

ΟΙΚΟΝΟΜΙΚΟ ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ ΑΘΗΝΩΝ

ΤΙΜΗΤΙΚΟΣ ΤΟΜΟΣ
ΚΑΘΗΓΗΤΡΙΑΣ
ΝΑΝΣΥ ΠΑΠΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΗ

*Ανθολόγιο Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου
Δυναμικού, Οργανωσιακής Συμπεριφοράς και
Διοίκησης Επιχειρήσεων*

VOLUME IN HONOR OF
PROFESSOR
NANCY PAPALEXANDRIS

*An anthology on Human Resource
Management, Organizational Behavior and
Special issues in Management*

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ΕΝ ΕΙΔΕΙ ΠΡΟΛΟΓΟΥ/ PROLOGUE

It is an honour for me to introduce this book dedicated to Professor Nancy Papalexandris, from the position of the Director of the Master of Science in Human Resources Management in Athens University of Economics and Business.

Professor Papalexandris has been an instrumental figure of the field of management and human resource management in Greece. Nancy has been the first academic and scholar in Greece conducting serious and impactful scientific research in the field of organizational behaviour and human resource management. Her scientific contribution is remarkable, as also demonstrate in their preface the editors of the current book. However, in my role as Director of our Master's programme, I would like to devote a few words about her contribution and remarkable influence in developing the teaching and professional subject of human resources management in Greece.

Nancy, with the support of her friend and colleague Prof. Dimitris Bourantas, had to go through a very difficult and lengthy process of justifying the necessity and importance of a Master's in HRM in AUEB first and in Greece in general. Back in the late 1990s it was not easy to persuade neither her academic scholars at AUEB nor the government's bureaucrats for the usefulness and importance of educating young graduates and business professionals on human resource management. Nancy, with her perseverance and patience carried out numerous meetings and submitted lengthy reports to the authorities of both university and the department of education in order to justify and support the necessity of establishing our Master's programme.

Nancy acted as Director of the programme for almost 10 years and is still close to all of us volunteering her time and effort any time we need her. She has achieved remarkable achievements for our Master, such as the recognition of our programme from the Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM), the constant improvement and recognition in university rankings (e.g. Eduniversal), the award of recognition from the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM), being the first academic establishment or institution to receive such a recognition in Greece, etc.



Nancy has always been very appreciative of the development of the program, the faculty and the students. She was the first Academic Director initiating the internship program for our students, she has been a great mentor for all faculty members, always open to our suggestions or initiatives. She established the biennial HRM conference giving the chance to our students and alumni to attend academic presentation of numerous HR topics from prominent scholars from all over the world.

Personally, for me, Nancy is the best example of practicing what we teach... Nancy teaches among other HR topics, the topic of succession planning. In my case, Nancy helped me develop as an academic and an administrator and when the time came, she moved backwards giving space and the authority to the younger generation to take over and run the program, hopefully, as successfully as she did all these years.

I hope she will be with us, next to us for many more years. We still have to learn so much from her.

Ioannis Nikolaou

Associate Professor, Director of the MSc in Human Resource Management, AUEB



Η καθηγήτρια Νάνσυ Παπαλεξανδρή υπήρξε πρωταγωνίστρια στην εξέλιξη του Οικονομικού Πανεπιστημίου Αθηνών σε ένα από τα καλύτερα παγκοσμίως. Το ερευνητικό και το διδακτικό της έργο, αλλά και το διοικητικό της, ως αντιπρύτανης, υπήρξε σημαντική συμβολή. Εκτός αυτού όμως, οι σχέσεις και οι συνεργασίες της με ξένα ακαδημαϊκά ιδρύματα, η συμμετοχή της σε διεθνείς ερευνητικές ομάδες και οι δημοσιεύσεις της στα πλέον έγκυρα διεθνή επιστημονικά περιοδικά συνέβαλαν ουσιαστικά στη διαμόρφωση της εικόνας του ΟΠΑ παγκοσμίως.

Στην Ελλάδα, η Νάνσυ Παπαλεξανδρή υπήρξε βασικός συντελεστής στην ανάπτυξη της Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού. Ως ιδρύτρια, και για πολλά χρόνια διευθύντρια του πρώτου Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού στο ΟΠΑ, έδωσε την ευκαιρία να εκπαιδευτούν πολλά στελέχη επιχειρήσεων και οργανισμών. Επίσης, μέσω συγγραμμάτων της, καθώς και μέσω της συμμετοχής της σε εθνικούς επαγγελματικούς φορείς, συνέβαλε στη διάδοση και στην κατανόηση της στρατηγικής σημασίας του ανθρώπινου κεφαλαίου και της αναγκαιότητας της αποτελεσματικής διοίκησης του.

Πολύ πιο σημαντικό όμως από τα προηγούμενα είναι ότι η Νάνσυ Παπαλεξανδρή πορεύθηκε με τις αδιαπραγμάτευτες αξίες της ακεραιότητας, της συνεργασίας, της φρόνησης, του σεβασμού του ανθρώπου, και της αλληλεγγύης.

Ως συνεργάτης της είναι δύσκολο να εκφράσω την αγάπη και την ευγνωμοσύνη μου για όσα μου πρόσφερε με λίγες λέξεις. Τούτος ο τιμητικός τόμος είναι το ελάχιστο της αναγνώρισης που αξίζει ως ακαδημαϊκή δασκάλα, πολίτης και άνθρωπος.

Δημήτρης Μπουραντάς

πρώην Διευθυντής ΜΠΣ στη ΔΑΔ, Ο.Π.Α, Πρύτανης New York College



ΕΙΣΑΓΩΓΙΚΑ ΣΧΟΛΙΑ ΑΠΟ ΤΗΝ ΕΚΔΟΤΙΚΗ ΟΜΑΔΑ/ INTRODUCTORY NOTES FROM THE EDITORIAL TEAM

I am happy to participate as editor and author in a collective effort to honor Professor Nancy Papalexandris. This book hosts works of people who have been students or colleagues, (or both, as in my case) of Professor Papalexandris. Most of the authors are also connected with the Athens University of Economics and Business (affiliation or alumni), where Professor Papalexandris has served for 37 years, first as Research Assistant, then Professor (at all levels), Director of the Master's in HRM and Vice Rector. Some contributions are written by academics from foreign Universities around the world, with whom Professor Papalexandris has collaborated in research and who have eventually become friends (indicatively, from Henley Business School, Pennsylvania State University, Radboud University, Stevens Institute of Technology, Vienna University of Economics and Business, the University of Cyprus, London South Bank University, Birmingham City University, IMI-Delhi, Seeburg Castle University and De Montfort University). There are also contributions by Greek academic colleagues from other Universities (Panteion University of Social and Political Sciences, University of the Piraeus, University of Macedonia, University of the Aegean, National Kapodistrian University of Athens). The multitude of sources of contributions pinpoints the outreach and impact that Professor Nancy Papalexandris' work had on several people.

The topics that are covered fall in three broad categories: Human Resource Management (HRM), Organizational Behavior (OB), and Special Topics in Management and this is how the book is structured. These topics have been the focus of Professor Papalexandris in teaching and research throughout her career. She is mostly reputed for her research in Human Resource Management because most of her research published since the early '90s also focused on HRM issues and less so on OB ones, but few know that at the beginning of her career she dealt with general management topics. Her turn to HRM after 1990 has followed the pace in which HRM developed in Greece and it is not exaggerated to say that her name has become a synonym for HRM here. She was a pioneer and helped develop the field of HRM, not only academically, but also in practice.



Let me share my personal experience from Nancy Papalexandris. I first met her in 1998, when, as graduate in Economics, I was seeking information on Human Resource Management as an option for my postgraduate studies. She was kind, open and helpful and she confirmed my first judgement that HRM would be a good choice for me. I met her again in 2001, when, having completed my Master's, I was seeking a supervisor for a PhD in a Greek university. Then she was not very positive to supervise me, but she had a research project on entrepreneurship and small businesses, and she offered me to participate as a research assistant. I was not seeking for employment but for a supervisor, so I was close to refuse, from fear that this job could disorientate me from my aim, but as the germ of research had gotten into me and the project involved research, I agreed. Luckily, it was a good decision, as, some months later she offered to supervise me. Many years later I realized that she was reluctant to agree to my supervision because she wanted to supervise a man for a change (all her doctoral students were women) and unfortunately, she never had the opportunity to supervise the doctorate of a male candidate. However, all her PhD supervisions were very successful and the ladies whom she supervised have all taken very good posts in research and teaching and it is an honor to mention that you have been a mentee of Nancy Papalexandris.

I won't share thoughts on her academic merit, research impact or teaching competence. These are evident in the number of publications, citations (about 5000 in 2019) and invited lectures. I wish to share some feelings on her character and leadership behavior that explain our decision to go for this collective honorary volume. Nancy Papalexandris is the person with the best collaborating, reconciling and integrating skills I've ever met. I observed those skills notably during her two terms as Vice-Rector for Personnel and Academic Affairs of our University. Her inclination to reach out and collaborate was also revealed in her international collaborations: she is the Principal Investigator for Greece in the two most seminal ongoing HRM and OB international research networks: CRANET and GLOBE. What is more, she is altruistic and collaborates in ways that allow for the other party to benefit. I honestly cannot recall any occasion that my interaction with her was more beneficial for her than for me. This makes her a wonderful professor and a great mentor, because her students take much from her. It also makes her a colleague you wish to keep working with.



She is also a very energetic and hard- working person. Even now, eight years after her retirement, she works full-time on research and consulting, she presents at conferences, she teaches in Post- graduate programs, she does evaluations for awards and she offers voluntary work for councils and Boards- among others, she is the President of the Greek association of women academics, ELEGYP, and an active member of the Greek group of emeritus professors-.

She is innovative and confident, and she has been a pioneer in many things. In 2003, she founded with Dimitris Bourantas the first master's in Human Resource Management in Greece, from which approximately 1000 people have graduated up to now. Having witnessed the program closely for the last 16 years, first as her doctoral candidate and later as a professor, I know that this was an innovation that radically transformed the map of the HRM profession and the profile of people dealing with HRM in Greek organizations.

I believe that these characteristics explain the influence that she has exerted in the fields of HRM and OB and hope that this collective volume is somewhat indicative of her positive impact.

From me, a humble token of gratitude for all the opportunities, lessons, constant and omnipresent support and advice.

Ευχαριστώ.

Eleanna Galanaki

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Αν έπρεπε να ξεχωρίσω ένα μόνο χαρακτηριστικό για να περιγράψω τη Νάνσυ Παπαλεξανδρή, αυτό θα ήταν η γενναιοδωρία. Δεν την έχω δει ποτέ να διστάζει να προσφέρει από καρδιάς γνώση, αγάπη, εμπειρία, συναισθήματα, υποστήριξη, καθοδήγηση, ευκαιρίες, χαμόγελο. Είναι η πρώτη στη συντροφιά που θα βγάλει χρήματα για να κεράσει τους υπόλοιπους. Είναι εκείνη που έχει πολλές ιστορίες να διηγηθεί, που θα σε κάνουν να αναλογιστείς, να θυμηθείς, να καταλάβεις, να γελάσεις.

Η γνωριμία μου με τη Νάνσυ έγινε όταν έκανα τη διπλωματική του μεταπτυχιακού μου στην Αγγλία. Την περίοδο εκείνη, μελετώντας τον, νέο τότε, χώρο της Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού στην Ελλάδα, έβρισκα μπροστά μου συνεχώς και σχεδόν αποκλειστικά το όνομά της. Όταν κάποιος κοινός γνωστός μού πρότεινε να πάω να την συναντήσω εκ μέρους του, φαντάστηκα τη συνάντηση αυτή σαν ένα τυπικό δεκάλεπτο όπου θα προσπαθούσα να πω δυο λόγια για τη διπλωματική μου σε μια καταξιωμένη καθηγήτρια που θέλει να τελειώσει γρήγορα με την υποχρέωση. Το δέος της πρώτης συνάντησης γρήγορα έκαμψε η εικόνα μιας χαμογελαστής, γενναιόδωρης γυναίκας που δεν κρατούσε τη γνώση για τον εαυτό της, αλλά αντιθέτως έδειχνε να χαιρέται να τη μοιράζεται μαζί μου. Στη συνάντηση αυτή, αν και δεν το ήξερα τότε, έμελλε να γίνει το πρώτο βήμα της πορείας μου προς την ακαδημαϊκή σταδιοδρομία.

Η παρακαταθήκη που αφήνει η Νάνσυ στο χώρο της ΔΑΔ είναι γνωστή. Η συγγραφική της δουλειά βασίζεται, σε μεγάλο βαθμό, στη συμμετοχή της σε δύο διεθνή ερευνητικά δίκτυα, τα μεγαλύτερα ίσως στον χώρο. Έτσι έβαλε την Ελλάδα στον Ευρωπαϊκό και παγκόσμιο χάρτη της έρευνας, ανοίγοντας το δρόμο για συγκριτικές μελέτες που οδηγούν σε καλύτερη κατανόηση και περεταίρω ανάπτυξη. Ήταν πρωτεργάτης στο σχεδιασμό, την ανάπτυξη και την υλοποίηση του πρώτου και εξαιρετικά επιτυχημένου μεταπτυχιακού στη ΔΑΔ, βάζοντας μια σφραγίδα στην ανάπτυξη του κλάδου στην Ελλάδα και στην εκπαίδευση εκατοντάδων στελεχών. Η πιο σημαντική συμβολή της όμως είναι μια που σπανίζει στον ακαδημαϊκό χώρο, και όχι μόνο: η ανάπτυξη ομάδας και συνεργατών. Και αυτό το ένιωσα και πάλι, στο τελευταίο συνέδριο του Dutch HRM Network που πήγαμε στην Ολλανδία πρόσφατα, εκείνη, εμείς – οι λίγο νεώτεροι – και κάποιοι μεταδιδάκτορες και υποψήφιοι διδάκτορες. Όπως είπε η ίδια με χαμόγελο και περηφάνια, συστήνοντάς μας σε κάποιον συνεργάτη: «είμαστε εδώ τρεις γενιές, κι εγώ είμαι η γιαγιά!». Αυτή η γενναιόδωρη εικόνα, για μένα, την περιγράφει.

Λήδα Παναγιωτοπούλου

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Η πρόκληση και η τιμή να μιλήσω για την επιστήμονα, ακαδημαϊκό, αλλά πάνω απ' όλα άνθρωπο Νάνσυ Παπαλεξανδρή είναι μεγάλη. Το έργο και η συνεισφορά της, τόσο στον ακαδημαϊκό χώρο όσο και στο χώρο των επαγγελματιών της Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού έχουν αναγνωρισθεί όχι μόνο στην Ελλάδα, αλλά και διεθνώς. Η Νάνσυ είναι ο άνθρωπος που συνέβαλε καθοριστικά στο να εδραιωθεί η Διοίκηση Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού (ΔΑΔ) στην Ελλάδα. Ωστόσο, εγώ θα μιλήσω για τον άνθρωπο με τη μεγάλη καρδιά, που γνώρισα από τα πρώτα μου κιόλας χρόνια στο Πανεπιστήμιο και υπήρξε πηγή έμπνευσης και αρωγός για μένα και πολλούς άλλους. Θα σταθώ ιδιαίτερα στη σοφία, την οξυδέρκεια και την ηγετική ικανότητα που τη διακρίνουν.

Η σχέση μου με τη Νάνσυ πάει πολλά χρόνια πίσω, στις αρχές της δεκαετίας του 90. Ήταν Μάρτιος του 1991, όταν μπαίνοντας στη Γενική Συνέλευση του Τμήματος, για να στηρίξω την πρότασή μου για διδακτορικές σπουδές, ένιωσα για πρώτη φορά τη στήριξή της. Στη συνέχεια, μου έδωσε ευκαιρίες να αναπτυχθώ και είχα την τύχη να την έχω δίπλα μου να με καθοδηγεί στα ακαδημαϊκά μου βήματα, αλλά και σε προσωπικές προκλήσεις να με συμβουλεύει και να μου ανοίγει νέες οπτικές. Δίπλα στη Νάνσυ έμαθα να μένω στην ουσία των πραγμάτων, σ' αυτά που έχουν πραγματική σημασία, να βλέπω τη μεγάλη εικόνα και ταυτόχρονα, να σχεδιάζω βήμα-βήμα την πορεία, να έχω υπομονή, επιμονή και πίστη στο στόχο μου, βλέποντας πάντα τον άνθρωπο και τη σχέση.

Στην έρευνα η Νάνσυ άνοιξε δρόμους μέσα από συνεργασίες με διεθνή Πανεπιστημιακά Ιδρύματα. Είναι ο άνθρωπος που είδε τις ευκαιρίες στη συμμετοχή σε διεθνή ερευνητικά δίκτυα, όπως του Cranet και του GLOBE, και τη συνεργασία με αναγνωρισμένους ακαδημαϊκούς. Σημαντικότερο όμως είναι το γεγονός, ότι η Νάνσυ μέσα από αυτές τις διεθνείς συνεργασίες έχτιζε ερευνητική ομάδα στην Ελλάδα και έδινε την ευκαιρία σε εμάς, τους νέους, εκκολλημένους ερευνητές να μελετήσουμε, να έρθουμε σε επαφή με τη διεθνή ακαδημαϊκή κοινότητα και να αναπτυχθούμε στους τομείς που μας ενδιέφεραν. Η έρευνα του Cranet, που ξεκίνησε στα μέσα της δεκαετίας του '90 αποτέλεσε σταθερό σημείο αναφοράς για τη δημιουργία του Συνεδρίου που πραγματοποιούμε κάθε δύο χρόνια και φέρνουμε κοντά τους επαγγελματίες του χώρου, τους φοιτητές του Πανεπιστημίου μας και την ακαδημαϊκή κοινότητα. Είναι αυτή που είδε την ανάγκη για δημιουργία ενός μεταπτυχιακού στη ΔΑΔ και το έφερε στις πρώτες θέσεις κατάταξης διεθνώς. Ότι αναλαμβάνει το κάνει με αγάπη, την οποία μεταδίδει και σε όλους γύρω της. Δεν σταματά να μας εμπνέει, αφού είναι ακόμα ενεργή σε όλα τα επίπεδα και πρόθυμη να βοηθήσει.

Ειρήνη Νικάνδρου

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EΥΧΑΡΙΣΤΙΕΣ/ THANKS

Θα ήθελα να ευχαριστήσω θερμά τις αγαπητές μου συναδέλφους Ελεάννα Γαλανάκη, Ειρήνη Νικάνδρου και Λήδα Παναγιωτοπούλου που ανέλαβαν την ευθύνη να οργανώσουν την συλλογή των άρθρων για την έκδοση του τιμητικού αυτού τόμου καθώς και τη ΓΣ του Τμήματος Μάρκετινγκ και Επικοινωνίας που ενέκρινε αυτήν την πρωτοβουλία. Θερμές ευχαριστες στον διευθυντή και την Διατμηματική Επιτροπή του Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος στη Διοίκηση Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού, που ανέλαβε να υποστηρίξει οικονομικά αυτή την προσπάθεια. Επίσης με τιμούν ιδιαίτερα οι χαιρετισμοί από τους συναδέλφους Δημήτρη Μπουραντά και Γιάννη Νικολάου.

Είναι για μένα ιδιαίτερη τιμή ότι στον τόμο συνεισφέρουν παλιοί και αγαπητοί συνάδελφοι από την Ελλάδα και το εξωτερικό, με τους οποίους μας ενώνουν πολλά χρόνια κοινής ερευνητικής προσπάθειας, στενής συνεργασίας στα πλαίσια λειτουργίας του Τμήματος Μάρκετινγκ και Επικοινωνίας και του Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος στη Διοίκηση Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού, αλλά και το κοινό μας ενδιαφέρον για τον ευρύτερο χώρο του Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού, της Οργανωσιακής Συμπεριφοράς και της Διοίκησης Επιχειρήσεων γενικότερα. Είναι ιδιαίτερη χαρά για μένα το γεγονός ότι στον τόμο αυτό συμμετέχουν νεότεροι επιστήμονες που όπως όλα δείχνουν, έχουν πολλά να προσφέρουν στο μέλλον στο αντικείμενο ενδιαφέροντός τους.

Από πλευράς μου δεν μπορώ παρά να είμαι ευγνώμων στο Οικονομικό Πανεπιστήμιο Αθηνών (πρώην ΑΣΟΕΕ), όπου εισήλθα το 1973 σαν βοηθός για να αφυπηρητήσω το 2011 ως καθηγήτρια, έχοντας υπηρετήσει επί 2 θητείες ως Αντιπρύτανης Ακαδημαϊκών υποθέσεων και προσωπικού και επί 10 έτη ως διευθύντρια του Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος στη Διοίκηση Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού. Πιστεύω ότι για όσα προσέφερα εισέπραξα πολλαπλάσια αναγνώριση και αγάπη και θεωρώ τον εαυτό μου πολύ τυχερό που είχα την ευκαιρία να συνεργαστώ με λαμπρούς συναδέλφους με τους οποίους θα μας συνδέει πάντα βαθιά και ειλικρινής φιλία. Εύχομαι σε όλους όσους έχουν συνεισφέρει στον τόμο μου να νοιώσουν την ίδια ικανοποίηση από τη δουλειά τους και από το συχνά δύσκολο και απαιτητικό ταξίδι στον ακαδημαϊκό χώρο, να αποκομίζουν πλούσιες και θελκτικές εμπειρίες που θα τους δίνουν κουράγιο να συνεχίσουν να προσφέρουν.

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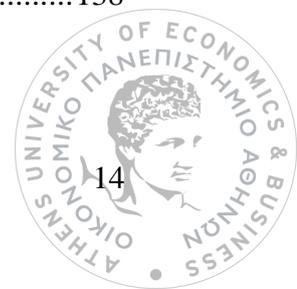
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I. HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT



1. VARIETIES OF CRISIS AND WORKING CONDITIONS IN GREECE AND SERBIA¹

C. Brewster, L.T. Szamosi, A. G. Psychogios, R. Prouska

Abstract

We explore two historically different, yet regionally connected, countries (Greece and Serbia) whose weak institutional foundations and long-term economic turbulence have left them unable to overcome crises, leading to the institutionalization of adverse working conditions. We focus on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and argue that the (different kinds of) crisis in the two countries has led to adverse working conditions becoming institutionalized in organizations and, therefore, less likely to change.

Keywords

Crisis, working conditions, institutionalization, Greece, Serbia

INTRODUCTION

The economic crisis that began in 2008 led to changes in management style and cost-cutting strategies that created adverse working conditions (Psychogios, Nyfoudi, Theodorakopoulos, Szamosi, & Prouska, 2019). Although employees play a crucial role in building resilience and helping organizations survive and compete, especially during turbulent times, many organizations react in ways that negatively impact employees. As a result, employees experience redundancies, increases in working hours and reductions in pay and development opportunities (McDonnell & Burgess, 2013), all of which lead to job insecurity (Papadopoulos, 2016), work overload, demotivation and wellbeing issues.

The effects of such crises are, however, dependent on context. Comparative research has been conducted on the impact of crisis on a range of issues, such as employment and labor markets (Papadopoulos, 2016) and industrial relations (Bernaciak, Gumbrell-McCormick, & Hyman, 2014; Feldmann, 2017; Ivlevs & Veliziotis, 2017; Soulsby et al., 2017). The effects vary according to the resilience of the country. For example, following the global financial crisis which began in 2008, unemployment in the UK did not grow as

¹ the paper is 'adapted from Alexandros G Psychogios, Leslie T. Szamosi, Rea Prouska and Chris Brewster (2019) "Varieties of crisis and working conditions: A comparative study between Greece and Serbia" *European Journal of Industrial Relations* forthcoming



fast as projected (Lallement, 2011). In Germany, Belgium and Austria labor market turbulence was minimal (Eurofound, 2013a; O'Reilly, Lain, Sheehan, Smale, & Stuart, 2011). In the USA, job losses were relatively short-lived (Appelbaum, 2011). On the contrary, in Greece, Ireland and Spain employment declined more than 10% (Hurley & Storrie, 2011).

The coordinated market economies (Hall & Soskice, 2001) coped relatively well with the economic crisis, developing policies to protect jobs from economic recession (Whitley, 1999). The situation was very different, however, in the transitional economies (Wood, Yin, Mazouz, & Cheah, 2016a) of Eastern Europe which were characterized by severe employment cuts. The 'Mediterranean' economies (Amable, 2003), including Greece, suffered the greatest hit, with a near collapse of their economic systems, and austerity measures having a critical impact on the labor force, particularly amongst younger workers (Chatrakul Na Ayudhya, Prouska, & Beauregard, 2017). Even within this group of countries, however, there was variation in the impact of the crisis due to institutional legacies affecting policy implementation in the crisis period (Papadopoulos, 2016).

The way institutional change occurs in practice has absorbed regulatory and institutional theorists for some time who developed a variety of theories on institutional change (Thelen, 2009; Van der Haijden & Kuhlmann, 2017). Micro level studies of organizations and, even more, the lived reality of institutions in the way they are experienced by individuals has been largely neglected by the literature. Therefore, research exploring different contexts in terms of how countries dealt with economic turbulence and crisis, as well as how individuals within organizations experience such conditions, may provide valuable theoretical insights. Most studies of management and business are conducted in countries that, amongst other attributes, tend to have strong and established institutional bases. There is a dearth of studies of crises in countries with weak institutions (Larsen & Navrbjerg, 2013). This is the gap we address by focusing on the micro-institutional level (organizations) and changes in working conditions as experienced by individuals. We compare Greece and Serbia, two historically different, yet regionally connected, countries, both hit by crisis; a systemic economic crisis in Greece versus a transition crisis in Serbia. Both contexts share similarities in the current state of industrial relations and HRM. We explore the way in which their weak institutional bases and long-term economic turbulence led to an inability to overcome crisis and to the institutionalization of tougher working conditions. The paper focuses on one overarching research question: How does crisis trigger, changed working conditions and how permanent are the changes made? We study this

question through the lens of the lived realities of employees and managers in these two contexts.

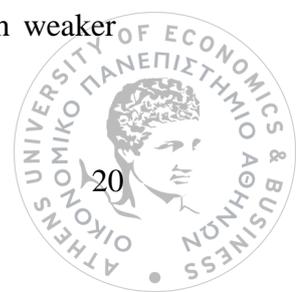
Our account of these crises and how they have worsened working conditions for employees draws from an employee and management perspective. Few studies have explored the issue from the standpoint of both employees and managers (Prouska & Psychogios, 2019), and we use the evidence to contribute to institutional theory and understanding of working conditions. Further, we draw on data from small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Organizational structures and procedures vary from society to society (Brewster, Mayrhofer & Farndale, 2018) and for SMEs where HRM is less formalized (Bacon & Hoque, 2005) and almost entirely conducted by line managers (Papalexandris & Panayotopolou, 2005).

Using an institutional framing, we first discuss issues surrounding working conditions in times of crisis, and discuss working conditions in Greece and Serbia, in order to frame the context of the study. Then, we present our research approach and findings, concluding that, despite the differing nature of their crises, there is evidence to suggest the institutionalization of worsening working conditions. We add to latest research exploring the impact of crisis from a comparative perspective (Feldmann, 2017; Papadopoulos, 2016).

WORKING CONDITIONS IN TIMES OF CRISIS

Working conditions are negatively influenced by downsizing, work intensification, decreased motivation and increased job insecurity, stress levels and working hours (Psychogios et al., 2019). Labour is the largest single variable cost for most organizations, so it is an obvious target in crises (Guthrie & Datta, 2008). For those who are not ‘cut’, organizational responses to economic crisis can include work intensification and restructuring, leading to longer working hours, increased intensity of work and reductions in pay, benefits and development opportunities (McDonnell & Burgess, 2013). These, in turn, may result in reduced motivation, work effort, involvement, productivity and loyalty and a range of physical, emotional and mental burnout symptoms (Spreitzer & Mishra, 2002).

Yet, even in these countries with strong institutions, there is little detailed analysis of the broader consequences of crisis on working life in terms of employees’ and managers’ behaviors and reactions. How does crisis trigger, or exacerbate, changed working conditions, how permanent are the changes and what will be the effects in countries with weaker



institutions? The paper focuses on this question. Below we examine the firm level impact of the systemic ‘euro’ crisis in Greece and the transition crisis in Serbia.

Crisis in Greece and Serbia through a comparative institutional perspective

The comparative capitalisms literature categorizes Greece in the ‘Mediterranean’ model of South European countries, characterized by limited state intervention in the regulation of working conditions, a restricted influence of organized labor on working conditions in the private sector, and low job tenure, making it unattractive for employers and uninteresting for employees to invest in training (Amable, 2003). This results in lower employee skill levels, low-quality work organization and lower wage rates (Holman, 2013). Amongst the Mediterranean countries, Greece has some of the cheapest labor, lowest levels of productivity, and the lowest minimum wage (Prouska & Kapsali, 2011), explained through the socio-economic, political and historical context of the country.

In the late twentieth century, Greece attempted to imitate the industrialization process taking place in Northern Europe and North America. But the country never truly overcame the underdevelopment of domestic institutions and infrastructures caused by its turbulent political and economic history. In the twentieth century alone, Greece has been affected by numerous political and military events, including the monetary integration with the EU and the latest global ‘crunch’ (Kapsali & Butler, 2011). As a result, the country is financially ‘exhausted’, needing economic aid, with resulting foreign interference in internal affairs. Apart from this reduction of sovereignty, geopolitical factors affected the economy and made it difficult to attract foreign direct investment. Frequent changes in political regimes and economic policies led to a lack of consistent national strategy and a lack of a developed institutional base providing some sort of ‘guarantee’ for investors. Businesses needed to be small (low-cost, low-investment and short-term oriented) and agile, thus making for a volatile business landscape, with a high rate of self-employment and micro family owned enterprises (Prouska & Kapsali, 2011). This system could not sustain large manufacturing and the economy is focused on services and on small-scale agriculture. Overall, the institutional basis of the Greek economy and political system is weak and fragile. Greece’s entry to the euro-zone in 2001 was to be ‘deadly’ for many Greek organizations, because the country’s economy was not ready for the constraints imposed (Gibson, Hall, & Tavlas, 2012) and successive governments failed to recognize the consequences. The 2008 global financial crisis was catastrophic for many Greek companies which faced significant financial

difficulties with a spill-over effect to their suppliers and employees (Kouretas & Vlamis, 2010).

Serbia, although geographically close, is historically different. Upchurch and Marinkovic (2011) argue that Serbia is an example of ‘wild capitalism’, an example of transformation capitalism characterized by the fragmentation of business and employment systems, with elements of both state management and liberal marketization contained within it, characterized by a mix of formality, clientelism, corruption, personal political networking and legality and ‘western’ codes of behavior. The Tito regime, which followed the Second World War, sought the informal, but active, involvement of the communist party in company management. The Yugoslav economy slid into a debt crisis in the 1980s (Upchurch, 2006) which eventually led to the 1991-2000 civil wars for secession (Mihajlov Dedic, Radovanovic, & Mihajlov, 2013). These events had a devastating long-term impact on Serbia’s development and competitiveness, preventing it from participating in the economic modernization taking place in the more developed European countries (Vujosevic, Zekovic, & Maricic, 2012). The civil wars worsened the country’s structural qualities, territorial capital, and capacity for strategic research, thinking and governance. Although Serbia was expected to pioneer structural changes for marketization, privatization and deregulation after the collapse of the former system, the transition phase found the country lacking appropriate institutions (Vujosevic et al., 2012). By 1999 the economy had shrunk to half its size from a decade earlier because of the civil wars, the NATO bombings, the period of international economic sanctions lasting from 1992-1995, the loss of markets, and the break-up of the state in 1991, all of which left Serbia with a huge public debt almost twice its GDP (Upchurch & Marinkovic, 2011).

The second phase of economic transition from 2001-2010 primarily involved reforms in the banking sector and the privatization of 2,285 large and small businesses; this led to a rapid growth of GDP and of the service sector, a growth in real salaries and an improvement in economic efficiency (Pecujlija, Azemovic, Azemovic, & Cosic, 2011). The economic recovery from 2000 onwards was insufficient due to the deficiencies of the ‘paleo-industrial’ structure of the economy, making restructuring extremely complicated (Vujosevic et al., 2012). Serbian transition represents the abandonment of centralized decision-making in favor of a more liberal market environment. During the transition process, one million workers became unemployed and 20% of the population was in poverty (Vujosevic et al., 2012). The difficulties of restructuring and privatization were compounded by the financial crash of 2008 (Upchurch & Marinkovic, 2011), with socio-economic imbalances, poverty

and unemployment persisting, although employment in the public sector has been maintained at relatively high levels (Bonin & Rinne, 2014). For different reasons therefore, the Serbian state is another example of a country with a weak institutional base.

Both Greece and Serbia have been influenced by the global financial crisis, but their situations are different. Greece is going through a systemic crisis that, although rooted in economic conditions, has impacted social and political life, while Serbia is in a crisis of transition. The systemic crisis in Greece and the transition crisis in Serbia avail us an opportunity to explore and analyze managers' and employees' perceptions of the shift towards worsening working conditions in such contexts.

Working conditions in Greek and Serbian SMEs

The Greek industrial relations system is bifurcated, with, on the one hand, heavily unionized and regulated state and large firms sectors and, on the other, many SMEs and a significant underground economy (Psychogios, Brewster, Missopoulos, Kohont, Vatchkova, & Slavic, 2014). Smaller enterprises make up the bulk of the Greek economy and they tend to have no trade union representation and a culture of non-compliance with labor law (Mihail, 2004). This leads to non-procedural and informal practices taking place within an environment of poor employment and working conditions (Psychogios & Wood, 2010).

The 2008 economic crisis has been critically negative for many Greek SMEs (OECD, 2016) who had to overcome increased taxation, and cope with the inability of the country's banks to support them financially. A significant number of SMEs had liquidity problems, frequently being unable to pay their suppliers and employees (Kouretas & Vlamis, 2010), and this intensified in June 2015 when capital controls were implemented in an effort to stop a likely bank run due to the political instability in the country (Wood, Szamosi, Psychogios, Sarvanidis, & Fotopoulou, 2016b). Increased layoffs and decreased salaries have led to high uncertainty and employee dissatisfaction especially within SMEs (Arghyrou & Tsoukalas, 2010). The European Job Quality Index (Leschke et al., 2012) ranked Greece as the worst performer, highlighting a decline in full-time employment and wages and an increase in job insecurity. With companies employing fewer people, workload and pressure increased significantly for those remaining, with a rise in bullying (Giorgi, Shoss, & Leon-Perez, 2015). Employee silence was the norm in SMEs (Prouska & Psychogios, 2019).

In Serbia, the economic crisis led to reductions in collective bargaining rights, increasing the maximum duration of temporary employment contracts, reducing severance pay and holiday allowances, and re-defining equal pay rules (ITUC, 2014). Trade union

density stood at 35% in 2010, with non-representation widespread. Information on working conditions is lacking, while many surveys and barometers have not included the country yet.

Greece and Serbia share similarities in the turbulence of their industrial relations and the state of HRM, characterized by informal HRM practices, particularly in SMEs. Formalization of HRM in Serbia is affected by the degree of internationalization of operations, sector, and organizational size and, as in Greece, found only in larger multinational enterprises. Working conditions have been worsening since 2008.

RESEARCH APPROACH

To understand the reaction of employees and managers to worsening working conditions, we adopted a qualitative approach concentrating on understanding individuals, their behavior and experiences (Bansal & Corley, 2012). Information was gathered from managers and employees of SMEs in Greece and Serbia in two different phases, two years apart, so that we could capture the impact of the developing crises on working conditions in both countries. We used a triangulation technique (semi-structured interviews for phase I and focus groups for phase II) to validate the data collected (Rothbauer, 2008).

Phase I was based on semi-structured interviews with managers and employees. Each interview lasted 1-1.5 hours and the data collected was translated from the native languages and analyzed in English. Respondents came from organizations established at least two years before 2008, since we wanted to investigate attitudes towards working conditions before and after that date, and were non-unionized SMEs, since such companies dominate Greece and Serbia. The sample of companies was obtained from the researchers' professional networks. Both judgmental and snowball sampling techniques were used to create our sample since, according to Gilbertson and Herron (2011), this generally provides higher quality of data.

Twenty organizations were involved in this study, ten in Greece and ten in Serbia, operating in both manufacturing and services. Twenty in-depth interviews were conducted in each country, half with managers of different functional areas and the other half with employees.

The interview schedule asked for data in four areas:

- demographic data;
- reflections on different working conditions and change over time - including employment status, salary, pension allocations, flexible payments, working time, additional hours working, workload, continuing professional development,

intensity of work, emotional job demands (discrimination, harassment etc.), physical job demands and exposure (vibrations, noise, temperature, chemical and biological exposure) and job security;

- views on how the crisis has affected these working conditions; and
- reflections on how the organization responded to worsening working conditions and an evaluation of this response.

Interviewees were guaranteed anonymity and were able to respond freely to the issues under investigation. Interviews were recorded (with permission) and transcribed shortly after each interview in order to increase reliability (Eisenhardt, 1989).

We used thematic data analysis, often framed as a realist / experiential method that can be used for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data and which can incorporate complex accounts (Braun & Clarke, 2006). After an initial identification of changes to working conditions we looked for common themes and identified and reported on: organizational response to the crisis, with summary reflections from participants on the influence of the crisis on various working conditions, quantified to assist in drawing direct comparison between the two countries; impact on workload; impact on job security; impact on work relationships; and impact on work-related stress and pressure. We then returned to the transcripts and coded the responses into the categories established.

The four focus groups confirmed and developed the outcomes of the first phase, providing for a greater level of reliability and confidence in what is being reported (Neergaard & Ulhoi, 2008), and offering feedback to respondents to check whether the outcomes are in line with their perceptions. Focus groups were seven individuals, from different companies than those who participated in the initial research. They reflected on:

- working conditions;
- how the crisis has affected them and their organizations; and
- how organizations are responding.

Each focus group was purposively put together to represent the sample from the individual semi-structured interviews (managers and employees; cross-functional representation). The criteria used to select people participating in the focus groups were the same as the criteria used for selecting interviewees. We used this stage to refine and where necessary combine our categories and so were able to arrive at the final coding. We compared the findings in the first and second phase of the research to explore similarities/ differences and confirm

whether our analysis made sense to participants and how far things had changed in the intervening period.

FINDINGS

The majority of participants in both Serbia and Greece indicated that crisis further deteriorated working conditions; in Serbia there was also a strong view that things were tough even before 2008, something not prevalent in the Greek data. Tables 1 and 2 provide a summary of employees' and managers' responses on the impact of the crisis. The following sections explore some of the key causes and outcomes in more detail.

Table 1. Employee views on the outcomes of the crisis

Employees N: 20	Serbia (Number of Employees 10)			Greece (Number of Employees 10)		
	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase
Salaries	8	2		7	3	
Working time		10		1	3	6
The amount of work outside working hours		3	7	1	5	4
The amount of unpaid overtime workload		10			7	3
Access to continuing professional development	10			4	5	1
The amount of work per person (workload)	2		8	2		8
Emotional job demands (violence,		8	2		7	3

discrimination, harassment)						
Job security	9	1		6	4	
Employment status		10			10	
Access to training	10			4	5	1
Downsizing		3	7		4	6

Table 2. Managerial views on the outcomes of the crisis

Managers N:20	Serbia (Number of Managers: 10)			Greece (Number of Managers: 10)		
	Decrease	No change	Increase	Decrease	No change	Increase
Salaries	6	4		6	3	10
Working time		10			2	8
The amount of work outside working hours		10			3	7
The amount of unpaid overtime workload		10			10	
Access to continuing professional development	8		2	3	2	5
The amount of work per person (workload)		2	8		2	8
Emotional job demands (violence,		9	1		8	2

discrimination, harassment)						
Job security	4	4	2	6	4	
Employment status		10			10	
Access to training	8		2	2	3	5
Downsizing		5	5		5	5

Cause of deterioration of working conditions: Cost cutting practices

Cost cutting has been recognized as a ‘natural’ reaction to economic crisis (Guthrie & Datta, 2008). Managers and employees in both countries indicated that salaries had decreased during the crisis and most of them had also observed increases in lay-offs in their organizations. Such cost-cutting strategies also impact on the workloads of remaining staff, who now had to work more for less (Cascio & Wynn, 2004):

‘ . . . There is simply too much work to be done now by every individual, since we have lost almost half the staff in the past few years ’. (Employee SRB)

‘ . . . We work for less money with fewer resources and we work harder than ever ’. (Employee GR)

In Serbia, all ten employees reported cuts in financial resources allocated to training and professional development. However, half of the Greek managers reported an increase in resources allocated to training and development, despite suggestions that such resources are the first to be cut during crisis periods (McDonnell & Burgess, 2013). Further probing revealed that the participants referred to training and development programs for high performers, arguing that, since employers did not want to risk losing such key workers, and pay increases were not an option, they needed to offer them something. Managers in the Greek focus groups indicated the need to hold onto their best managers and employees in order to survive. Their organizations were minimizing the costs and maximizing impact through on-the-job and government sponsored training opportunities. Training for less skilled or experienced staff was neglected.

