “43-item survey of learning organization” developed by Watkins and Marsick (1997). The questionnaire used for this research had three main parts: the first part collected demographic data and asked about age, gender, level of education, and job position. For the second part, the Dimensions of Learning Organization ***Questionnaire*** **(*DLOQ*** 1997) developed by Watkins, K. and Marsick, V. (1997) was used. It is a 45 item questionnaire: seven questions relating to **Continuous Learning** (Q.1-Q.7), six to **Dialogue and Inquiry** (Q.8-Q.13), six to **Team Learning** (Q.14-Q.19), six to **Embedded Systems** (Q.20-Q.25), six to **Empowerment (**Q.26-Q.31), six to **System Connections** (Q.32-Q.37), and six to **Leadership** (Q.38-Q.43). This instrument has been proven valid and reliable across cultures (see for example, Jamali, 2009; Basim, et al., 2007; Ya-Hui Lein et al., 2006). The third part measured the commitment level among employees. For this purpose, the researchers used the The Component-model of Commitment developed by Allen & Meyer (1990a, 1997) in this research for it was specifically designed to determine the three types of commitment to the organization; i.e. Affective, Continuance, and normative commitments. The Component-model of Commitment is a widely used and intensively tested scale ex. Culpepper, 2000; Jaros, 1997. It includes 24 items, 8 items per commitment type.

Parts two and three were rated on a five-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree: SD, 2=disagree: D, 3=neutral: N, 4=agree: A, 5=strongly agree: SA). Respondents were requested to specify their responses to the items using a seven-point Likert scale for the commitment and support. The scale anchors were labeled (1) strongly agree to (7) strongly disagree with (4) for neutral.

The researchers used purposive sampling and distributed 150 questionnaires. Participants were encouraged to respond honestly to the survey with assurance of anonymity. The survey took place in 2013. Affective, Continuance and Normative commitment were measured with 8 questions each. The results of these 8 questions were inputted into SPSS and averaged giving a single value for each commitment type. The questionnaire was piloted and tested for content validity. A reliability test was conducted on the whole questionnaire using SPSS 16.0, the result showed an overall reliability with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.659

FINDINGS

Regression between Affective Commitment and Learning Organizations
Table 1
Coefficients[a]

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	3.244	0.28		11.572	0
CONTINOUSLEARNING	-0.025	0.083	-0.049	-0.3	0.765
DIALOGUE	-0.181	0.105	-0.258	-1.734	0.087
TEAMLEARN	-0.107	0.1	-0.19	-1.068	0.289
EMBEDDEDSYSTEMS	0.303	0.083	0.622	3.664	0
EMPOWERMENT	0.061	0.091	0.102	0.669	0.505
SYSTEMCONN	0.258	0.127	0.442	2.026	0.046
LEADERSHIP	-0.318	0.109	-0.566	-2.91	0.005

a. Dependent Variable: COMM1

Regression between Continuance Commitment and Learning Organizations
Table 2
Coefficients[a]