‘ . . . It seems obvious to me that the organization has to invest in the “best performers” because if they do not see they are gaining anything ... in return for their effort and huge contribution, they might leave ’. (Manager GR)

Outcomes of cost-cutting organizational practices: Job insecurity, stress, pressure and tense work relationships

Unsurprisingly, job insecurity worsened as a result of the crisis in both contexts. Interview participants shared the opinion that tension among employees increased dramatically as a result. Nearly all Serbian employees and a majority of Greeks feared losing their job. This was a widely held feeling despite a belief by some that:

‘ . . . the media are mainly responsible for the feeling of fear’. (Employee GR)

Most Serbian managers felt that the threat was the same or had only increased slightly.

‘ . . . I do not think that our job security decreased. Simply, managers at high positions around here do not get fired that easily’. (Manager SRB)

The majority of employees and managers in both countries felt that the crisis had intensified work-related stress and pressure, confirming findings from other contexts (Eurofound 2013, a, b). Higher workloads resulted in longer working hours, causing conflicts with their families and depressing the psychological state of employees. Respondents, particularly the employees, noted that many of them were working far beyond the working hours legally defined by the European Union.

‘ . . . I do not have enough time to see my family anymore. I have to stay and work overtime at least four out of five working days and sometimes even on Saturdays. This is becoming too frustrating’. (Employee SRB)

‘ . . . It is true that we are all under severe pressure and stress and the crisis has caused lay-offs and increased workloads. We now have to cope with much more work and the deadlines are becoming almost unrealistic. When you work every day in such conditions it is very hard to avoid extreme stress and pressure’. (Manager SRB)

Participants feared for their future and were more anxious and stressed than they had been before the crisis. This was worse in Serbia than in Greece; Serbian respondents indicated that they are in a ‘permanent’ crisis while Greeks indicated they were feeling ‘waves’ of exhaustion and stress reflecting the political and economic instability of Greece.

Cost-cutting strategies further increased levels of stress and pressure for employees and managers in both contexts, with implications for health and well-being (Askitas & Zimmermann, 2015). Managers mentioned issues concerning their employees’ health and their own physical and mental health. One stated:

‘ . . . I have witnessed a couple of employees literally collapse ... because they were not sleeping for days in order to get the work done’. (Manager SRB)

The focus groups were clear about the stress and pressure inside the workplace. Both explicit and implicit ‘force’ were being used by their organizations to do more with less and force employees to ‘go about your business’ and ‘not complain’; the focus groups became a forum to ‘vent’ many of the built-up stresses. Respondents indicated the ‘fear’ of losing their jobs was much more serious to them than the stresses and pressures of the work, so they needed to find a way to survive the pressure. They seemed resigned to this.

In both countries most managers agreed that the crisis brought many challenges and substantially increased tensions inside their organizations. There were some reports that work relationships had deteriorated, although it was not as widespread as indicated in some of the literature (Giorgi et al., 2015). As one employee said:

‘ . . . Sometimes, working obligations and pressures to achieve results fast make some people behave in an “unorthodox” way. I have witnessed situations with people yelling and threatening each other’. (Employee GR)

The fact that the crisis led to ‘extreme’ behaviors by supervisors towards subordinates was recognized by managers as well; however, they did not necessarily consider these behaviors to be bullying:

‘ . . . I do not deny that lately, and especially due to the crisis, you may lose control easier and start using ‘harder’ language to convince people how critical the situation is; however, I do not believe it is real bullying. It is something that has become a new form of behavior’. (Manager SRB)

The focus groups in Serbia indicated that working relationships inside their organizations were getting better as people were trying to create some measure of ‘normality’ from the chaos. In Greece, however, there was a sense that working relationships were still extremely tense, especially involving older workers who were more at risk should the situation deteriorate further.

The ‘institutionalization’ of adverse working conditions

Focus groups in both countries discussed how, just when they thought working conditions could not get any worse, they were unpleasantly surprised and talked about the ‘normalization’ of adverse working conditions. In Greece, particularly, participants indicated that there appeared to be no end to how bad things could become. What was clear in both countries was the perspective that a new reality of working conditions exists. There was an overall ‘reluctance’ to react and a begrudging acceptance of this new norm:

‘ . . . I do not dare, or my colleagues, to resist by striking or protesting or even complaining, because I might lose my job. My employer knows that there are many unemployed people out there who would be glad to do the job without resisting at all’. (Employee SRB)

‘ . . . It has become very hard to find a decent job in Greece today. Even though it is very hard to work with all this stress, pressure and constant fear, I have to accept it, I need this job’. (Employee GR)

A majority of both managers and employees believed there was little that could be done to ‘return to normality’ - to how things were before the crisis.

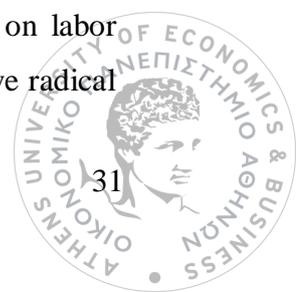
‘ . . . My employer is trying to talk with us, but we do not have the opportunity to actually complain or suggest anything to him. He usually just tries to encourage us with a few words and that is all. But we know that this is working life now, not just in this organization, but everywhere’. (Employee SRB)

‘ . . . Everyone knows that we cannot change the situation. Working conditions can never return to how they were before the crisis. This is the reality’. (Manager GR)

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We found that employees and managers in both Greece and Serbia agreed crisis had worsened working conditions. Participants in both countries agreed that tension among employees had increased primarily due to job insecurity (fear of layoffs), stress and pressure (increased workloads, longer working hours and work-family conflict). Managers further agreed that tensions were also created by cost-cutting organizational strategies having implications for employee health and well-being. Serbian employees and managers also reported cuts in training and development, although this was not consistently reported by Greek employees and managers who used it as a strategy to retain highly skilled staff. As a result of these working conditions, there were some reports of a deterioration in work relationships by employees and managers in both contexts, although some Serbian participants reported a slight improvement as both managers and employees were trying to find a way to balance relationships within the long-term turbulence they were experiencing. Overall, employees and managers in both contexts agreed that they felt that they had to accept these new working conditions since there was little that could be done to change them.

There has been considerable variation in the impact of the 2008 crisis on labor markets (Eurofound, 2013a). Where institutions were strong the crisis did not have radical



or long-term effects on working conditions (Eurofound, 2013b), but the crisis has created adverse working conditions (Psychogios et al., 2019) in weaker economies. Studying institutional variables alone may not be enough to explain these variations; volatility (of economic and fiscal conditions) may play a decisive role (Shahidi, 2015). As such, we need to be looking at the economic and fiscal conditions which shape responses to crisis.

There is limited literature on countries where long-term weaknesses in their institutional basis combine with long-term turbulent economic and fiscal conditions established through particular historical trajectories to render them more vulnerable to crises. And there is equally limited literature comparing different types of crises and their effects on labor, employment and employee relations (Larsen & Navrbjerg, 2013). Papadopoulos (2016) explored the impact of economic crisis on Greece and Ireland (the former institutionally weak, the latter institutionally stronger) and explored the divergence in response to the crisis in terms of labor market policies caused by the differences in their institutional bases. Institutional legacies in the two countries still define the degree and manner of implementation of policies, despite significant institutional change caused by the crisis. Feldmann (2017) explored crisis responses in Slovenia and Estonia, the former characterized by centralized industrial relations, the latter more decentralized, arguing that pre-existing institutions shaped divergent responses and adjustment to the crisis by each of these countries.

Our work offers an understanding of the lived reality of institutions in the way they are experienced by individuals (employees and managers). We observed convergence of responses in working conditions in two different settings. Our research contributes to arguments that the institutional literature neglects change, structural development and the effects of the global financial crisis (Jessop, 2012); failing “to understand the dynamic of change in contemporary capitalism” (Jackson & Deeg, 2006: 571). It is clear from our evidence that in states with weak or hotly contested institutional bases, change can be incremental but still lead to new institutional arrangements (Streeck & Thelen, 2005; Thelen, 2014). In these two countries, the continuing pressure on firms’ very survival has led to the institutionalization of adverse working conditions.

In Greece, labor relations have been tensing since the imposition of a neoliberal austerity program (Duman, 2014). The collective bargaining system is increasingly being decentralized and trade union membership has declined (Kornelakis & Voskeritsian, 2018). EU labor law on working conditions is rarely enforced outside the public sector and larger companies, and not always there. In Serbia, working conditions were difficult even before

the 2008 crisis due to the transition the country was, and still is, undergoing. Employment relations are fragmented (Upchurch & Marinkovic, 2011). Enforcement of the Labor Act is problematic, with employers ‘abusing’ the way they reschedule working hours in order to avoid paying overtime (Petrović, 2015). A key theme in both countries is the increase of the informal economy, which makes implementation of labor law difficult.

Our findings mesh with conceptualizations of worsening working found in the literature but, unlike in most other European countries, extensive, and unlawful, working hours are widespread, reflecting the fact that Mediterranean economies and those of the ex-communist transition states have much employment legislation but little enforcement. In both countries, and for both managers and employees, there is a common feeling that the present working conditions must be accepted; worsening working conditions are now, however reluctantly, accepted as indisputable. The worsening of employees’ working conditions is becoming ‘institutionalized’, becoming established as a convention or norm that is hard to challenge.

Another critical issue comes up from our study is that context matters. The institutionalization of adverse working conditions in these two countries is more widespread than in Northern Europe (Lallement, 2011; O’Reilly et al., 2011). Training has more or less ground to a halt so that the characteristics of different countries and types of (e.g. small) organisations have become even more marked (Nikandrou, 2008). The effect may be that the gap between the two regions in terms of performance (Apospori, Nikandrou, Brewster, & Papalexandris, 2008) has widened. This has important implications for theory and practice, particularly in relation to understanding how context and the strength and embeddedness of institutions and long-term economic turbulence creates legitimacy for, and assists or prevents the re-establishment of, ‘traditional’ working conditions following crises. The situation is worse in the smaller enterprises characterized by informal HRM practices (Bacon & Hoque, 2005) that are typical of these societies.

The institutionalization of worsening working conditions raises significant issues in relation to employee voice and representation in the workplace particularly in smaller non-unionized enterprises. Continuously worsening working conditions also mean having to manage implications for employees’ wellbeing, motivation, satisfaction and commitment. Future comparative research should focus on how working conditions in crisis contexts become new institutional logics within specific capitalistic systems and the effect on HRM theory, policy and practice, particularly looking at recommendations to address the challenges faced in working conditions in such contexts.

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2. TALENT INFLOW ACROSS COUNTRIES ²

E.Farndale, I. Nikandrou, L. Panayotopoulou

ABSTRACT

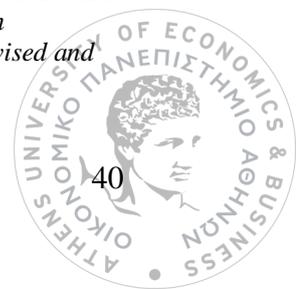
Recruitment and selection are vital human resource management (HRM) practices that ensure organizations can attract the talent required to deliver high performance. We argue here that there are, however, no universal best practices that organizations can rely on to achieve these desired outcomes. Instead, there are many different practices to choose between and what will work best depends on the specific operating context of each organization. Our focus in this chapter is to draw from the themes of Nancy Papalexandris' research to demonstrate how this particular area of HRM practice is related to firm performance and how actual practice adoption varies at national level based on institutional and cultural norms and traditions. We explore empirical data from Cranet on recruitment and selection practices across a range of countries and present national-level reasoning to explain why differences in practice adoption across countries exist.

Keywords: recruitment; selection; talent; national institutions; national culture.

INTRODUCTION

Talent inflow involves the processes of recruitment and selection of new employees entering the organization. As such, these processes are critical to the future success of the organization and provide very clear evidence of how this set of human resource management (HRM) practices is linked with organizational effectiveness and performance (Panayotopoulou & Papalexandris, 2004; Panayotopoulou, Bourantas, & Papalexandris, 2003). Moreover, the organization is making a substantial financial commitment when they are bringing in new hires and therefore need to be sure that they are making the right decision (Hom, Lee, Shaw, & Hausknecht, 2017). It might therefore be assumed that it is worthwhile for academic research to focus on finding the best practice solutions for firms seeking to conduct effective recruitment and selection processes.

² This chapter is redrafted from "Farndale, E., Nikandrou, I., & Panayotopoulou, L. (2018). Recruitment and selection in context. In C. Brewster, W. Mayrhofer, & E. Farndale (Eds.) *Handbook of Research in Comparative Human Resource Management* (2nd Ed.). UK: Edward Elgar." The text has been revised and the empirical data updated.



We argue here, however, that best practice is located at the ‘point of touch’, i.e. what works as best practice in one organization may not be best practice for another organization operating in a different industry, under different market conditions, or in another country. At a macro level, for example, the nature of talent pools is changing: we are seeing increasing diversity in the workforce on many dimensions (e.g. gender, age, ethnicity, nationality, sexuality, religion). This implies that we might need to consider different approaches to attracting people into the organization based on their increasingly wide set of motivations (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In other words, recruitment and selection is a combination of the employer selling themselves to potential candidates and the candidate selling themselves to a potential future employer. ‘Best practice’ is therefore about customization to meet the goals of both parties.

There are, nevertheless, many commonalities in recruitment and selection practices adopted by organizations across countries. Here, we highlight the core practices being adopted, but also the difference that can be observed when making cross-national comparisons, building on the work of Allen and Vardaman (2017). We explain these differences through the application of national cultural values and institutional reasoning.

TALENT INFLOW PRACTICES

Approaches to the recruitment and selection of talent vary greatly between firms from very informal mechanisms carried out on an ad hoc basis to highly structured strategic recruitment and selection processes. In the latter case, we might observe more use of centralized systems for advertising vacancies, e.g. through corporate websites, versus a reliance on informal, word-of-mouth approaches. Similarly, when it comes to selection, this might occur through a brief one-to-one interview or through a series of psychological assessments or participating in an assessment centre. Each approach has its own advantages and disadvantages, but what is important is that it is ‘fit for purpose’, i.e. it is appropriate for the organizational context and results in the right talent being hired into the organization. We provide more detail about what is involved in these recruitment and selection practices here so that we might understand the contexts in which they might be most effective.

RECRUITMENT

Two important distinctions among the vast range of recruitment practices available to organizations are (1) the use of more formal or informal practices, and (2) whether the

practices are primarily intended to bring people in from outside the organization or move around those employees who are already inside the organization. Formality of recruitment is related to the extent to which explicit structures are put in place to advertise vacant positions, such as notices on company websites or postings to recruitment agencies, versus relying on informal mechanisms such as word-of-mouth or speculative applications. The choice of recruitment practices has been shown to have an effect once the person is employed, influencing their propensity to leave the organization and their morale (Earnest, Allen, & Landis, 2011). Internal recruitment, i.e. opening positions for existing employees to apply, can be highly cost effective (DeVaro & Morita, 2013). We might also assume that existing employees have the greatest opportunity to have access to a realistic job preview, which is important for increasing the chances of finding a good fit between the person and the job (Phillips & Gully, 2015). Seeing colleagues being promoted can also help to build an organizational climate that demonstrates future opportunities for other employees too.

We argue here that the effectiveness of either formal or informal practices, and those targeted at internal or external candidates, is dependent on the organizational context. Specifically, we expect to observe a country-level effect of the outcomes from the different approaches to recruitment.

Comparing recruitment practices across countries

In order to explore similarities and differences across countries in the adoption of a range of recruitment and selection practices, we explore data from the on-going Cranet organization-level survey on HRM policies and practices that is conducted every three to five years. The survey is designed by an international team in English and translated and back-translated into the language(s) of each country. The survey is distributed either by paper, telephone, or online (depending on what is acceptable in each location) by partners based in each of the participating countries, with each country collecting its own sample data, which are later combined into an international dataset.

The survey is targeted at senior-level managers responsible for HRM, who are likely to be well-versed in the firm's HRM practices. Data are collected from full population surveys in smaller countries and from representative random samples in larger countries. The survey covers all areas of HRM practice, gathering figures or 'yes/ no' answers to factual questions rather than asking for opinions. Data are used here from the most recent survey at the time of writing: 20014/15. Seven countries were selected from the Cranet data for analysis here: China, France, Germany, Greece, Sweden, UK, USA.

Table 1 illustrates the percentage of organisations per country using the various recruitment methods for different grades of employee.

As Table 1 demonstrates, there is considerable variation between countries and across grades of employee in the methods used to attract talent. Internal recruitment shows evidence of being a generally preferred approach, particularly for managerial grades, although Sweden is an exception among the countries studied here, as a higher percentage of organizations (85.8%) there use their own website as a preferred approach, but with internal recruitment in a close second place (83.3% of organizations). Informal word-of-mouth practices are used particularly in the UK for all grades of employee (managerial - 92.5%, professional - 93.6%, and manual - 93.6%). Speculative applications appear to be most popular in Germany for clerical/manual workers (84.4% of organisations) and for professionals (63.6%), whereas in the USA, for example, only 6.9% of organisations use speculative applications for managerial positions. We discuss later why these differences are being observed based on difference between countries in their institutional and cultural systems and norms.

Percentage of organisations across countries using a range of recruitment methods (Cranet, 2014/15)

	China n=256	France n=158	Germany n=278	Greece n=188	Sweden n=291	UK n=210	USA n=509
Recruiting managers:							
Internal	69.9%	95.3%	77.6%	72.4%	83.3%	98.9%	79.7%
Recruitment agency	39.5%	84.1%	73.7%	38.0%	77.7%	96.0%	56.0%
Word-of-mouth	22.3%	82.8%	37.3%	47.3%	45.4%	92.5%	66.3%
Employer's website	34.8%	90.5%	70.3%	41.6%	85.8%	94.4%	78.5%
Commercial website	38.3%	75.3%	66.1%	39.1%	72.0%	91.9%	75.1%
Speculative applications	16.4%	60.3%	34.9%	17.4%	26.6%	54.3%	6.9%
Recruiting professionals:							
Internal	16.8%	94.6%	84.5%	54.1%	69.5%	98.3%	78.7%
Recruitment agency	31.3%	66.7%	51.1%	22.3%	50.0%	96.0%	41.9%
Word-of-mouth	53.9%	76.5%	67.5%	51.6%	50.7%	93.6%	71.1%
Employer's website	12.5%	88.7%	90.2%	42.2%	88.3%	94.6%	80.9%
Commercial website	22.7%	67.5%	82.3%	42.9%	75.5%	92.5%	77.8%
Speculative applications	35.9%	55.1%	63.6%	27.7%	40.4%	62.5%	14.4%
Recruiting clerical/manual workers:							
Internal	17.2%	95.3%	88.8%	63.2%	81.2%	98.3%	77.0%
Recruitment agency	26.2%	52.8%	17.9%	13.6%	24.1%	93.8%	16.3%
Word-of-mouth	16.4%	79.7%	85.2%	65.2%	56.4%	93.6%	78.5%
Employer's website	17.6%	88.5%	92.4%	49.2%	85.8%	94.4%	81.1%
Commercial website	15.6%	64.4%	76.5%	46.7%	58.9%	91.7%	65.6%
Speculative applications	27.7%	51.5%	84.4%	35.3%	49.3%	67.9%	18.8%

SELECTION

As with recruitment, there are many practices that organizations can adopt to carry out selection from among candidates who have applied to a vacant position. Which selection practice to choose depends on several factors, such as cost, time, tradition, effectiveness and appropriateness, with many of these considerations varying inside an organization dependent on the job type and level. Traditionally, interviewing has been among the most common practices adopted, but although often a cheap and quick method that both organizations and candidates consider appropriate, it has been shown to be an unreliable predictor of future job performance, especially if unstructured (McDaniel, Whetzel, Schmidt, & Maurer, 1994). The high level of subjectivity involved means that variance between interviewers is substantially greater than if more objective selection methods such as psychometric tests are being used (Schmidt & Hunter, 2004). In other words, there is substantial opportunity for personal bias to enter the interview process (Purkiss, Perrewé, Gillespie, Mayes, & Ferris, 2006).

At the national level, we expect to see variance in what practices are considered appropriate, as well as how effective they can be. We again provide evidence later that this is largely due to the traditions and norms established by national institutions and cultural values.

Comparing selection practices across countries

Based on Cranet project data (2014/15), Table 2 illustrates how the percentage of organisations in different countries varies on the use of a range of selection methods. Looking across the different countries, large variations in the use of each practice for the different employees can be observed. For selecting managers, 31.0% of organisations in France use interview panels, whereas 95.2% of organisations in the UK use this method. Similarly, application forms are used by 25.8% of organisations in Germany compared to 87.1% in France. References are minimally used for any grade of employee in China (18.4-30.1% of organisations reporting using this practice depending on the employee grade), whereas they are used by almost all organisations in Sweden for managerial and professional appointments.

There is, however, some commonality across countries, such as the low use of assessment centres for clerical/manual staff (2.8% of organisations in Sweden to 14.9% in the USA reporting using this practice), likely due to cost considerations. An exception here is the UK where 55.8% of organizations report using assessment centres for clerical/manual

staff, as well as also reporting relatively high use of assessment centres for managerial and professional staff to (53.1%, 60.3% respectively). Psychometric tests are popular particularly in Sweden for managerial recruits (81.2%), and in the UK for professional and clerical/manual appointments (73.1%, 58.1% respectively).

UNDERSTANDING NATIONAL CONTEXT

As the Cranet data has shown, recruitment and selection practices vary across countries. We therefore need to understand the different contexts in which organizations are operating at this national level to understand why these differences exist. Neo-institutional theory (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) clearly demonstrates how organizations adopt practices because of certain external constraints. These include coercive mechanisms such as laws regulating the use of practices, such as legal requirements to avoid discrimination when advertising vacant positions. There are also mimetic mechanisms at play, whereby organizations copy what others are doing because they perceive the practices as being highly effective. And finally, there are normative mechanisms, such as when organizations follow the advice of professional bodies or consultancies as to what best practice in recruitment and selection might be. All three mechanisms come into play because the organization needs to be perceived as operating legitimately in order to attract talent into the organization (Paauwe & Boselie, 2003). Legitimacy in this sense is associated with ‘environmental fit’ (Wood, 1999), i.e. alignment between the practices adopted and the national institutions (such as the legal systems, labour markets, education systems, and trade unions - Ignjatovic & Svetlik, 2003) and cultural values (such as uncertainty avoidance, power distance, individualism, and masculinity – Hofstede, 1991). We explore these two dimensions of the national context further here.

Table 2
Percentage of organisations across countries using a range of selection methods (Cranet, 2014/15)

	China n=256	France n=158	Germany n=278	Greece n=188	Sweden n=291	UK n=210	USA n=509
Selecting managers:							
Interview panels	40.2%	31.0%	65.3%	51.6%	39.0%	95.2%	77.8%
One-on-one interviews	60.2%	97.4%	64.5%	74.3%	85.5%	90.8%	76.1%
Application forms	40.2%	87.1%	25.8%	39.0%	53.2%	75.2%	82.4%
Psychometric tests	17.6%	50.0%	17.2%	22.0%	81.2%	75.3%	13.7%
Assessment centres	15.2%	34.7%	27.5%	15.9%	19.9%	53.1%	12.0%
Reference letters	21.5%	79.9%	57.5%	62.1%	95.7%	93.6%	85.8%
Selecting professionals:							
Interview panels	29.3%	15.0%	64.9%	39.7%	28.4%	94.8%	72.8%
One-on-one interviews	27.7%	97.6%	74.4%	66.7%	85.8%	90.9%	76.1%
Application forms	27.3%	84.3%	37.8%	40.7%	55.0%	75.0%	81.9%
Psychometric tests	26.2%	38.5%	11.6%	17.0%	44.7%	73.1%	12.3%
Assessment centres	16.4%	12.1%	22.3%	12.6%	8.2%	60.3%	10.6%
Reference letters	30.1%	71.7%	50.2%	53.8%	93.3%	93.1%	83.4%
Selecting manual staff:							
Interview panels	12.1%	12.1%	48.0%	26.1%	20.2%	92.8%	44.1%
One-on-one interviews	25.8%	97.8%	81.0%	76.5%	83.3%	90.9%	79.3%
Application forms	15.2%	84.5%	52.1%	57.7%	56.7%	76.5%	89.2%
Psychometric tests	14.8%	32.7%	6.3%	16.5%	23.8%	58.1%	8.2%
Assessment centres	12.1%	8.7%	11.0%	11.0%	2.8%	55.8%	14.9%
Reference letters	18.4%	69.4%	31.9%	61.5%	86.5%	92.9%	79.0%

National institutions and talent inflow practices

The most typical national institution argued to impact HRM practices is legislation. Legal constraints establish the ‘rules of the game’ that apply to all organizations in a given context. Taking legal protection against discrimination as a pertinent example specific to recruitment and selection, however, there are distinct differences in protections between countries. For example, in the USA, affirmative action is permitted to ensure minority groups are represented. However, such action is illegal in European countries as selection decisions are not allowed to be discriminatory (Fredman, 2017).

Labour markets also play a substantial part in determining what organizations can achieve through appropriate recruitment and selection. When trying to attract candidates to join an organization, the current labour market conditions play a substantial role in determining whether recruiters or candidates are in a more powerful position. Under conditions of high unemployment, recruiters may not have to spend much money on advertising vacancies and, assuming a large pool of potential candidates, can be highly selective in the criteria they set for selecting future employees. In addition to the number of job seekers, there are also important characteristics of the talent pool to consider, such as skill levels as well as age and gender profiles, for example, that are present in the labour market.

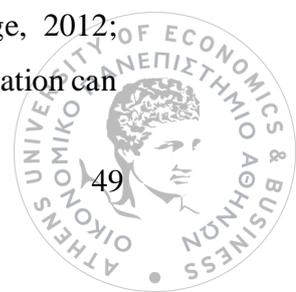
Alongside labour markets, education and training systems are another institutional factor that to a large extent determines the availability of necessary competencies among job candidates. France is a good example to illustrate how this can work in practice as it has an elite system of *grandes écoles* that are the source for many managerial appointments (Buyens Dany, Dewettinck, & Quinodon, 2004). In other words, this university institution is a cornerstone of recruitment practice in France, limiting the opportunities available to other potential candidates who have not been educated through the *grandes écoles* system. In contrast, in Germany, there is greater emphasis on vocational education that produces ‘job-ready’ talent with the technical skills they need in the workplace (Hippach-Schneider, Weigel, Brown, & Gonon, 2013), which reduces any elitist tendency to only recruit from top universities. Under the French system, future managers are receiving a generalist education that they will later apply to specific job circumstances (Segalla, Sauquet, & Turati, 2001), whereas in Germany, specialist skills are being developed early in the education system that will define a person’s future talent resources. Another situation is playing out in China, where the education system is producing extremely high numbers of graduates to the extent that the labour market is flooded with highly qualified candidates, although the skills

and knowledge that these graduates have is not always a good match for what employers are seeking (Sun & Wen, 2007).

Traditions around whether employers seek candidates either internally or externally also vary between countries based on what is considered more effective for organizational performance (Panayotopoulou, Nikandrou, & Papalexandris, 2010). Social networks play a strong role in recruitment in countries such as those in Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) (where ‘blat’ is important: Onoshchenko & Williams, 2014a), the Middle East (with a strong reliance on ‘wasta’: Aladwan, Bhanugopan, & Fish, 2014) and in China (which is well-known for ‘guanxi’: Ko & Liu, 2017). This is particularly true in smaller, less globalized organizations in these countries (Zaharie & Osoian, 2013). In general, such practices are considered quick, easy to administer, and with reliable outcomes (Han & Han, 2009). In many of the smaller CEE countries, for example, it is argued that informality is the traditional way of conducting recruitment and that the less-developed labour market mechanisms prevent a more formal, structured approach (Svetlik & Alas, 2006). In contrast, in other countries such social networks are considered bad practice and an example of nepotism (Onoshchenko & Williams, 2014b). Moreover, there is evidence that candidates recruited through social networks do not always demonstrate a good fit for the required competencies and attract lower wages (Meliciani & Radicchia, 2011).

The national economic conditions and the extent to which firms need to be dynamic and innovative may also affect their approach to recruitment and selection. For example, in the UK, there has been an increasing focus on external job candidates to bring in new ideas and creativity into organizations that had become stagnant due to years of internal promotions (Atterbury, Brewster, Communal, Cross, Gunnigle, & Morley, 2004). Similarly, under conditions of market growth, competition between organizations increases, which has been found to result in greater use of formal recruitment practices and systematic labour market analysis (Cunha, Cunha, Morgado, & Brewster, 2003).

Finally, multinational enterprises (MNEs) can play an important role in creating the operating conditions for organizations in a given national context. MNEs export HRM practices from their home country, introducing new practices into host locations, which can disturb prior traditions and what is defined as acceptable practice. For example, MNEs from developed economies when operating in less developed host nations tend to adopt more formal and rigorous recruitment and selection practices focused on the external market compared to domestic organizations (Forstenlechner, Madi, Selim, & Rutledge, 2012; Mohamed, Singh, Irani, & Darwish, 2013). Over time, organizations in the host location can



adopt these new practices when they observe how effectively they are being used, resulting in mimetic isomorphism. This mimicking behaviour can, however, only be successful where the host location has the skills and infrastructure to implement such practices. For example, Koubek and Vatchkova (2004) found that in Bulgaria and the Czech Republic, modern selection methods being introduced by foreign MNEs were not being adopted by local organizations due to a lack of professional competencies in recruitment and selection among HR practitioners.

National cultures and talent inflow practices

In addition to adopting an institutional perspective to explain differences in recruitment and selection practices across countries, cultural explanations can also be applied (Ma & Allen, 2009). Cultural values have been shown to vary across nations based on a range of dimensions. Hofstede (1991) includes dimensions of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity and individualism, for example. The GLOBE study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) expands upon these dimensions by showing how nations differ in their beliefs related to institutional and in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation. Culture affects leadership styles (Nikandrou, Apospori, & Papalexandris, 2003; Waldman et al., 2006) and in turn has also been found to be related to organizational selection of effective HRM practices (Lawler, Walumbwa, & Bai, B., 2008; Papalexandris & Panayotopoulou, 2004; Stone & Stone-Romero, 2012). In brief, although the fundamental processes involved in recruitment and selection might be similar across countries, the detail of how these practices are implemented varies based at least in part on national culture values (Farndale & Sanders, 2017).

Considering first selection criteria, these vary between ‘hard’ criteria such as job-related knowledge, technical competence and cognitive skills, and ‘soft’ criteria such as interpersonal and social skills (Aycan, 2005). Moreover, criteria can be based either on active evidence of past achievements or on passive characteristics such as personal networks, and a person’s status or socioeconomic background (Schneider, 1988). These different criteria are valued more in some societies than in others. Cultures high on collectivism and femininity tend to focus on soft, passive criteria, while cultures high on performance orientation prefer hard criteria and evidence on which to base assessments (Aycan, 2005). Taking the USA as an example (high on performance orientation), proven work experience

and specialist, technical skills are the primary criteria for selection, whereas in China (high on collectivism), social networks are more important (Huo, Huang, & Napier, 2002).

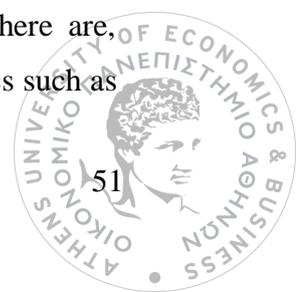
Recruitment practices are also affected by cultural values. In high uncertainty avoidance cultures, greater use is made of internal sources of candidates as this involves less risk as individuals are already known to the organization (Aycan, 2005). The same is true in highly collectivist societies too as the social networks are closed groups that are difficult to enter into from the outside (Björkman & Lu, 1999). Word-of-mouth recruitment, for example, has been proven to be highly effective in such cultures and increases organizational loyalty (Budhwar & Khatri, 2001; Lee, 1999). There are also differences between cultures in the way in which candidates are expected to present themselves: in the USA, it is common to need to promote one's abilities, whereas in European countries, candidates are expected to be more modest (König, Hafsteinsson, Jansen, & Stadelmann, 2011).

Similarly, patterns in the choice of selection practices based on cultural values have also been observed. In cultures high on performance orientation, uncertainty avoidance or future orientation, interview panels have been found to be most effective (Papalexandris & Panayotopoulou, 2004). For example, in Korea, involving multiple managers in interviews is a way of establishing whether the candidate can work in harmony as part of a team (Lee, 1999). In contrast, more objective selection techniques, such as psychometric testing and assessment centres, tend to be used where risk avoidance is high, although in some countries there are concerns regarding candidate privacy rights and the validity of the instruments available (Lindeberg & Vanhala, 2004; Steiner & Gilliland, 1996).

CONCLUSION

The discussion here has focused on how recruitment and selection practices are chosen to bring talent into organizations. Rather than arguing for a universalistic, best practice approach, we have explored the contextual factors that might explain why we see different levels of use of the various practices available across different countries. Ultimately, it is important to look at each organization's specific operating conditions to understand which recruitment and selection practices are most likely to be effective.

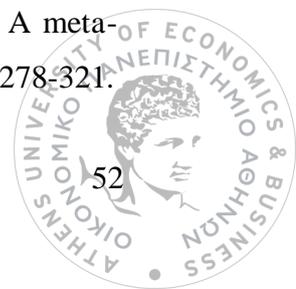
We have focused here on operating conditions at the national level, including institutions such as legislation, education systems and labour markets, and cultural values, such as uncertainty avoidance, collectivism and performance orientation. This means that we have generalized at country level, ignoring difference within countries. There are, however, a plethora of other factors ranging from organization-level characteristics such as



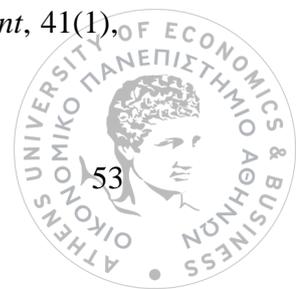
industry sector, size and investment available, through to job-level factors such as the strategic importance of the vacant role. Studies of other areas of HRM practice such as training have, for example, shown both country and organizational factors to be important (Nikandrou, Apospori, Panayotopoulou, Stavrou, & Papalexandris, 2008). To continue to expand our knowledge of the factors affecting the adoption of different recruitment and selection practices, future research might incorporate multilevel designs that allow observation of differences both between and within countries. Moreover, building on the tradition of exploring changes over time (Nikandrou, Apospori, & Papalexandris, 2005), it will be interesting to explore in future research how the adoption of practices to bring talent into organizations might vary longitudinally.

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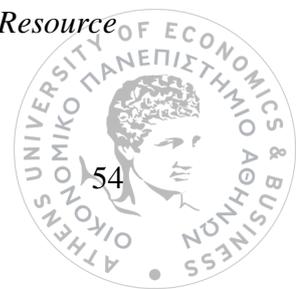
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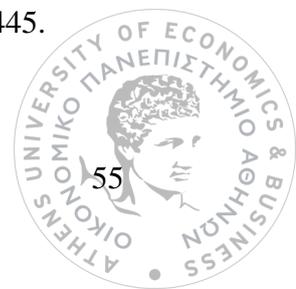
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3. FINANCIAL PARTICIPATION AND INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE IN GREECE, FRANCE, GERMANY, THE NETHERLANDS, AND THE UK

P. E. M. Ligthart, E. Poutsma, J. Bücker

ABSTRACT

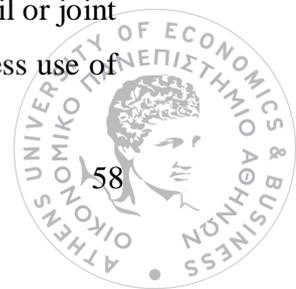
This chapter investigates the institutional embeddedness of employee financial participation (EFP: employee share ownership, stock options and profit-sharing). The research base is a mixed methods study covering an analysis of a longitudinal dataset using the international database of the Cranet HRM network, and in-depth country profile studies of selected countries -including our longstanding partner of Cranet-network Greece- discovering the institutional complementarities between industrial relations and employee financial participation. The results show that the introduction and developments of EFP are not only determined by the influence of institutions. Also, the actors who shape these institutions, most notably employers, trade unions and government bodies, differ profoundly between national systems in their attitude and behaviour towards EFP, between promoting, being sceptical, and no opinion and involvement at all.

Keywords: employee share ownership, stock options, profit-sharing, industrial relations, institutional approach, comparative research, Europe, Greece

INTRODUCTION

This chapter covers a major theme that addresses the expertise of Nancy Papalexandris: comparative research in human resource management practices. Our account of the development of employee financial participation (EFP) in several countries including Greece draws heavily on the insights provided by Nancy. She addressed the issue of comparative work on cultural and institutional lenses. We will focus mainly on institutional differences and profiles. The need for taking differences into account between countries in organisation and work is addressed in several publications by Nancy and co-authors. We will summarise a few.

Papalexandris and Panayotopoulou (2005) showed in their study using culture dimensions of the GLOBE study that HRM practices in European firms are context bound. Countries with high uncertainty avoidance, e.g. Austria, former East Germany, Finland and Sweden are found to make more use of formal representative bodies, such as a work council or joint consultative committee. Furthermore, countries with high power distance make less use of



direct communication from the level of employees to the level of managers. In countries with high power distance (Greece, Italy, Spain), employees are “kept at a distance from their superiors” (ibid: 504). In another study Apospori, Nikandrou, Brewster, & Papalexandris (2008) found strong differences in communication between the US and the European context, where in the EU context a stronger focus was found on “employee consultation with different stakeholders, in particular, unions, employers’ associations and government, as well as the importance of the social model of employment, with greater emphasis on employment security and social benefits” (ibid: 1202). So, EU countries found themselves in a less liberal context and experienced a higher formal institutionalized influence as a result of governance, union, and work council interventions. At the same time within the EU context, the authors found differences between the northern part and the southern part. In northern European countries communication about strategic changes is formally communicated to all employees while in southern European countries due to high power distance top management keeps a higher distance to the employees.

These results act as a background of this chapter on employee financial participation (EFP: profit-sharing (PS), stock options (SO), and employee share ownership (ESO)). Over the last decades we have witnessed profound changes in institutions, especially in systems of collective bargaining and other elements of employment relations. In most of the more stringently regulated national systems of collective bargaining, like Germany and the Scandinavian countries, changes took place towards the decentralization of collective bargaining. Alongside with these changes in processes of collective bargaining, also the contents of pay systems changed towards a more fragmented and individualized system of wages (cfr. Traxler, et al. 2008). Financial participation is being viewed as part of this trend to establish payment at the company level. This leads us to the question, to what extent financial participation is just a management tool, of controlling nature, and to promote organisational objectives and flexibility of capital, or whether this could be viewed as an expression of a new logic of post-Fordism with a substantial new quality of employment relations. Since EFP addresses both the financial output of organisational processes and the ownership of capital, it is one of the instruments of modern HR which addresses the question of high performance and flexibility. In this chapter, we highlight the development of EFP in a number of countries as an outcome of these changes towards flexibility and liberal individualism and seek to understand whether these changes take place in diverse constituencies and to what extent they are related to prevailing institutions.

METHODOLOGY

We follow Ragin's approach (1984) as far as it matches our aim of comparing national institutions as well as the attitudes of powerful actors with regard to the development of EFP. We applied a triangulation of methods, which also includes the analysis of a longitudinal dataset. We analysed CRANET data, a set of several waves of comparable representative surveys in the selected European countries in order to trace developments across countries. We try to explain differences between countries by looking at country profile studies for which interviews were carried out with leading experts from trade unions, employer federations and government bodies. Explanations of differences will also be backed up by specific features of FP and regulations which may be very specific for certain countries.

BACKGROUND

The most relevant theoretical and policy debate for our chapter is the debate on convergence among countries, national institutional diversity and institutional change. We draw on neo-institutional theory when comparing the national experiences with EFP. When attempting to explain these changes it is also needed to point to issues of power in shaping institutions (Mahoney and Russchemeyer, 2003). Actors involved – mainly employers' organizations, trade unions and government bodies - expect certain outcomes from institutional changes and, therefore, they may stimulate or impede the implementation of various forms of FP. In this constellation of national and global developments multinational corporations (MNCs) are a most relevant and powerful actor. We critically discuss their role as they may determine the changes addressed in this paper (Poutsma, Ligthart and Schouteten, 2005).

Institutional theories and financial participation

In this chapter we explore how institutions affect the existence and form of financial participation schemes in European countries. Institutions are known to influence organizations in such a way that organizations shape themselves to fit the institutional environment (Dacin, 1997; Dimaggio and Powell, 1983). This influence stems from exogenous pressures to which organizations may strategically react (Dacin et al., 2002; Oliver, 1991).

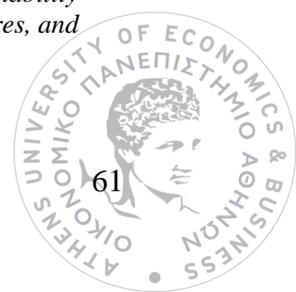
An institution consists of cognitive, normative, and regulative structures and activities and may be transported by carriers such as cultures, structures and routines (Scott, 1995)¹. These elements of an institution are often country-specific. Thus, differences in institutional environment lead to management practices that vary from country to country. Likewise there are management practices that are accepted and internalized more easily in the institutional environment of some countries than others (Kostova and Roth, 2002). Although it is possible to describe the state of the institutional environment and to link this to the form of a management practice, institutions are more often described in a process-oriented way, i.e. as the process of institutionalization (Dacin et al., 2002; Tolbert and Zucker, 1999; Dacin, 1997; Scott, 1995; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). This process view, monitors how institutions emerge, spread and decay.

In this paper we pay attention to institutions both as a state and as a process. This choice is based on the topic we choose to explore, being employee financial participation. The phenomenon of financial participation has a 'state' element, as it exists within an organization or a country in a specific form and at a specific scale. However, it also has a 'process' element, as financial participation is continually discussed, shaped and transformed. To be able to use institutional theories to explore the existence and form of financial participation as well as its emergence and diffusion, we see financial participation as a management practice of firms. This practice is, following Scott (1995), either supported or rejected by the cognitive, regulative and normative structures and activities present in the organization and its environment.

The existence and form of financial participation

Structures that have been institutionalised form a set of 'taken for granted' assumptions about social behaviour. Such assumptions either support or reject financial participation as a means of remuneration or shape the form of financial participation in such a way that it gets institutional support. Moreover, the assumptions may influence the conditions upon which financial participation is introduced. Thus, the form of financial participation or the condition on which financial participation is introduced gravitates towards a way that gets institutional support. By doing this, the organisation obtains legitimacy for its practices.

¹ *'institutions consist of cognitive, nonnative. and regulative structures and activities that provide stability and meaning (0 social behavior. institutions are transported by various carriers -cultures, structures, and routines- and they operate at multiple levels of jurisdiction' (Scott, 1995:33).*



The institutional pressures that influence organisational practices can be divided in exogenous pressures and internal pressures. The exogenous pressures that influence the organisation's structure and behaviour come from various sources. According to DiMaggio and Powell (1983) these influences arise from the connectedness of organisations with other organisations. Influential organisations in this regard e.g. the government, may impose rules and regulations on organisations that causes them to change. Dacin (1997) mentions the broader societal expectations as source of pressure to conform to institutional norms. For Ruef and Scott (1998) all stakeholders of an organisation are involved in evaluating the legitimacy of its practices. These may be external stakeholders like licensing boards, funding agencies, intellectuals, professional bodies, unions, business circles, public opinion, and the media. However, internal stakeholders evaluate organisation's practices as well, such as workers, management, staff specialists, and members of the board. All these stakeholders may have different interests and consequently evaluate the organisation using different standards and criteria (Ruef and Scott, 1998).

Hall and Soskice (2001) take a slightly different approach in defining institutional pressures. They see organisations as entities that engage in strategic interaction with actors, such as individuals, other firms or governments. These strategic interactions shape the way organisations choose to organise their practices, as institutions either reject or support the relationship that firms develop with each actor. Hall and Soskice (2001) define five spheres in which firms strategically interact: industrial relations, vocational training and education, corporate governance, inter-firm relations and HR management of their own employees. This strategic interaction fits the view of organisations actively reacting to institutional demands (Dacin et al, 2002; Oliver, 1991).

To learn more about why organisations choose a particular form of employee financial participation, it is important to determine which institutional pressures influence financial participation practices, as well as the way organisations react to these pressures. Pendleton and Poutsma (2004) place the company's financial participation practice in the middle of a framework of actors and practices that influence the financial participation practice. Mentioned are the government and its philosophy and legislation, the social partners and diverse business systems like corporate governance. These actors are similar to the stakeholders Ruef and Scott (1998) describe. Each actor or stakeholder may evaluate financial participation schemes according to their own criteria. In reaction to that organisations choose to shape financial participation in such a way that it will get institutional support, i.e. a positive evaluation by the stakeholders. Some of these actors can

be placed in the spheres of strategic interaction as defined by Hall and Soskice (2001). We therefore can argue, that from an institutional point of view the spheres of industrial relations, corporate governance and employees are important sources of pressure on the organisation in forming financial participation schemes. These will serve as building blocks for our framework (see Table 1).

Table 1: Regulative, cognitive and normative institutional elements influencing the existence and form of financial participation in each sphere of strategic interaction

Spheres of strategic interaction	Regulative institutions	Cognitive institutions	Normative institutions
Industrial Relations	- Laws and regulations on collective bargaining - Agreements in CLA's	- Recognition of unions - Influence of stakeholders	- Employees having a voice in the organisation
Corporate Governance	- Laws protecting shareholders vs credit-holders	- Open market vs closed network-oriented business system - Instrumental vs institutional business concept - Control structure one tier vs two tier - High vs low importance stock market - Active vs no active market of takeovers, buyers, sellers - Relative high vs low concentration of ownership - High vs low performance related pay of management	- Long vs short term horizon - Influence of stakeholders
HRM	- Laws and regulations on remuneration - Laws and regulations on financial participation schemes	- Prevailing remuneration schemes - High vs low performance related pay of management	- Humanistic versus instrumentalist approach in HRM

Sources: Poutsma, 2001; Jackson, 2002; Gospel and Pendleton, 2004

The emergence and diffusion of financial participation

Countries that have a large spread of financial participation schemes often have had so for a large number of years. Correspondingly, countries with a low spread of financial participation often have trouble finding an effective way of introducing such schemes at large scale, at least if that country desires to have such schemes at all. Apparently, some

countries have institutions that support the existence of financial participation, whereas others have not. Institutional theories give us some ideas on the process of introducing new practices and the role of institutional support in accepting these new practices. Zucker (1987) argues that in this process normative pressures that sometimes arise from external sources and sometimes come from within the organisation itself, influence organisations. Scott (1995) speaks about different carriers that transport institutions. Institutions are dynamic and can be introduced to, for example, new members of a society. The already established institutional elements are easily passed on to newcomers. Moreover, they are maintained for a long period of time without extensive further justification or elaboration and are highly resistant to change (Zucker, 1987).

A new plan for creating financial participation needs to undergo the process of institutionalisation before the new idea can become an accepted phenomenon. Tolbert and Zucker (1999) divide this process in three stages² : a habituation, an objectification and a sedimentation stage. In an organizational context habituation is the pre-institutional phase in which new structural arrangements are generated in response to a specific organizational problem. These structural arrangements are formalised in policies and procedures of that company or in a group of companies. The adoption of new structural arrangements largely depends on the perceived technical and economic viability of the change and by internal political arrangements that determine the firms' receptivity to change processes (Tolbert and Zucker, 1999). If the institutionalisation process continues, the new arrangements become more permanent and more widespread during the objectification phase. There appears to emerge some social consensus (among decision makers) on the value of the structure. This belief in its advantages can for instance be collected through evidence of its efficiency in other companies. In the last phase, the sedimentation phase, the institutionalisation is complete. Now the structures are widely spread across groups of actors and it continues to exist over a long period of time. There is little opposition against the structure, there is vast cultural support and promotion for the structure, and it continues to show a positive relation with desired outcomes. During the process of institutionalisation there are two important factors that can hinder the establishment and spread of a structure (Tolbert and Zucker, 1999). First, actors that are negatively affected by the new structure

² See also Kostova and Roth (2002) who divide the institutionalization process in four patterns of adoption: 'active', 'minima!', 'assent', and 'ceremonial'.

and that are able to mobilise a substantial group to protest against the implementation of a plan. Second, there can be a lack of demonstrated results that can be attributed to the structure (Tolbert and Zucker, 1999).

Looking for institutional elements in different countries

In this section we construct a framework that can be used to look at the different financial participation schemes of various countries, from an institutional perspective. We therefore search for regulative, cognitive, and normative institutions related to financial participation (compare Kostova and Roth, 2002). The distinction between regulative, cognitive, and normative institutions is an analytical one and in practice some elements are closely linked. We search for regulative, cognitive and normative elements within three spheres in which firms strategically interact with other actors: Industrial Relations, Corporate governance and HR management of employees. We investigate the latter sphere by looking at HRM practices. As the institutional environment differs from country to country and consequently influences the management practices in a nation-specific way, the search for cognitive, normative and regulative structures within the three spheres of strategic interaction, will most likely lead to an understanding of the differences between countries regarding their financial participation schemes.

Regulative structures point at regulative processes for directing future behaviour, such as rule setting, monitoring and sanctioning (Scott, 1995). They reflect the laws and rules of a country and either promote or restrict certain types of behaviour (Kostova and Roth, 2002). These institutions are e.g. reflected in the common law, labour law, or professional and occupational standards and regulations (Ruef and Scott, 1998).

The cognitive perspective deals with 'the rules that constitute the nature of reality and the frames through which meaning is made' (Scott, 1995: 40). They reflect 'the widely shared social knowledge and cognitive categories' that influence the way a practice is interpreted and categorized (Kostova and Roth, 2002). Thus, to search for cognitive institutions one should ask questions like: 'do organisations depart from a conventional format?' and 'do relevant actors regard an organisational practice as a natural way to organise?'. An affirmative answer to these questions, points at a cognitive institution.

Normative structures emphasize the normative rules that introduce a prescriptive, evaluative and obligatory dimension into social life (Scott, 1995). These rules include norms and values, beliefs and assumptions on human nature and human behaviour (Kostova and Roth, 2002). These structures may be found in the professional standards of participants of an

organisation, or support a specific type of personnel management. From these notions we can construct a framework that can trace institutions that influence the existence and form of financial participation as distinguished practices between countries.

To trace these institutions, we can look at different levels of analysis, as institutions operate at multiple levels of jurisdiction (Scott, 1995). Institutions can be traced at world system level as well as in subunits of organisations. Translated to institutions that influence the existence and form of financial participation, we can assume that these institutions can not only be traced inside organisations, but also within other relevant actors like trade unions or employers' associations as well as in society at large.

INCIDENCE AND DETERMINANTS OF FINANCIAL PARTICIPATION IN FIVE COUNTRIES

We selected five countries for a more in-depth investigation of the embeddedness of employee financial participation. The countries selected are France, the UK, Germany, the Netherlands and Greece. These countries cover the varieties of capitalism found in Europe. We first analyse a large longitudinal dataset covering these countries, followed by an in-depth country profile description.

The next tables present descriptive statistics (Table 3 and 4) and determinants of broad-based financial participation divided into the main type of schemes: employee share ownership, including stock options (ESO) and profit-sharing schemes (PS). Table 2 provides an overview of the incidence rates in the five countries over time. Overall, it appears that the initially at the start of period reviewed UK and France are the countries where broad-based ESO is much more developed, although the trend over time decreased like in the other countries. In 2015, the incidence rate of the countries decreased to the same level as Greece, i.e. around 11% with France being an exception having an incidence rate of 22.6%. Regarding broad-based profit-sharing, the countries France, Germany, and the Netherlands show relatively higher incidence rates. In Greece, broad-based Profit-sharing appears to be relatively weakly developed, whereas broad-based ESO in Greece has developed in line with these other European countries.

Table 2 Relative percentage of broad-based financial participation per country per year

Country	Year	ESOS			
		2005	2010	2015	total
United Kingdom	% within year	34.5%	33.3%	12.3%	31.3%
France	% within year	33.1%	17.6%	22.6%	24.6%
Germany	% within year	13.1%	12.6%	11.4%	12.4%
The Netherlands	% within year	24.0%	15.6%	7.8%	16.3%
Greece	% within year	25.7%	20.5%	11.1%	19.5%

Country	Year	PS			
		2005	2020	2015	total
United Kingdom	% within year	22.1%	12.3%	21.1%	21.3%
France	% within year	92.7%	73.1%	91.5%	85.7%
Germany	% within year	60.3%	51.7%	46.3%	53.1%
The Netherlands	% within year	49.6%	50.0%	35.7%	43,8%
Greece	% within year	11.4%	8.1%	4.0%	8.0%

note:

total sample 100% N =	2476
year 2005	1242
year 2010	599
year 2015	635

Table 3 Descriptive statistics of the determinants

Determinants	percent	mean	stdev
Country			
United Kingdom (base)	33.1%		
France	14.1%		
Germany	27.0%		
The Netherlands	11.1%		
Greece	14.6%		
Size (log)			
Size (median number of employees)		6.45	1.36
Industry			
Construction	4.5%		
Transportation	7.0%		
Banking and finance	11.2%		
Chemicals (energy; non-energy)	7.6%		
Other industries (e.g. services)	30.9%		
Manufacturing (base)	38.7%		
Multinationals	44.7%		
Trend 2005 (base)-2015			
Year 2010	24.3%		
Year 2015	25.4%		
Stocklisting			
stocklisting	66.1%		
Collective Bargaining			
National or regional broad-based Bargaining		1.04	1.18
Company or site broad-based Bargaining		1.53	1.21
Individual broad-based Bargaining		0.91	1.09
Unionization			
No unionization (base)	20.5%		
1-25%	41.3%		
26-50%	11.1%		
51-75%	7.9%		
76-100%	4.5%		
missing	14.7%		
Joint Work Council	66.8%		

note:

100% = N=

2379



Table 4 Spearman correlations among the different forms of broad-based Financial Participation

Financial Participation	percent	ESOSbb	PSbb
ESOSbb	21.8%	1	
PSbb	39.5%	0.06	1

Table 5 Odd-ratios of broad-based Financial Participation (ESOS, PS) across the five countries, (base= no ESO, no PS).

Determinants	Employee Shares/ options main effects only	robust se	Employee Shares/ options full model	robust se	Profit Sharing main effects only	robust se	Profit Sharing full model	robust se	
Country (base: United Kingdom)									
France	0.549**	[0.119]	0.485**	[0.134]	38.692**	[9.171]	40.512**	[15.629]	
Germany	0.228**	[0.046]	0.179**	[0.048]	9.971**	[1.750]	15.301**	[3.743]	
The Netherlands	0.419**	[0.092]	0.461**	[0.118]	4.666**	[0.928]	4.719**	[1.170]	
Greece	0.979	[0.191]	0.899	[0.246]	0.502**	[0.118]	0.527+	[0.178]	
Size	1.470**	[0.061]	1.467**	[0.060]	1.328**	[0.058]	1.325**	[0.057]	
Industry (base: manufacturing)									
Construction	1.22	[0.332]	1.179	[0.323]	1.115	[0.315]	1.091	[0.312]	
Transportation	1.423	[0.326]	1.471+	[0.337]	0.531**	[0.114]	0.511**	[0.113]	
Banking and finance	2.316**	[0.433]	2.253**	[0.423]	0.805	[0.161]	0.812	[0.161]	
Chemicals (energy; non-energy)	3.494**	[0.749]	3.528**	[0.760]	1.083	[0.239]	1.065	[0.241]	
Other industries (e.g. services)	0.96	[0.142]	0.974	[0.145]	0.630**	[0.088]	0.620**	[0.087]	
Multinational (base: indigenous)	2.093**	[0.282]	2.038**	[0.278]	0.770*	[0.099]	0.790+	[0.102]	
Yearly trend (base 2005)									
Year 2010	0.776	[0.140]	1.055	[0.344]	0.766	[0.135]	0.568	[0.249]	
Year 2015	0.562**	[0.108]	0.305**	[0.108]	0.907	[0.160]	1.517	[0.426]	
Stocklisting	3.425**	[0.573]	3.492**	[0.599]	1.441**	[0.199]	1.325*	[0.183]	
Collective bb-bargaining (base: no Bargaining)									
National or regional broad-based Bargaining	0.96	[0.054]	0.966	[0.056]	0.986	[0.053]	0.951	[0.052]	

Determinants	Employee Shares/options main effects only	robust se	Employee Shares/options full model	robust se	Profit Sharing main effects only	robust se	Profit Sharing full model	robust se
Company or site broad-based Bargaining	1.021	[0.049]	1.006	[0.049]	1.166**	[0.054]	1.158**	[0.055]
Individual broad-based Bargaining	1.081	[0.055]	1.072	[0.056]	1.115*	[0.055]	1.089+	[0.054]
Unionisation (base: none)								
1-25%	0.973	[0.163]	0.967	[0.163]	0.925	[0.156]	0.929	[0.155]
26-50%	0.886	[0.201]	0.872	[0.198]	1.001	[0.216]	1.031	[0.221]
51-75%	0.693	[0.177]	0.679	[0.174]	0.934	[0.234]	0.983	[0.246]
76-100%	0.668	[0.205]	0.653	[0.201]	0.827	[0.238]	0.829	[0.242]
Union missings	0.904	[0.196]	0.862	[0.190]	0.74	[0.153]	0.797	[0.167]
Join Work Council (base: no)	1.276+	[0.186]	1.256	[0.187]	1.155	[0.168]	1.131	[0.162]
Country * Year								
France*Yr2010			0.687	[0.331]			0.914	[0.554]
France*Yr2015			2.922*	[1.397]			1.3	[0.790]
Germany*2010			0.853	[0.375]			0.941	[0.465]
Germany*2015			3.703**	[1.752]			0.298**	[0.110]
The Netherlands*2010			0.635	[0.406]			2.381	[1.465]
The Netherlands*2015			1.245	[0.685]			0.61	[0.233]
Greece*2010			0.81	[0.365]			1.779	[1.075]
Greece*2015			1.831	[1.024]			0.297+	[0.217]
Alternative Financial Participation								
Availability PS	1.752**	[0.234]	1.778**	[0.239]				
Availability ESOS					1.519**	[0.210]	1.581**	[0.220]
Constant	0.009**	[0.003]	0.009**	[0.003]	0.028**	[0.009]	0.030**	[0.010]
Model								
Observations	2468		2468		2468		2468	
Nagelkerke's Pseudo R_square	0.25		0.26		0.404		0.414	
Log Likelihood	-1923		-1911		-1818		-1801	
Chi-Square	440.1		464.8		693.9		16329	
df	48		64		48		64	
sig.	0.000		0.000		0.000		0.000	



Determinants	Employee	robust	Employee	robust	Profit	robust	Profit	robust
	Shares/	se	Shares/	se	Sharing	se	Sharing	se
	options		options		main		full	
	main effects		full model		effects		model	
	only				only			

Table 5 summarizes the odd-ratios of the determinants affecting the incidence rates of the two types of financial participation. Being analysed in much more detail, i.e. while controlling for country specific characteristics like industry, size, presence of multinationals (MNC), the country impact on broad-based financial participation provides a somewhat different picture. Regarding ESO, the main effects only model indicates that the incidence rate in Greece is not significantly different from the UK, whereas the other countries show a significantly lower ESO-rate than the UK. The model indicates also an overall decline of ESO-rates in 2015 compared with 2005. The ESO-rate in 2010 is still at the same level of 2005 being not significant.

This same picture is presented by the full model including the moderation effects. In this model, the conditional effects of country and year indicate the impact of country in the base year 2005 and the year effect in the base country UK. The moderation effects show that the declining trend of broad-based ESO in France and Germany is significantly less strong than in the UK. The declining trend of ESO in Greece and the Netherlands is not significantly different from the UK.

For broad-based profit-sharing, the country effects reveal a different picture. The main effects only model indicates that Greece has a significantly lower incidence rate for profit-sharing than the UK, whereas the other countries and in particular France have much higher rates of profit-sharing. The overall trend for profit-sharing appears to be stable, i.e. the differences across years are not significant. The moderation effects of the full model indicate a decreasing trend in Germany only. In Greece as in the other countries, the development in offering broad-based profit-sharing is not different from the UK. Noteworthy is that at the start of the period reviewed, i.e. 2005, the incidence rate in Greece is not significantly (i.e. $p\text{-value} > 0.05$) different from the UK which is in contrast to the countries France, Germany and the Netherlands.

Besides the country effects, Table 5 shows that ESO as well as PS is offered more by larger companies, by multinationals and in case of being stock listed. Also the presence of one type of financial participation is positively associated with offering another type of financial participation. For both types, broad-based financial participation is most likely offered in the financial and chemical sectors. These sectors indicate higher ESO rates compared to the base sector manufacturing industry, and similar higher PS-rates as the manufacturing industry compared to the transportation and the service sectors. Interesting to note that other forms of participation, i.e. unionisation and a joint work council, do not significantly affect the rates of financial participation. Only for PS, individual bargaining whether or not in combination with collective bargaining positively affects the offering of profit-sharing schemes.

COUNTRY PROFILES OF EMPLOYEE FINANCIAL PARTICIPATION

In the next section we elaborate an in-depth insight into the institutional complementarities between industrial relations regimes and financial participation.

State orientation in the development of IR and EFP in France

Employment relations in France and its institutional setting have been viewed as state-oriented (Parsons, 2013). The state has in various respects played a main role in shaping responses to the crisis of Fordism and the fighting of high levels of unemployment accompanying this crisis. At the same time the state has been seen hindering the emergence of strong and centralised trade unions and employers' associations. It was the period of the socialist government in the eighties, with a more favourable climate for trade unions, when the membership rates and influence of unions paradoxically dropped most drastically. One of the contributing factors is that unions' administrative capacity has been overloaded by the increase of their duties with the introduction of the Auroux laws and their involvement with state welfare (ibid).

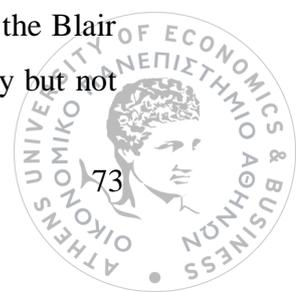
Union membership rate is the lowest in Europe – about 8 %. The main reason for low union density rates is the fragmentation of trade unions. The main union confederations (*CGT*, *CFDT*, *CGT-FO*, *CFTC* and *CFE-CGC*) are deeply divided along political and religious lines. Employer organizations have also suffered from internal divisions. *MEDEF* plays the most important role as representation of employers. With the weak development of corporatist industrial relations the coordinating role of employers' organizations is weak.

Although the main level for setting collective agreements is the sectoral level, there is a statutory obligation – again under the Auroux legislation – for the parties to negotiate at three levels: the multi-industry-level where a framework is set, the industry-level and also the company-level. At the company-level annual negotiations have to take place on pay and working time. In fact, there is an ongoing decentralisation of collective bargaining, but it does not rule out the institutional role of trade unions, even on company level (Parsons, 2013: 202). Despite the low union density rate, the bargaining coverage is high, covering the labor terms of 90% of employees (Visser, 2011).

FP in France is also strongly dominated by state involvement especially the development of PS. Started by General de Gaulle in the fifties to harmonize Capital and Labour the PS system evolved gradually in an elaborate system of PS and ESO. The lower levels of bargaining are used to develop also ESO schemes. The main form of financial participation over the years has been profit-sharing, with two main schemes in operation. First, deferred profit-sharing (*Participation*) is compulsory in firms with more than 50 employees. Profits are shared according to a mandatory pre-set formula or one settled by collective bargaining. The profit share is paid into a fund and attracts tax advantages if it is held there for at least three years. Second, cash profit-sharing (*Interessement*) is a voluntary scheme. Tax benefits may be secured if the profit share is paid into a company savings scheme (*Plan d'épargne d'entreprise (PEE)*). Most of the funds gathered in savings plans are invested in *Fonds Communs de Placement d'Entreprise (FCPE)*, which in turn either invests in a diversified fund or in the shares of the employer. In this way employee share ownership has been promoted in the French system: recent evidence indicates that nearly half of PEEs are used as a means for employee share acquisition. *Interessement* can only be introduced through a collective agreement with trade unions, with the trade union representatives at enterprise level, with the works councils, or by a two-thirds majority of the employees.

Voluntarist employment relations and the development of ESO in the UK

Contrary to employment relations in France the state has been in the UK as little interventionist as possible. Organisers of industrial action are protected from common law liabilities provided they are acting in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute. The major development in industrial relations was the legislation aiming at limiting the rights of trade unions during the Conservative Thatcher government in the eighties. After the Blair government came into power in 1997 the role of the government changed slightly but not



fundamentally. Especially when considering the implementation of legislation under EU law the Labour government has often been politically more opposed to certain pieces of legislation than most other social-democratic governments in EU member states.

The membership rate of trade unions has seen a gradual decline to 29 %, and the collective bargaining coverage is approximately 32% of employees (Visser, 2011). The peak union organisation, the *TUC*, encompasses most unions. The pattern of trade unions is however rather complex and diverse with a high number of small unions and a decreasing number of larger unions as the result of a number of mergers that have taken place between unions. Most significant unions are nowadays general: multi-occupational and often multi-industrial (Kelly, 2013: 174). The position of the *CBI*, the *Confederation of British Industry*, as the peak organisation of employers is rather weak. The abandoning of industry-wide agreements is closely correlated with this weak position. Related to this, collective bargaining has undergone a much more rapid and radical change towards decentralisation of collective bargaining than in many other countries of the EU. Especially the employers of large companies have been the driving force behind the change of collective bargaining away from multi-employer bargaining.

The development of ESO in the UK is directly related to Thatcherism where the involvement of trade unions in pay setting diminished. Developing capitalist entrepreneurship among employees is one of the reasons for the development. Decentralisation of bargaining has boosted the development. Deferred share-based profit-sharing was introduced in 1978 though superseded by the Share Incentive Plan in 2000. Stock options have been the most important form of financial participation in the UK, with the approved schemes being SAYE (Save As You Earn) or Sharesave (the employee enters into a tax beneficial savings contract to finance the exercise of options), Company Share Options Plan (an ‘American-style option’ that may be restricted to selected employees), and Enterprise Management Incentives (aimed at smaller firms).

SAYE (Sharesave) has been the most important stock option plan. Employees are allowed to take out options to be exercised in three, five, or seven years’ time, at up to 20 percent discount on market value at the time of grant. There is no income tax payable on the eventual sale of shares: there is a capital gains tax liability instead, but there is the provision of taper relief to the capital gains arising on share sale. The longer that shares are held the smaller the CGT liability. The Share Incentive Plan provides substantial tax benefits for share purchases by employees and also for grants of shares to employees by companies. Employers can also choose to award free shares to employees, thereby providing an implicit

form of profit-sharing. At the same time the Enterprise Management Incentives plan introduced highly tax advantageous stock options arrangements for employees of smaller firms.

Unlike France, there is no requirement in the UK that financial participation be introduced with an agreement with representatives of employees. There is little involvement of trade unions or representatives in the development and operation of the plans (Pendleton & Poutsma, 2012: 358).

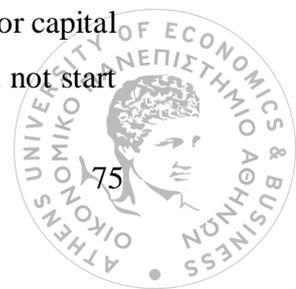
Social partnership and dialogue shaping EFP in Germany

Employment relations in Germany are known for the typical forms of social dialogue and partnership which can be found at various levels: the sectoral level and at the company level. Most important is the dual system of representation, where workplace representation is separated from the system of collective bargaining. Although employee representation through works councils is strictly regulated by law, the social partners are autonomous with regard to collective bargaining. They value the *Tarifautonomie* – autonomy of collective bargaining – as a fundamental principle of industrial relations.

Trade unions are mainly organised in the DGB – beside two smaller peak organisations. *Verdi* and *IG Metal* are the biggest unions and are most powerful. Overall, the organisation rate of trade unions has decreased to 18 %, which is well below the EU average. The most important level for affiliation is the sectoral level, where social dialogue not only affects wage setting but also other arrangements, like with regard to vocational training, pensions, and other welfare provisions. Employers are organised in the *BDA* and the *BDI*. Within these peak organisations sectors and the regions of Germany are most relevant for coordinating policies.

There has been a decentralisation of collective bargaining, but the sectoral level is still the dominant level of collective bargaining. Collective agreements are usually declared binding, which does not prevent the coverage of employees by collective agreements being just below the EU- average, which is 63 % (Visser, 2011). Works councils have most influence with regard to social and personnel matters, while their impact on strategic issues is still limited. Although works councils have a relatively strong position vis-à-vis management, workplace representation is at the average level of the EU: 52 % of employees have a form of employee representation at the workplace.

In Germany, financial participation is viewed as participation in productive capital or capital participation with the principal aim of wealth redistribution. The development did not start



with the intention to develop entrepreneurial attitudes. It is conceptually distinct from profit-sharing though in practice are often inter-linked. The legal framework provides for preferential tax treatment on employer payments to various forms of employee investments. These are supplemented by a tax-free government savings premium. These capital formation payments have been agreed by industry collective agreements, and nearly all employees covered by collective agreements are entitled to them. Capital participation arrangements are further subject to codetermination arrangements at company level. The savings arrangements are limited to workers below a certain taxable income level (after social security contributions and other allowances) but in practice this threshold is set at a level such that most workers qualify. This feature reflects the long-standing concern in Germany to use savings plan arrangements to counter inequalities in wealth (Pendleton & Poutsma, 2012: 359).

Traditionally this system has been primarily concerned with employee participation in productive capital in general. Since 1999 this system has been modified to favour employee share ownership. Profit-sharing can be used to supply the payments to savings/investment arrangements. Employer associations have favoured the development of profit-related payments in recent years and it has been an integral component of their demands for greater flexibility in the pay determination system. Stock options are a recent innovation in Germany. They were in effect prohibited by company law until 1998. Broad-based option plans in Germany fall under the remit of Works Council co-determination rights. This has been a more contentious development than promotion of investment in productive capital because it helps to decentralise the collective bargaining system and potentially facilitates salary substitution over time. Despite the focus on these objectives by employers, the incidence of share ownership is rather low (Pendleton & Poutsma, 2012: 359).

The *poldermodel* and the development of FP in the Netherlands

Employment relations in the Netherlands resemble in many respects employment relations in Germany. Also here, the main level of collective bargaining is the sectoral level and social partnership is even more developed than in Germany. The basis for, what is called the *poldermodel* is the interaction between government and the social partners, represented in the *Foundation of Labour*. This appears to be most effective in establishing coordination of employment and labour market policies, recently specifically with regard to flexible labour and '*flexicurity*'.



The union density is at the level of the EU average: 24 % (Visser, 2011). Dutch unions are divided between three peak organisations: *FNV* – the biggest, general trade union -, the Christian *CNV* and the *VHP* for white collar workers. The internal organisation of the trade unions is according to sectors. Employers are organised in the *VNO-NCW* and – representing SMEs - the *MKB*. The peak organisations exert a strong co-ordinating role with regard to collective bargaining and representing employers in various corporatist bodies.

Collective agreements are usually set at the sectoral level except for some big companies and mainly companies in new sectors, like consultancy and IT. Collective agreements have a legally binding status. Although some decentralisation has taken place the sectoral level is still most relevant for collective bargaining. The coverage of collective agreements among employees is 81 %, which is above the average in the EU (Visser, 2011).

Like in Germany works councils are strongly developed at the company- and generally the plant- and the divisional level of companies. Works councils are consulted with regard to social policies and with regard to strategic issues.

As in France and Germany, employee savings schemes are at the centre of financial participation. Two forms of company saving schemes were introduced in 1994. One provides for employees to subscribe to a savings plan from post-tax salary with a 1 for 1 match by the employer. The other provides for employees to subscribe pre-tax pay or the proceeds of a profit-sharing scheme but without the employer match. In both cases the employee can withdraw sums from the fund after four years tax-free. Savings funds may be used to operate broad-based stock option plans, with the exercise of shares financed by savings in the fund. This type of stock options plan allows employees to receive double the amount of options tax free than is normally permitted. These plans are required to be open to three-quarters of the workforce and to be approved by the Works Council.

The profit share form is by far the most popular, with nearly 3 million participants in 2000. Due to this success and as a consequence of heavy loss in tax the Dutch Government decreased the profitability of the schemes in 2002, and eventually abolished the arrangement in 2012.

Despite an upswing during the early existence of the saving funds arrangement, as in Germany, the incidence of employee share ownership in the Netherlands is low. Employers are supportive but not active in promoting. Trade unions are skeptical about employee share ownership because of the risk that employees may face and the possible interference with collective bargaining outcomes.



Greece, economic structure and employee financial participation

Having joined the European economic monetary union, Greece faced the challenge to adapt, rationalize and increase the effectiveness of its policies and strategies in both the private and public sectors. In an early survey of Greek developments, Papalexandris and Chalikias (2002) noted without doubt to be optimistic because despite differences Greece follows the trends towards a more professionalized, strategic and systematically organized human resource management (including employee financial participation) in line with the country's economic conditions and environmental constraints (ibid, 351). However, as they note, this picture largely reflects the situation in large companies. Large organizations in Greece tend to be bureaucracies where work and industrial relations are regulated and where trade unions focus their influence on. The vast majority of companies in Greece are small and medium-sized and family owned. As a general rule, Greece's many family firms and smaller to medium-sized companies are patriarchal in nature and tend to operate as in-groups. In small and medium-sized and family owned firms, the effective manager/leader may establish a personal relationship with subordinates and thus becomes identified with the in-group as Papalexandris indicate (2007: 784). In such close relationships financial participation may be developed as far as family/owners want to share with employees. However, research shows that family owned companies tend not to share ownership with employees unless there are specific conditions such as no or limited dilution of family ownership, succession problems or a belief of owners of the benefits of employee financial participation for the sustainability of the company (Mullins, 2018). As a consequence, the proportion of companies with financial participation in Greece tends to be low despite positive regulation and tax benefits. Also, the crisis did not help and in fact is part of the reason of the decrease of use of financial participation in Greek companies in the last decade.

In the 1970s, legal provisions for employee financial participation were adopted. Starting with 1984, several other laws were adopted up till the mid-1990s, providing positive incentives for employee financial participation on both the employee and employer side. Since 1984, shares transferred to employees in the form of donations or legacies benefit from advantageous tax treatment, provided that they are not traded for a period of 5 years following transfer. Stock options can also be offered to employees, i.e. there is a share purchase right to be exercised within 5 years. The shares cannot be transferred for three years without the consent of the general shareholders meeting. After this period, the shares become anonymous and are freely transferable. For employees, income from these shares is exempt from taxation and social security contributions. The dividends and interest paid on the shares

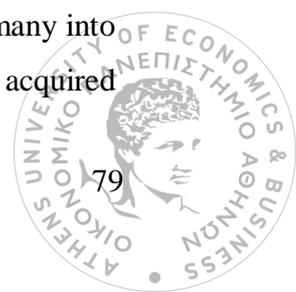
distributed to personnel are liable to income tax (Wilke, Maack, and Partner, 2014). Currently and in the recent past government and social partners did not develop any actions towards these arrangements and tend to have an indifferent attitude towards it. There are no specific constraints from these institutions shaping EFP in Greece.

The data on the incidence of employee financial participation found in existing surveys shows Greece as having low rates for profit-sharing and employee share ownership. Greece saw a large increase in employee share ownership schemes from only 6% in 1992 to about 23% in 1999/2000. One explanation for this phenomenon was the significant increase in the number of companies becoming listed on the stock exchange. Many of these mostly family-owned companies issued shares to their employees in the initial phase (Lowitzsch et al., 2009). In 2009, according to the Cranet study covering mainly larger firms, this value was further reduced to 15% (Poutsma and Ligthart, 2011). According to the results of the “European Company Survey”, a survey of more than 27,000 HR managers in Europe conducted in 2009, a mere 2% of private-sector Greek companies with 10 or more employees offer their employees a share scheme (European average 5%) . The incidence of employee financial participation in Greece increases in line with company size: 15% of companies with more than 250 employees (European average: 14%). Remarkably, despite the crisis, the proportion of companies with employee share ownership schemes has not changed between 2009 and 2013 (the next European company survey). In 2013 the overall average in Greece is 2% and for larger companies (>250) still 15% (one percent point higher than the European average). For profit-sharing the surveys showed a steady decline to an average 17% of companies against 30% for the European average.

We may conclude that despite the crisis Greek large companies follow the HRM trends on employee financial participation. Due to the economic structure of the Greek economy, smaller family firms tend not to develop these arrangements. The developments in Greece tend not to be influenced heavily by industrial relations institutions; rather economic structure and the crisis are more important.

CONCLUSIONS

Profit-sharing, in a variety of forms, is an important component of financial participation in most countries. Clearly it is most important and widespread in France, where *Participation*, is compulsory. There are variations in the end-result of profit-sharing: in France and the Netherlands profit shares are channelled into employee savings plans, and in Germany into various forms of asset formation, whereas in other countries profit shares may be acquired



more or less directly by employees. All-employee share plans (including all-employee stock options) are quite widespread in France, Netherlands, and the UK. It is neither uncommon in Greece. A key influence on the incidence of share plans would appear to be the provision of mechanisms to facilitate employee acquisitions of shares: most of the countries studies have savings plan arrangements to support share acquisition. Germany has widened the scope of its asset formation arrangements to include employee shares.

There is quite a wide variation in the perceived merits of financial participation and in national policy objectives. In some cases the capacity of financial participation to enhance medium and long-term employee savings (Germany, France, Netherlands) is viewed as a key benefit whereas in the UK the contribution of financial participation to productivity enhancements is more important.

Three positions can be discerned on the linkages between financial participation and industrial relations. One set of countries has mandated the involvement of employee representatives in financial participation. French governments have required that financial plans be subject to agreement with employee representatives (though an employee ballot is an alternative in France). Recent French legislation also gives unions a seat on the boards of the funds that invest workers deferred savings. A second set of countries argue that the implementation of financial participation plans ought to be agreed between the social partners but do not specify how this should take place. The Netherlands, Germany and Greece are good examples here. The third position is that of the UK government, which believes that implementation should be left to the company level and does not explicitly refer to the desirability of social partner involvement and agreement.

Unions that are critical of financial participation in principle nevertheless have some pragmatic involvement in the development of financial participation. A common objection is that the closer linkage between profit-sharing and wages may facilitate wage substitution, decentralisation of collective bargaining, and possibly the weakening of collective pay determination. In fact our data show that this is happening. A key danger of employee share ownership is the risk that employee's wealth will be subject to market sentiment. Furthermore, extreme reliance on stock-based remuneration for top managers may lead to short-termism and manipulation of earnings by managers, both of which may lead to adverse consequences for employees. In these circumstances, union hostility to financial participation has to be seen in the context of a broader concern to defend existing patterns of collective bargaining and pay determination.