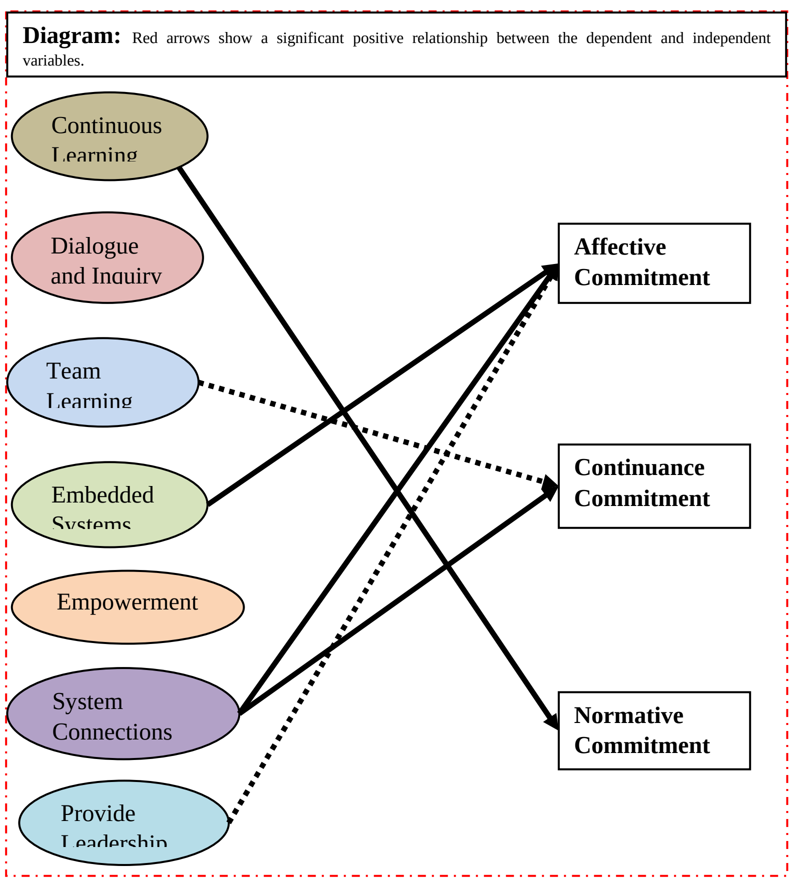
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	2.819	.356		7.927	.000
CONTINOUSLEARNING	-.123	.106	-.192	-1.163	.248
DIALOGUE	-.051	.133	-.058	-.387	.700
TEAMLEARN	-.411	.127	-.575	-3.242	.002
EMBEDDEDSYSTEMS	.108	.105	.175	1.030	.306
EMPOWERMENT	.000	.116	-.001	-.004	.997
SYSTEMCONN	.530	.161	.716	3.281	.002
LEADERSHIP	.060	.139	.084	.432	.667

a. Dependent Variable: COMM1

Regression between Normative Commitment and Learning Organizations Table 3 Coefficients[a]					
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	2.931	.338		8.681	.000
CONTINOUSLEARNING	.262	.100	.447	2.614	.011
DIALOGUE	-.080	.125	-.097	-.636	.527
TEAMLEARN	-.213	.124	-.319	-1.713	.091
EMBEDDEDSYSTEMS	.101	.105	.176	.956	.342
EMPOWERMENT	-.127	.111	-.182	-1.140	.258
SYSTEMCONN	.281	.152	.415	1.843	.069
LEADERSHIP	-.177	.149	-.270	-1.187	.239
a. Dependent Variable: COMM1					

DISCUSSION

Figure 1: The following diagram summarizes our findings



Hypothesis (1) was partially supported, i.e. a significant positive relationship exists between Affective Commitment and the seven variables of learning organization. We found a positive relationship between Affective Commitment, Embedded systems and System Communication. However, the Leadership component of learning organization is negatively correlated with the affective commitment. Malhotra (2005) found that affective commitment and continuous commitment influence the acceptance and the usage of systems in organizations, which is also concluded in our study.

Hypothesis (2) is partially supported, i.e. a significant positive relationship exists between Continuance Commitment and the seven variables of learning organization. Our study proves that there exists a positive relationship between Continuance Commitment and System Connections, a negative relationship between Continuance Commitment and Team Learning, and no significant relationship between Continuance Commitment and the other variables of learning organization. In the article "The Three Component Model of Commitment" (Mindtools.com), it is cited that team members with only continuance and normative commitment may feel unmotivated and lower group morale. This is consistent with our results showing a negative relationship between Continuance commitment and team learning.

Hypothesis (3) is also partially supported, i.e. a significant positive relationship exists between Normative Commitment and the seven variables of learning organization, whereas we found a positive relationship between Normative Commitment and continuous learning. This result conforms to the literature. Bambacas (2010) stated that there exists a positive and significant relationship between affective and **normative commitment** and **continuous learning** in organizations. However, in our research, the evidence only suggests a positive relationship exists between normative commitment and continuous learning, but no significant relationship was found between affective commitment and continuous learning.

CONCLUSION & LIMITATIONS

The findings from this research add to the general body of the literature on the kinds of commitment and the variables of Learning Organizations.

The sample size of this research is relatively small. Although our hypotheses were partially supported in this study, using a larger sample size would have bound more conclusive results. The authors highly recommend replicating the study using a larger sample size.
Moreover, in order to further support the findings of this research, it is also recommended to use qualitative analysis including interviews and focus groups. The researcher will get richer details if he or she uses both quantitative and qualitative methods, since one method can corroborate or confirm the results of the other.

The study contributes to research in the field of Organizational Behavior. The topic is of priority to the researchers due to the lack of relevant research in Lebanon.