Although EFP is generally diffused in large parts of businesses, there is hardly any evidence found of final convergence in forms of FP as they function within the setting of various logics dominating employment relations and national business systems. In that sense a pattern of both convergence and persistent differentiation exists and continues to take place, differing between countries and organisations (Djelic et al., 2005). The changes impacted by the introduction of EFP, and the absence of these changes, are not only determined by the character of institutions – being able to change and learn but also ‘sticky’ with regard to their national setting. Also the actors who shape these institutions, most notably employers, trade unions and government bodies, differ profoundly between national systems in their attitude towards EFP and, more general, in the way management proposals are perceived when introducing schemes of EFP.

At the end of this chapter we would like to express our thanks for having had the opportunity to meet and interact with Nancy. Joost happened to meet her more personally during a visit to the University of Athens in 2007 to teach a course in cross-cultural management. This course was part of an EU joint program where we from the Radboud University participated in developing an international Master programme in Marketing. Just before Joost left direction Athens there were huge demonstrations in Athens and the university was even closed. Nancy was able to guide him and helped him teach in other parts of the university which were not occupied. Joost also learned about her great societal interest and her ability to connect in her living neighbourhood in Athens where she chaired a meeting with regard to a local problem of noise nuisance as a result of the growth of the number of visitors chatting all night outside a neighbouring bar. Her commitment and consideration we all experienced at Cranet meetings. Our experience is that Nancy played a significant role in keeping the Cranet group going. In an evaluation of coordination and control in the Cranet network, Wolfgang Mayerhofer (2000) emphasized the importance of informal rule and traditions. We experienced Nancy’s primary role as a guide for us and newcomers in the network, the Grande Dame of the group. This was especially also clear when developing the tradition in the network: joint dinners with a quite festive character where she exploited extremely well the symbolic value of the gathering.

Nancy we wish you all the best!!

Paul, Erik and Joost.

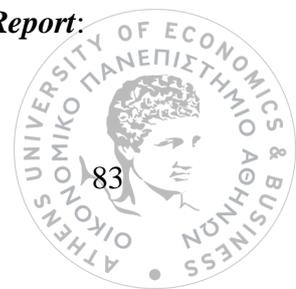


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4. EXPLORING THE CONCEPT OF HR IMAGE THROUGH LINE MANAGERS' PERCEPTION OF HRM

I. Nikandrou, L. Panayotopoulou

ABSTRACT

This paper introduces the concept of HR image, testing it in a sample of 353 line managers. It explores five relevant dimensions of HR image: quality, innovation, people and relationships, values, and HR credibility, and develops measurement scales for each one. Implications for building an HR image are discussed.

Keywords: HR image, line managers, scale development

LITERATURE REVIEW

The existing literature has acknowledged that people can be one of the main sources of competitive advantage (Allen and Wright, 2006; Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Ulrich, 1998). Human Resource Management is one of the major organizational functions that contribute to organizational effectiveness by adding value to its key factor, people. Organizations need to identify, select, place, develop and manage its people to achieve best results. It is fundamental for the HRM function to convince employers, employees and line managers that HR practices and activities are important to achieve common and shared goals.

According to a number of academics, HRM creates added value for the company through its role as a strategic partner (Boxall and Purcell, 2003; Mayrhofer et al, 2000; Ulrich, 1997; Allen and Wright, 2006) or its involvement in the “decision-making” process (Brewster et al, 2000; Buyens and DeVos, 2001). Buyens and DeVos (2001) support that HR can deliver value for the organization not only in its role as a strategic partner but in other domains as well. A number of studies have examined the perceptions of different stakeholders - namely employees, line managers, top managers and HR managers, about the effectiveness of the HR function (Buyens and DeVos, 2001; Gibb, 2001; Watson et al, 2007; Wright et al, 2001). Wright et al (2001) mention that even though line managers believe that a number of HR practices are critical to firm’s success, they do not value high HR’s overall effectiveness. Indeed, the “HR brand” is in trouble. It is impacted by lack of effectiveness in delivering HR services, lack of contribution to business results, confusion regarding the role and the involvement of line managers in HR activities and inconsistent HR practices portfolio (Watson et al, 2007; Wright et al, 2001). All these create ambivalence toward the

HR brand. Executives, line managers and employees, all have different views, opinions and images of HR through which consciously or unconsciously have formed expectations and attitudes toward or against the HR managers.

Images are important intangible assets and HR needs to understand them to manage them effectively, by strengthening, reinforcing or altering them through specific actions and relationships. Thus, HR executives are being compelled to think in terms of their department's image and reputation and how to manage them. The image that line managers have of HR will influence their willingness to either provide or withhold support (Gray and Balmer, 1998).

The aim of this paper is to introduce the concept of HR image. In order to do this, we present a theoretical model with five dimensions and develop measurement scales for each one. We use this model to explore line managers' perceptions of HR, proposing a new framework for addressing this issue.

Next, we review the concept of image from the marketing communications literature and apply the ideas to the HR field. More specifically, we attempt to define HR image through the concept of brand image. We then propose our model and discuss the five dimensions. We proceed with scale development and implications for the HR function.

Linking the concepts of Brand Image and HR Image

Corporate brand is increasingly seen as a strategic marketing tool to improve the organizational financial performance (Roberts and Dowling, 2002). According to Kitchen and Schultz (2001) "a strong corporate brand can a) make the company name known, distinct and credible in the minds of existent and potential customers, consumers and stakeholders; b) facilitate the building of relationships with existing and potential customers, consumers, and stakeholders; and, c) portray the benefits offered to buyers and stakeholders that embody the value system of the corporation" (p. 96).

Financial accountants are interested in brand equity or brand value which is the total value of a brand as a separable asset. Marketers use the term "brand equity" in two ways. First, to measure the strength of consumers' attachment to a brand often referred to as "brand strength" or "brand loyalty". Second, to describe the associations and beliefs the consumer has about the brand, often referred to as "brand image" (Feldwick, 1996; Wood, 2000). Corporate brand equity occurs when relevant constituents hold strong, positive and unique associations about the corporate brand (Keller, 2000).

In the literature the concept of image has been examined by strategy, marketing, and corporate communication researchers who analyze image from an external-based perspective (van Riel and Balmer, 1997). Hatch and Schultz (2000) support that the common-sense view of image is that image is externally defined through the perceptions of different external stakeholders of the organization. Dowling (1986, p. 110) described image as: “the set of meanings by which an object is known and through which people describe, remember and relate to it. That is, the net result of the interaction of a person’s beliefs, ideas, feelings, and impressions about an object”. Van Riel (1995) has described corporate image as the picture people have of a company. Thus, there are three key points in the adopted definition of image: external orientation, perceptions of others and multiplicity of audiences (Hatch and Schultz, 2000).

Borrowing the definitions from the marketing and communication disciplines, we will explore the concept of HR image. For the purpose of this paper we define HR image as the picture that “external audiences”, that is different stakeholders, have about the HR department. A marketing-oriented philosophy can help HR people understand what line managers and other stakeholders expect of them and monitor HR actions to design and implement HR practices effectively by involving line managers in the process. HR brand equity occurs when relevant constituents such as executives, line managers, employees hold strong, favorable, and unique associations about the HR brand (Keller, 2000). The purpose of HR branding is twofold. First, to make the HR name known, distinct and credible in the minds of existent and potential “customers”, such as employers, line managers, and employees, and second, to create and facilitate relationships with existing and potential customers (De Chernatony and McDonald, 1998).

External images of the HR department formed by stakeholders have little in common with the images projected by and held within the department (Wright et al, 2001). This gap can only be narrowed by listening to the views line managers offer on the HR department. Only when HR aspirations about what image the department would like to have are confronted by actual images can the HR department develop an effective image (Hatch and Schultz, 2003). A strong HR image in the eyes of line managers will influence their willingness to provide or withhold support in the design and implementation of HR practices.

The HR image will depend on a number of factors, such as: 1) the HR practices it provides, 2) the actions it takes, and 3) the manner with which it communicates to stakeholders. Images can be based on interactions with the HR department, past reputation

still sticking to the department (Hatch and Schultz, 2003), lack of understanding of the contribution of HR activities to the firm's success, as well as line managers' lack of ownership over HR services (Wright et al, 2001). According to Dowling's definition (1986) HR image is the net result of the interaction of line managers' beliefs, ideas, feelings, and impressions about HR. In other words, HR image is "owned" by people without any conscious effort being made by the HR department.

RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

In our work HR image can be thought of as the associations line managers have in their minds about the HR department designing and providing its services as a whole. An HR image may be more likely to evoke associations of common HR practices and their shared attributes or benefits; people and relationships; values; and, HR credibility (Keller, 2000). After reviewing the relevant literature on corporate image, we established a theoretically based definition of the construct and its dimensions. The model proposed by Keller (2000) seemed more appropriate as it described five distinct associations / dimensions of the concept of corporate image that could serve as a basis for generating the corresponding items for HR image. These dimensions are People and Relationships, Values, Quality of HR practices, Innovation of HR practices, and HR Credibility, and they are presented below.

People and Relationships

Rapid economic, technological and social developments have led to the emergence of a new employment relationship (Roehling et al., 2000), which is characterized by less security and a new kind of employee commitment. There is a shift from 'lifetime employment' and 'one-company career' to new types of contracts in which people and firms deploy their resources (skills, money, time, reputation) for their own benefit (Rousseau and Arthur, 1999). According to Ulrich (1998), under this new employment contract, committed employees are those who fully contribute to the organization, the ones who feel engaged. He argues that the accountability for ensuring this engagement lies to HR professionals, who are responsible for training line managers about the importance of high employee morale and how to achieve it. In describing the role of 'employee champion', Ulrich (1998) adds that HR should be an advocate for employees, representing their views and supporting their rights. Moreover, Rousseau and Arthur (1999) support that in highly unstable business environments where future demands cannot be anticipated, stability and risk reduction can be a source of competitive advantage, shifting HR's focus on socialization and retention.

This new reality gives way to new organizational forms, characterized by leaner, flatter, group-based approaches to doing work that lead to changes in the traditional line-management type of relationships based on formal position and authority. This means that these relationships tend to be replaced by lateral relations, driven not by power, but by the ability to collaborate effectively (Church and Waclawski, 2001). Therefore, HR professionals should try to facilitate cooperation and support line managers in their new role, in order to add value to the organization.

Based on the above, the elements of employee commitment and facilitating teamwork are important elements of the HR image. However, a qualitative study comparing the added value of the HR function as perceived by top managers, HR managers and line managers showed that although the HR managers and some top managers mentioned the area of people as the one adding more value to the organization, line managers cited far fewer value-delivering activities of the HR function in this domain (Buyens and De Vos, 2001).

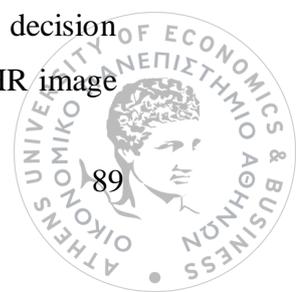
Values

The HR system, aligned to the organizational strategy and goals, reflects both the organizational and HR value systems. HR image associations may reflect values of the company that relate directly to the practices that it provides. Aligning employee attitudes, values and expectations with corporate vision is an important ingredient for the continuing prosperity of a firm (Chew, 2005; Feldman, 2003). Empirical studies support the important role that organizational culture and values play in performance, and HR has several levers to promote the sharing of organizational values by employees (Posner et al, 1985). HR can enhance corporate reputation by building employee capabilities, motivation and organizational identification reflected in interactions with external stakeholders (Friedman, 2009).

A focus on creating a continuous learning environment involves the development of practices and mechanisms to build organizational capabilities and foster an environment promoting knowledge sharing. Line managers' perceptions of HR as contributing to a corporate philosophy of continuous learning is important for HR to play a leadership role in enabling organizations to meet business challenges.

Quality of HR Practices

In marketing surveys, quality has been recognized as one of the most important decision factors for consumers, if not the most important (Keller, 2000). A high-quality HR image



association involves the creation of line managers perceptions that the HR department provides services of the highest quality. This perception can be based on the content or the value of HR practices per se. For example, under the new employment relationship, some HR practices that are valued by employees are provision by the employers of training, education and skill development opportunities, assistance with career management, empowerment of employees, challenging and meaningful work, performance-based compensation (Roehling et al., 2000).

However, the notion of quality cannot be examined without taking into consideration the potential ‘customer’ who is going to use it (manual or professional) and how it affects their working life (decisions about promotions, pay and benefits), or overall evaluation or attitude. A customer-focused HR image association involves the creation of perceptions of the HR department as responsive to and caring about its customers, or end-users, who are not only the employees but also line managers and senior managers. Thus, HR can be seen as customer-focused when it is likely to be described as ‘listening’ to users and having their best interests in mind. Different end-users will have different expectations about their ‘consumption’ of HR services, and their satisfaction can be evaluated in terms of attitudes and satisfaction about the quality of HRM in the organization as a whole (Gibb, 2001).

Innovation of HR Practices

HRM innovation refers to the adoption or implementation of any idea, program, policy, practice or system that is related to the HR function, is designed to influence employee attitudes and behaviours and is perceived to be new to the adopting organisation (Kossek, 1987; Wolfe, 1995). The tendency for innovation is reflected in what Wolfe (1994) described as innovative behaviour. HR innovations are an important element of the image of HR. First, because, apart from occasionally chasing after certain fads, HR professionals have been characterised as risk- and change-averse (Wolfe, Wright and Smart, 2006). Second, initiating innovative HR programs gives the impression that management leads a firm with competitive, state-of-the-art programs, thus validating the legitimacy of HRM among management (Kossek, 1989). Third, under the new employment contract and the emerging new organizational forms, HR managers, who should be knowledgeable about people-related aspects of organizational change management (Church and Waclawski, 2001; Ulrich, 1998), need to consider how to deal with the changing expectations of various organizational stakeholders as well as the employee behaviours required by new programs (Kossek, 1989). As Wolfe et al. (2006) say, “such change requires radical innovations in how HR

professionals design and implement processes aimed at building competitive advantage through people” (p. 113).

An innovative HR image association involves the creation of line managers perceptions of the HR department as developing new and unique HR practices. Being innovative is seen in part as being modern and up to date, introducing the newest management methods, investing in exploiting employee creativity and promoting entrepreneurship among employees. Perceived innovativeness is a key competitive weapon and priority for many firms.

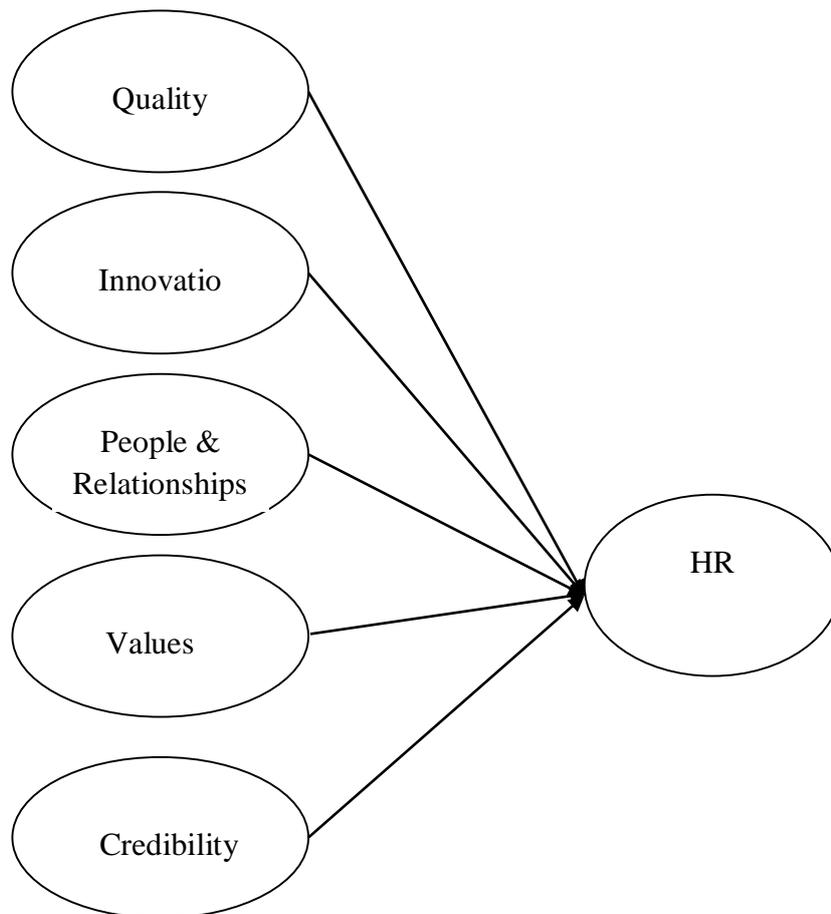
HR Credibility

Line managers may form more abstract beliefs about the HR function, including perceptions of the “personality” of HR. HR credibility refers to the extent to which line managers believe that the HR function can design and deliver HR services that satisfy their needs and wants. Thus, HR credibility relates to the reputation that HR has achieved in the company (Keller, 2000). HR credibility depends on three factors:

1. HR expertise – the extent to which a company is seen as able to provide its practices -“products” and services competently,
2. HR trustworthiness – the extent to which HR is seen as motivated to be honest, dependable, and sensitive to employee needs,
3. HR likability – the extent to which HR is seen as likable, attractive, prestigious, dynamic, etc.

For HR to fulfill its roles as strategic partner, employee champion, change agent and administrative expert, it must develop skills and knowledge about strategy, markets, the economy, what the line actually does (Ulrich, 1998). Through expertise and trustworthiness HR can build confidence and respect. A highly credible HR may help destroy “the stereotype of HR as incompetent value-sapping support staff” (Ulrich, 1998, pp.). Moreover, creating an HR with a strong and credible reputation may offer benefits beyond the employee reactions, improved satisfaction, commitment, productivity. A highly credible HR may also be treated more favorably by other external constituencies. It also may be possible to attract better qualified employees as a result.

Figure I



METHODOLOGY

Overview of Scale Development

The procedures we used to develop the five constructs that may be used to assess HR image closely adhere to those described in the psychometric literature (Bagozzi, et al., 1991; Eastman et al., 1999; Pritchard et al., 1999). After defining our constructs in the previous section, we then discuss the process of item generation and judging, measure purification, examination of dimensionality and internal consistency (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Stage 1: item generation and judging

Having identified the dimensions of HR image, namely quality and innovation of HR practices, people and relationships, values, and credibility, we searched the HR literature to find measurement tools that could be applied to our research. Two questionnaires seemed relevant for our purposes, as they reflected the domains of the constructs. The one was

developed by Wright et al. (2001) in order to measure HR and line's executive evaluations of the effectiveness of the HR function in three major areas, from which we selected the two. First, service or practice delivery, including questions about the importance of various HR practices to the firm's competitive advantage. Second, HR's contribution to the firm, by asking for an overall evaluation of the function on different dimensions. From this questionnaire 25 items were generated.

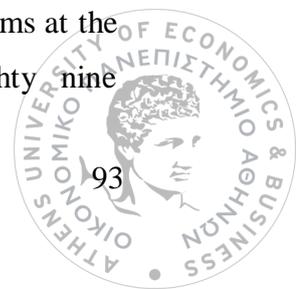
The second questionnaire we used was one developed by Panayotopoulou et al. (2003) to measure HRM orientation, or the contribution of HR in developing and maintaining organizational practices, employee skills and employee behaviors, according to the competing values framework (Cameron and Quinn, 1999). From this questionnaire we draw 14 items.

To this list and based on the literature and our theoretical model, we generated ten more items such that a total of 49 items served as the initial pool of statements (Netemeyer et al., 1996). To ascertain the face validity of items, a panel of 8 expert judges consisting of 4 faculty and 4 HRM doctoral students revised 49 items and correctly categorized all items greater than 80% (6 out of 8 judges), indicating face validity (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Netemeyer et al., 1996). We then determined the content validity of each scale. Each expert was asked to respond to the following question for each of the items: "Is the item, a) essential, b) useful but not essential, or c) not necessary to describing the construct in question?". Responses from all experts were pooled and the number indicating "essential" for each item was determined. The content validity ratio (CVR) was measured. In each construct only those items with CVR values meeting a minimum value of 0.85 were retained in the final form of the questionnaire (Lawshe, 1975). We ended up with a questionnaire containing thirty-nine 7-point Likert scale items for the five dimensions: 8 for quality, 7 for innovation, 9 for people and relationships, 7 for values, and 8 for credibility.

Stage 2: Scale construction (main study)

Sample

The sample for the present study consisted of 353 line managers from private sector firms that had an organized Human Resources Department. It was a random sample collected in the greater area of Athens, Greece. Questionnaires were administered to 700 line managers, either by research assistants at the work places of the potential participants and collected after several days or directly to line managers participating in the graduate programs at the Athens University of Economics and Business. Three hundred and eighty nine



questionnaires were returned; the participation rate was about 55 per cent. Three hundred and fifty-three of the 389 returned questionnaires were usable.

The next step in scale purification is to examine the reliability of scales. Cronbach α for the five factors ranged from 0.89 to 0.95. We then conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with a principal components method and varimax rotation, to check the dimensionality of the items and reduce them, as suggested by Eastman et al. (1999). EFA of the 39 items revealed a five-factor structure explaining 69% of the total variance. Items with strong and unique loadings to components that is, items that showed meaningful and useful membership to a factor were retained. Eight items had strong cross loadings ($>.30$) and were omitted due to the fact that they were unclear and redundant.

To further examine the performance of our constructs, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8.80. The CFA model is a powerful method for assessing scale dimensionality, discriminant validity and internal consistency of the final form of the scales (Bagozzi, et al., 1991; Netemeyer et al., 1996). We run five CFAs, one for each scale, to demonstrate that the corresponding items formed unidimensional scales, with items loading significantly on each latent construct. Table I presents all measures used to examine the fit for each of the five constructs.

Table I: Scale Properties for the five constructs

Scale	RMSEA	NFI	CFI	GFI	AGFI
Quality	0.024	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.96
Innovation	0.080	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.91
People and Relationships	0.074	0.98	0.99	0.94	0.89
Values	0.053	0.99	0.99	0.98	0.95
Credibility	0.080	0.99	0.99	0.94	0.86
n= 353					

Quality

CFA was conducted with the six items derived from the EFA. All six items formed a unidimensional scale with all items loading significantly on the quality latent construct. Scale items with estimates and t-values are presented in Table II. The fit of the measurement model is very good with RMSEA=0.026, NFI=0.99, CFI=1.00, and GFI=0.98 as shown in Table I.

Table II: Quality scale items and CFA Estimates and T-values

Quality Scale Items	Estimates	t-values
1. Support of the quality control procedures.	1.50	8.86
2. Maintaining performance-based incentives to motivate individuals to focus on achieving strategic goals.	1.51	8.61
3. Providing training and development programs to enable front-line managers to maximize their performance potential.	1.49	8.86
4. Development of effective staffing systems to ensure human resources with the required skills and Knowledge.	1.59	8.30
5. Maintenance of succession plans to ensure a steady supply of managerial talent.	1.33	7.78
6. It is important that HR follows important measures and trends (e.g. productivity, turnover, sick leave) to identify potential problem areas.	1.00	constant
n= 353 All t-values statistically significant at $p < 0.05$		

Innovation

CFA was conducted with the five items derived from the EFA. All five items formed a unidimensional scale with all items loading significantly on the innovation latent construct. Scale items with estimates and t-values are presented in Table III. The fit of the measurement model is very good with RMSEA=0.080, NFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, and GFI=0.97 as shown in Table I.

Table III: Innovation scale items and CFA Estimates and T-values

Innovation Scale Items	Estimates	t-values
1. Development of employees' creative thinking.	0.93	29.94
2. Enhancement of the organization's innovativeness	1.00	Constant
3. Development of an entrepreneurial climate	1.01	27.67
4. Introduction of modern methods of management.	1.20	24.08
5. Developing initiatives to respond to potential problem areas.	0.86	19.97
n= 353 All t-values statistically significant at $p < 0.05$		

People and Relationships

CFA was conducted with the eight items derived from the EFA. All eight items formed a unidimensional scale with all items loading significantly on the people and relationships latent construct. Scale items with estimates and t-values are presented in Table IV. The fit of the measurement model is very good with RMSEA=0.074, NFI=0.98, CFI=0.99, and GFI=0.94 as shown in Table I.

Table IV: People and Relationships scale items and CFA Estimates and T-values

People and Relationships Scale Items	Estimates	t-values
1. Enhancement of employee commitment.	1.00	constant
2. Development of team spirit and cooperation.	1.10	14.30
3. Promotion of equal opportunities for all employees.	1.22	14.24
4. Line managers' support in people management issues.	1.18	13.65
5. Providing a good working environment.	1.05	13.05

6. Providing performance management programs to develop and motivate line managers.	1.10	15.04
7. Communication of business and human resource initiatives to line managers.	1.12	13.15
8. Developing initiatives that help build employee commitment.	1.15	15.50
n= 353		
All t-values statistically significant at $p < 0.05$		

Values

CFA was conducted with the six items derived from the EFA. All six items formed a unidimensional scale with all items loading significantly on the values latent construct. Scale items with estimates and t-values are presented in Table V. The fit of the measurement model is very good with RMSEA=0.053, NFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, and GFI=0.98 as shown in Table I.

Table V: Values scale items and CFA Estimates and T-values

Values Scale Items	Estimates	t-values
1. Shaping the organizational culture.	0.82	21.36
2. Development of a continuous learning environment in the organization.	0.72	15.99
3. Conveying corporate vision and values.	1.00	Constant
4. The HR department contributes to corporate reputation and status.	0.82	20.49
5. It is important that HR develops a fair pay system based on performance management.	0.56	12.35
6. It is important that HR develops initiatives to promote diversity	0.70	16.20
n= 353		
All t-values statistically significant at $p < 0.05$		

Credibility

CFA was conducted with the six items derived from the EFA. All six items formed a unidimensional scale with all items loading significantly on the credibility latent construct. Scale items with estimates and t-values are presented in Table VI. The fit of the measurement model is very good with RMSEA=0.080, NFI=0.99, CFI=0.99, and GFI=0.94 as shown in Table I.

Table VI: Credibility scale items and CFA Estimates and T-values

Credibility Scale Items	Estimates	t-values
1. The HR department is very responsive to meeting customer (front-line managers and employees) needs.	1.01	30.27
2. The HR department has helped to enhance the firm's competitive position.	0.83	30.28
3. The HR department provides value-added contributions to the firm's bottom line.	0.86	37.43
4. The HR department contributes to building and/or maintaining the firm's core competence.	0.88	41.70
5. The HR department contributes to building the firm's human capital (employees/managers) as a source of competitive advantage.	1.00	Constant
6. The HR department has developed a well-coordinated set of policies, practices, and procedures.	1.19	31.26
n= 353		
All t-values statistically significant at $p < 0.05$		

Finally, we run a CFA for all the five constructs to examine the correlations between them (presented in Table VII). The fit of the measurement model is good with RMSEA=.080, NFI=0.97, CFI =0.98, and GFI=0.91. All five components are positively

correlated, which provides evidence that those five components may be associated with a wider concept, that of HR image, according to our theoretical model.

Table VII: CFA Estimates and t-values for all five constructs

	1.Quality	2.Innovation	3.People & Relationships	4.Values	5.Credibility
1.Quality	---				
2.Innovation	1.01 (9.65)	---			
3.People & Relationships	1.30 (9.32)	1.56 (21.72)	---		
4.Values	1.68 (9.3)	2.25 (25.24)	2.57 (21.35)	---	
5.Credibility	0.97 (9.11)	1.21 (23.75)	1.45 (18.15)	2.13 (23.06)	---
n=353					
Numbers in parentheses are t-values (statistically significant at $p < 0.05$)					
RMSEA=.08, CFI=.98, NFI=.97, GFI=.91					

Although future research is needed in order to clearly define the construct of HR image and determine its dimensions, based on our results, we can argue that all these intangible types of associations may be linked to the HR image and contribute to its equity. HR has a number of means both direct and indirect of creating these associations (Keller, 2000). HR image and reputation can be built through line managers' understanding of the link of organizational and HR values, as well as their experiences of HR practices, services, and credibility.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE HR FUNCTION

Exploring the perceptions that different organizational stakeholders have of HR effectiveness and value is not new (e.g. Wright et al., 2001). Some researchers adopt an alternative way of evaluating HRM by exploring the HRM 'experience' from the point of view of the people on the 'receiving end' (Gibb, 2001, p. 323). This approach examines how the subjects of HRM evaluate their experiences of HRM, without focusing solely on

economic measurements (Gibb, 2001). The concept of HR image attempts to provide a holistic impression of the HR 'experience'. If HRM does not satisfy the wants and needs of people, then HRM systems and activities are perceived as poor. On the other hand, HRM is appreciated when people think that it provides good service. Positive and negative HR associations will influence the willingness of people to be involved in the design and implementation of HR practices. HR orientation on line managers' feelings about the relationship and the benefits gained from their cooperation with HRM, promotes the achievement of common objectives (Gibb, 2001), as line managers should lead the way in integrating HR into the company's real work (Ulrich, 1998).

Usually researchers focus on the strategic view of HR, measuring its involvement in strategic decision making, devolvement to line and strategic fit contributing to firm performance (Brewster and Larsen, 1992; Buyens and De Vos, 2001). By introducing the concept of HR image, we propose an alternative framework for understanding HR, which is not limited to executing certain roles. In doing so, HR should make decisions concerning the planned or desired image, through internal communication programs, networks and HR portfolio development.

First, communication is important for two purposes. One is to understand the needs and wants of line managers and other constituents by systematically receiving and analyzing their views. The other is to promote the value of HR practices in achieving results in terms of employee well-being and organizational development. Communication programs develop awareness and foster an environment of shared values that can help increase line managers' ownership over HR services.

Second, HR should form a network of alliances with line managers and other stakeholders. The network aims at enhancing HR services by providing customized solutions rather than targeting cost reduction. HR can gain access to information on what various constituents view as important. At the same time, it can benefit from their support and increase its visibility.

Third, HR should develop a portfolio of services which will enable line managers to understand the complementarities that exist between HR practices and values. A portfolio of HR services reinforces the line managers' conviction that HR actions can contribute to employee development and motivation.

CONCLUSION

Our study examined the concept of HR image from the viewpoint of line managers and identified five dimensions that represent it. Our results indicate that they are interrelated and form part of a wider concept. HR image is influenced by the quality and innovation of the HR practices, the relationships HR develops with people, the values HR diffuses, and HR credibility. Image is important and HR needs to understand and manage it effectively through specific actions and relationships.

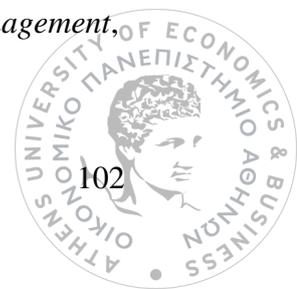
Wright et al (2001) also argue that it is not only the human capital that leads to competitive advantage, but also the relationships and motivation of employees. HR needs to build relationships with line managers and establish a bond based on something deeper than mere providing practices and services: developing a portfolio with focus on quality and innovation, aligning practices with values and building credibility through expertise and trustworthiness.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Given the explorative nature of our research, our results need to be considered as a first step for further research aimed at defining the image of the HR function. In this paper, we have examined the five dimensions that theoretically compose the concept of HR image and we have developed scales for measuring them. It should be noted that because of the theme of our study, subjectivity might be an inherent characteristic of the research design. There is a need for cross-validation on different samples consisting of top managers, employees and other stakeholder groups. Further research could compare the views of these groups in order to form a more comprehensive picture of important stakeholders' view on the image of the HR function. Moreover, it would be interesting to examine whether the perception of HR image that different stakeholders have affects the accomplishment of HRM goals. For example, further research could examine the link between employees' associations of HR and commitment, or if HR image is linked to employer branding. Finally, the role of HR image in cases of breach of the psychological contract could also be a theme for further research.

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5. RE-EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CORE JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND EMPLOYEE PRESENTEEISM IN A SAMPLE OF GREEK PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EMPLOYEES

F. Ntalianis

Acknowledgment: I would like to thank Michail Athanasiou for collecting the data for this study.

Abstract

Presenteeism describes a phenomenon where the employee attends work while he or she is not feeling well or is ill. Our primary research objective was to investigate in a Greek context how certain job/task characteristics trigger and sustain presenteeism behavior among employees. Specifically, we examined how the core job characteristics (i.e. skill variety, skill identity, skill significance, autonomy and feedback) are linked to Greek employees' presenteeism. An online questionnaire was created and administered to employees in different professions working in two separate geographical areas (the city of Athens and the island of Lesbos). A final sample of 121 participants was used to perform the statistical analyses in order to examine the key research hypotheses. Our results were aligned with existing research, indicating that, of the five job-related characteristics examined, task variety and task significance are associated with presenteeism. This study therefore offers additional cross-cultural evidence regarding the relationship between two work-related constructs (presenteeism and job/task characteristics). Future research should incorporate additional aspects of one's job characteristics to enhance our understanding of how this complicated work-related phenomenon emerges and affects employees' lives.

Keywords: presenteeism, job characteristics, public companies, Greece



INTRODUCTION

Productivity and absenteeism have long been the subject of organizational research (e.g. Johns, 2008; 2009). In more recent years, however, attention has turned to another phenomenon, that of presenteeism, whereby an employee ‘attend[s] work while ill’ (Johns, 2010: 521). This can be seen as occupying the middle ground between productivity and absenteeism since the employee is physically present in the workplace but cannot work at full capacity as a result of ill health.

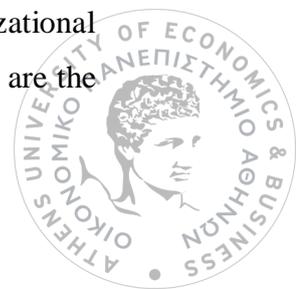
Presenteeism is extremely prevalent: in the UK absence rates for 2016 were at their lowest level in two decades with employees taking only four days off on average each year (Office for National Statistics, 2017). Moreover, studies have consistently found that it represents losses of up to 150 billion dollars to US companies each year (Hemp, 2004). In light of this, it is therefore clear that this aspect of employee behavior is worth studying in more detail.

The current study aims to contribute to our understanding of the factors that drive presenteeism. Our primary research objective was to investigate how certain task characteristics trigger or sustain presenteeism behavior among workers. Specifically, we examined how the core job characteristics (i.e. skill variety, skill identity, skill significance, autonomy and feedback) as portrayed in Hackman and Oldham’s model (1975) are linked to the phenomenon of presenteeism.

THEORY

Presenteeism

In recent years, interest in presenteeism has gained momentum (Johns, 2010; Lohaus & Habermann, 2019). Its impact both on employee health and wellbeing (Skagen & Collins, 2016) and on organizational profitability (as a result of reduced employee productivity and healthcare costs) is now widely recognized by both researchers and practitioners (Johns, 2010). In view of this, considerable attention has been directed towards understanding the factors that result in an employee displaying this behavior since grasping the underlying reasons for this phenomenon is the first step towards finding ways to combat its negative effects. A large number of potential antecedents have been empirically investigated, both directly (by examining presenteeism itself) and indirectly (by examining the lack of factors that predict absenteeism), on the basis of the ‘substitution hypothesis’ (Caverley, Cunningham & MacGregor, 2007), which argues that presenteeism and absenteeism are driven by the same factors. Some of the antecedents that have been studied can be grouped into organizational policies, organizational culture and job design (Johns, 2010). Organizational policies are the



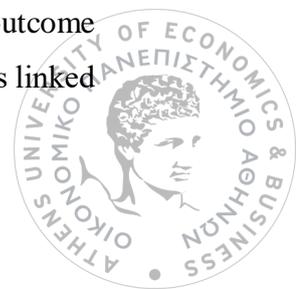
systems that organizations put into place, which include remuneration and paid sick leave (Johns, 1997), permanency of employment (Aronsson, Gustafsson & Dallner, 2000) and downsizing. For example, high levels of job insecurity have been found to result in an increase in presenteeism, presumably because the employees feel that they must put in additional effort in order to retain their positions. This study aims to contribute to this stream of research by putting emphasis on certain job-related factors (i.e. job characteristics) and examining how these are related to the emergence of presenteeism.

Job Characteristics

In an effort to gain a better understanding of the reasons for the positive outcomes for both employee and organization that are achieved through job redesign or enrichment, Hackman and Oldham (1975; 1976) developed a model that placed major emphasis on certain job characteristics. By determining precisely how these interact with employee characteristics, it is possible to predict the extent to which a particular job will have positive outcomes.

At the core of Hackman and Oldham's model (1975; 1976) are three psychological states. The first is 'experienced meaningfulness of the work' and refers to the extent to which an employee views his/her work as valuable and worthwhile. The second is 'experienced responsibility for the outcomes of the work' and relates to the employee's personal sense of accountability for his/her work. The third is 'knowledge of the results of the work activities' and denotes the employee's awareness of the extent to which he/she is performing well at work. The combination of all three of these psychological states in an individual's work results in a positive cycle of job motivation, whereby an employee gains internal rewards from his/her good performance or is motivated to apply greater effort in order to improve performance in the future.

Five job characteristics are identified as contributing to these psychological states: autonomy, skill variety, task significance, task identity, and feedback (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Of these, skill variety, task identity and task significance are related to the meaningfulness of the work. This means that an employee will view his/her work as worthwhile if it is challenging and requires the use of a number of skills (variety), if an entire piece of work is completed from start to finish (task identity) and if the employee feels that this work has a positive impact on other people, whether within or outside the organization (task significance). Autonomy denotes the freedom of the employee to complete the assigned task as he/she wishes (rather than merely following instructions) and have a sense that he/she is responsible for the outcome of the work. This is related to the 'experienced responsibility' state. Finally, feedback is linked



with ‘knowledge of results’ and indicates the extent to which information regarding the employee’s performance is clearly communicated to the employee (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; 1976).

According to this model, employees are highly motivated to perform their job well when the job has meaningfulness (demonstrating at least one of the three related characteristics listed above), autonomy and feedback.

Job Characteristics and Presenteeism

The primary goal of this research was to investigate the relationship between certain job characteristics and presenteeism. We argue that all five job characteristics will have a positive relationship with presenteeism and encourage the employee to engage in such behavior. Specifically, autonomy implies that the person has the flexibility to adjust in new work arrangements or situations. As Johns reports (2010), employees with significant autonomy will be able to adjust their workload according to their health condition, thus not perceiving presenteeism as a negative condition but as an opportunity to attend work while sick. Jobs with high task significance, such as doctors, nurses and teachers, usually exhibit high levels of presenteeism (Johns, 2010). We therefore believe that if someone perceives their job as important they will tend to ignore their sickness symptoms and attend work. Similarly, employees who believe that they have multiple indispensable skills (i.e. skill variety) and have a key role in the full completion of organizational tasks (i.e. task identity) will be compelled to go to work even if they are feeling unwell as part of their duties and responsibilities. Finally, employees who seek good feedback from their supervisors and colleagues are likely to show up at work even if they are sick as they perceive that this is the right thing to do while the opposite (i.e. absenteeism) can be considered as a sign of weakness. This is verified by the research of Ramsey (2006) and Bierla and colleagues (2013), which shows that employees in managerial positions rarely take sick leave, believing that they act as role models to their subordinates and colleagues.

In light of the above arguments, the following hypotheses are proposed:

- H1: Autonomy is positively related to presenteeism.*
- H2: Task variety is positively related to presenteeism.*
- H3: Task significance is positively related to presenteeism.*
- H4: Task identity is positively related to presenteeism.*
- H5: Job feedback is positively related to presenteeism.*



METHODS

Data were collected with an electronic questionnaire distributed to employees in the public and private sectors in Greece, assessing demographic characteristics and the two key variables of this study: presenteeism and job characteristics. There were no differences between public and private sector employees in the geographical areas in which the questionnaire was distributed. The information regarding the sample is as follows:

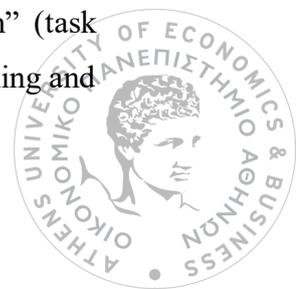
Sample

The questionnaire was answered by 121 respondents working in different professions in the city of Athens and on the island of Lesbos. All the respondents worked on a full-time basis. 49.6% were male and 50.4% female. Most of our respondents (86.8%) were aged between 26-55 years. The majority held a bachelor's (43%) or postgraduate degree (Master's or Ph.D.) (42.2%). As regards work experience, 28.9% reported that they had minimal work experience (0–5 years), 25.6% 6–10 years, 14.9% 11–15 years, while the remaining 30.5% had more than 16 years of work experience in total.

Scales

Presenteeism. Presenteeism was measured with two items (Johns, 2011). The sample items are: “Over the past six months I have gone to work despite feeling that I really should have taken sick leave due to my state of health” and “I have continued to work when it might have been better to take sick leave”. The scale was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree). The overall Cronbach's alpha was .90.

Job Characteristics. Job characteristics were measured with 24 items from the 77-item Work Design Questionnaire (WDQ) (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). The selection of the 24 items was based on theoretical grounds to reflect the task characteristic dimensions of the Hackman and Oldham (1975) model. Sample items include: “The job allows me to make my own decisions about how to schedule my work” (Autonomy – Work Scheduling Autonomy), “The job gives me a chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work” (Autonomy – Decision Making Autonomy), “The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.” (Autonomy – Work Methods Autonomy), “The job requires the performance of a wide range of tasks” (task variety), “The work performed on the job has a significant impact on people outside the organization” (task significance), “The job involves completing a piece of work that has an obvious beginning and



end” (task identity) and “The work activities themselves provide direct and clear information about the effectiveness (e.g. quality and quantity) of my job performance” (feedback from job). The scale was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree) and the alpha reliability for the whole scale was .91. The alpha reliabilities for the underlying dimensions were: Autonomy (combined work scheduling, decision making and work methods) .94, Task Variety .96, Task Significance .93, Task Identity .94, Feedback from Job .94.

Control Variables. Demographic variables, such as gender and age, have been consistently used in different studies to control or explain variation in employee behavior in relation to their work characteristics (e.g. Bayona, Caballer & Peiró, 2015). In our analyses, we decided to use gender and work experience as control variables.

RESULTS

Table 1 reports the descriptive statistics, correlations and alpha reliabilities for the Greek sample.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	1.50	.50	-							
2. Work experience	2.87	1.84	.02	-						
3. Autonomy	3.65	.86	-.00	.07	(.94)					
4. Task variety	4.05	.89	-.07	-.04	.27**	(.96)				
5. Task significance	3.77	1.04	.06	.15	.29**	.35***	(.93)			
6. Task identity	3.58	.99	-.28**	-.02	.17	.08	.02	(.94)		
7. Feedback from job	3.68	.98	-.11	-.04	.40***	.21*	.17	.58***	(.94)	
8. Presenteeism	2.81	1.23	.13	-.05	.15	.25**	.40**	.03	.14	(.90)

Note: n= 121, alpha reliabilities given in the diagonal

p* < .05 (2-tailed), p** < .01 (2-tailed), p*** < .001 (2-tailed)

The examination of the correlations in Table 1 shows that there are highly positive significant associations between presenteeism and task variety ($r = .25$, $p < .01$) and presenteeism and task significance ($r = .40$, $p < .001$). Thus, the results in Table 1 provide preliminary support for two of the key hypotheses of this study.



Hierarchical regression analysis

In order to test the key hypotheses of this study, we ran hierarchical regression analyses. Table 2 presents the results of these analyses. At the first step, we entered the control variables (i.e. gender and work experience) and then the key independent variables (i.e. autonomy, task variety, task significance, task identity, feedback from job). We argued that presenteeism will be positively related to all five job characteristics. In particular, our analyses showed that presenteeism is strongly associated with task significance ($\beta = .36, p < .00$) (H3) and has a marginal positive relationship with task variety ($\beta = .21, p < .10$) (H2).

Table 2. Regression analyses for the effects of presenteeism on job characteristics (autonomy, task variety, task significance, task identity, feedback from job)

		Dependent Variable	
		Presenteeism	
Predictors	<i>B</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Step 1:			
Controls		.06 ⁺	
Step 2:			
Autonomy	-.04	.17***	.11***
Task variety	.21 ⁺		
Task significance	.36**		
Task identity	.02		
Feedback from job	.05		

Note: n= 121; control variables are gender and work experience

⁺p < .10, **p < .01, ***p < .001

DISCUSSION

This study examined the relationship between job characteristics (i.e. autonomy, task variety, task significance, task identity, feedback from job) and presenteeism in a Greek context. Our results showed that out of the five core job characteristics, according to Hackman and Oldham's model (1975), task variety and task significance were significant predictors of



presenteeism. These results indicate that if someone is not feeling well they will attend their work because they believe that it is meaningful and offers them the opportunity to implement their knowledge and talents. For example, a pediatric resident physician will rarely miss work because she believes that she is irreplaceable in her main daily duties (Mitchell & Vayalumkal, 2017). Thus, our belief that the work we perform is worthwhile and significant will drive attendance, pushing aside any signs of illness or sickness.

A possible limitation of this study includes the possibility of common method variance, since all data were collected from a self-reported electronic questionnaire. An additional threat is posed by the relatively small sample (N= 121), which could potentially call into question the generalizability of the study findings.

Future research should additionally examine work context as well as knowledge and social characteristics so that we can obtain a full picture of Morgeson and Humphrey's (2006) expanded model in the Greek context. In addition, one could examine the moderating or mediating mechanisms affecting the relationship between job characteristics and presenteeism, such as major personality traits (i.e. conscientiousness, extraversion), and intrinsic motivation (i.e. self-determination theory). Furthermore, researchers could also investigate how presenteeism associated with certain job characteristics affects certain outcomes, such as job engagement, in-role and extra-role performance or positive psychological states (i.e. psychological capital).

Presenteeism has been systematically found to be related to a range of undesirable work behaviors (Johns, 2010). However, it is a phenomenon that, if regulated and managed, can offer a competitive advantage to organizations. Therefore, this study offers a valuable opportunity for practitioners to differentiate an organization and create a much-needed competitive advantage by establishing certain work-related routines and performance indicators that will monitor presenteeism on a frequent or daily basis as well as features related to the core job characteristics. In addition, they can initiate employee well-being programs which promote healthy life and work styles and stress the personal and organizational perils of presenteeism behaviors.

Given the particular challenges currently facing organizations and their employees in Greece, it is hoped that further research endeavors will expand their studies in order to shed additional light on this multifaceted phenomenon and offer solutions that on the one hand will promote employee health and well-being and on the other reduce presenteeism-related costs for organizations.



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6. HRM AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE FOR AN AGEING WORKFORCE: A QUALITATIVE STUDY

N. Pahos, E. Galanaki

ABSTRACT

In this paper we explore the relationship between age, HRM practices and employee performance, employing a focus group analysis with 12 HRM academics and 16 interviews with HRM and top management practitioners. We find that the perspectives of academics and practitioners regarding the performance of mature employees and the implementation of age-based HRM practices agree to a large extent. The analysis of both the focus group and the interviews hinted that HRM practices impact on employee performance through mediating factors, and that age cannot be directly associated with employee performance. The results indicate that, despite the relevant calls for tailoring HRM practices to the age profiles of employees, concrete examples of such a tailoring are rare, both in theory and in practice. We discuss the results, theoretical contributions and practical implications in light of the challenges that managing an ageing workforce poses.

Keywords: Ageing workforce, HRM practices, employee performance, focus group, interviews

INTRODUCTION

Population ageing is a significant feature of global demography, given that never before in human history has such a large portion of our planet's population been elderly. From a labour perspective, the greying of populations is related to a decreasing number of younger employees. Rather than being pressured to exit the workforce early, mature employees will actually be needed longer in the coming years (Taylor, 2006). The need for organizations to adapt their Human Resource Management (HRM) practices (Finegold et al., 2002) and to develop new practices for an ageing workforce is already urgent and will soon become critical (Patrickson & Ranzijn, 2004).

The main purpose of this paper is to explore the link between HRM practices and employee performance, as well as the role of age on the above relationship, through a qualitative analysis of the perceptions of academics and practitioners. As a secondary objective we aim to examine the perceptions of decision makers regarding the individual performance of the mature employees, as well as the policies that are implemented in organizations for the



successful management of an ageing workforce. The methods applied to this end are focus group and semi-structured interviews with content analysis.

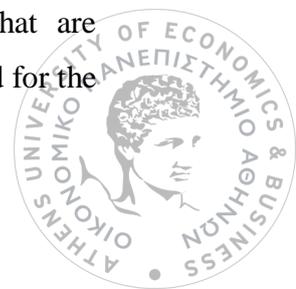
LITERATURE REVIEW – THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The literature review is structured around the interconnected themes of HRM practices, employee performance and age. What appears to be common amongst the different approaches regarding the mature workforce, is the difficulty of age groupings, due to the lack of a universally accepted criterion concerning the definition of the old worker (Sterns & Miklos, 1995). In some studies the age of 45 years is often employed to compare older employees to younger or middle-aged workers (Stroh & Greller, 1995), while others put the threshold at 50 or 55 years.

Employee performance is a multi-dimensional concept consisting of behavioral and outcome aspects (Roe, 1999) and is defined as an “aggregated value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episode that an individual performs over a standard interval of time” (Motowildo et al., 1997, p. 72). Employee performance is a complex concept that can be affected by many variables (Popovich, 1998) ranging from age, gender, employee recognition and job satisfaction, performance appraisal techniques, to task types (Jamil & Raja, 2011; Swiercz et al., 2012).

Empirical research has failed to establish a clear link between age and employee performance. Numerous studies have shown both positive and negative relationships between age and employee performance, while some major meta-analytic reviews that investigated this relationship, have showed mixed results (McEvoy & Cascio, 1989; Ng & Feldman, 2008). A general stereotype about the relationship between performance and age is that performance diminishes as employees become relatively old (Avolio & Waldman, 1994; Posthuma & Campion, 2009). On the other hand, many studies indicate that performance does not decline with age, while others claim that performance may even improve with age (Cleveland & Lim, 2007; Göbel & Zwick, 2012).

Regarding HRM practices, a growing body of literature has examined their impact on business goals and organizational productivity (Collins & Smith, 2006; MacDuffie, 1995). On the contrary, limited research has tested the HRM-employee performance relationship and not much is known about the influence of age on the association between HRM practices and individual employee outcomes (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Lepak et al., 2006). Finally, a significant part of the literature has investigated the specific HRM practices that are implemented towards an ageing workforce and the age-based practices that are applied for the



successful management of older employees (Armstrong-Stassen & Templer, 2005; Van Dalen et al., 2014).

The current research has its roots on human capital, social exchange and AMO theories. Human capital theory (Becker, 1962) is a useful starting point to analyze the effects of HRM practices on employee-level performance. Human capital represents the human factor in the organization: the combined knowledge, skills, competence, expertise, attitudes, creativity and innovativeness (Roos et al., 2005), an individual can use to produce a given set of outcomes (Hitt et al., 2001). Investment in the various aspects of human capital via HRM practices, such as training, can increase the levels of knowledge, skills and abilities of an employee, and therefore can be considered as a key element in improving employee's satisfaction, performance and commitment (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Tekleab & Taylor, 2003).

Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) focuses on processes and relations that occur between people within social structures and they emerge as a result of mutual reinforcement and trust or failure (Blau, 1964). According to this theory, HRM practices are viewed as a personalized commitment from the organization towards employees, as an investment in them, and as a recognition of their contribution, which they then reciprocate through correspondingly positive attitudes and behavior toward the organization (Hannah & Iverson, 2004). Figure 1 represents the broad relationships that the current research intends to explore.

The Ability, Motivation and Opportunity (AMO) framework emerged in 2000 (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boxall & Purcell, 2003) and has been largely accepted for explaining the linkage between human resources management and performance (Marin-Garcia & Martinez Tomas, 2016). Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg (2000), suggested that to ensure the employees' discretionary performance, three components are necessary for the employees: (1) to have the necessary skills, (2) to have the appropriate motivation and (3) to be offered the opportunity to participate.

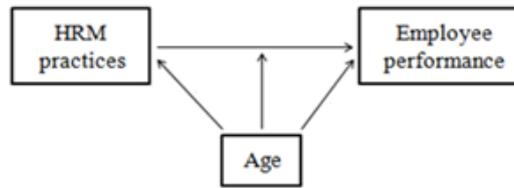
With the use of the above theories, this study tries to answer the following research questions:

- How is age associated with employee performance?
- How are HRM practices associated with employee performance?
- Does age affect the implementation of HRM practices? Are there any specific age-based HRM practices?

Figure 1 represents the broad relationships that the current research intends to explore.



Figure 1: Broad relationships under examination



METHODOLOGY

The research questions were addressed through a qualitative approach using (1) a focus group with the participation of 12 HRM experts and (2) semi-structured interviews with the top management of 16 private organizations operating in Greece. The combination of the two methods provided the opportunity to demonstrate the complex relationship between HRM practices, age and employee performance.

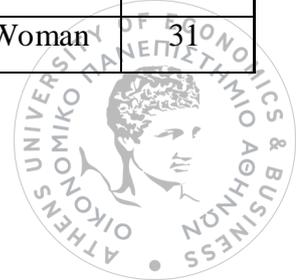
Focus group

The purpose of the focus group is to “provide a setting where the participants can discuss problems and provide possible solutions” (Duggleby, 2005, p. 832).

A total of 12 participants, including 3 men and 9 women, participated in the focus group, which was held on 12 December 2017. The participants ranged in age from 26 to 52 years old (mean age= 37 years) and were people with theoretical specialization in HRM (professors, a post-doc student and doctoral candidates at their 2nd year of study and over) at the Athens University of Economics and Business (AUEB). Table 1, represents the sample of the focus group.

Table 1. Key traits of the participants

Participant ID	Position	Expertise	Organization	Gender	Age
1	Associate Professor	Organization Psychology	AUEB	Woman	46
2	PhD Candidate	Human Resource Management	AUEB	Woman	35
3	Assistant Professor	Organizational Behaviour	AUEB	Woman	42
4	PhD Candidate	Organization Psychology	AUEB	Woman	36
5	PhD Candidate	Organization Psychology	AUEB	Woman	26
6	Associate Professor	Organizational Behaviour	AUEB	Woman	45
7	PhD Candidate	Organizational Behaviour	AUEB	Woman	31



8	Assistant Professor	Management	AUEB	Man	42
9	PhD Candidate	Human Resource Management	AUEB	Man	29
10	Post-doc student	Organizational Behaviour	AUEB	Woman	32
11	Associate Professor	Organization Psychology	AUEB	Woman	52
12	PhD Candidate	Management	AUEB	Man	28

The discussion examined a range of issues relating to the experts' perceptions about age, performance and HRM practices. Two moderators were present to moderate and stimulate conversation and a sound recorder was used throughout the discussion. The focus group provided information that was used for the formulation of the interview guide. During the focus group session that lasted 65 minutes, participants were encouraged to share their perceptions on the topic of ageing workforce, the stereotypes about the performance of the older employees and their treatment in the working environments. In terms of data capture and analysis, notes were taken, and the discussion was recorded. Thereafter, the key content was transcribed verbatim for analysis.

The focus group discussed 2 main questions. First, the participants were asked to express their views about the relationship between age and employee performance and whether younger or older employees perform better in the organizations. Second, the experts discussed about the topic of HRM practices, their relationship with performance, as well as the specific policies towards mature employees.

Semi-structured interviews

For the realization of the interviews, a total of 15 CEOs and HR executives were approached in person or by telephone between March 2018 and May 2018. People were given information about the study and invited to participate by phone conversations and/or meetings. Sixteen out of 25 organizations reacted positively (RR = 64%). Three of these organizations operate in food and beverages, three in the tourism, two in consulting, three in IT, one in metallurgy and energy, one in cement, one in healthcare, one in retail and one in the fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) sector. The specific industries were selected because they are considered as very active in the Greek economy, as well as rapidly developing and, consequently, they are expected to have adopted high standards for their HRM practice. All the interviews were one-to-one and most of them were conducted face-to-face at the premises of participants'



organizations with only 3 over the phone. The duration of each interview was between 30 - 60 minutes.



Table 2. Key traits of the interviewees

ID	Interviewee				Organization			
	Position	Gender	Age group	Working years	Industry	Number of employees	% of mature employees	Nationality
1. CEO 1	CEO	Man	5	30	Food and Beverage	20	20	Greek
2. CEO 2	CEO	Woman	2	7	Tourism	20	35	Greek
3. HRM 1	HR Business Partner	Man	2	12	IT	950	30	Greek
4. HRM 2	HR Business Partner	Woman	3	18	Consulting	500	40	Multinational, US
5. CEO 3	CEO	Man	1	8	Food and Beverage	75	10	Greek
6. HRM 3	HR Manager	Woman	4	22	Retail	4500	10	Multinational, US
7. HRM 4	HR Manager	Woman	4	18	Healthcare	1275	35	Greek
8. HRM 5	HR Business Partner	Woman	3	14	IT	530	28	Multinational, US
9. CEO 4	CEO	Man	4	25	Tourism	480	20	Greek
10. HRM 6	HR Director	Woman	3	18	Consulting	1100	35	Multinational, US
11. HRM 7	HR Generalist	Woman	4	3	Metallurgy, energy	2800	60	Greek
12. CEO 5	CEO	Man	3	20	Food and Beverage	200	20	Greek
13. CEO 6	CEO	Man	2	8	Tourism	180	40	Greek

14. HRM 8	HR Business Partner	Man	4	23	Fast moving consumer goods	677	50	Multinational, US
15. HRM 9	HR Director	Woman	5	20	Cement	5432	45	Greek
16. HRM 10	HR Business Partner	Woman	2	10	IT	250	60	Multinational, Germany

*age groups: 1= 20-30, 2= 31-40, 3= 41-50, 4= 51-60, 5= over 60

Regarding the demographic characteristics of the interviewees, six out of the sixteen participants (37.5%) were CEOs, five (31.25%) were HR business partners, two (12.5%) were HR managers, two (12.5%) were HR directors and one (6.25%) was an HR generalist (see Table 1 above). In addition, nine interviewees (56.25%) were women and seven (43.75%) were men. Moreover, the average number of working years of the participants was 16 years. The average number of employees per company was 1186 and the average percentage of mature employees (aged 45+ years) was 27.1%. In particular, for the organizations that operate in the consuming goods and IT industry, the mean percentage of older employees was 40%, for the healthcare industry was 35.3% and for the tourism industry was 31.6%. On the contrary, the retail sector had the lowest percentage of employees aged 45+ years (10%), followed by Food and Beverage industry (15%).

The interview was designed in the following way. First, the interviewees were asked to provide general information about their working experience, their current position and their priorities in their organization. In addition, they were asked to provide information about the organization they are working in, such as the ratio of mature employees is in their company, the company's culture and overall attitude towards the ageing workforce etc. Second, the participants were asked to identify specific performance characteristics for both young and mature employees and express their own views regarding older employees. Finally, the last set of questions was concerned with the use of HRM practices in the organization, as well as the implementation for specific policies for the management of older employees. The questions of the interview were structured according to the information gained in the literature review and the items that were exported from the focus group. Therefore, the questions were related to the Role Based Performance Scale (Welbourne, 1997) found in literature and to the HRM scale developed by Sun, Aryee and Law (2007).

Data coding

Both the focus group and the interviews were coded with the method of content analysis. According to Holsti (1969, p. 14) content analysis is “any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics and messages”. The method of content analysis allows a systematic analysis of textual materials, by following some analytic rules. More specifically, the material has to be analyzed step by step and is divided into content analytic units. Seven major elements in written messages can be counted in content analysis: words or terms, themes, characters, paragraphs, items, concepts, and semantics (Berg, 2004).

For the purpose of this research, we used a combination of words, themes and concepts as content units. Regarding the word element, its use generally results in a frequency distribution of specified words or terms (Berg, 2004). In addition, the theme element can be a “simple sentence, a string of words with a subject and a predicate” (Berg, 2004, p. 273). On the other hand, the concepts elements “involve words grouped together into conceptual clusters (ideas) that constitute, in some instances, variables in a typical research hypothesis” (Sanders & Pinhey, 1959: cited in Berg, 2007, p. 313). For instance, in the current research, a conceptual cluster was formed around the idea of employee performance. Words such as productivity, efficiency and job performance clustered around the conceptual idea of performance.

RESULTS

Results from the focus group

During the focus group session, the HRM experts provided useful information about the variables under study which can be summarized in the Table 2, below.

Regarding the relationship between age and employee performance, the participants stated that older employees are more experienced, loyal and reliable compared to younger employees. On the other hand, they are not fit and strong and they are not familiar with new technologies. The experts also claimed that age is not directly associated with employee performance and that the job type and work environment could be a better predictor for the specific variable.

The participants also stated that the HRM practices can lead to increased levels of performance, through the motivation of the employee. However, some experts believe that the practices are not equally efficient for older and younger employees as their efficiency may be affected by “acceptance to change” or the “fit” between the employee and the organization. For example, as a participant observed “older employees may avoid training because they find it boring”. It was proposed that training programs could be more effective if the training content was tailored to the age group (e.g.: IT skills for older employees). Moreover, older employees may be discriminated during the selection process and it is more difficult for them to find a job. On the other hand, regarding the internal mobility practice, younger employees should have the same opportunities for a potential promotion. Summarizing, the main idea from the discussion can be captured in the following statement from one HRM expert: *“All HRM practices should be equal for all and there should not be any demographic characteristics that affect the strategic decisions of the HRM departments.”*



Table 3. Key focus group observations

Axes of Discussion	Points of General Agreement	Major Points of Disagreement
Predictors of Performance	Job type, work environment, salary	Does age predict performance?
Mature employees' performance	Reliability, experience, loyalty	“Peak” performance age?
Mediators in the relationship between HRM and performance	Employee motivation as a mediator	
Moderation by age of the relationship between HRM and performance	Acceptance to change, person-organization fit, need for “age-free” practices	Depends on the content of the practice, older employees avoid training, age may affect recruitment

Results from the interviews

Perceptions about mature employees

At the first part of the interview, the CEOs and HRM executives were asked to express their opinion about the meaning of “mature employee”. A significant part of the interviewees (50%) didn't relate the term “mature” with chronological age but rather with professional experience and respect to the employer. Indicatively, HRM 1 expressed the following argument: *“Professional maturity is not necessarily related with age. As a result, we can have an older employee who is professionally immature and a younger employee who is professionally mature.”* Similarly, HRM 10 expressed the following view: *“In my opinion, the term “maturity” is related with age, working years and experiences. There are employees aged 45+ years that do not have enough professional experience and employees aged less than 30 years that may have enough experience. As a result, a mature employee is an employee who combines the above 3 characteristics.”*

The key themes in relation to perceptions about mature employees were identified through a set of direct questions asking about the obstacles that older employees face in the workplace. In particular, CEO 1, 2 and HRM 4, 6, 9 and 10, (37.5%) identified the difficulty in relation to the “adaptability to new technologies”. Moreover, HRM 6 and 7, mentioned frequent health issues and lower fitness and energy levels in comparison to younger

employees. These may lead to poor performance in tasks that require manual strength. In addition, CEO 3 and HRM 9 (12.5%) mentioned that older workers are hired less frequently and that they are not motivated. On the other hand, HRM 2, 6 and 10, (18.75%) considered that mature employees do not face problems in the workplace because of their age.

In the next question, the participants were asked to identify how the organizations are benefit from mature employees. 87.5% of the executives stated that the organizations benefit from the experience and the know-how of the older employees. In addition, HRM 5 and 7, (12.5%) mentioned that mature employees are more resilient, more reliable and that they can be mentors for their younger colleagues.

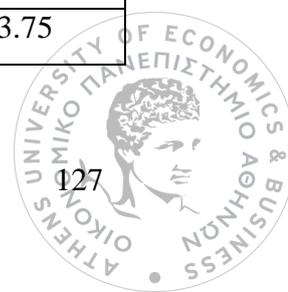
Perceptions about employee performance and age

In relation to age, the interviews did not identify any obvious differentiation between the overall performance of older and younger employees. For example, HRM 6 gave the following argument: *“I don’t believe that age can be correlated with employee performance.”* In relation to this argument, 7 out of the 16 interviewees (43.75%) agreed that “both young and older employees can perform well, in their own way” (HRM 1, 2, 7, 8, 10 and CEO 1, 3), implying that they can both contribute to the organization by providing specific features.

Subsequently, the participants identified significant differences in certain aspects of employee performance between older and younger employees (see Table 4). Older employees are perceived as more reliable, more resilient and more experienced. Moreover, they perform better under pressure, they have better communication skills and they are more committed to the organization, in comparison to their younger counterparts. Older employees also make fewer mistakes and produce a better work output, in terms of quality. On the other side, younger employees are more innovative, more familiar with new technologies, more creative and can perform many tasks at the same time. In addition, they exceed in physical abilities and flexibility, they are more motivated and less sensible to health issues than mature employees. However, the research also showed some characteristics in which older and younger had no differences such as, confidence, team spirit, quantity of work output and relationships with co-workers.

Table 4: Perceptions about older and younger workers in organizations (% of the sample)

Older employees	%	Younger employees	%
Work under pressure	81.25	Innovation	93.75



Less mistakes	68.75	Adaptability to new technologies	93.75
Organizational commitment	56.25	Creativity	75
Interaction with customers	56.25	Physical strength, stamina	62.5
Reliability	43.75	Multitasking	62.5
Quality of work output	37.5	Less sensible to health issues	62.5
Experience	37.5	Flexibility	62.5
Resilience	31.25	More motivated	37.5

Perceptions about the use of HRM practices in organizations

87.5% of the interviewees mentioned that the application of “extensive training programs” and “selective staffing” practices are top priorities in the organizations examined. Similarly, 75% of the executives stated that “employee security” is a major priority and 10 participants (62.5%) mentioned that the application of “employee participation” and “compensation and rewards” practices, is a main objective for their organization. On the other hand, the implementation of evaluation practices, internal mobility systems and job description policies need some improvement. Moreover, some organizations apply early retirement packages (HRM 8), counselling programs (HRM 3), and agile working practices (HRM 8).

Relationship between HRM practices and performance

15 interviewees (93.75%) stated that HRM practices are associated with increased levels of performance. On the other hand, this may be realized in diverse ways. One way could be through the enhancement of the organizational commitment of the employees. As HRM 3 said, *“In my opinion, HRM practices cannot be associated with employee performance, in a direct way. The implementation of HRM practices increases organizational commitment and, as a result, employees perform better”*. Further, the link between HRM and individual performance was also attributed to the improvement of employees’ knowledge and capabilities. For example, *“Applying a practice increases employee performance because they have a better knowledge on the subject”* (CEO 2). Finally, HRM leads to increased employee performance through the enhancement of engagement and motivation. HRM 6 expressed it as follows: *“An HRM practices makes employees engaged. Subsequently, engagement is related with motivation, namely whether you are motivated to do a task in full extent.”*

Relationships between age and HRM practices

In this set of questions, the interviewees expressed their views regarding the role of age in the implementation of an HRM practice. The results were mixed, as 9 executives (56.25%) could not identify an age-differentiation in the implementation of HRM practices. According to 11 interviewees (68.75%), age does not affect directly the implementation of HRM practices, and the application of a practice is determined on the basis of a) the job and the role, b) the professional experience and c) the specific needs of each employee rather than his/her age. Given that the above factors may be differentiated in accordance to age, it may be assumed that indirectly, employee age is an important factor for the application of HRM practices. Indicatively, an HR business partner from the consulting industry (HRM 2) said: *“HRM practices are basically the same. We simply try to be differentiated towards young and mature in certain categories, such as training or motivation. Different things may encourage younger and older people, so we try to have a difference in the way we apply things.”* Similarly, an HR business partner (HRM 8) from the FMCG sector gave the following argument: *“Policies are the same for everyone. Of course, some might fit better to young people and others to mature ones.”*

The participants identified 4 HRM practices that are implemented on older and younger employees in a different way. These are a) training, b) staffing, c) compensation and rewards and d) employee participation.

Regarding training programs, according to 2 participants (12.5% - HRM 2, 6), older employees participate more in training programs that refer to new technologies and IT skills, to the use of social media, as well as to people management issues, in order to improve their interpersonal communication skills. On the other hand, the same participants stated that younger employees participate more in training programs on leadership or soft skills. This finding shows that the training and development functions can be tailored to employees' age profiles and seems to be in accordance to Picchio (2015, p. 1) who states that “training programs that meet the learning needs of older workers can improve their employability”.

Concerning the practice of compensation and rewards, 2 interviewees (CEO 1, 2 - 12.5% of the total interviews) stated that mature employees earn higher salaries than the younger ones. However, both interviewees noted that this difference is not directly related to age, but it is based on either the length of professional experience of the employee, or on government regulations on salaries. In addition, HRM 4 and 7 offered the proposition that older employees may benefit more from flexible working arrangements, for example flexible working hours, more days off, and fewer night shifts, in comparison to younger employees. Furthermore, in

the food and beverage industry, mature employees may be provided a company car, or a mobile phone, more often than their younger counterparts (CEO 3).

Regarding the practice of recruitment and selection, 4 (HRM 1, 6, 7 and 8) out of the 16 executives (25%) believe that the practice is differentiated according to the needs for the specific position. For example, when a consulting company carried out a project which was exclusively targeted to retirees, mature employees were hired. Similarly, when an organization offers a position related with IT skills or new technologies, younger employees are preferred for the job. However, negative stereotypical beliefs often affect the implementation of such practices, in a way that mature employees may be excluded from jobs where they could perform equally –or even better- than younger colleagues. Indicatively, a CEO from the tourism industry (CEO 2) gave the following example: *“For the position of a cleaner, we hire a mature employee, whereas for the position of a receptionist, we prefer a younger one.”* In addition, 4 interviewees (25%) believe that age plays an important role in the selection process, regardless of the position, and that it is more likely for a younger employee to be hired. An HR director from the cement industry (HRM 9) shares the following view: *“Unfortunately, age plays a crucial role in the selection process. Companies see a larger age horizon in the younger generation and therefore invest more in younger people.”*

Regarding employee participation and communication, age does not seem to differentiate the implementation of the specific practice, according to 8 interviewees (50%, HRM 1, 2, 3, 6, 8 & 10, CEO 1 & 2). In particular, these participants believe that employee voice depends mostly on the professional experience of the employee, as well as on his/her position in the hierarchy. Furthermore, they believe that if a young and an older employee are in the same hierarchical position, they participate in the same way in the strategic decisions of the organizations. However, according to 4 interviewees (25%, CEO 1, 2, 5 & 6), older employees have a “louder” employee voice, because of their professional experience. On the contrary, according to 2 participants (12.5%, HRM 1 & 5), younger employees tend to participate more in strategic decisions, if they are related with IT and new technologies.

Regarding other HRM practices, one participant (HRM 5) mentioned that mature employees can often be “mentors” and “coaches” for the younger and the newly-hired employees. On the other hand, an HR business partner from the FMGC sector (HRM 8) expressed an opposite view, giving the following argument: *“We live in an era where younger employees train the older ones.”* Finally, as it was previously mentioned, an organization from the FMGC industry implements an “early retirement plan” for the ageing workforce. In this case employees who are close to retirement can get a substantial amount of money as an

incentive for voluntary retirement from the company. Indicatively, the HR business partner (HRM 8) of an organization states: *“The benefit is double, as the company is somewhat overwhelmed by highly paid employees and can either abolish the job or hire younger workers with better skills and lower wages instead. This is also beneficial for mature employees because they come safely to their pension.”*

DISCUSSION

This paper intended to explore relationships between age, HRM practices and employee performance, as well as to identify age-based practices that are applied in private organizations for the successful management of the ageing workforce. With the use of a focus group and 16 semi-structured interviews, we attempted to provide answers to the 3 research questions. It is worth mentioning that the perceptions of academics agreed with those of practitioners in relation with the performance of mature and younger employees, as well as with the application of HRM practices were very similar.

First, age was not found to affect employee performance in a direct way. However, mature and younger employees were found to perform differently in diverse tasks. In particular, older employees were rated higher in terms of reliability, communication skills, resilience, experience and organizational commitment. On the other hand, younger employees were rated as innovative, creative, adaptable to new technologies, physically able and more capable in multitasking activities. These findings are comparable with earlier research on the topic of age and performance (Ng & Feldman, 2008).

Second, the research indicated relationships between HRM practices and employee performance, through mediating factors. More specifically, the implementation of a practice was found to increase employee performance through the enhancement of organizational commitment, knowledge and capabilities, engagement and motivation (Boxall et al., 2011).

Regarding the use of HRM practices, the organizations do not consider the age criterion for the implementation of an HRM practice. However, some practices may be customized according to the needs of different age groups. As a result, older employees may participate in different training programs, may benefit from different types of rewards and higher salaries and may be more actively involved in the strategic decisions of the organizations, than younger employees. On the other side, the age criterion may play an important role in the employee selection process, in favour of younger employees. As a result, despite the fact that the HRM executives do not consider the criterion of age when they design an HRM practice, age implicitly modifies the use of each practice for the different age groups. These results converge

with previous research findings, which demonstrate that stereotypes about older workers in terms of poor performance, resistance to change and lower ability to learn influence HRM practices (Lazazzara & Bombelli, 2011; Paul & Townsend, 1993).

Finally, the study identified some specific age-based practices that the organizations apply for the management of mature employees. Such examples include flexible working arrangements (flexible working hours, more days off, and fewer night shifts) in the healthcare industry, special benefits for mature workers (company car and mobile phone) in the food and beverage industry and early retirement plans in the fast moving consumer goods industry.

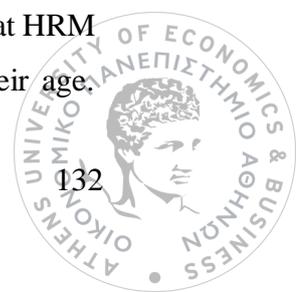
THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

Under the lens of human capital, we identified relationships between age and employee performance, as well as HRM and employee performance. Regarding the former, the positive relationships between age and specific characteristics of employee performance are in full accordance with human capital theory, given that human capital –over the course of life– improves through on-the-job training and work experience that increase employees’ maturity and add to their productivity, overbalancing the effects of time depreciation. In particular, especially quality- related performance appears to augment with age. In addition, under the lens of human capital theory, HRM practices can be considered as an investment on one’s human capital that enhances the levels of knowledge, skills and abilities of employees.

Second, based on social exchange theory, we identified relationships between HRM and employee performance. More specifically, as employees receive positive treatment through the implementation of HRM, they repay the organization by performing well (Takeuchi et al., 2007).

This study also drew on AMO theory in order to explain the relationship between HRM and employee performance and age. The findings showed that the employees perform better when they have the abilities and the motivation, and when their work environment provides opportunities to participate (Appelbaum et al., 2000; Boselie, 2010). In this sense, employee performance depends on the ability, motivation and opportunity for employees to make their contribution and maintain their wellbeing (Armstrong, 2009). This theory comes in accordance with the findings of the study, which identified mechanisms (organizational commitment, motivation) through which the implementation of an HRM practice can lead to increased levels of employee performance.

Finally, this study adds to the literature on HRM and ageing, by demonstrating that HRM practices are implemented in the same way for all the employees, regardless of their age.



However, the fact that there are specific HRM practices tailored to mature and to younger employees, respectively (Armstrong-Stassen, 2008) implies that age discrimination may exist within some HRM activities, such as recruitment and selection and training and development (Parry & McCarthy, 2017).

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Globally, organizations have become increasingly diverse in age demographics, creating professional environments that are rich with experience and maturity as well as with youthful exuberance (McQuerrey, 2018). Subsequently, the organizations that employ age-diverse staff can have the advantage of creating a dynamic, multi-generational workforce -with a diverse range of skill sets- that is beneficial to the company (McQuerrey, 2018).

According to the results, companies should invest in HRM practices as a means of managing human capital for the enhancement of employees' performance. HRM departments should focus on the design and implementation of better organized HRM practices that will enhance the motivation and commitment of employees, and subsequently, lead to increased levels of employee performance.

Regarding the role of age in the implementation of an HRM practice, the organizations should be able to manage age-diversity within the workforce while reducing intergenerational conflicts and maintaining an active participation of mature employees. HRM departments that fail to manage diversity in the workplace could lead to intergenerational conflicts such as ageism and affect mature employees' participation, motivation and performance in a negative way. Attracting, engaging and retaining mature employees makes good business sense, and society, in total, benefits when people remain in the workforce longer.

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7. ΙΣΤΟΣΕΛΙΔΕΣ ΚΟΙΝΩΝΙΚΗΣ ΔΙΚΤΥΩΣΗΣ ΚΑΙ ΑΝΤΙΔΡΑΣΕΙΣ ΥΠΟΨΗΦΙΩΝ ΣΤΗΝ ΠΡΟΣΕΛΚΥΣΗ ΚΑΙ ΕΠΙΛΟΓΗ ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΟΥ

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Περίληψη

Ο ρόλος της τεχνολογίας και πιο συγκεκριμένα των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης έχει αναδειχθεί ιδιαίτερα τα τελευταία χρόνια στις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης και επιλογής ανθρώπινου δυναμικού των οργανισμών. Επίσης, ο ρόλος του υποψήφιου και ο τρόπος που αντιλαμβάνεται και αξιολογεί τις παραπάνω διαδικασίες έχει λάβει αυξανόμενη προσοχή, όχι μόνο σε ερευνητικό αλλά και σε πρακτικό επίπεδο. Στο παρόν κεφάλαιο θα μελετήσουμε διεξοδικά τόσο τον ρόλο των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης αλλά και των αντιδράσεων των υποψηφίων αλλά και πώς αυτά αλληλοεπιδρούν επηρεάζοντας τελικά την αποτελεσματικότητα των μεθόδων προσέλκυσης και επιλογής. Δίνεται ιδιαίτερη έμφαση στον ρόλο της τεχνολογίας και των νέων μεθόδων επιλογής, ταυτόχρονα με μια αναλυτική προσέγγιση των σημαντικότερων θεωρητικών προσεγγίσεων που έχουν επηρεάσει αυτούς του δύο σημαντικούς χώρους έρευνας και πρακτικής.

Λέξεις κλειδιά: Προσέλκυση προσωπικού, Επιλογή προσωπικού, Ιστοσελίδες Κοινωνικής Δικτύωσης, Αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων

Εισαγωγή

Τα τελευταία χρόνια, η επίδραση της τεχνολογίας στους οργανισμούς υπήρξε ιδιαίτερα σημαντική και αναμένεται να συνεχίσει να είναι καταλυτική και στο άμεσο μέλλον. Ο καθημερινός τύπος και η επιχειρηματική κοινότητα ασχολείται και προβληματίζεται όχι μόνο με θέματα όπως τον ρόλο του διαδικτύου αλλά και με πρωτόγνωρα και εν πολλοίς αχαρτογράφητα ζητήματα στο χώρο της Διοίκησης και του Μάνατζμεντ, όπως ο ρόλος της τεχνητής νοημοσύνης (artificial intelligence), των μεγάλων δεδομένων (big data), της μηχανικής μάθησης (machine learning), κλπ. Από αυτή την επίδραση δεν θα μπορούσε να μην επηρεαστεί η Διοίκηση Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού και οι επιμέρους πρακτικές της. Το παρόν κεφάλαιο έχει σαν στόχο να αναδείξει δύο κρίσιμες πτυχές της Προσέλκυσης και Επιλογής Προσωπικού, μιας από τις σημαντικότερες λειτουργίες της Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού: τον ρόλο των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης και των αντιδράσεων των

υποψηφίων στις μεθόδους/διαδικασίες επιλογής, ειδικά υπό το πρίσμα και την επίδραση της τεχνολογίας.