REFERENCES UPON REQUEST

THE EVOLUTIONARY LOGIC OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT

Evolutionary psychology presents an alternative and viable framework with which to explore the theoretical underpinnings of organizational citizenship. An analysis of evolutionary psychology connects trust and in-role performance through the evolutionary adaptation of reciprocal altruism; organizational citizenship behaviors are seen as the behavioral manifestations of reciprocal altruism. As such, OCBs function as psychological tools to establish an individual's willingness to work for the general welfare of the group as opposed to seeking only self-interest. Organizational citizenship behaviors provide a model for expected group behavior, as well as an algorithm for making moral (social) decisions and for judging the decisions of others. Organizational citizenship results from attitudes encoded within our evolutionary past which enhanced our survivability as a species. These a priori attitudes drive the behaviors of citizenship. The theoretical and research implications of this new conceptualization of organizational citizenship are discussed, and suggestions for future research are provided.

THE EVOLUTIONARY LOGIC OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

Organizational citizenship is one of the most prominent research areas in the study of behavior in companies. Recently however, the definition of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has become somewhat muddled and confusing. These difficulties stem from understanding of OCB at the behavioral level, when such conduct clearly has an attitudinal element, as well as the failure to relate OCB to a more complete framework of social/moral attitudes and behaviors. It is suggested that a more complete understanding of OCB can be obtained by looking beyond the traditional business literature to the study of human origins and evolutionary psychology.

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is defined as the "... spontaneous prosocial gestures of individual accommodation to the work needs of others" (Smith, Organ, Near, 1983, p. 653), "…which are not formally prescribed, but yet are desired by an organization" (Schnake, 1991, p. 736). OCB involves enhancing a firm and its members through selfless acts that prompt cooperative relationships and exchanges, and such conduct is usually not motivated by self-benefiting desires or compensation (Eastman, 1994; Lee, 1995; Organ, 1988; Schnake, 1991; Van Dyne, Graham, & Dienesch, 1994). "Citizenship behavior is employee behavior that is above and beyond the call of duty and is therefore discretionary and not rewarded in the context of an organization's formal reward structure" (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994, p. 656). Several examples include “punctuality, helping other employees, volunteering for things that are not required, making innovative suggestions to improve a department, and not wasting time” (Schnake, 1991, p. 736).

Other related concepts such as extra-role behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings & Parks, 1995), prosocial behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986), contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and even consummate cooperation (Williamson, 1985) have been developed to describe and clarify the concept of OCB. In each of these derivations the prosocial or other-focused or other interested character of the construct was maintained (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach, 2000 for literature review). However, some scholars suggest that corporate citizenship also includes image enhancing and clearly manipulative, self-interested behaviors (cf. Bolino, 1999; Eastman, 1994, Fandt & Ferris, 1990, Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). Because prosocial gestures benefit others, they are likely to be positively received by others (especially those toward whom they were directed); “people who engage in citizenship behaviors are likely to be favorably perceived by others (e.g. supervisors, coworkers, and so on) in their organizations” (Bolino, 1999 p. 83). This line of reasoning seeks to include a new category of OCB based on self-promotion efforts, which are clearly not “other interested.”

Given these varying conceptions of OCB and the apparent lack of consensus in the literature, additional theoretical investigation of the construct is warranted. According to Podsakoff, et al., 2000, p. 513): Although the rapid growth in theory and research undoubtedly has been gratifying to those interested in organizational citizenship behavior, it has also produced some unfortunate consequences. For example, Van Dyne et al. (1995) have noted that much of the empirical research on organizational citizenship behavior, and the related concepts of prosocial organizational behavior and organizational spontaneity, has focused more on what Schwab (1980) called substantive validity, rather than on construct validity. That is, the literature has focused more on understanding the relationships between organizational citizenship and other constructs, rather than carefully defining the nature of citizenship behavior itself. Following Schwab (1980), Van Dyne et al. (1995) warned that unless additional attention is directed toward more comprehensive theoretical explications of the constructs and their measures, we are in danger of developing a stream of literature that may prove of little value to the field in the long run. A reassessment of the theoretical foundation of OCB and the development of a new conceptualization should better highlight the meaning of OCB. In particular, the psychological and evolutionary origins of the construct might clarify why employees help others at work.