Στη σημερινή εποχή τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού, έρχονται αντιμέτωπα με μεγάλες προκλήσεις καθώς δραστηριοποιούνται σε μια πραγματικότητα η οποία έχει κυρίως «ψηφιακό αποτύπωμα» και επαναπροσδιορίζει πολλές από τις επιχειρησιακές λειτουργίες, μεταξύ των οποίων και τη διοίκηση ανθρωπίνων πόρων. Η επίδραση της τεχνολογίας στις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης και επιλογής προσωπικού είναι πλέον εμφανής και το εύρος της πρακτικής εφαρμογής έχει «προλάβει» την αντίστοιχη ακαδημαϊκή έρευνα (Kleumper, Davison, Cao, & Wu, 2015). Ένα από τα κυρίαρχα εργαλεία βασισμένα στην τεχνολογία και το ψηφιακό περιβάλλον τα οποία χρησιμοποιούνται στις εν λόγω διαδικασίες, είναι οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, γνωστές σε όλους ως “social media” ή “social networking websites”.

Οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης αποτελούν ψηφιακές πλατφόρμες οι οποίες επιτρέπουν σε άτομα και οργανισμούς να δημιουργούν προφίλ, να κοινοποιούν και να ανταλλάσσουν πληροφορίες, να συνδέονται με άλλα άτομα και να αλληλοεπιδρούν με έναν δυναμικό τρόπο (Zickar, 2017). Η ευρεία χρήση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης κυρίως στις επιχειρησιακές λειτουργίες του marketing και της διοίκησης ανθρωπίνων πόρων, παγιώθηκε με την ανάπτυξη, την εξάπλωση και την προσιτότητα του διαδικτύου. Τα κυριότερα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης τα οποία χρησιμοποιούνται στις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης και επιλογής προσωπικού είναι το LinkedIn και το Facebook.

Σύμφωνα με πρόσφατα ερευνητικά δεδομένα, το 94% των επιχειρήσεων χρησιμοποιεί το LinkedIn στην προσέλκυση – επιλογή προσωπικού, ενώ το 54% εξ αυτών χρησιμοποιεί και το Facebook (SHRM 2013; 2015). Ειδικότερα στην Ελλάδα, το LinkedIn χρησιμοποιείται από έναν μεγάλο αριθμό στελεχών επιλογής προσωπικού τόσο στα πρώτα στάδια της διαδικασίας (candidate screening), όσο και για την προσέλκυση πιθανών παθητικών υποψηφίων, δηλαδή ατόμων που δεν ψάχνουν ενεργά για εργασία (Nikolaou, 2014). Αξιοσημείωτο γεγονός αποτελεί η αύξηση της χρήσης των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης κατά 40% μεταξύ των ετών 2008-2013, στις αποφάσεις αρχικής επιλογής, ενώ ένα 29% των στελεχών έχει αναφέρει ότι οι πληροφορίες που έχουν αντλήσει από τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης για πιθανούς υποψήφιους, τους έχουν οδηγήσει σε αποφάσεις απόρριψης κάποιων εξ αυτών από τη διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού (Iddekinge, Lanivich, Roth, & Junco, 2017).

Σε πολλές περιπτώσεις, οι οργανισμοί εξετάζουν τα προφίλ των υποψηφίων στα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, ειδικότερα στο LinkedIn και το Facebook, προκειμένου να αποκτήσουν περισσότερες πληροφορίες τις οποίες δεν μπορούν να αντλήσουν από άλλες

πηγές. Οι πληροφορίες αυτές, ενδέχεται να επιδρούν θετικά ή αρνητικά στην απόφαση πρόσληψης ή ακόμα και να βοηθούν τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού να αιτιολογούν τις αποφάσεις που λαμβάνουν (Klotz et.al, 2013).

Παρόλο που τα δύο αυτά επικρατέστερα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης έχουν σημαντικές διαφορές, οι πληροφορίες που μπορεί να αντληθούν μέσω αυτών για έναν υποψήφιο, κατατάσσονται σε τρεις κατηγορίες (Utz, 2010). Η πρώτη κατηγορία, αφορά πληροφορίες που κοινοποιεί το ίδιο το άτομο είτε για τον εαυτό του είτε για άλλους. Στην κατηγορία αυτή, εντάσσεται και ο τρόπος με τον οποίο τα άτομα χτίζουν ή διατηρούν “ψηφιακές σχέσεις” με άλλα άτομα, όπως για παράδειγμα με το να συμμετέχουν σε διάφορες επαγγελματικές ή μη “ομάδες”. Η δεύτερη κατηγορία, αφορά πληροφορίες που μπορεί να ληφθούν για ένα άτομο από τις “επαφές” του, δηλαδή τα άτομα με τα οποία συνδέεται και αλληλεπιδρά στα πλαίσια αυτών των ιστοσελίδων. Οι πληροφορίες αυτές μάλιστα φαίνεται να είναι σε κάποιες περιπτώσεις πολύ σημαντικές, καθώς μπορεί να επιβεβαιώσουν ή όχι τον τρόπο με τον οποίο το άτομο αυτοπαρουσιάζεται (Utz, 2010). Τέλος, στην τρίτη κατηγορία κατατάσσονται οι πληροφορίες που μπορεί να ληφθούν από το ίδιο το σύστημα λειτουργίας τους, όπως είναι ο αριθμός των φίλων- επαφών που μπορεί να έχει κάποιος ή ο αριθμός των “likes” σε πιθανές δημοσιεύσεις. Αξίζει να σημειωθεί ότι η άντληση πληροφοριών διαφοροποιείται σημαντικά ως προς το μέσο κοινωνικής δικτύωσης τόσο ως προς τη χρησιμότητα όσο και ως προς τη νομιμότητα της χρήσης τους (Kleumper, Davison, Cao, & Wu, 2015).

LinkedIn

Το LinkedIn, το οποίο αριθμεί περίπου 225 εκ. χρήστες (Zickar, 2017), αποτελεί ένα μέσο επαγγελματικής δικτύωσης, το οποίο θεωρείται ως ένας σύγχρονος και άμεσος τρόπος οι υποψήφιοι να “σηματοδοτήσουν” τις ικανότητές τους σε μελλοντικούς εργοδότες (Roulin & Bangerter, 2013). Χρησιμοποιείται πλέον από πολλούς ως ένα “ψηφιακό βιογραφικό” το οποίο περιλαμβάνει κατά βάση πληροφορίες επαγγελματικά προσανατολισμένες, καταδεικνύοντας περισσότερο τις ικανότητες - προσόντα των υποψηφίων. Η προστιθέμενη αξία του LinkedIn σε σχέση με το παραδοσιακό βιογραφικό σημείωμα είναι ότι περιέχει και κάποια επιπλέον στοιχεία όπως είναι η επιβεβαίωση των ικανοτήτων-δεξιοτήτων των υποψηφίων από άλλα άτομα (τα λεγόμενα “endorsements”), ο βαθμός ενασχόλησής τους με το αντικείμενο εξειδίκευσής τους, ο οποίος καταδεικνύεται από την κοινοποίηση ή τη δήλωση προτίμησης αντίστοιχων δημοσιεύσεων, καθώς επίσης και η συμμετοχή τους σε

επαγγελματικές ομάδες-κοινότητες. Ένα πολύ σημαντικό ακόμα δεδομένο, μπορεί να θεωρηθεί και η δυνατότητα επαγγελματικής δικτύωσης του ατόμου με άλλα άτομα και επιχειρήσεις, γεγονός το οποίο μπορεί να λειτουργήσει θετικά όχι μόνο από την πλευρά του υποψηφίου ως προς τη δυνατότητα εύρεσης εργασίας, αλλά και από την πλευρά των επιχειρήσεων ως προς τη δυνατότητα προσέλκυσης ταλέντων. Οι πληροφορίες που μπορούν να αντληθούν μέσω του LinkedIn χρησιμεύουν περισσότερο ως προς την αξιολόγηση της καταλληλότητας ενός υποψηφίου για μια συγκεκριμένη θέση εργασίας (person - job fit), ενώ το εν λόγω μέσο κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, χρησιμοποιείται αποτελεσματικά όχι μόνο για την προσέλκυση ενεργών αλλά και παθητικών υποψηφίων (Nikolaou, 2014). Μάλιστα, ο Zide (2016) κατέδειξε από σχετική έρευνα, την προτίμηση των στελεχών στο συγκεκριμένο μέσο κοινωνικής δικτύωσης έναντι του παραδοσιακού βιογραφικού σημειώματος, ακόμα και για την αξιολόγηση του “ταιριάσματος” ενός υποψηφίου με τον οργανισμό και την κουλτούρα του (person - organization fit). Επίσης το LinkedIn, αποτελεί στην ουσία ένα “δημόσιο” και επαγγελματικά προσανατολισμένο μέσο κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, στο οποίο η παρεχόμενη πληροφορία έχει ένα είδος δομής και τυποποίησης (Roth, Bobko, Iddekinge, & Thatcher, 2016). Κατ’ αυτόν τον τρόπο, η χρήση του από τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού, αντιμετωπίζεται ως θεμιτή ή και πολλές φορές αυτονόητη. Ως εκ τούτου, δεν θεωρείται ότι προκαλεί ιδιαίτερα αρνητικές αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων ούτε εγείρει σημαντικά νομικά ζητήματα (Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2017).

Facebook

Το Facebook αποτελεί το δημοφιλέστερο μέσο κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, το οποίο αριθμεί πάνω από 1 δισ. χρήστες παγκοσμίως (Zickar, 2017) και έχει κατά βάση κοινωνικό προσανατολισμό. Ένα τυπικό προφίλ μπορεί να περιλαμβάνει φωτογραφίες, βίντεο η/ και προσωπικές πληροφορίες. Οι χρήστες μπορούν να αλληλεπιδρούν με σύγχρονο και ασύγχρονο τρόπο, κοινοποιώντας πληροφορίες, εκφράζοντας απόψεις, ανταλλάσσοντας μηνύματα ή/και γνωστοποιώντας σε πραγματικό χρόνο την παρουσία τους σε διάφορα μέρη. Στην περίπτωση του συγκεκριμένου μέσου κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, ο χρήστης έχει σχεδόν τον απόλυτο έλεγχο των πληροφοριών που εμφανίζονται στο προφίλ του και μπορεί επίσης να προσαρμόσει τις ρυθμίσεις ασφαλείας, ώστε να ελέγχει το είδος και την ποσότητα των πληροφοριών στις οποίες άλλα άτομα μπορεί να έχουν πρόσβαση (Brown & Vaughn, 2011). Η χρήση του Facebook από την πλευρά των επιχειρήσεων είναι πιο έντονη στο κομμάτι του “employer branding” δηλαδή της δημιουργίας μιας θετικής εικόνας για την επιχείρηση ως εργοδότη

επιλογής, μέσω της προώθησης θετικών εμπειριών αλληλεπίδρασης υποψηφίων με τον οργανισμό (candidate experience). Αυτό μπορεί να επιτευχθεί μεταξύ άλλων, μέσω της δημιουργίας διαδικτυακών κοινοτήτων (online communities) στις οποίες συμμετέχουν εργαζόμενοι ή/και υποψήφιοι, αλλά και αντίστοιχων δημοσιεύσεων στο εταιρικό προφίλ της επιχείρησης. Στον τομέα της προσέλκυσης προσωπικού, χρησιμοποιείται κυρίως για “entry-level” θέσεις εργασίας και για αντίστοιχες ηλικιακές ομάδες οι οποίες μπορεί να μην έχουν προφίλ σε επαγγελματικά μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης. Αναφορικά με την επιλογή προσωπικού, παρόλο που η χρήση του δεν είναι τόσο εκτεταμένη όσο αυτή του LinkedIn, χρησιμεύει κυρίως για την αξιολόγηση του βαθμού καταλληλότητας ενός υποψηφίου, περισσότερο ως προς την κουλτούρα και τα ιδιαίτερα χαρακτηριστικά του οργανισμού (Bangerter, Roulin, & Konig, 2012). Πολλές επιχειρήσεις μάλιστα, χρησιμοποιούν τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης -μεταξύ αυτών και το Facebook- ως βοηθητικά εργαλεία επιλογής προσωπικού, καθώς εκτιμάται ότι οι πληροφορίες που μπορούν να λάβουν από αυτά, πολλές φορές δεν είναι δυνατόν να αντληθούν από καμία άλλη πηγή και μπορούν να αποτελέσουν μέσα πρόβλεψης της εργασιακής αφοσίωσης ενός υποψηφίου στον οργανισμό, καθώς υπάρχουν έρευνες που έχουν συνδέσει το περιεχόμενο των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, με χαρακτηριστικά προσωπικότητας (Kluemper, Rosen, & Mossholder, 2012; Van de Ven et.al, 2017; Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2013; Utz, 2010). Ωστόσο, η χρήση του Facebook στη διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού, έχει συνδεθεί περισσότερο με αρνητικές αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων (Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2017), καθώς το μεγαλύτερο μέρος των πιθανώς αντληθέντων πληροφοριών είναι προσωπικού προσανατολισμού και μπορεί να αφορούν και σε ευαίσθητα ζητήματα (π.χ. πολιτικά φρονήματα, θρησκευτικές πεποιθήσεις, οικογενειακή κατάσταση, σεξουαλικό προσανατολισμό, κλπ.). Αξιοσημείωτο αποτελεί το γεγονός ότι στη σύγχρονη “ψηφιακή εποχή”, υπάρχει μια “αφέλεια” από την πλευρά των χρηστών, ως προς τον τρόπο με τον οποίο μπορούν να χρησιμοποιηθούν οι πληροφορίες που κοινοποιούν στα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2017).

Πλεονεκτήματα χρήσης ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στην προσέλκυση και επιλογή προσωπικού

Οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης έχουν χαρακτηριστεί ως “*μία σπάνια στιγμή στην έρευνα στελέχωσης, αποτελώντας ένα νέο εργαλείο αξιολόγησης υποψηφίων το οποίο έχει έρθει στο προσκήνιο*” (Roth et al., 2013, page 20). Αυτό συμβαίνει διότι προσφέρουν κάποια σημαντικά πλεονεκτήματα στη διαδικασία στελέχωσης, τα οποία συνοψίζονται ως ακολούθως:



- Αποτελούν μια άμεση πηγή πληροφοριών για τον υποψήφιο με ελάχιστο κόστος (Brown & Vaughn, 2011). Πιο συγκεκριμένα, παρέχεται η δυνατότητα άντλησης πληροφοριών οι οποίες δεν θα μπορούσαν να ληφθούν εύκολα με άλλες μεθόδους επιλογής προσωπικού και οι οποίες δίνουν τη δυνατότητα στα στελέχη να ελέγχουν το “ ψηφιακό ιστορικό” των υποψηφίων και να εντοπίζουν τυχόν ανήθικες ή αρνητικές συμπεριφορές οι οποίες θα μπορούσαν να έχουν κάποια επίδραση στα εργασιακά αποτελέσματά τους (Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2017 ; Brown & Vaughn, 2011). Πολλές φορές, οι πληροφορίες που μπορεί να ληφθούν για έναν υποψήφιο στα αρχικά στάδια της επιλογής προσωπικού, μπορούν να οδηγήσουν και στη δημιουργία στοχευμένων ερωτήσεων συνέντευξης (Davison, Maraist, & Bing, 2011).

- Εξορθολογίζουν τη διαδικασία προσέλκυσης και επιλογής προσωπικού, από πλευράς κόστους και χρόνου (Roth et.al, 2016). Μπορεί να αυξήσουν σημαντικά τόσο την ποσότητα όσο και την ποιότητα των υποψηφίων που μπορεί να υποβάλλουν αίτηση για μια θέση εργασίας, ανάλογα με τη στρατηγική προσέλκυσης που ακολουθεί η επιχείρηση, μειώνοντας κατ’ αυτόν τον τρόπο σημαντικά και το αντίστοιχο κόστος. Επίσης, κυρίως μέσω του LinkedIn, παρέχεται η δυνατότητα στα στελέχη επιλογής να πραγματοποιούν αυτό που στην ουσία ονομάζεται “επιβεβαίωση της ορθότητας των στοιχείων του βιογραφικού σημειώματος” (cross-check), με ταχύτητα και αποτελεσματικότητα η οποία μπορεί να οδηγήσει σε σημαντικά πλεονεκτήματα χρόνου, ειδικότερα στις πρώτες φάσεις της διαδικασίας επιλογής προσωπικού (candidate screening).

- Δύναται να λειτουργούν ως μια πολύ καλή και άμεση πηγή προσέλκυσης ταλέντων, καθώς οι επιχειρήσεις μπορούν να μεταδώσουν μια θετική εικόνα τους ως εργοδότη, διατηρώντας το ενδιαφέρον πιθανώς κατάλληλων υποψηφίων (Breaugh, 2013). Επίσης, μέσω των υπηρεσιών που παρέχουν οι ιστοσελίδες επαγγελματικής κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (π.χ. LinkedIn Premium, Talent Insights) οι οργανισμοί μπορούν να βρουν και να προσεγγίσουν πιο εύκολα τους ιδανικούς υποψήφιους για τις ανοιχτές θέσεις εργασίας τους που είτε αναζητούν ενεργά εργασία είτε όχι (Nikolaou, 2014).

- Προσφέρουν τη δυνατότητα στις επιχειρήσεις και τους επαγγελματίες της διοίκησης ανθρωπίνων πόρων να αναπτύσσουν στρατηγικές δικτύωσης με άλλες επιχειρήσεις και άτομα, οι οποίες μπορούν πολύ εύκολα και άμεσα να οδηγήσουν σε πηγή συστάσεων για πιθανούς υποψηφίους (Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2017).

- Αποτελούν μια πηγή συμπληρωματικής αξιολόγησης της προσωπικότητας των υποψηφίων και της πιθανής εναρμόνισης αυτής με την κουλτούρα του οργανισμού, μέσω του τρόπου με τον οποίο οι τελευταίοι παρουσιάζουν τον εαυτό τους στα αντίστοιχα προφίλ τους

(Evnuleocha & Ugba, 2018). Ειδικότερα, υπάρχουν ερευνητικά δεδομένα τα οποία συνδέουν την πληροφόρηση που μπορεί να ληφθεί από τις ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης τόσο με χαρακτηριστικά προσωπικότητας (Roulin & Levashina, 2018; Kleumper et.al, 2012; De Ven et.al, 2017; Stoughton et.al, 2013) όσο και με αξιολόγηση ικανοτήτων, δεξιοτήτων, πιθανής εργασιακής απόδοσης και μελλοντικής επαγγελματικής επιτυχίας (Roulin & Levashina, 2018; Kleumper et. al, 2012). Ωστόσο, επειδή τα διάφορα ερευνητικά δεδομένα σχετικά με την εγκυρότητα και την αξιοπιστία της χρήσης των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στις αποφάσεις πρόσληψης δεν χαρακτηρίζονται από μεγάλο βαθμό συμφωνίας (Zickar, 2017), τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού συνίσταται να τα χρησιμοποιούν συμπληρωματικά με άλλες μεθόδους επιλογής προσωπικού και όχι μεμονωμένα. Εξάλλου όπως είχαν υποθέσει και οι Sackett & Lievens (2008), ενδεχομένως να μπορέσουν να αποτελέσουν έναν τρόπο μέτρησης των ίδιων κριτηρίων επιλογής προσωπικού ως μια εναλλακτική και συμπληρωματική μέθοδος, με όλα τα πλεονεκτήματα που προαναφέρθηκαν.

Θεωρητικό πλαίσιο χρήσης ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στις διαδικασίες στελέχωσης

Οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, έχουν αλλάξει τον τρόπο με τον οποίο οι επιχειρήσεις αλληλεπιδρούν με τους υποψήφιους εργαζόμενους. Έχουν αναδιαμορφώσει την οργανωσιακή συμπεριφορά και μια σειρά από επιχειρησιακές λειτουργίες, μεταξύ των οποίων και η προσέλκυση και επιλογή ανθρώπινου δυναμικού. Σε πρακτικό επίπεδο, τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού, προσπαθούν να χρησιμοποιήσουν τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, προκειμένου να αυξήσουν την αποτελεσματικότητα των παραπάνω διαδικασιών, ειδικότερα στα πλαίσια της εύρεσης και της απόκτησης ταλέντων (Ruggs et. al, 2016).

Η διαφορά πλαισίου, μέσω του οποίου οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης λειτουργούν σε σχέση αφενός με τις παραδοσιακές μεθόδους επιλογής προσωπικού που βασίζονται κυρίως στη φυσική αλληλεπίδραση και επικοινωνία (π.χ. συνέντευξη) και αφετέρου τις παλαιότερες ψηφιακές τεχνολογίες, μπορούν να εξηγήσουν τις διαφορές στη ερμηνεία, σημασία και επιρροή της πληροφόρησης που λαμβάνεται για τον υποψήφιο, κατά τη διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού (McFarland & Ployhart, 2015). Ειδικότερα, τα ιδιαίτερα χαρακτηριστικά του πλαισίου υπό το οποίο λειτουργούν τα διάφορα εργαλεία επιλογής προσωπικού, μπορούν να επηρεάσουν την ερμηνεία των διαφόρων πληροφοριών και φαινομένων, να αλλάξουν τη φύση των διαδικασιών και να καθορίσουν τη δυναμική και την κατεύθυνση των δυναμικών σχέσεων. Πιο συγκεκριμένα, το εν λόγω πλαίσιο είναι πιο ανοιχτό, δυναμικό, ρευστό και με δυνατότητες σύγχρονης και ασύγχρονης αλληλεπίδρασης, με τα

παρακάτω βασικά χαρακτηριστικά (McFarland & Ployhart, 2015):

- *Απουσία φυσικής επαφής*: τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης λειτουργούν βάση της ψηφιακής αλληλεπίδρασης η οποία έχει πάρα πολλές διαφορές με τη φυσική αλληλεπίδραση, επηρεάζοντας ποικιλοτρόπως τις σχέσεις που δημιουργούνται μεταξύ εργοδοτών - υποψηφίων και την ερμηνεία των προσληφθέντων πληροφοριών.
- *Προσβασιμότητα*: οι χρήστες των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης έχουν άμεση πρόσβαση σε πληροφορίες ακόμα κι εάν υπάρχει μεγάλη φυσική απόσταση μεταξύ των μερών που αλληλεπιδρούν. Αυτό το γεγονός φυσικά επιταχύνει τις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης αλλά και αξιολόγησης των υποψηφίων, ειδικότερα στα πρώτα στάδια της διαδικασίας επιλογής (candidate screening).
- *Ταχύτητα μετάδοσης της πληροφορίας*: η δυνατότητα των στελεχών επιλογής προσωπικού να έχουν πρόσβαση ακόμα και σε πληροφορίες που δημοσιεύονται στιγμιαία για τους υποψηφίους, αλλάζει το τοπίο της προαναφερόμενης διαδικασίας και μπορεί να επιδράσει θετικά ή αρνητικά σε κάθε στάδιο αυτής, χωρίς την απαραίτητα συνειδητή πρόθεση των δύο μερών.
- *Μονιμότητα διατήρησης της πληροφορίας*: το στοιχείο αυτό ενδεχομένως να έχει τις μεγαλύτερες επιδράσεις στη διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού, καθώς σε αντίθεση με τις παραδοσιακές μεθόδους, οι οποίες δημιουργούν πρόσβαση σε πληροφορίες που το ίδιο το άτομο επιθυμεί να κοινοποιήσει, οι ψηφιακά κοινοποιημένες πληροφορίες μπορεί να αφορούν ένα ιστορικό μεγαλύτερου εύρους το οποίο ενδέχεται να επηρεάσει τις αποφάσεις πρόσληψης στο παρόν. Αυτό είναι ιδιαίτερα σημαντικό στην περίπτωση της αρνητικής πληροφόρησης που μπορεί να βρεθεί για τους υποψήφιους εργαζόμενους. Είναι αξιοσημείωτο το γεγονός ότι από πρόσφατες έρευνες, έχει προκύψει ότι το 28% των στελεχών επιλογής προσωπικού, έχουν απορρίψει υποψηφίους λόγω των αρνητικών πληροφοριών που έχουν αντλήσει γι' αυτούς από τις ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (Iddekinge et.al, 2017).
- *Δυνατότητα διασταύρωσης της πληροφορίας*: τα επαγγελματικά κυρίως μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, όπως για παράδειγμα το LinkedIn, λειτουργούν ως πλατφόρμα αυτόματης διασταύρωσης των πληροφοριών που περιέχονται στο βιογραφικό σημείωμα ή την αίτηση ενός υποψηφίου (Roulin & Bangerter, 2013). Αυτό συμβαίνει διότι λόγω της αλληλεπίδρασης και της σύνδεσης του ατόμου με άλλα άτομα του επαγγελματικού περιβάλλοντός του, μια ενδεχομένως ανακριβής πληροφορία θα μπορούσε να αμφισβητηθεί διαδικτυακά με όλες τις αντίστοιχες αρνητικές επιδράσεις. Επομένως, είναι πολλές οι περιπτώσεις όπου τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού



χρησιμοποιούν τα μέσα αυτά, για να αξιολογήσουν τον τρόπο επαγγελματικής παρουσίασης του υποψήφιου (Ouirdi, Segers, Ouirdi, & Pais, 2015) και να εντοπίσουν τυχόν ασυμφωνίες που μπορεί να υπάρχουν με άλλες πηγές αντίστοιχων πληροφοριών (cross-check).

→ *Αίσθηση ανωνυμίας*: Η αίσθηση ανωνυμίας που δημιουργούν τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, η οποία προκαλείται κατά βάση από την απουσία φυσικής επαφής, οδηγεί τα άτομα στο να κοινοποιούν πληροφορίες τις οποίες δεν θα κοινοποιούσαν σε άλλο πλαίσιο. Αυτό το χαρακτηριστικό της ανωνυμίας δημιουργεί πολλές φορές και το λεγόμενο “παράδοξο των δημοσιεύσεων” (Ouirdi et. al, 2015) το οποίο αφορά στην κοινοποίηση αρνητικής πληροφόρησης, ακόμα και από υποψήφιους οι οποίοι αντιλαμβάνονται ότι οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης που χρησιμοποιούν, ενδεχομένως να αποτελέσουν πηγή αξιολόγησής τους.

Μια από τις βασικές θεωρίες που μπορεί να χρησιμοποιηθεί ως προς τον τρόπο ερμηνείας των πληροφοριών που λαμβάνονται από τις ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης είναι η “*Θεωρία Σηματοδότησης*” (Signaling Theory - Spence, 1973). Η εν λόγω θεωρία, εφαρμόζεται σε κάθε είδος αλληλεπίδρασης, όπου άτομα με συχνά μη ευθυγραμμισμένους στόχους, επιζητούν συνεργασία (Bangerter, Roulin, & Konig, 2012). Μια από αυτές τις περιπτώσεις, είναι και η διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού, όπου ο στόχος των επιχειρήσεων για την απόκτηση αξιόπιστων πληροφοριών σχετικά με τους υποψήφιους εργαζόμενους, δεν ευθυγραμμίζεται πάντοτε με το στόχο των υποψηφίων, ο οποίος είναι η παρουσίαση ενός ελκυστικού προφίλ, ακόμα και αν αυτό δεν στηρίζεται σε απόλυτα αξιόπιστες πληροφορίες. Η θεωρία σηματοδότησης, συνίσταται επομένως στον τρόπο με τον οποίο το κάθε εμπλεκόμενο μέρος “αποκωδικοποιεί” συμπεριφορές και χαρακτηριστικά, μέσω της ερμηνείας “συμβόλων” (signals). Σύμφωνα με αυτήν τη θεωρία, άτομα και οργανισμοί “σηματοδοτούν” με διάφορους τρόπους στοιχεία που τους αφορούν είτε άμεσα είτε έμμεσα. Οι οργανισμοί για παράδειγμα παρέχουν πληροφορίες “σηματοδότησης” στους υποψήφιους, μέσω των πρακτικών προώθησης που χρησιμοποιούν, μέσω των αγγελιών για τις κενές θέσεις εργασίας, μέσω της εμπειρίας που προσφέρουν από τη διαδικασία στελέχωσης, κλπ. Αντιστοίχως οι υποψήφιοι “σηματοδοτούν” με διάφορους τρόπους τα τυπικά προσόντα, τις ικανότητες, τις δεξιότητές τους και τα στοιχεία της προσωπικότητάς τους στους δυνητικούς εργοδότες τους (Karasek & Bryant, 2011). Τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, χρησιμοποιούμενα στις διαδικασίες στελέχωσης, μπορούν να θεωρηθούν ως ένα σύστημα σηματοδότησης και αποκωδικοποίησης της συμπεριφοράς των υποψηφίων, που έχει ως στόχο την παροχή πληροφοριών για τις ικανότητες, προθέσεις συμπεριφοράς και χαρακτηριστικών

προσωπικότητας, πέραν από τις “συνειδητά” παρεχόμενες πληροφορίες που προέρχονται από το άτομο και που μπορεί να είναι προσαρμοσμένες στους προσωπικούς του στόχους επιτυχίας και υπεροχής έναντι των άλλων. Πιο συγκεκριμένα, όπως καταδεικνύουν και οι Bangerter, Roulin και Konig (2012), οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης ως “συστήματα σηματοδότησης”, βοηθούν στην αποκάλυψη στοιχείων σχετικά με το βαθμό αξιοπιστίας ή δυνητικής αφοσίωσης του υποψήφιου, στοιχεία τα οποία πολλές φορές αποκρύπτονται συνειδητά κατά τη διαδικασία επικοινωνίας δύο μερών με όχι απόλυτα ευθυγραμμισμένους στόχους. Σχετικά με τον τρόπο ερμηνείας των διαθέσιμων πληροφοριών, η θεωρία της σηματοδότησης υποστηρίζει ότι τα άτομα όταν δεν έχουν επαρκείς πληροφορίες στη διάθεσή τους προς αξιολόγηση, χρησιμοποιούν όποια πληροφορία (signal) τους βρίσκεται διαθέσιμη, προκειμένου να εξάγουν συμπεράσματα, ακόμα κι εάν οι παρεχόμενες πληροφορίες δεν συνδέονται άμεσα με το κριτήριο αξιολόγησης (Ma & Allen, 2009). Αυτό φυσικά μπορεί να επηρεάσει αρνητικά την επιλεξιμότητα των υποψηφίων, ειδικότερα στην περίπτωση ύπαρξης αρνητικής πληροφόρησης (Roulin & Bangerter, 2013).

Η χρήση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στη διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού ως ένας τρόπος αναζήτησης περαιτέρω πληροφοριών για τον υποψήφιο, μπορεί επίσης να ερμηνευθεί με τη *Θεωρία Περιορισμού της Αβεβαιότητας* - “Uncertainty Reduction Theory” (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Σύμφωνα με αυτήν τη θεωρία, η αλληλεπίδραση-επικοινωνία μεταξύ δύο μερών, περνάει από διάφορα στάδια - φάσεις και ο στόχος του κάθε μέρους σε κάθε στάδιο και ειδικότερα στο αρχικό, είναι η άντληση όσο το δυνατόν περισσότερων πληροφοριών για το άλλο μέρος, προκειμένου να μειωθεί η αβεβαιότητα που προκύπτει από την απουσία πρότερης αλληλεπίδρασης. Η αβεβαιότητα αυτή, εκτιμάται πως κυριαρχεί στη διαδικασία επιλογής προσωπικού, καθώς η σχέση αλληλεπίδρασης των δύο μερών (υποψηφίου και στελέχους επιλογής), διέπεται από περιορισμένες διαθέσιμες πληροφορίες. Επομένως, ο βασικός στόχος του κάθε μέρους είναι η αναζήτηση όσο το δυνατόν περισσότερων πληροφοριών, προκειμένου να αυξηθεί η προβλεψιμότητα της συμπεριφοράς του άλλου μέρους. Με βάση λοιπόν αυτήν τη θεωρία, εξηγείται η χρήση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, ειδικότερα στα πρώτα στάδια της διαδικασίας επιλογής, όπου τα στελέχη προσπαθούν να καταλήξουν σε μια πρώτη αιτιολογημένη απόφαση επιλογής (candidate screening). Ως εκ τούτου, η Θεωρία Περιορισμού της Αβεβαιότητας, θέτει το πλαίσιο διερεύνησης της αρχικής απόφασης επιλογής η οποία βασίζεται ή/ και επηρεάζεται από την αξιολόγηση των υποψηφίων μέσω των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (Evuleocha & Ugbah, 2018). Η θεωρία αυτή, εξηγεί επίσης την υπερερμηνεία των πιθανών αρνητικών πληροφοριών που μπορούν να βρεθούν διαδικτυακά για έναν υποψήφιο, κυρίως

στα αρχικά στάδια της διαδικασίας, όπου ο αξιολογητής δεν έχει στη διάθεσή του άλλα στοιχεία που προκύπτουν συνδυαστικά και από άλλες μεθόδους επιλογής, όπως π.χ. η συνέντευξη ή τα διάφορα τεστ. Αυτή η έμφαση στην αρνητική πληροφόρηση η οποία μπορεί να οδηγήσει ακόμα και στον αποκλεισμό του υποψήφιου από τα αρχικά μόλις στάδια της διαδικασίας, μπορεί να ερμηνευθεί και με τη *Θεωρία Επεξεργασίας Κοινωνικών Πληροφοριών* - “Social Information Processing Theory” (Walther, 1992).

Σύμφωνα με αυτή την θεωρία (Walther, 1992), τα στελέχη επιλογής προσωπικού, κατά τη διαδικασία αξιολόγησης των υποψηφίων μέσω του διαδικτύου, έχουν συνήθως στη διάθεσή τους λιγότερα στοιχεία από αυτά που θα είχαν αν έρχονταν σε φυσική επαφή με τους υποψήφιους, αλλά τείνουν να προσδίδουν πολύ μεγαλύτερη έμφαση σε αυτή τη διαθέσιμη πληροφόρηση, με αποτέλεσμα να την υπερερμηνεύουν (Walther, Van Der Heide, Ramirez, Burgoon, & Pena, 2015). Αυτό σημαίνει, ότι οι διαθέσιμες αρνητικές πληροφορίες που μπορούν να ληφθούν για κάποιους υποψήφιους μέσω των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, τείνουν ενδεχομένως να επηρεάζουν τις αποφάσεις επιλογής, σε μεγαλύτερο βαθμό από τον αναμενόμενο. Ειδικότερα, πολλοί ερευνητές έχουν τονίσει τη μεγαλύτερη έμφαση των ατόμων σε αρνητικές παρά σε θετικές πληροφορίες (Roth et.al, 2013; Madera, 2012). Δεδομένου ότι οι αρνητικές πληροφορίες μπορεί να προέρχονται περισσότερο από την αξιολόγηση προφίλ μη επαγγελματικής δικτύωσης (όπως π.χ. το Facebook) και είναι πιθανότερο να αφορούν σε στοιχεία που δεν έχουν άμεση σχέση με τη θέση εργασίας, έχει ενδιαφέρον να εκτιμηθεί ερευνητικά η βαρύτητα της αρνητικής αυτής πληροφόρησης στην απόφαση πρόσληψης.

Θέματα που σχετίζονται με τη χρήση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στις διαδικασίες στελέχωσης

Τυποποίηση

Η έννοια της τυποποίησης ενός εργαλείου επιλογής προσωπικού, αναφέρεται στο βαθμό συνέπειας που υπάρχει αναφορικά με το περιεχόμενο, το χρονικό στάδιο χρήσης του και τη διαδικασία αξιολόγησης των υποψηφίων (Kleumper et. al, 2015). Η χρήση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης δεν είναι τυποποιημένη και δεν αποτελεί δομικό κομμάτι της διαδικασίας επιλογής προσωπικού, ούτε ακολουθεί μια προβλεπόμενη σειρά. Έχει ενδιαφέρον το αποτέλεσμα σχετικής έρευνας στις Ηνωμένες Πολιτείες όπου κατέδειξε πως το 59% των επιχειρήσεων δεν έχουν τυποποιημένη πολιτική αξιολόγησης των υποψηφίων μέσω των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (SHRM, 2016), παρόλο που τις χρησιμοποιούν ως

εργαλείο αρχικής αξιολόγησης της επιλεξιμότητας των υποψηφίων (candidate screening).

Η έλλειψη τυποποίησης αναφορικά με το περιεχόμενο αξιολόγησης, οφείλεται στο ότι η ποσότητα και η ποιότητα των προσλαμβανόμενων πληροφοριών, διαφέρουν από υποψήφιο σε υποψήφιο, γεγονός που δεν οδηγεί στην ύπαρξη ενός κοινού μέτρου σύγκρισης των υποψηφίων (Roth et.al, 2013). Επίσης, υπάρχουν σημαντικές διαφορές ως προς την παρουσία των υποψηφίων στα διαφορετικά μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (Davison, Maraist, & Bing, 2011). Το στοιχείο της έλλειψης τυποποίησης στο περιεχόμενο αξιολόγησης, δημιουργεί αναπόφευκτα προβλήματα και στον τρόπο αξιολόγησης, ο οποίος δεν μπορεί εύκολα να δομηθεί συστηματικά, καθώς η διαθέσιμη πληροφορία δεν είναι βέβαιο εάν συσχετίζεται με τα κριτήρια αξιολόγησης που υπάρχουν για μια θέση εργασίας για όλους τους υποψήφιους (Roth et. al, 2013). Αναφορικά με την έλλειψη τυποποίησης στο χρονικό στάδιο χρήσης τους, τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης μπορούν να χρησιμοποιηθούν με τον ίδιο τρόπο, σε οποιοδήποτε στάδιο της διαδικασίας επιλογής (αρχικό, ενδιάμεσο, τελικό), ιδιαιτερότητα η οποία δεν ισχύει για κανένα άλλο εργαλείο επιλογής, το οποίο είτε χρησιμοποιείται σε δεδομένη φάση (π.χ. γνωστικά και ψυχομετρικά τεστ), είτε αλλάζει η μορφή του και το περιεχόμενό του ανάλογα με το στάδιο χρήσης (π.χ. προκαταρκτική - τηλεφωνική συνέντευξη έναντι τελικής συνέντευξης επιλογής). Αυτή η ιδιαιτερότητα, τονίζει αναπόφευκτα τη σημασία του σταδίου επιλογής στο οποίο τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης θα πρέπει να χρησιμοποιούνται και τη σημασία της πρόσθετης πληροφόρησης για τον υποψήφιο η οποία ενδέχεται να συνοδεύει κάθε στάδιο. Τα προαναφερόμενα εμπόδια τυποποίησης, ως προς την αξιολόγηση των υποψηφίων μέσω των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, εκτός του ότι καθίσταται ιδιαίτερα δύσκολο να ξεπεραστούν, επηρεάζουν αναπόφευκτα και την εγκυρότητα της αξιολόγησης (Brown & Vaughn, 2011).

Εγκυρότητα - Αξιοπιστία

Η εγκυρότητα μιας μεθόδου επιλογής, συνίσταται στο κατά πόσο μπορεί να μετρήσει αυτό για το οποίο κατασκευάστηκε και πόσο καλά μπορεί να το μετρήσει (Βακόλα & Νικολάου, 2012). Στην περίπτωση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης η εγκυρότητα αναφέρεται στο βαθμό κατά τον οποίο κατάλληλα ή ακριβή συμπεράσματα μπορούν να εξαχθούν από την αξιολόγηση των αντληθέντων πληροφοριών για τον υποψήφιο (Lukaszewski & Johnson, 2017). Τα ερευνητικά δεδομένα σε αυτό το πεδίο, αν και ενθαρρυντικά, χαρακτηρίζονται από κάποιες αντιφάσεις. Πρόσφατη έρευνα των Iddekinge et.al (2017), κατέδειξε ότι οι αξιολογήσεις των υποψηφίων μέσω των προφίλ τους στο

Facebook δεν χαρακτηρίζονται από εγκυρότητα ως προς την πρόβλεψη της μελλοντικής εργασιακής απόδοσης και τον ρυθμού αποχώρησης των εργαζομένων από τον οργανισμό (turnover). Στην αντίθετη κατεύθυνση βρίσκονται τα ερευνητικά δεδομένα των Klumper and Rosen (2009), τα οποία δείχνουν μια θετική σχέση μεταξύ των χαρακτηριστικών προσωπικότητας που προκύπτουν από τις αξιολογήσεις των Facebook προφίλ των υποψηφίων και της εργασιακής τους απόδοσης.

Ο βαθμός αξιοπιστίας μιας μεθόδου επιλογής, αντικατοπτρίζει την ακρίβεια και τη σταθερότητα της μέτρησης (Βακόλα & Νικολάου, 2012). Στην περίπτωση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, η αξιοπιστία συνδέεται με την ακρίβεια και την ορθότητα της παρεχόμενης πληροφόρησης, αλλά και με τη συμφωνία των αξιολογητών ως προς τις αξιολογήσεις των διαφόρων υποψηφίων. Σημαντικό πεδίο έρευνας, αποτελεί η σύνδεση των αξιολογήσεων των υποψηφίων μέσω των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, με χαρακτηριστικά προσωπικότητας. Ερευνητικά ευρήματα υποδεικνύουν ότι το βασικότερο χαρακτηριστικό το οποίο μπορεί να εξαχθεί από τις εν λόγω αξιολογήσεις, είναι η εξωστρέφεια. Πιο συγκεκριμένα, με βάση την έρευνα των Klumper et.al (2012), η εξωστρέφεια συνδέεται με τον αριθμό των φίλων που μπορεί να έχει κάποιος στο Facebook προφίλ του, ενώ η ίδια έρευνα τόνισε τη σημασία της κατάλληλης εκπαίδευσης των αξιολογητών ως προς την αύξηση της αξιοπιστίας των εκτιμήσεών τους σχετικά με την εξαγωγή συμπερασμάτων για χαρακτηριστικά προσωπικότητας. Στην ίδια τροχιά βρίσκεται και η έρευνα των De Ven et.al (2017), από την οποία υποστηρίζεται ότι η εξωστρέφεια είναι ένα χαρακτηριστικό το οποίο μπορεί να εξαχθεί από την αξιολόγηση των προφίλ των υποψηφίων στο LinkedIn. Επίσης, με το χαρακτηριστικό της εξωστρέφειας συνδέεται πιο άμεσα και η κοινοποίηση περισσότερων αρνητικών πληροφοριών στα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (Stoughton et.al, 2013). Εξαιρετικά ενδιαφέρουσα είναι και η προσέγγιση των Berger και Zickar (2016) η οποία τονίζει ότι μιας και δεν υπάρχει ξεκάθαρη μέχρι στιγμής σύνδεση μεταξύ εξαγόμενων χαρακτηριστικών προσωπικότητας από τα μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης και εργασιακής απόδοσης, ο στόχος των διαδικτυακών αξιολογήσεων θα πρέπει να είναι ο εντοπισμός συμπεριφορών οι οποίες έχουν προγενέστερα κοινά στοιχεία με σημαντικά εργασιακά αποτελέσματα.

Σε κάθε περίπτωση ωστόσο, η εγκυρότητα και η αξιοπιστία των αξιολογήσεων μπορούν να επηρεαστούν από τα ατομικά χαρακτηριστικά των αξιολογητών, από τη μειωμένη πολλές φορές δυνατότητα διασταύρωσης κάποιων πληροφοριών (ειδικότερα της αρνητικής πληροφόρησης), αλλά και από τις ηθελημένες προσπάθειες των υποψηφίων να παρουσιάσουν μια ελκυστική εικόνα του εαυτού τους η οποία μπορεί να μην εναρμονίζεται απόλυτα με την

πραγματική (impression management).

Νομικά και ηθικά ζητήματα

Αναφορικά με τα νομικά και τα ηθικά ζητήματα, οι υποψήφιοι μπορεί να αισθανθούν ότι οι επιχειρήσεις “παραβιάζουν τον ιδιωτικό τους χώρο” αντλώντας πληροφορίες οι οποίες δεν σχετίζονται άμεσα με τη θέση εργασίας και προέρχονται κυρίως από ιστοσελίδες οι οποίες είναι προσανατολισμένες σε κοινωνικό-προσωπικό επίπεδο όπως για παράδειγμα το Facebook (McCarthy et al., 2017). Σε αυτό το πλαίσιο, έχουν κινηθεί αρκετές χώρες οι οποίες έχουν υιοθετήσει αντίστοιχες νομοθετικές παρεμβάσεις που μπορεί να λειτουργήσουν αποτρεπτικά ως προς την παραβίαση της ιδιωτικότητας των πιθανών υποψηφίων, υποχρεώνοντας τη λήψη άδειας πρόσβασης στις προσωπικές ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης και στη εκ των προτέρων γνωστοποίηση του τρόπου χρήσης τους στις αντίστοιχες διαδικασίες. Παράδειγμα τέτοιων παρεμβάσεων αποτελούν η Νομοθεσία Προστασίας Δεδομένων (Data Protection Act, 1998) η οποία έχει θεσπιστεί στο Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο, η Fair Credit Reporting Act (1681) των Ηνωμένων Πολιτειών αλλά και η Stored Communications Act (1986). Αναφορικά με την Ελλάδα και την υπόλοιπη Ευρώπη, από 25/05/2018 εφαρμόζεται ο Γενικός Ευρωπαϊκός Κανονισμός Προστασίας Προσωπικών Δεδομένων (GDPR), ο οποίος επιτρέπει την επεξεργασία ευαίσθητων δεδομένων, μόνο κατόπιν συγκατάθεσης.

Ωστόσο, ακόμα και στις χώρες με αντίστοιχη προστατευτική νομοθεσία, η χρήση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης και επιλογής προσωπικού παρουσιάζεται ιδιαίτερα αυξημένη (Ruggs et al., 2016). Αυτό συμβαίνει διότι νομικά, το πλαίσιο στην ουσία επιτρέπει την άντληση διαδικτυακών δημόσιων πληροφοριών, διότι τεκμαίρεται ότι εφόσον τα άτομα κοινοποιούν πληροφορίες σε ένα δημόσιο δίκτυο (όπως είναι το LinkedIn κατά βάση αλλά και το Facebook εάν δεν έχει τις αντίστοιχες ρυθμίσεις ασφαλείας) τότε συναινούν έμμεσα στην επεξεργασία αυτών των πληροφοριών (Brown & Vaughn, 2011). Επομένως, σε αυτήν την περίπτωση η χρήση των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης και ειδικότερα του Facebook στην επιλογή προσωπικού, είναι ένα θέμα περισσότερο με ηθικές παρά νομικές προεκτάσεις.

Στην ηθική διάσταση της αξιολόγησης των υποψηφίων μέσω των ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, τοποθετείται ο τρόπος χρήσης και η επιρροή των ευαίσθητων κυρίως πληροφοριών στην απόφαση πρόσληψης. Επιπροσθέτως, ένα στοιχείο το οποίο δεν μπορεί να αποφευχθεί εντελώς είναι αυτό της υποκειμενικής και πολλές φορές στερεοτυπικής αξιολόγησης κάποιων πληροφοριών από την πλευρά των αξιολογητών, γεγονός που

κατατάσσεται στα μειονεκτήματα της χρήσης των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης στην επιλογή προσωπικού (Iddekinge et al., 2017).

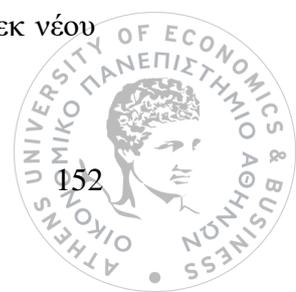
Αντιδράσεις Υποψηφίων και Προσέλκυση / Επιλογή Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού

Στα τμήματα Διοίκησης Ανθρώπινου Δυναμικού (ΔΑΔ) γίνεται πλέον εκτεταμένη χρήση εργαλείων τεχνολογίας αιχμής με πληθώρα θετικών αποτελεσμάτων για τις διεργασίες ηλεκτρονικής προσέλκυσης (e-recruitment) και επιλογής (e-selection) προσωπικού όπως η μείωση των δαπανών και των γεωγραφικών εμποδίων, η αύξηση της δεξαμενής των υποψηφίων, κ.α. Ωστόσο, συνεχίζουν να υφίστανται προβληματικά ζητήματα που σχετίζονται - εκτός άλλων - με την ικανοποίηση των υποψηφίων και, ως εκ τούτου, με τις αντιλήψεις και τις πιθανές αντιδράσεις αυτών στις καινοτόμες αυτές διαδικασίες.

Οι αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων είναι οι αντιλήψεις (εντυώσεις) που σχηματίζουν οι υποψήφιοι και ορίζονται ως *«οι στάσεις, οι επιδράσεις ή οι γνωστικές λειτουργίες που μπορεί ένα άτομο να έχει σχετικά με την διαδικασία πρόσληψης»* (Ryan & Ployhart, 2000, p. 566). Τα τελευταία χρόνια το ερευνητικό ενδιαφέρον έχει μετατοπιστεί στις αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων (Nikolaou, Bauer, & Truxillo, 2015), οι οποίες αποτελούν πρόκληση, διότι παρόλο που φαίνεται να στερούνται σημασίας για τις διαδικασίες στελέχωσης λόγω της οικονομικής ύφεσης και της ανεργίας, η έρευνα στο αντικείμενο έχει υπογραμμίσει τη κρισιμότητά τους. Για την ακρίβεια, υπάρχουν *«αδιάσειστες ενδείξεις ότι οι αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων έχουν σημαντικές και ουσιαστικές επιπτώσεις στις στάσεις, τις προθέσεις και τις συμπεριφορές»* (McCarthy et al., 2017, p. 1694) και δεδομένου ότι *«εξακολουθεί να δίνεται έμφαση στον ρόλο της νέας τεχνολογίας στις αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων»* (McCarthy et al., 2017, p. 1697), είναι ζωτικής σημασίας, οι ερευνητές να *«παραμένουν ενήμεροι για τις τεχνολογικές εξελίξεις στην επιλογή προσωπικού»* (McCarthy et al., 2017, p. 1715). Επομένως, το πεδίο των αντιδράσεων των υποψηφίων είναι ζωτικής σημασίας διότι δεν επιλέγουν μόνο οι εργοδότες υποψηφίους αλλά επιλέγουν και αξιολογούν και οι υποψήφιοι εργαζόμενοι τους οργανισμούς στους οποίους θα υποβάλλουν αίτηση εργασίας. Επομένως, η εξέταση της αποτελεσματικότητας των εργαλείων στελέχωσης προσωπικού είναι σημαντική για την κατανόηση του τρόπου με τον οποίο οι υποψήφιοι αντιλαμβάνονται και αντιδρούν (θετικά ή αρνητικά) στη διαδικασία στελέχωσης.

Συγκεκριμένα, το ενδιαφέρον για τις αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων αφορά πληθώρα ζητημάτων, όπως:

- η υποβολή αίτησης, αποδοχή προσφοράς εργασίας και οι προθέσεις εκ νέου αίτησης για μια θέση εργασίας (Ployhart & Ryan, 1998)



- η αυτοαντίληψη (η εικόνα, δηλ., που έχει κάποιος για τον εαυτό του) όπως, η αυτοεκτίμηση (Nikolaou & Judge, 2007)
- η αυτό-αποτελεσματικότητα και η παροχή κινήτρων (Chan & Schmitt, 1997)
- οι πιθανές νομικές διενέξεις (Gilliland, 1993)
- η ελκυστικότητα ενός οργανισμού (Hausknecht, Day, & Thomas, 2004)
- οι προθέσεις συστάσεων (Bauer et al., 2006), και
- η δέσμευση (Ryan, Sacco, McFarland, & Kriska, 2000).

Επομένως, η συμβολή που προοδευτικά εγκαθιδρύεται στην σημασία των αντιδράσεων υποψηφίων είναι εύλογη διότι «οι αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων στη διαδικασία επιλογής και στη δικαιοσύνη σχετίζονται με διάφορα ατομικά και οργανωσιακά αποτελέσματα - μερικά από τα οποία έχουν μεγάλη σημασία» (Truxillo, Bauer, McCarthy, Anderson, & Ahmed, 2018, p. 16).

Θεωρητικές Προσεγγίσεις

Μολονότι πριν το 1990 η έρευνα στο πεδίο εστιάζει στις προσδοκίες και τις επιπτώσεις που είχαν κυρίως οι συνεντεύξεις ως εργαλείο επιλογής προσωπικού (Schmitt & Coyle, 1976), σήμερα έχουν αναπτυχθεί διάφορες προσεγγίσεις και μοντέλα που διέπουν το θεωρητικό πλαίσιο του τομέα των αντιλήψεων των υποψηφίων.

Μοντέλα Δικαιοσύνης

Ο Gilliland (1993) μελέτησε την έννοια της δικαιοσύνης - ‘*διαδικαστικής και επιμεριστικής*’ - στις διαδικασίες επιλογής ασκώντας καθοριστική επιρροή στην ερμηνεία των αντιδράσεων υποψηφίων. Η θεωρία Οργανωσιακής Δικαιοσύνης (Organizational Justice Theory) του Gilliland (1993, 1994) βασίζεται στις πρακτικές, τις πολιτικές και τις αποφάσεις επιλογής οι οποίες επιδρούν στις αντιλήψεις περί δικαίου, δηλ., στην ικανοποίηση ή την παραβίαση των κανόνων δικαίου των υποψηφίων στα πλαίσια της διαδικασίας επιλογής. Η έμφαση αποδίδεται στο ρόλο της διαδικαστικής (εγκυρότητα των διαδικασιών επιλογής) έναντι της επιμεριστικής (έκβαση της διαδικασίας) δικαιοσύνης (Steiner & Gilliland, 2001).

Ο Schuler (1993) ταυτόχρονα, πρόβαλε τη σημασία της ‘*κοινωνικής εγκυρότητας*’ (Social Validity) και ανέδειξε ένα μοντέλο πρόβλεψης των αντιλήψεων των υποψηφίων με 4 διαστάσεις (οι παρεχόμενες πληροφορίες, ο βαθμός συμμετοχής, η διαφάνεια, και η ανατροφοδότηση) που επιδρούν στην εξασφάλιση της κοινωνικής εγκυρότητας των διεργασιών επιλογής από την πλευρά των υποψηφίων. Το μοντέλο του Schuler μολονότι δεν

έχει εξεταστεί εις βάθος, συνεχίζει να κατευθύνει θεωρητικές προσεγγίσεις (Anderson, Salgado, & Hülsheger, 2010).

Μοντέλα Κινήτρων

Τα μοντέλα κινήτρων βασίζονται στους παράγοντες και στις επιπτώσεις που διαμορφώνουν τις στάσεις και τα κίνητρα για την συμμετοχή των υποψηφίων κυρίως στα τεστ αξιολόγησης (Chan, Schmitt, DeShon, Clause, & Delbridge, 1997). Συγκεκριμένα, η διάσταση του κινήτρου είναι συνυφασμένη με α) την *φαινομενική εγκυρότητα* (face validity) που παρέχει εκτιμήσεις για την απόδοση στα τεστ (Chan & Schmitt, 1997) και β) την *μεροληπτική συμπεριφορά* των υποψηφίων για τον εαυτό τους (self-serving bias) που υπογραμμίζει τις πιθανότητες της διαμόρφωσης πεποιθήσεων χαμηλής εγκυρότητας των διαδικασιών όταν η επίδοση στα τεστ είναι ανεπαρκής με σκοπό την διαφύλαξη της προσωπικής θετικής εικόνας (Schmitt, Oswald, Kim, Gillespie, & Ramsay, 2004).

Μοντέλα Εισβολής στην Ιδιωτική Ζωή

Ένας άλλος τομέας θεωρητικής προσέγγισης είναι ο βαθμός επεμβατικότητας των μεθόδων και τεχνικών αξιολόγησης των υποψηφίων που δύναται να προκαλέσουν αρνητικές επιδράσεις (Bauer et al., 2006). Σε σχετικές έρευνες διαπιστώθηκε ότι οι συνεντεύξεις και τα δείγματα έργου θεωρούνται λιγότερο επεμβατικές μέθοδοι συγκριτικά με την γραφολογία (Kravitz, Stinson, & Chavez, 1996). Συγκεκριμένα, όταν οι συμμετέχοντες σε μια διαδικασία επιλογής αντιληφθούν ότι λαμβάνει χώρα καταπάτηση της ιδιωτικότητας τους - π.χ., η ορθότητα των ερωτήσεων που τίθενται (Gilliland, 1993) ή ο ηλεκτρονικός έλεγχος σε προσωπικές πληροφορίες (Bauer et al., 2006) - είναι πολύ πιθανό να αποκτήσουν πεποιθήσεις περί έλλειψης δικαιοσύνης και εγκυρότητας της διαδικασίας και να μειωθεί η οργανωσιακή έλξη.

Μοντέλα Κοινωνικών και Ψυχολογικών Παραμέτρων

Ένα άλλο σημαντικό πεδίο που συνδέεται με τις αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων είναι αυτό που εστιάζει στην αντιληπτική διαδικασία των κοινωνικών και ψυχολογικών αντιδράσεων. Πιο συγκεκριμένα, η θεωρία της Κοινωνικής Ταυτότητας (Social Identity Theory) (Hogg & Terry, 2000) διαμορφώνει την απόφαση αποδοχής ή απόρριψης μιας διαδικασίας επιλογής ή προσφοράς εργασίας, όταν συνυπάρχει ή όχι συμφωνία του υποψηφίου με την κοινωνική ταυτότητα του οργανισμού. Συγκεκριμένα «*οι προθέσεις και οι ενέργειες των υποψηφίων*

σχετικά με τις προσλήψεις σε έναν οργανισμό προβλέπονται από τον βαθμό συσχέτισης των κοινωνικών ταυτοτήτων των υποψηφίων με τις αντιλήψεις τους για την ταυτότητα του οργανισμού» (Herriot, 2004, p. 75) καθώς «η σχέση μεταξύ του βαθμού συμμόρφωσης και της πρόθεσης εξόδου διαμορφώνεται από τις αντιλήψεις των υποψηφίων για τη διαθεσιμότητα και την εύρεση εναλλακτικών θέσεων εργασίας· από το βαθμό στον οποίο οι τρέχουσες ταυτότητες των υποψηφίων ανταποκρίνονται στις ανάγκες τους για αυτοπεποίθηση και μείωση της αβεβαιότητας· και από το επίπεδο ανοχής του ατόμου στην ασυμφωνία» (Herriot, 2004, p. 78).

Άλλο ένα σημαντικό πεδίο έρευνας στα πεδία των ψυχολογικών παραμέτρων είναι η θεωρία της Απόδοσης Ευθυνών (Attribution Theory) που στηρίζεται στην ανάγκη των ατόμων για εύρεση υπαιτιότητας σε γεγονότα δυσμενή (Weiner, 1985). Στις αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων, το μοντέλο αυτό (Applicant Attribution – Reaction Theory) προτείνει ότι η κατανομή ευθυνών (εσωτερικές ή εξωγενείς) των υποψηφίων σε περίπτωση απόρριψης για μια θέση εργασίας «... εξηγεί τις αντιδράσεις τους· οι αντιλήψεις όπως η δικαιοσύνη είναι μόνο μια αντίδραση σε αυτή τη διαδικασία απονομής» (Ployhart & Harold, 2004, p. 85). Στην περίπτωση, λοιπόν, που ένας υποψήφιος απορριφθεί από μια διαδικασία επιλογής είναι πιθανό να διαμορφώσει μια αντίληψη για τον εαυτό του παθητικά αλλά και να καταλήξει ευρύτερα σε ένα συμπέρασμα για τον οργανισμό υποδηλώνοντας ότι όταν πληρούνται ή παραβιάζονται τα ατομικά πρότυπα, ορισμένες διαδικασίες απονομής δικαιοσύνης διαμορφώνονται σε σχέση με την προσωπική ευημερία και την οργανωσιακή ελκυστικότητα (Schinkel, van Dierendonck, van Vianen, & Ryan, 2011).

Οι αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων στις σύγχρονες μεθόδους στελέχωσης των οργανισμών

Οι τεχνολογικές εξελίξεις σε συνδυασμό με την αλλαγή στην φύση της εργασίας, τα δημογραφικά κωλύματα για εξεύρεση ικανού δυναμικού στελέχωσης και τη διεθνοποίηση των επιχειρήσεων έχουν αναδείξει σύγχρονες τάσεις στην στελέχωση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού με κυρίαρχη την χρήση του διαδικτύου και των πολυμέσων. Η χρήση του διαδικτύου έχει αναδειχθεί διεθνώς σε ένα από τα πιο διαδεδομένα μέσα αναζήτησης εργασίας (από την πλευρά των υποψηφίων) αλλά και προσέλκυσης (e-recruitment) και επιλογής προσωπικού (e-selection) (από την πλευρά των οργανισμών).

Οι προσδοκίες και οι αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων ασκούν καταλυτική επιρροή στις παραπάνω αυτοματοποιημένες διεργασίες και οι ερευνητές και οι επαγγελματίες της ΔΑΔ καλούνται να αξιολογήσουν πόσο δίκαια, κατάλληλα ή παρεμβατικά αντιλαμβάνονται τα εργαλεία των μεθόδων επιλογής οι υποψήφιοι. Αν και η έρευνα στο πεδίο των αντιδράσεων

των υποψηφίων είναι ελλιπής διαφαίνεται ότι οι υποψήφιοι σχηματίζουν θετικές εντυπώσεις για τα εργαλεία αυτά και επομένως θετικές αντιλήψεις για τον οργανισμό. Ειδικότερα όταν τα τμήματα ΔΑΔ χρησιμοποιούν το Διαδίκτυο ως αποκλειστικό ή πρωταρχικό μέσο διαχείρισης εργαλείων επιλογής διαπιστώνονται ισχυροί δεσμοί θετικών στάσεων των υποψηφίων μεταξύ της ταχύτητας ενός συστήματος, της φιλικότητας προς το χρήστη και της εικόνα ενός οργανισμού ως δυνητικού εργοδότη. Ωστόσο, αυτά τα χαρακτηριστικά δεν επηρεάζουν όλους τους υποψηφίους με παρόμοιο τρόπο, αλλά διαφαίνεται να έχουν μεγαλύτερη επίδραση στους υποψηφίους με λιγότερη εμπειρία στο Διαδίκτυο και ενδεχομένως και για τους πιο ηλικιωμένους (Sinar, Reynolds, & Paquet, 2003).

Ουσιαστικά, σε ένα γενικότερο πλαίσιο έχει διαπιστωθεί ότι οι υποψήφιοι θεωρούν πιο εύχρηστες και αποτελεσματικές τις ηλεκτρονικές μεθόδους προσέλκυσης (e-recruitment) με καθοριστικούς παράγοντες ικανοποίησης των υποψηφίων τα χαρακτηριστικά της ιστοσελίδας, την αποτελεσματικότητα και την φιλικότητα προς τον χρήστη (Sylva & Mol, 2009) αλλά δεν φαίνεται να διαμορφώνουν θετικές αντιλήψεις για τις ηλεκτρονικές μεθόδους επιλογής (e-selection) όπως η ψηφιακή και η τηλεφωνική συνέντευξη (digital or teleconference interview) καθώς προτιμούν τις πρόσωπο με πρόσωπο τύπου απαντήσεων συγκριτικά με τις (ημι)αυτοποιημένες λόγω έλλειψης προσωπικής επαφής (Blacksmith, Willford, & Behrend, 2016).

Αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων στην ηλεκτρονική προσέλκυση (e-recruitment)

Η τεχνολογική πρόοδος έχει βελτιώσει τις πρακτικές προσέλκυσης υποψηφίων με χρήση νέων μέσων και εργαλείων και η ηλεκτρονική προσέλκυση είναι κυρίαρχη είτε μέσω της επίσημης ιστοσελίδας ενός οργανισμού, είτε μέσω τρίτων (π.χ., kariera.gr) είτε 'παθητικά' μέσω ιστοσελίδων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (SNWs, όπως το Facebook, LinkedIn, κ.α.).

Συγκεκριμένα, οι υποψήφιοι ανταποκρίνονται πιο θετικά σε αγγελίες εργασίας που δημοσιεύονται διαδικτυακά συγκριτικά με αυτές σε έντυπη μορφή (Baum & Kabst, 2014) και ανταποκρίνονται πιο θετικά στη χρήση βιντεογραφικών συγκριτικά με τα παραδοσιακά έντυπα βιογραφικά (Hiemstra, Derous, Serlie, & Born, 2012). Επίσης, η διαδικτυακή προσέλκυση μέσω των ιστοσελίδων των οργανισμών παρουσιάζει αυξημένη ελκυστικότητα για τους υποψηφίους αν τηρούνται ορισμένες προϋποθέσεις όπως η ευκολία χρήσης και η άρτια αισθητική (Sylva & Mol, 2009), η ένταξη μαρτυριών των εργαζομένων για τα προσωπικά τους επιτεύγματα (Van Hoye & Lievens, 2007) και η χρήση υπερσυνδέσμων (Allen, Biggane, Pitts, Otondo, & Van Scotter, 2013). Σημαντική επίσης πτυχή της

ηλεκτρονικής προσέλκυσης είναι η φήμη και η εικόνα (*branding*) (Allen, Mahto, & Otondo, 2007) και η οικειότητα με έναν οργανισμό (Walker, Feild, Giles, Bernerth, & Short, 2011).

Από την άλλη, η ηλεκτρονική προσέλκυση μέσω εξειδικευμένων τρίτων που δημοσιεύουν μαζικά και συντονισμένα αγγελίες εργασίας, όπως οι ιστοσελίδες εύρεσης εργασίας (π.χ., monster.com, kariera.gr), φαίνεται να διαμορφώνουν πολύ θετικές εντυπώσεις και τεράστια ανταπόκριση των υποψηφίων καθώς μπορούν να «δημοσιεύουν τα βιογραφικά τους διαδικτυακά και να έχουν πρόσβαση σε μια ευρεία βάση δεδομένων για θέσεις εργασίας χωρίς χρέωση» (Nikolaou, 2014, p. 181). Τέλος, η τεχνολογία έχει, ακόμη, εντείνει δραματικά και την χρήση των SNW (κυρίως, Facebook, Twitter και LinkedIn) που προάγουν εκτεταμένες επαγγελματικές ευκαιρίες δικτύωσης αλλά και 'παθητικής' προσέλκυσης για τους υποψηφίους αν και η χρήση τους ειδικά στην Ελλάδα φαίνεται να είναι ανεπαρκής στην αναζήτηση εργασίας (Nikolaou, 2014).

Αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων στην ηλεκτρονική επιλογή (e-selection)

Σε ένα γενικό πλαίσιο αξιολόγησης των τεχνικών και εργαλείων επιλογής προσωπικού έχει διαπιστωθεί ότι οι υποψήφιοι προτιμούν σε μεγαλύτερο βαθμό τις συνεντεύξεις και τα δείγματα έργου, σε μέτριο βαθμό τα βιογραφικά, τα τεστ προσωπικότητας και ικανοτήτων και τις συστάσεις και σε μικρότερο βαθμό τη γραφολογία, τις προσωπικές επαφές και τα τεστ ειλικρίνειας (Anderson et al., 2010). Ακόμη αποτελεί πρόκληση για τους ερευνητές και τους οργανισμούς ότι ο συνδυασμός των διαφόρων μεθόδων επιλογής (λ.χ., ενός τεστ νοημοσύνης και ενός δείγματος έργου) έχει την θετική ανταπόκριση των υποψηφίων (Klingner & Schuler, 2004).

Οι συνεντεύξεις

Η μέθοδος επιλογής προσωπικού μέσω της συνέντευξης φαίνεται να έχει την εύνοια των υποψηφίων λόγω της ευρύτερης διάδοσης αυτής της τεχνικής παγκοσμίως (Anderson et al., 2010), της υψηλής εγκυρότητας και της χαμηλής παρεμβατικότητας (Steiner & Gilliland, 1996, 2001) καθώς και της δυνατότητας εστίασης σε ατομικές ξεχωριστές ικανότητες ενός υποψηφίου τις οποίες μπορεί να επικοινωνήσει στον συνεντευκτή στα πλαίσια της διαπροσωπικής επαφής (Nikolaou & Georgiou, 2018).

Η ταχεία τεχνολογική πρόοδος τα τελευταία χρόνια συνέβαλε στην αλλαγή της πρακτικής για τη διεξαγωγή της παραδοσιακής συνέντευξης πρόσωπο με πρόσωπο (face to face) είτε μέσω τηλεφωνικής επικοινωνίας (teleconference), είτε μέσω βίντεο

(videoconference, π.χ., μέσω Skype) είτε με πλήρως αυτοματοποιημένα ψηφιακά μέσα (digital) (Blacksmith et al., 2016; Chapman & Rowe, 2002; Levashina, Hartwell, Morgeson, & Campion, 2014).

Οι ψηφιακές (βιντεοσκοπημένες) συνεντεύξεις πραγματοποιούνται με καταγραφή βιντεοσκοπημένων απαντήσεων των υποψηφίων σε ερωτήσεις αξιολόγησης χωρίς την παρουσία συνομιλητή (Levashina et al., 2014). Αυτή η παρεμβολή της τεχνολογίας, ωστόσο, δεν φαίνεται να έχει την εύνοια των υποψηφίων καθώς παρουσιάζει πολύ χαμηλότερα ποσοστά διαπροσωπικής μεταχείρισης (interpersonal treatment) σε σχέση με την παραδοσιακή συνέντευξη (Langer, König, & Krause, 2017). Είναι αξιοπρόσεκτο ότι οι υποψήφιοι που πραγματοποιούν ψηφιακές συνεντεύξεις όχι μόνο δεν λαμβάνουν την απαιτούμενη προσοχή των recruiters αλλά αξιολογούνται και αρνητικά (Sears, Zhang, Wiesner, Hackett, & Yuan, 2013) και συχνά παρατηρείται αύξηση άγχους (Blacksmith et al. 2016) και έλλειψη ανατροφοδότησης (Guchait, Ruetzler, Taylor, & Toldi, 2014).

Ψυχομετρικά Τεστ

Η χρήση της προηγμένης τεχνολογίας στις πρακτικές επιλογής προσωπικού έχει επηρεάσει και τον τρόπο διεξαγωγής των τεστ αξιολόγησης τα οποία πραγματοποιούνται εξ αποστάσεως με χρήση υπολογιστή, κινητού, κ.α., και στην συνέχεια αξιολογούνται και ερμηνεύονται με χρήση καινοτόμων εργαλείων.

Σε σχετικές αναλύσεις έχει αναδειχθεί ότι οι αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων συνδέονται άμεσα με τις επιδόσεις τους στα τεστ (διαδικτυακά ή μη) αξιολόγησης (Hausknecht et al., 2004; Oostrom, Born, Serlie, & van der Molen, 2010). Οι μηχανισμοί στους οποίους βασίζονται οι αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων πέρα των αντιλήψεων για την δικαιοσύνη, εστιάζονται στα κίνητρα, το άγχος και την απόδοση τους (McCarthy et al., 2017; Oostrom et al., 2010). Αναφορικά με τις προτιμήσεις των υποψηφίων για τα διαδικτυακά τεστ, τα ευρήματα για την χρήση τους εξ αποστάσεως με τεχνολογικά μέσα είναι ασαφή και συγκεχυμένα καθώς σε κάποιες έρευνες δεν διαπιστώθηκε σημαντική διαφοροποίηση στις επιλογές των υποψηφίων αναφορικά με την χρήση ή όχι του διαδικτύου (Wiechmann & Ryan, 2003) ενώ σε άλλες οι υποψήφιοι φαίνεται να εκπέμπουν θετικά μηνύματα για τα διαδικτυακά τεστ προσωπικότητας και ικανοτήτων (Baron & Austin, 2000; Reynolds, Sinar, & McClough, 2000) αλλά ανάμεικτα για τα διαδικτυακά τεστ υποθετικών καταστάσεων (Bauer, Truxillo, & Paronto, 2004). Ωστόσο, είναι αξιοσημείωτο ότι μολονότι οι υποψήφιοι διατηρούν μετριοπαθή στάση για τα τεστ ικανοτήτων και προσωπικότητας, στην πράξη θεωρούνται μέθοδοι υψηλής εγκυρότητας στην πρόβλεψη της απόδοσης των υποψηφίων (Gilliland & Steiner, 2012).

Παράγοντες που επηρεάζουν τις αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων

Ένα βασικό ερώτημα που τίθεται στο πεδίο των αντιδράσεων των υποψηφίων είναι η σπουδαιότητα και η βαρύτητα των παραγόντων που συντελούν και διαμορφώνουν τις αντιλήψεις και τις εντυπώσεις τους για τις οργανωσιακές τεχνικές αξιολόγησης, προσέλκυσης και επιλογής. Όπως προκύπτει ερευνητικά, οι κύριοι παράγοντες που επηρεάζουν τις αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων και έχουν μελετηθεί σε μεγάλο βαθμό είναι οι εξής:

1. Τα χαρακτηριστικά των υποψηφίων - σε πληθώρα ερευνών υπογραμμίστηκε ότι οι υποψήφιοι διαφορετικού φύλου (λευκοί και έγχρωμοι) αντιλαμβάνονται, αξιολογούν και αντιδρούν διαφορετικά στις μεθόδους επιλογής (Becton, Feild, Giles, & Jones-Farmer, 2008). Ωστόσο δεν έχουν βρεθεί σημαντικές διαφορές στις αντιδράσεις υποψηφίων διαφορετικού γένους (αρσενικό/θηλυκό).

2. Η προσωπικότητα των υποψηφίων σύμφωνα με το μοντέλο των Πέντε Παραγόντων της Προσωπικότητας - συγκεκριμένα, ο νευρωτισμός οδηγεί σε αρνητικές αντιδράσεις και η ευσυνειδησία κατευθύνει την διαμόρφωση θετικών εντυπώσεων στην προσέλκυση και επιλογή προσωπικού (Nikolaou & Georgiou, 2018). Είναι αξιοσημείωτο ότι σε έρευνα που πραγματοποιήθηκε στην Ελλάδα διαπιστώθηκαν χαμηλοί συσχετισμοί μεταξύ της αυτό-αξιολόγησης και των αντιδράσεων της αντιλαμβανόμενης δικαιοσύνης των υποψηφίων σε σχέση με τις διαφορετικές μεθόδους επιλογής προσωπικού (Nikolaou & Judge, 2007).

Ακόμη, άλλοι παράγοντες που επιδρούν στις αντιλήψεις των υποψηφίων σχετίζονται με οργανωσιακές λειτουργίες. Συγκεκριμένα, η παροχή εξηγήσεων, ειδικά σε περίπτωση απόρριψης, από τα τμήματα ΔΑΔ επεμβαίνει στην διαμόρφωση της αντιλαμβανόμενης δικαιοσύνης και ορίζει την οργανωσιακή ελκυστικότητα (Truxillo, Bodner, Bertolino, Bauer, & Yonce, 2009), η οποία σχετίζεται με τον σχηματισμό μιας θετικής εικόνας για τον οργανισμό (λ.χ., μέσω της εταιρικής υπευθυνότητας) και οδηγεί σε ευμενή στάση των υποψηφίων (Nikolaou & Georgiou, 2018).

Οι επιπτώσεις / αποτελέσματα των αντιδράσεων υποψηφίων

Οι αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων έχουν βραχυπρόθεσμες αλλά και μακροπρόθεσμες συνέπειες (Hülshager & Anderson, 2009) και «οικονομικοί, νομικοί και ψυχολογικοί λόγοι» (Nikolaou & Georgiou, 2018, p. 104) εντείνουν την ανάγκη των οργανισμών να τις λαμβάνουν σοβαρά υπόψη. Το κόστος για τους οργανισμούς βραχυπρόθεσμα είναι η πιθανή απόρριψη πρότασης συνεργασίας από έναν υποψήφιο και η αποχώρηση από τις διαδικασίες γεγονός που

συνίσταται σε οικονομική και χρονική δαπάνη. Μακροπρόθεσμα, η πιθανή αποχώρηση εργαζομένων και η προσφυγή σε ανταγωνιστές έχει ως συνέπεια την κατ' ανάγκη επιλογή χαμηλότερης απόδοσης υποψηφίων με επίδραση στην συνολική απόδοση ενός οργανισμού.

Παράλληλα, αν οι υποψήφιοι σχηματίσουν αρνητικές εντυπώσεις και αντιλήψεις δύναται να τις μεταφέρουν και σε άλλους υποψηφίους πλήττοντας όχι μόνο την εικόνα του οργανισμού ως πιθανό εργοδότη αλλά ασκώντας και επιρροή στην καταναλωτική τους συμπεριφορά (Anderson, 2011; Bauer, McCarthy, Anderson, Truxillo, & Salgado, 2012; Hülsheger & Anderson, 2009). Σε αυτό το πλαίσιο κινείται και το πρόσφατο ερευνητικό ενδιαφέρον που εντοπίζεται για τα (θετικά ή αρνητικά) κίνητρα διάδοσης μηνυμάτων (Word of Mouth - WOM) και τα οποία πραγματοποιούνται και σε ηλεκτρονική μορφή (Word of Mouse - electronic Word of Mouth - eWOM) (Van Hove & Lievens, 2007) σε διαδικτυακά forums, σε μέσα κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, και σε εξειδικευμένες ιστοσελίδες (π.χ., Glassdoor) που παρέχουν δωρεάν πρόσβαση σε δημόσιες ανώνυμες αξιολογήσεις εργοδοτών και διαδικασιών προσέλκυσης και επιλογής και προσφέρουν «*insight from the inside*» (Holland & Jeske, n.d., p. 293).

Δεν υπάρχουν επί του παρόντος σαφή ευρήματα για τα κίνητρα - διάδοσης αλλά και αναζήτησης τέτοιων μηνυμάτων από χρήστες καθώς και τις επιπτώσεις της διαδικτυακής ανώνυμης επικοινωνίας των υποψηφίων (McCarthy et al., 2017, p. 17). Λεπτομερέστερα, αν και η επικοινωνία μεταξύ των υποψηφίων έχει αντίκτυπο στις θεωρήσεις και αντιλήψεις τους (Geenen, Proost, Schreurs, van Dam, & von Grumbkow, 2013; Geenen et al., 2012) δεν είναι σαφές «*πώς αξιολογούνται αυτές οι πληροφορίες από τους υποψήφιους όταν αποφασίζουν να υποβάλουν αίτηση ή όταν προσκαλούνται να συμμετάσχουν σε μια συνέντευξη*» (Kluemper, Davison, Cao, & Wu, 2015, p. 88).

Συμπερασματικά, «*η μελέτη αντιδράσεων των υποψηφίων και της διαδικασίας λήψης αποφάσεων σε πολλές χώρες έχει αρχίσει να ρίχνει φως στα μέχρι τώρα αφανή χαρακτηριστικά της 'πλευράς' των υποψηφίων για τις διαδικασίες επιλογής, και ως εκ τούτου ... στην 'σκοτεινή πλευρά του φεγγαριού'*» (Anderson, 2004, p. 1) της πρόσληψης. Όπως φαίνεται, υπάρχουν ρεαλιστικοί, οικονομικοί, θεωρητικοί και ηθικοί λόγοι που υπογραμμίζουν την σπουδαιότητα της μελέτης των αντιδράσεων των υποψηφίων για την αξιολόγηση, προσέλκυση και επιλογή προσωπικού αλλά ο τρόπος που δημιουργούνται, τροποποιούνται και μεταδίδονται αυτές οι αντιλήψεις είναι πολυδιάστατος, δυναμικά εξελισσόμενος και συχνά, ασαφής με καταλυτικό παράγοντα διαμόρφωσης την τεχνολογική εξέλιξη.