One alternative explanation of citizenship behavior might stem from the construct’s probable connection to an evolved social process called “reciprocal altruism” (Trivers, 1971). Evolutionary psychology suggests that mutually beneficial helping behaviors are established through group trust and in-role actions, and this conceptual framework could be applied to the more popular definitions of OCB. It could be that a new understanding of citizenship-based actions that considers evolutionary principles might facilitate new theoretical and empirical investigations of the concepts and relationships associated with OCB. For example, if the need to help others is an evolved characteristic, researchers would need to identify the factors that precipitate such human tendencies, as well as how and when the factors actually occur in human interaction. Consequently, the purpose of this study is to review the literatures related to organizational citizenship and evolutionary psychology, and to underscore the conceptual similarities that call for a new understanding of OCB.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURES

Organ (1988, p. 4) claimed that corporate citizenship consists of "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization." Individuals commonly choose to help others around them without considering the personal gain from such beneficial conduct (Organ, 1988; Organ & Ryan, 1995). According to Smith, Organ and Near (1983), "Citizenship behavior might represent just one manifestation of a broader disposition toward prosocial behavior" (p. 656). Research indeed suggests that individuals are inclined to help others based on their personal characteristics (Konovsky & Organ, 1996; Organ, 1994; Organ & Ryan, 1995). For instance, Moorman and Blakely (1995) found a positive relationship between individualism and OCB and concluded that collectivists might associate citizenship with job responsibilities. Organ and Ryan (1995) concluded that a number of the "Big-Five" personality characteristics were circuitously related to citizenship.

Theoretical and empirical studies present several definitions of OCB. One widely recognized definition states that citizenship consists of five dimensions including "altruism" (assisting people), "courtesy" (bringing people up to date), "conscientiousness" (assisting companies), "civic virtue" (taking part in company matters), and "sportsmanship" (avoiding counterproductive acts) (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Schnake, Dumler, & Cochran, 1993). According to Smith et al. (1983) and Schnake (1991), organizational citizenship behavior is comprised of two dimensions that include "altruism" and "generalized compliance," both of which contribute to social organization.

Psychological contracts that are derived from the attributes and intensity of the shared understandings that exist between people and their employers (Rousseau, 1989) might also be related to social exchange and work-based citizenship. Psychological contracts are individual-company arrangements designed to benefit and support all relevant parties (Rousseau, 1989), and people might be less inclined to practice citizenship when employers do not honor a work agreement (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Konovsky and Pugh (1994) using a large sample of hospital workers indeed found that strong agreements built through trust were positively related to citizenship.

Empirical work highlights a number of factors related to exchange that bring about beneficial corporate conduct. Moorman (1991) using 225 corresponding employee-supervisor questionnaires from two organizations concluded that organizational justice perceptions were positively related to organizational citizenship. Lee (1995) found that beliefs about pay impartiality are associated with prosocial conduct, and Konovsky and Organ (1996) using a sample of healthcare professionals concluded that organizational issues related to equity and overall evenhandedness might prompt organizational citizenship. Defining exchange as "you scratch my back if I scratch yours," Shore and Wayne (1993) and Witt (1991) found that beliefs about organizational fairness were positively associated with OCB. Procedural justice was related to citizenship while distributive justice was unrelated to such conduct.

Research also indicates that leadership characteristics and philosophies are associated with helping actions. For example, Morrison (1996) indicated that OCB is affected by "empowerment," "social exchange," and "identification with objectives."Charismatic and transformational practices and company rigidity are also linked to corporate citizenship (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996

Job attitudes, which commonly indicate individuals' reactions to their employment situation (Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988), are also related to citizenship (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Motowidlo, 1984; Organ, 1988; Organ and Konovsky, 1989; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff articles). Research indicates that satisfaction with job characteristics is more intensely associated with helping behaviors than are favorable feelings about work (Moorman, 1993; Williams & Anderson, 1991). This might indicate that citizenship is determined more by individual reasoning instead of feelings about the workplace (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Williams and Anderson (1991) explored beneficial conduct directed at both individuals and companies and found that intrinsic evaluations of the job are associated with citizenship that enhances people, while extrinsic evaluations of the job are related to citizenship that enhances organizations. However, affective evaluations of the employment situation might still play a role in prosocial conduct. Shore and Wayne (1993) concluded that affective commitment was positively related to OCB. George and Jones (1997) also recognized that "work values," "attitudes," and "moods" could affect individuals' helping tendencies.

Understanding and the ability to predict begin when we can explain "why." Connecting an object or construct to a particular system and to a function within this system conveys understanding. Understanding function explains purpose. "A system is a whole which is defined by its function in a larger system" (Ackoff, 2002 p.144).

Analysis draws us to behaviors, but the behaviors are without meaning unless we understand their function. The functional understanding of OCBs lies in the inherited dispositions and decision-making algorithms (attitudes) which drive them. To understand organizational citizenship behaviors we must understand the function they served in the system of their development -- our environment of evolutionary adaptation. To the extent these prosocial behaviors, or the predispositions (attitudes) which produce them, are inherited, their expression today is the result of adaptations that enhanced our survival in a much earlier environment. These adaptations allowed our ancestors to exist in a stable social order and to benefit from the reduction of risk and the creation of synergistic cooperation flowing from social organization. These same adaptations equipped *Homo sapiens* to make the moral and ethical decisions required for social organization (Turner & Valentine, 2001).

Perhaps the signal characteristic of our species is our ability to cooperate for mutual advantage – while clearly being self-aware and interested in furthering our individual interests. It is thought by evolutionary theorists that our cooperative nature is the result of environmental stresses and, in fact, is very likely the reason for the survival of our species; the need to cooperate is inborn and is based on a real need to act in the interests of others.

Economists also accept the necessity of cooperative behavior based on something more than self interest. For example, Boulding (1969) suggests that cooperative behavior equalizes individuals' economic tendencies. "Economics is a clod, heroic man is a fool, but somewhere in between the clod and the fool, human man, if the expression may be pardoned, steers his tottering way" (Boulding, 1969, p. 10). Cooperation exists to facilitate economic functioning.

Prosocial behavior, however, certainly predates the existence of formal organizations. Organization-based prosocial and altruistic actions appear to be inherited tendencies that prompt collaboration and evolutionary achievement (Hamilton, 1964; Trivers, 1971; Axelrod & Hamilton, 1981; Cosmides, 1989). Understanding the development of OCB through our evolutionary past should better clarify the construct.

Trivers (1971) described such group-oriented cooperative conduct with the term "reciprocal altruism." Reciprocal altruism includes helping tendencies that are developed socially through a psychology of exchange. Helping others is rewarded contextually, which encourages further altruistic behaviors from group members. Selfish people acting out of self-interest are penalized when other group members do not reciprocate.

Trust must also be present for the reciprocal altruism framework to effectively function, but the act of trusting another is often risky (Mighteroff, 1971). "Trusting ... includes an element of risk..." (Mayeroff, 1971) because there is implied vulnerability when a person expects another to act benignly regardless of their self-interest. Trusting another suggests that the normal protection of interpreting the behavior of others cynically has been reduced or eliminated. Trusting occurs when cynicism is reduced or eliminated. Trust and cynicism together produce an efficient couple by viewing behavior cynically long enough to make the cynical interpretation unlikely.

Axelrod and Hamilton (1981) utilized game theory to examine supportive actions that are executed in a sustained social context. People who are part of a social system are potentially punished when they exhibit self-interested behaviors. Axelrod (1984) developed a "prisoner's dilemma" scenario and requested that various consequences be developed to assess personal choices. "These two-party non-zero-sum games were based on the underlying premise of continuing interaction between the participants. Various strategies were developed: always cooperate, always cheat, randomly do either, etc. The strategy that produced the best result was called 'tit-for-tat'" (Turner & Valentine, 2001, p. 127). This strategy encouraged a person to collaborate until the other party chose to cheat in the game, which often resulted in revenge. The potential for payback encouraged individuals to work together and generated the most favorable outcome over time. Tit-for-tat provides a mechanism for establishing and enforcing a norm of reciprocation of cooperating and altruistic behaviors.

From an evolutionary standpoint, helping conduct can increase survivability when it is reciprocated. In fact, both genetic and individual endurance is increased when group members act in a reciprocally altruistic fashion. "For example, an individual giving an alarm call might decrease the odds of his kin being taken by a predator to almost zero" (Turner & Valentine, 2001, p. 125). Just so the chance of harming the individual who signals danger does not offset the enhancement of the summed survival of others, and just so every individual gives in return, each person (as well as the social group and the species) will enjoy continued existence. The gene predisposing altruistic behaviors will survive and spread among the population.

Social exchange theory describes how individuals reciprocate in a manner that benefits all parties (Blau, 1964), and the principles highlighted in this framework share some similarities to human cooperation and reciprocal altruism. A believed relationship continuum, or closeness between social actors, affects the degree to which social exchange occurs between parties (Blau, 1964). In particular, social exchange occurs among individuals who have close ties, and when trust and cooperation are honored in relationships Alternatively, skepticism, formality, and quid pro quo encourage economic transactions and self-interest, which can weaken the exchange. Altruism is therefore desired from an ethical standpoint (Lieberman, 1991), and both altruism and cynicism together form the basis of principled conduct (Turner, 2000; Turner and Valentine, 2001). The combination of these tendencies prompts reciprocal altruism, courtesies, exchanges, and assistance within a group.

SUMMARY

Citizenship did not drive Paleolithic behaviors; responsibility to others did. Understanding the difference between social exchange and economic exchange (Blau, 1964) can help us to understand the environments which engender OCBs. Reciprocal altruism is an attitude developed to enhance survival in an environment of kinship. This suggests that OCBs, the social exchange within clans, will be dramatically reduced in an environment in which exchange is predicated on close accounting of contractual equivalencies. The more control a manager attempts over the behavioral inputs of workers, the less inclined they will be to exhibit OCBs (McGregor, 1960).

OCB mitigates unfettered self-interest and increases willingness to trust others and to work for mutual advantage (Cosmides, 1989; Cosmides and Tooby, 1992). Lambert (2000) refers to organizational citizenship as “the currency of reciprocity” (p 802). Following Boulding (1969), the altruism of the “hero” combines with the cynicism of the “clod” within a context of trust and reciprocation to enable continuing cooperation and social exchange. OCB is the result of pro-social attitudes derived from evolutionary processes and pressures, and such actions can synergistically enhance organizations. Research shows that OCB enhances service (Morrison, 1996), assessments of salespersons (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991, 1993), commitment, remuneration, and job success (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995).

The organizational sciences should benefit from this alternative conceptualization of OCB. One of the most perplexing realizations associated with the OCB construct involves the understanding that selfless helping actions cannot be prompted by motivational efforts such as compensation or positive feedback. An OCB perspective based on evolutionary psychology adequately conveys that helping behaviors are a product of social learning that has occurred over many generations, rather than the more immediate motivating potential of work gratification. Organizational researchers will also be able to realistically identify the relevant antecedents and determinants of OCB, many of which are probably linked to evolutionary processes.

Research Implications and Suggestions

Several theoretical and research questions are raised by evolutionary psychology. The first is the need to clarify the concept of trust. Does trust have any meaning beyond the elimination of cynicism? Cynicism is active; it is aggressive; it impugns the motives of others in an attempt to uncover indications of aggressive self-interest. Trust is passive, accepting, and benign; trust exists because cynicism has been eliminated. Another issue raised is the dimensionality of morality. If reciprocal altruism and cynicism are fundamental moral algorithms, are there others? Are humility, gratitude, forgiveness, and shame, for example, social maintenance tools, like OCBs, or are they perhaps also algorithms of moral reasoning? Still another issue is whether individuals expect an organization in which they are members to act altruistically or to reciprocate altruistic acts on their part. Do individuals expect reciprocation from an organizational superior, or do they perceive reciprocation in some way from the organization itself? Future research should address these questions.

The theoretical relationships among OCBs and ingratiating or self-image enhancing behaviors can be tested by comparing these constructs, perhaps along with self-monitoring, with measures of stress and anxiety. The similarity between ingratiating and self-monitoring should produce significantly positive correlations. If the predisposition is to lead with prosocial or altruistic behaviors, the relationship between ingratiating (and self-monitoring) and altruism and helping behaviors should be significant and negative.

Managerial Implications

The dilemma for management is that OCBs cannot be controlled. The question becomes: "How do we encourage OCBs without controlling them?" Rewards will certainly encourage behavior, but they will necessarily shift the attitude from "other-serving" to "self-serving." Focusing on behavior results only in manipulation. Respecting the autonomy of others is necessary to create structures within which OCBs can develop. This requires trust and respect. Citizenship, civic virtue, is above all a phenomenon of social exchange. Expecting citizenship while creating an environment based on *quid pro quo* is self-defeating. Citizenship requires one to accept and act based on one's perceived responsibilities to others. OCB involves non-structural cooperation; such conduct includes voluntary acts not accounted for by formal organizational structure.

References available upon request