Ιστοσελίδες Κοινωνικής Δικτύωσης και Αντιδράσεις Υποψηφίων

Τα τελευταία χρόνια, ολοένα και περισσότερο πραγματοποιούνται έρευνες αναφορικά με την χρήση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης (SNWs) σε σχέση με την προσέλκυση και επιλογή υποψηφίων και αναπόφευκτα με τις αντιδράσεις τους. Αν και η έρευνα βρίσκεται σε πρώιμο στάδιο, τα πρωταρχικά ευρήματα δεν οδηγούν σε ασφαλή συμπεράσματα καθώς οι υποψήφιοι φαίνεται να μην αντιδρούν ιδιαίτερος και εκλογικευμένα ως προς την χρήση τους.

Σε πρώιμο στάδιο, σε μελέτη του Madera (2012) διαπιστώθηκαν χαμηλά ποσοστά αντιλαμβανόμενης δικαιοσύνης και προθέσεων αίτησης για θέσεις εργασίας από τους υποψηφίους σε οργανισμούς που κάνουν χρήση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης ως εργαλείο επιλογής προσωπικού συγκριτικά με αυτούς που δεν τα χρησιμοποιούν. Ακόμη, η χρήση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης δεν οδηγεί σε θετική στάση των υποψηφίων γιατί εκλαμβάνουν την όλη διαδικασία ως ένα μέσο παραβίασης της ιδιωτικότητας τους που όχι μόνο μειώνει την ελκυστικότητα του οργανισμού αλλά και αυξάνει τις προθέσεις για λήψη νομικών μέτρων (Stoughton, Thompson, & Meade, 2015).

Ωστόσο είναι άξιο αναφοράς ότι μολονότι κατά καιρούς έχει τονιστεί ότι η χρήση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης έχει αρνητικές επιπτώσεις για τους υποψήφιους (Roth, Bobko, Van Iddekinge, & Thatcher, 2016), η αποκλειστική και προσεκτική χρήση του LinkedIn για επαγγελματικούς σκοπούς δύναται να βελτιώσει τις αντιδράσεις τους (Truxillo, Bauer, & Garcia, 2017). Αυτό το σκεπτικό είναι πιθανώς συνυφασμένο με το γεγονός ότι έχει υπογραμμισθεί ότι οι υποψήφιοι αντιδρούν και κάνουν προσεκτική χρήση των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης αν πιθανολογήσουν ότι οι πιθανοί μελλοντικοί εργοδότες θα τα επισκεφτούν (Roulin & Bangerter, 2013) καθώς και ότι η τυποποίηση και η αντικειμενική αξιολόγηση μπορεί να αυξήσει την αποδοχή των υποψηφίων της χρήσης των μέσων κοινωνικής δικτύωσης για ζητήματα προσέλκυσης και επιλογής (Truxillo et al., 2017).

Οι Stoughton, ο Thompson και ο Meade (2015) διενήργησαν δύο μελέτες που διερευνούν επίσης το ίδιο θέμα. Στην πρώτη μελέτη, διερεύνησαν αν οι αντιλήψεις για την προστασία της ιδιωτικής ζωής επηρεάζουν τη διαδικαστική δικαιοσύνη και τις αντιλήψεις του συστήματος επιλογής. Επιπλέον, εξέτασαν εάν η χρήση των SNW από τους εργοδότες για σκοπούς επιλογής επηρεάζει τις αντιλήψεις των υποψηφίων για οργανωτική ελκυστικότητα σε ένα ρεαλιστικό σενάριο προσλήψεων. Τα αποτελέσματα κατέδειξαν ότι η αξιολόγηση των SNW πριν από την απασχόληση αυξάνει τις αντιλήψεις των υποψηφίων για εισβολή στην ιδιωτική ζωή, μειώνει τις αντιλήψεις για οργανωτική δικαιοσύνη και μειώνει την οργανωσιακή ελκυστικότητα. Οι αντιλήψεις για το ιδιωτικό απόρρητο εν μέρει διαμεσολαβούσαν στη σχέση μεταξύ επιλογής και αντιλήψεων δικαιοσύνης. Στη δεύτερη

μελέτη τους, οι Stoughton et al. (2015) διερεύνησαν την επίδραση της παραβίασης της ιδιωτικότητας στις προθέσεις των υποψηφίων να κινηθούν νομικά εναντίον του οργανισμού και επίσης τον ρόλο της απόφασης επιλογής σχετικά με τη σχέση μεταξύ της χρήσης των SNW και της διαδικαστικής δικαιοσύνης. Τα αποτελέσματά τους έδειξαν ότι οι αντιλήψεις των υποψηφίων για οργανωσιακή δικαιοσύνη μείωσαν την οργανωσιακή ελκυστικότητα και αύξαναν την πιθανότητα νομικών μέτρων εναντίον του εργοδότη. Επίσης, η τελική απόφαση πρόσληψης του οργανισμού δεν είχε καμία επίδραση στις αντιδράσεις των υποψηφίων περί διαδικαστικής δικαιοσύνης. Αυτό ήταν ένα ενδιαφέρον εύρημα που αποδεικνύει ότι οι πρακτικές ελέγχου των SNW επηρεάζουν τα αποτελέσματα της ιδιωτικής ζωής (π.χ. ελκυστικότητα, προθέσεις για αμφισβήτηση κ.λπ.), ανεξάρτητα από την τελική απόφαση πρόσληψης.

Όπως ισχυρίζονται οι Stoughton et al. (2015), η χρήση φοιτητών, αντί υποψηφίων είναι ένα κοινό πρόβλημα στην έρευνα των αντιδράσεων των υποψηφίων. Αυτοί οι μελετητές προτείνουν, και συμφωνούμε μαζί τους, ότι στο μέλλον, οι ερευνητές πρέπει να διερευνήσουν το μεσολαβητικό (moderating) ρόλο του τύπου του SNW, για παράδειγμα το Facebook σε σύγκριση με το LinkedIn. Αυτά τα δύο SNWs έχουν διαφορετικές ταυτότητες και χαρακτηριστικά, όπως έχουμε ήδη αναφέρει. Ως εκ τούτου, χρησιμοποιούνται διαφορετικά από τους υποψήφιους, οι οποίοι θα αντιδρούν επίσης διαφορετικά όταν οι μελλοντικοί εργοδότες τους τα χρησιμοποιούν ως εργαλείο αξιολόγησής τους, ακόμη και εν αγνοία τους. Οι Stoughton et al. (2015) προτείνουν περαιτέρω ότι οι μελλοντικές έρευνες θα πρέπει να διερευνήσουν και άλλους διαμεσολαβητές, όπως η γνωστοποίηση της αξιολόγησης των SNWs των υποψηφίων πριν από τη διαδικασία αξιολόγησης και τον αντίκτυπο που αυτό έχει. Επίσης, η μελλοντική έρευνα θα μπορούσε να εξετάσει το περιεχόμενο των SNW των υποψηφίων. Έτσι, οι ερευνητές μπορούν να καθορίσουν εάν τα αποτελέσματα της αξιολόγησης των SNWs επηρεάζεται και σε τι βαθμό από παράγοντες όπως ο βαθμός στον οποίο οι SNWs του υποψηφίου περιέχουν ακατάλληλες ή αρνητικές πληροφορίες που ενδεχομένως θεωρούνται μη επαγγελματικές.

Με παρόμοιο τρόπο, η μελλοντική έρευνα πρέπει να διερευνήσει τον αντίκτυπο της διαχείρισης της αυτοεικόνας των υποψηφίων στη δημιουργία και τη διατήρηση SNWs. Δεδομένου ότι περισσότερες εταιρείες χρησιμοποιούν τις SNWs για σκοπούς προβολής, οι υποψήφιοι που αναζητούν εργασία έχουν τώρα μεγαλύτερη επίγνωση αυτών των τακτικών, επομένως, είναι πολύ πιθανό ότι θα επιδιώξουν ενεργά να βελτιώσουν ή και να τροποποιήσουν ανάλογα τα προφίλ τους SNW, προκειμένου να αυξήσουν την πιθανότητα προσέλκυσης του ενδιαφέροντος των στελεχών της ΔΑΔ..

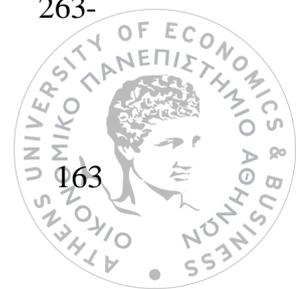
Ένας άλλος τομέας έρευνας είναι η ύπαρξη διαπολιτισμικών διαφορών στη χρήση των SNW μεταξύ των εργοδοτών και των υποψηφίων. Οι εργοδότες χρησιμοποιούν τις SNW ως εργαλεία πρόσληψης και επίσης για τον εντοπισμό των πληροφοριών των υποψηφίων και οι υποψήφιοι χρησιμοποιούν τις SNWs ως έναν άλλο τρόπο αναζήτησης εργασίας και επικοινωνίας με πιθανούς εργοδότες. Ο Νικολαου (2014) διεξήγαγε δύο μελέτες στην Ελλάδα, διερευνώντας τη χρήση των SNW μεταξύ των εργαζομένων - υποψηφίων που αναζητούν εργασία και των επαγγελματιών της ΔΑΔ σε μία από τις πολύ λίγες μελέτες που πραγματοποιήθηκαν σε μη Αγγλόφωνη χώρα. Τα αποτελέσματά του έδειξαν ότι οι ιστοσελίδες αναζήτησης θέσεων εργασίας (π.χ., careerbuilder.com ή monster.com) θεωρούνται ως αποτελεσματικότερα εργαλεία αναζήτησης εργασίας, μεταξύ των υποψηφίων συγκριτικά με τις SNWs, ενώ έχουμε αναφέρει και νωρίτερα τον αποτελεσματικό τους ρόλο στην προσέγγιση και προσέλκυση μη ενεργών υποψηφίων.

Επίλογος

Στη σημερινή σύγχρονη επιχειρηματική πραγματικότητα, ο ρόλος της τεχνολογίας στις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης και επιλογής ανθρώπινου δυναμικού, απλώς δεν μπορεί να αγνοηθεί. Τα στελέχη της ΔΑΔ θα πρέπει όχι απλώς να χρησιμοποιούν τα νέα τεχνολογικά εργαλεία, όπως οι ιστοσελίδες κοινωνικής δικτύωσης, αποτελεσματικά αλλά και να αποτελούν οι ίδιοι σε αυτά και με αυτά τους καλύτερους “πρεσβευτές” των οργανισμών τους, προκειμένου να μπορούν οι επιχειρήσεις τους να γίνουν ή και να παραμένουν “εργοδότες επιλογής” μεταξύ των ταλέντων. Δεν νοείται στις ημέρες αποτελεσματική ΔΑΔ χωρίς την αποτελεσματική χρήση της τεχνολογίας, σε όλες της τις εκφάνσεις ή χωρίς την αναγνώριση του ρόλου και της σημασίας της θετικής εμπειρίας των υποψηφίων στις διαδικασίες προσέλκυσης και επιλογή προσωπικού.

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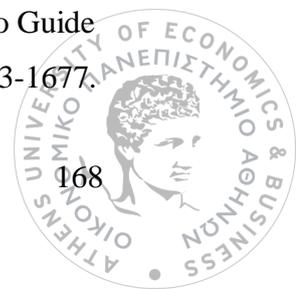
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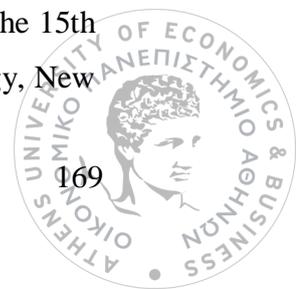
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Table 1**Percentage of organisations across countries using a range of recruitment methods****(Cranet, 2014/15)**

	China n=256	France n=158	Germany n=278	Greece n=188	Sweden n=291	UK n=210	USA n=509
Recruiting managers:							
Internal	69.9%	95.3%	77.6%	72.4%	83.3%	98.9%	79.7%
Recruitment agency	39.5%	84.1%	73.7%	38.0%	77.7%	96.0%	56.0%
Word-of-mouth	22.3%	82.8%	37.3%	47.3%	45.4%	92.5%	66.3%
Employer's website	34.8%	90.5%	70.3%	41.6%	85.8%	94.4%	78.5%
Commercial website	38.3%	75.3%	66.1%	39.1%	72.0%	91.9%	75.1%
Speculative applications	16.4%	60.3%	34.9%	17.4%	26.6%	54.3%	6.9%
Recruiting professionals:							
Internal	16.8%	94.6%	84.5%	54.1%	69.5%	98.3%	78.7%
Recruitment agency	31.3%	66.7%	51.1%	22.3%	50.0%	96.0%	41.9%
Word-of-mouth	53.9%	76.5%	67.5%	51.6%	50.7%	93.6%	71.1%
Employer's website	12.5%	88.7%	90.2%	42.2%	88.3%	94.6%	80.9%
Commercial website	22.7%	67.5%	82.3%	42.9%	75.5%	92.5%	77.8%
Speculative applications	35.9%	55.1%	63.6%	27.7%	40.4%	62.5%	14.4%
Recruiting clerical/manual workers:							
Internal	17.2%	95.3%	88.8%	63.2%	81.2%	98.3%	77.0%
Recruitment agency	26.2%	52.8%	17.9%	13.6%	24.1%	93.8%	16.3%
Word-of-mouth	16.4%	79.7%	85.2%	65.2%	56.4%	93.6%	78.5%
Employer's website	17.6%	88.5%	92.4%	49.2%	85.8%	94.4%	81.1%
Commercial website	15.6%	64.4%	76.5%	46.7%	58.9%	91.7%	65.6%
Speculative applications	27.7%	51.5%	84.4%	35.3%	49.3%	67.9%	18.8%



Table 2

**Percentage of organisations across countries using a range of selection methods
(Cranet, 2014/15)**

	China n=256	France n=158	Germany n=278	Greece n=188	Sweden n=291	UK n=210	USA n=509
Selecting managers:							
Interview panels	40.2%	31.0%	65.3%	51.6%	39.0%	95.2%	77.8%
One-on-one interviews	60.2%	97.4%	64.5%	74.3%	85.5%	90.8%	76.1%
Application forms	40.2%	87.1%	25.8%	39.0%	53.2%	75.2%	82.4%
Psychometric tests	17.6%	50.0%	17.2%	22.0%	81.2%	75.3%	13.7%
Assessment centres	15.2%	34.7%	27.5%	15.9%	19.9%	53.1%	12.0%
Reference letters	21.5%	79.9%	57.5%	62.1%	95.7%	93.6%	85.8%
Selecting professionals:							
Interview panels	29.3%	15.0%	64.9%	39.7%	28.4%	94.8%	72.8%
One-on-one interviews	27.7%	97.6%	74.4%	66.7%	85.8%	90.9%	76.1%
Application forms	27.3%	84.3%	37.8%	40.7%	55.0%	75.0%	81.9%
Psychometric tests	26.2%	38.5%	11.6%	17.0%	44.7%	73.1%	12.3%
Assessment centres	16.4%	12.1%	22.3%	12.6%	8.2%	60.3%	10.6%
Reference letters	30.1%	71.7%	50.2%	53.8%	93.3%	93.1%	83.4%
Selecting manual staff:							
Interview panels	12.1%	12.1%	48.0%	26.1%	20.2%	92.8%	44.1%
One-on-one interviews	25.8%	97.8%	81.0%	76.5%	83.3%	90.9%	79.3%
Application forms	15.2%	84.5%	52.1%	57.7%	56.7%	76.5%	89.2%
Psychometric tests	14.8%	32.7%	6.3%	16.5%	23.8%	58.1%	8.2%
Assessment centres	12.1%	8.7%	11.0%	11.0%	2.8%	55.8%	14.9%
Reference letters	18.4%	69.4%	31.9%	61.5%	86.5%	92.9%	79.0%

8. Η ΚΡΙΣΗ ΩΣ ΕΥΚΑΙΡΙΑ ΓΙΑ ΜΙΑ ΝΕΑ ΣΤΡΑΤΗΓΙΚΗ ΣΤΗ ΔΙΑΧΕΙΡΙΣΗ ΤΩΝ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΙΝΩΝ ΠΟΡΩΝ ΤΗΣ ΔΗΜΟΣΙΑΣ ΔΙΟΙΚΗΣΗΣ*

Σ. Κτιστάκη

ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ

Η διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού υπό συνθήκες κρίσης συνδέθηκε πρωτίστως με τον δραστικό περιορισμό των δημοσίων δαπανών. Ο υπερβολικά μεγάλος αριθμός του απασχολούμενου προσωπικού στο Δημόσιο υπήρξε, κατά γενική παραδοχή, μία από τις αιτίες της δημοσιονομικής κρίσης στη χώρα μας και οδήγησε στην ανάγκη, που έγινε και *μνημονιακή* δέσμευση, της δραστικής μείωσης των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων.

Στην παρούσα μελέτη αναδεικνύονται οι μεταρρυθμίσεις που επιχειρήθηκαν την περίοδο της κρίσης και είχαν ως στόχο την ορθολογικότερη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού. Αυτές προσανατολίσθηκαν γύρω από τους ακόλουθους άξονες: α) Τον προγραμματισμό του αναγκαίου ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στον ευρύτερο δημόσιο τομέα σε συνδυασμό με την ορθολογική ανακατανομή του υπερβάλλοντος προσωπικού μέσω του θεσμού της κινητικότητας β) Την καθιέρωση της αξιολόγησης της απόδοσης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στη Δημόσια Διοίκηση και γ) τη διαρκή επιμόρφωση μέσω ενός συστήματος διά βίου κατάρτισης όλων των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων.

Εν κατακλείδι, συμπεραίνεται ότι η κρίση μπορεί να αποτελέσει την κατάλληλη ευκαιρία για μια νέα στρατηγική της διαχείρισης ανθρώπινου δυναμικού της Δημόσιας Διοίκησης.

Εισαγωγή

Αποτελεί κοινό τόπο ότι το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό είναι ο πιο αποφασιστικός παράγοντας για την αποτελεσματική και αποδοτική λειτουργία της δημόσιας διοίκησης, καθώς συνιστά το «μεγαλύτερο άυλο κεφάλαιο» κάθε δημόσιου και μη οργανισμού.

Η διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού υπό συνθήκες κρίσης εγκυμονεί διάφορους κινδύνους, στο μέτρο που συνδέεται πρωτίστως με τον δραστικό περιορισμό δημοσίων δαπανών, ταυτόχρονα όμως αποτελεί μία μεγάλη ευκαιρία για τη δημόσια διοίκηση. Αναμφίβολα, η δημοσιονομική εξυγίανση συνιστά αναγκαία συνθήκη για την έξοδο από την κρίση και η επίδραση που έχει στην

* Η μελέτη αυτή αποδίδει εισήγηση στο Συνέδριο του Κέντρου Ευρωπαϊκού Συνταγματικού Δικαίου, με θέμα: «Η Δημόσια Διοίκηση μετά την κρίση» [που πραγματοποιήθηκε στις 3 και 4 Μαΐου 2018 στο Δικηγορικό Σύλλογο Αθηνών] και αφιερώνεται στην ομότιμη καθηγήτρια Ν. Παπαλεξανδρή, της οποίας το έργο έχει συμβάλει ουσιαστικά σε μια ολοκληρωμένη επιστημονική προσέγγιση της διαχείρισης των ανθρώπινων πόρων.

άσκηση της πολιτικής για τη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού του δημόσιου τομέα μοιάζει αναπόφευκτη.

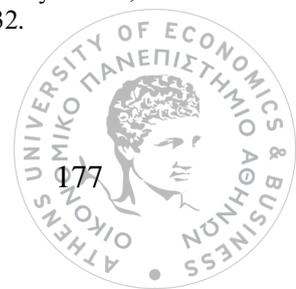
Έτσι λοιπόν ξεκίνησε, ως συνέπεια των «μνημονιακών» υποχρεώσεων της χώρας, μια σειρά μεταρρυθμίσεων στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού της δημόσιας διοίκησης. Ο υπερβολικά μεγάλος αριθμός του προσωπικού, κάθε είδους και κατηγορίας, που απασχολείτο στο Δημόσιο και ήταν, κατά γενική παραδοχή, μία από τις αιτίες της δημοσιονομικής κρίσης στη χώρα μας, οδήγησε στην ανάγκη, που έγινε και μνημονιακή δέσμευση, της δραστηκής μείωσης των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων. Για το λόγο αυτό κρίθηκε αναγκαίο, με αφετηρία το 2010 και έτος κατάληξης το 2015, να επιδιωχθεί πάση θυσία η μείωση του τακτικού και έκτακτου προσωπικού, τουλάχιστον κατά 150.000 χιλιάδες. Ο στόχος αυτός αποδείχθηκε ρεαλιστικός και επιτεύξιμος, λόγω των αθρόων και μαζικών συνταξιοδοτήσεων που επακολούθησαν και των αυστηρών και άτεγκτων περιορισμών στις προσλήψεις υπαλλήλων, που εγγράφηκαν στα μνημόνια και τηρήθηκαν με ευλάβεια από τις εκάστοτε κυβερνήσεις κατά την περίοδο της κρίσης.

Το επίτευγμα όμως αυτό είχε σοβαρές δυσμενείς παρενέργειες: Ενώ, δηλαδή, η εφαρμογή μιας περιοριστικής οικονομικής πολιτικής συνέβαλε βραχυπρόθεσμα στη δημοσιονομική προσαρμογή, μακροπρόθεσμα έθεσε εν αμφιβόλω την ίδια την αποτελεσματικότητα της διοίκησης. Συγκεκριμένα, η κρίση επιδείνωσε την οικονομική κατάσταση των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων με την επερχόμενη μείωση του μέσου μισθού αλλά και του αριθμού των μισθοδοτούμενων από τον κρατικό προϋπολογισμό. Εξάλλου, δεν θα πρέπει να παραγνωρίζεται ότι το Μεσοπρόθεσμο Πλαίσιο Δημοσιονομικής Προσαρμογής επικύρωσε τον κανόνα αναπλήρωσης προσωπικού στο Δημόσιο σε μία πρόσληψη προς πέντε αποχωρήσεις¹. Ταυτόχρονα, η μείωση του ύψους των αποδοχών κατέστησε μη ελκυστικό για το δημόσιο τομέα ως προς τη διατήρηση υφιστάμενων ή την προσέλκυση νέων και ικανών στελεχών. Η ευρύτερη άλλωστε απαξίωση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού, οδήγησε αναπόφευκτα σε πτώση του ηθικού, μείωση της παραγωγικότητας των υπαλλήλων, ενώ συχνά συνδέθηκε και με αύξηση κρουσμάτων διαφθοράς στο Δημόσιο².

Ποιες, όμως, από τις μεταρρυθμίσεις που επιχειρήθηκαν την περίοδο της κρίσης προσανατολίσθηκαν στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού; Πριν την παρουσίαση των σχετικών εγχειρημάτων είναι αξιοσημείωτο ότι οι επιχειρηθείσες μεταρρυθμίσεις στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού κατά την περίοδο της κρίσης είτε παραμένουν ακόμη ημιτελείς, είτε

¹ Βλ. Μεσοπρόθεσμο Πλαίσιο Δημοσιονομικής Προσαρμογής 2015-2018, Αθήνα, Απρίλιος 2014, <https://www.hellenicparliament.gr/UserFiles/2f026f42-950c-4efc-b950-340c4fb76a24/m-mpds-eis.pdf>, σελ. 32.

² Βλ. αντί άλλων, Γιαννίτση, Τ. 2013. Η Ελλάδα στην κρίση, εκδ. Πόλις, Αθήνα.



καθυστερούν, είτε και ακυρώνονται από την ανάγκη εξυπηρέτησης μονομερών, δημοσιονομικού ιδίως χαρακτήρα, στόχων.

I. Οι πραγματοποιηθείσες μεταρρυθμίσεις στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού την περίοδο της κρίσης

Από όλες τις μεταρρυθμιστικές παρεμβάσεις που πραγματοποιήθηκαν αξίζει να προταχθεί η εισαγωγή ενός νέου συστήματος αμοιβών, το ενιαίο μισθολόγιο³. Το μεταρρυθμιστικό αυτό μέτρο είχε ως στόχο τη διόρθωση των μισθολογικών υπερβάσεων, στο πλαίσιο του εξορθολογισμού της μισθολογικής πολιτικής του Δημοσίου⁴, καθώς και την επίτευξη μιας δικαιότερης κατανομής των πόρων μεταξύ του υπηρετούντος προσωπικού.

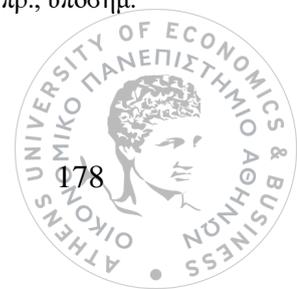
Ωστόσο, σε αντίθεση με την αρχική του φιλοσοφία, το σύστημα αυτό οδήγησε σε εξίσωση προς τα κάτω σχεδόν το σύνολο των αμοιβών των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων, προκειμένου να καλυφθούν απώλειες από τα μειωμένα φορολογικά έσοδα. Παράλληλα, και προκειμένου να εξυπηρετηθεί η ανάγκη συγκράτησης των δαπανών «με κάθε κόστος», ανεφάρμοστες παρέμειναν οι διατάξεις που προέβλεπαν αμοιβή βάσει απόδοσης και επίτευξης στόχων. Στο ίδιο πλαίσιο, παραμένουν έως και σήμερα γράμμα κενό οι προβλέψεις για εξέλιξη του προσωπικού σύμφωνα με το νέο βαθμολόγιο, καθώς, πέραν της αρχικής κατάταξης σε βαθμούς, δεν ακολούθησε η αξιολόγηση και προαγωγή των ικανότερων εκ των υπαλλήλων στους επόμενους βαθμούς. Υπ' αυτή την έννοια, το ενιαίο μισθολόγιο αποτέλεσε περισσότερο ένα εργαλείο δημοσιονομικής προσαρμογής παρά ένα εργαλείο εκσυγχρονισμού της πολιτικής διαχείρισης των ανθρώπινων πόρων.

Από την άλλη πλευρά, ο προβλεφθείς προγραμματισμός των προσλήψεων και η μηνιαία παρακολούθηση των αποχωρήσεων⁵ αποτέλεσε ένα πρώτο βήμα για την ευέλικτη διαχείριση των ανθρώπινων πόρων. Στο νέο, μάλιστα, επικαιροποιημένο Μνημόνιο, προβλέπεται πως το αρμόδιο Υπουργείο Διοικητικής Ανασυγκρότησης πρέπει να δίνει αναφορά κάθε μήνα για το σύνολο των

³ Ένα ενιαίο σύστημα μισθολογικής εξέλιξης θεσπίστηκε αρχικά με τις διατάξεις των άρθρων 12επ. του νόμου 4024/2011 (ΦΕΚ Α' 226/27.10.2011), το οποίο (σύστημα) καταργήθηκε με τις ρυθμίσεις του νόμου 4354/2015 (ΦΕΚ Α' 176/16.12.2015), που επιχείρησε να συνδέσει τις αμοιβές με την αξιολόγηση του προσωπικού.

⁴ Βλ. και ΣτΕ Ολομ. 3177/2014. Με την απόφαση αυτή κρίθηκε νόμιμη η κατάργηση των επιδομάτων των υπαλλήλων του Υπουργείου Οικονομικών που προέρχονταν από τα «Δικαιώματα βεβαίωσης και είσπραξης εσόδων υπέρ τρίτων» (ΔΙ.Β.Ε.Ε.Τ.), με την αιτιολογία ότι εντασσόταν στο πλαίσιο της προσπάθειας του νομοθέτη για εξορθολογισμό της μισθολογικής πολιτικής του Δημοσίου, και ιδίως της πολιτικής εν σχέσει με την χορήγηση επιδομάτων, δεδομένου ότι (όπως αναφέρεται και στην αιτιολογική έκθεση του ν. 4024/2011 ειδικώς επί του άρθρου 30 αυτού) η κατά το παρελθόν χορήγηση ειδικών παροχών στους υπαλλήλους ορισμένων Υπουργείων, προκειμένου αυτοί να ασκούν αποτελεσματικά τα καθήκοντά τους, δυσχερώς συμβιβαζόταν με την αρχή της ίσης μεταχείρισης.

⁵ Βλ. σχετικά, Κεφάλαιο 3 του Μεσοπρόθεσμου Πλαισίου Δημοσιονομικής Στρατηγικής 2015-2018, όπ. πρ., υποσημ. 1.



απασχολούμενων στις δημόσιες υπηρεσίες, για τις νέες προσλήψεις, αλλά και αποχωρήσεις (συνταξιοδοτήσεις) ανά Υπουργείο και δημόσιο φορέα ⁶.

Επιπρόσθετα, η ηλεκτρονική διασύνδεση των δεδομένων της απογραφής του προσωπικού στο Δημόσιο με την Ενιαία Αρχή Πληρωμών ⁷ είναι δυνατό να θεωρηθεί ως μία βάση για την ευρύτερη σύνδεση της πολιτικής διαχείρισης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού με τη διαδικασία διαμόρφωσης του προϋπολογισμού και την ορθολογική διαχείριση των οικονομικών πόρων του Δημοσίου.

II. Προς τη διαμόρφωση μιας νέας στρατηγικής για τη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού

Ο προγραμματισμός των προσλήψεων και η παρακολούθηση των αποχωρήσεων δεν πρέπει όμως να περιορίζεται στην απλή καταγραφή αριθμητικών δεδομένων, με μοναδικό στόχο τη συμμόρφωση με τις μνημονιακές δεσμεύσεις. Στο πλαίσιο, άλλωστε, αυτό και υπό την πίεση της οικονομικής κρίσης, ο εξορθολογισμός του διογκωμένου δημόσιου τομέα επιδιώχθηκε και με άλλα μέτρα "μνημονιακής πολιτικής", όπως η «προσυνταξιοδοτική» διαθεσιμότητα ή η «εργασιακή εφεδρεία», ως κίνητρο για την πρόωρη συνταξιοδότηση του προσωπικού και την περαιτέρω κατάργηση των οργανικών θέσεων που κατείχε το εν λόγω προσωπικό. Τα μέτρα αυτά - ως γνωστό - έχουν κατακριθεί επιστημονικά και έχει κριθεί αντισυνταγματική η αποσπασματική θέσπισή τους ⁸.

Αντίθετα, ο προγραμματισμός των προσλήψεων στο Δημόσιο θα πρέπει να ενισχυθεί με τη δυνατότητα συλλογής και επεξεργασίας ποιοτικών στοιχείων διάγνωσης και ιεράρχησης των αναγκών· με τον τρόπο αυτό, θα καταστεί εφικτή η διαμόρφωση ενός μηχανισμού επιλογής και κατανομής των κατάλληλων ανθρώπινων πόρων για την επίτευξη τόσο βραχυπρόθεσμων, όσο και μέσο-μακροπρόθεσμων στόχων.

Όπως λοιπόν συνάγεται από τις παραπάνω παρατηρήσεις, οι παρεμβάσεις που στοχεύουν αποκλειστικά στη συρρίκνωση του δημοσίου τομέα δεν μπορεί να συνιστούν τη μοναδική επιλογή, καθώς μακροχρόνια δεν αποτελούν βιώσιμη λύση. Το ζητούμενο, επομένως, είναι η διαμόρφωση μιας νέας στρατηγικής στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στη δημόσια διοίκηση. Μια νέα μορφή διαχείρισης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού, που θα προσανατολίζεται γύρω από τρεις άξονες:

⁶ Βλ. Supplemental Memorandum of Understanding, Fourth Review of the ESM Programme, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/economy-finance/draft_smou_4th_review_23_05_2018.pdf

⁷ Με το ν. 4046/2012 (ΦΕΚ Α' 28) προβλέφθηκε ότι: «Η Κυβέρνηση εγκαθιδρύει ηλεκτρονικό αυτοματοποιημένο σύστημα, το οποίο συνδέει τη βάση δεδομένων της απογραφής με την Ενιαία Αρχή Πληρωμής (ΕΑΠ), η οποία θα δώσει τη δυνατότητα σε μια περισσότερο αποτελεσματική κάλυψη, αξιολόγηση και πληρωμή των υπαλλήλων».

⁸ ΣτΕ Ολομ. 3354/2013.



1. **Τον ορθολογικό προγραμματισμό** του αναγκαίου ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στον ευρύτερο δημόσιο τομέα σε συνδυασμό με την ορθολογική ανακατανομή του υπερβάλλοντος προσωπικού, μέσω της δυναμικής της κινητικότητας
2. **Την καθιέρωση της αξιολόγησης** της απόδοσης του προσωπικού
3. **Τη διαρκή επιμόρφωση** μέσω ενός συστήματος διά βίου κατάρτισης όλων των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων.

1ος παράγων : Ο ορθολογικός προγραμματισμός

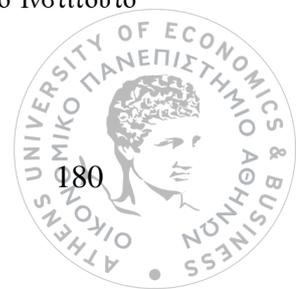
Όπως προαναφέρθηκε, το βάρος των δαπανών για το δημόσιο τομέα επέβαλε τη λήψη επειγόντων μέτρων για τη μείωση του αριθμού των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων, αλλά και για το πάγωμα των μισθών. Ωστόσο, η μείωση των προσλήψεων στο Δημόσιο δεν αποτελεί πανάκεια. Τη λύση δίνει ο προγραμματισμός του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού και των θέσεων εργασίας. Βέβαια, μόνον το ίδιο το Κράτος γνωρίζει τις θέσεις εργασίας, όπως αυτές προβλέπονται στον προϋπολογισμό. Με βάση όμως αυτές τις θέσεις είναι δύσκολο να προσδιοριστεί ο αριθμός των προσώπων τα οποία απασχολούνται στο Δημόσιο, το πραγματικό δηλαδή δυναμικό. Κάθε καινούργια δραστηριότητα της διοίκησης συνεπάγεται κατά κανόνα πρόσληψη νέου προσωπικού. Η σύγκριση όμως του υπάρχοντος δυναμικού με τις ανάγκες που πρέπει να καλυφθούν επιτρέπει την αναζήτηση αποτελεσματικότερων λύσεων.

Η διαπίστωση της απόκλισης ανάμεσα στις ανάγκες και τους διαθέσιμους πόρους οδηγεί αναπόφευκτα στα ακόλουθα ερωτήματα: είναι δυνατό να βρεθούν πιο ευέλικτες λύσεις για την κάλυψη των διαρκώς μεταβαλλόμενων αναγκών της Ελληνικής Διοίκησης⁹; Μήπως υπάρχει υπερβάλλον δυναμικό το οποίο απαιτεί διοχέτευση σε άλλες υπηρεσίες, του ίδιου ή άλλου κλάδου με αυτό στον οποίο υπηρετεί το πλεονάζον προσωπικό;

Η προσπάθεια ορθολογικής ανακατανομής του υπάρχοντος προσωπικού επιτυγχάνεται με την κινητικότητα των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων. Στόχος του μέτρου αυτού είναι η άμεση κάλυψη κενών θέσεων και αναγκών, κατά προτεραιότητα σε υπηρεσίες εξυπηρέτησης του πολίτη, καθώς και η κάλυψη αναγκών σε υπηρεσίες που παρουσίασαν μεγάλα κενά από τις αθρόες συνταξιοδοτήσεις τα τελευταία χρόνια.

Ωστόσο, η αυτονόητη δυνατότητα του Κράτους να αξιοποιεί τον δημόσιο υπάλληλο ανάλογα με τα προσόντα του αλλά και τις ανάγκες της δημόσιας διοίκησης πυροδότησε κοινωνικές αλλά και

⁹ Για τις ευέλικτες εργασιακές σχέσεις στο Δημόσιο, βλ. αντί άλλων: Κτιστάκη, Στ. 2014, Ευέλικτες μορφές απασχόλησης στη Δημόσια Διοίκηση: μια νέα πρόκληση, Πρακτικά ημερίδας που διοργάνωσε το Ελληνικό Ινστιτούτο Διοικητικών Επιστημών στις 27.1.2014, εκδ. Εθνικό Τυπογραφείο, Αθήνα, σσ. 87-110.



πολιτικές αντιδράσεις, γιατί εντάχθηκε στο πλαίσιο των μνημονιακών υποχρεώσεων για περιορισμό του δημόσιου τομέα. Έτσι, παρά τις καλές προθέσεις του νομοθέτη, ο οποίος, το 2013, καθιέρωσε το θεσμό των υποχρεωτικών μετατάξεων ¹⁰, ενώ το 2016 θέσπισε ένα Ενιαίο Σύστημα Κινητικότητας (ΕΣΚ) για τους πολιτικούς διοικητικούς υπαλλήλους ¹¹ - μόνιμους και με σχέση εργασίας ιδιωτικού δικαίου αορίστου χρόνου - παραμένει ως ζητούμενο η ανάκτηση της εμπιστοσύνης στο θεσμό της κινητικότητας.

Πως θα επιτευχθεί αυτό; Με την εφαρμογή κριτηρίων επιλογής των υπαλλήλων που τίθενται σε κινητικότητα, κατά τρόπο που να διασφαλίζεται ότι κάθε μετακινούμενος υπάλληλος διαθέτει τα προσόντα του κλάδου ή της ειδικότητας στην οποία μετατάσσεται. Απαιτείται επομένως, αφενός μεν η αποτίμηση και αντικειμενική μοριοδότηση των τυπικών προσόντων του μετακινούμενου προσωπικού και, αφετέρου, η συνεκτίμηση της εργασιακής και διοικητικής του εμπειρίας, καθώς και της υπηρεσιακής του απόδοσης. Προκειμένου, όμως, η κινητικότητα να αποτελέσει πράγματι εργαλείο για την ορθολογικότερη αξιοποίηση του προσωπικού, προϋποτίθεται η ύπαρξη περιγραμμάτων των κενών θέσεων που καλούνται να καλύψουν οι μετατασσόμενοι, ώστε πέραν των αναγκών των υπηρεσιών υποδοχής τους, να διασφαλίζεται ότι κάθε μετακινούμενος υπάλληλος τοποθετείται στην κατάλληλη θέση, ανάλογα και με τις υπηρεσιακές ανάγκες και τα προσόντα του. Η κινητικότητα, συνεπώς, ευνοεί και τον ίδιο τον υπάλληλο, διότι του παρέχει την ευκαιρία να αξιοποιήσει τις γνώσεις του.

Η ορθολογική εφαρμογή του μέτρου αυτού αναμένεται να αποδώσει στη διοίκηση την ευελιξία που της λείπει. Αν μάλιστα συνδυαστεί ο συγκεκριμένος μηχανισμός με την αναγκαία διαρκή εκπαίδευση, στην οποία θα αναφερθούμε παρακάτω, τότε θα πολλαπλασιαστεί η δυναμικότητα των σχετικών μεταρρυθμίσεων.

2^{ος} παράγων: η ανάγκη για αξιολόγηση της απόδοσης του προσωπικού

¹⁰ Ν. 4172/2013 (Α' 167). Αξίζει να σημειωθεί ότι η υποχρεωτική μετάταξη, βάσει του άρθρου 82 του νόμου αυτού, του εκπαιδευτικού προσωπικού που πλεονάζει στη δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση σε διευθύνσεις της πρωτοβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης ή/και αντιστρόφως, μετά από προσδιορισμό των λειτουργικών αναγκών και των κενών οργανικών θέσεων στις βαθμίδες αυτές εκπαίδευσης, κρίθηκε ότι δεν αντίκειται στο άρθρο 103 του Συντάγματος (ΣτΕ 3404/2017).

¹¹ Ν. 4440/2016 «Ενιαίο Σύστημα Κινητικότητας στη Δημόσια Διοίκηση και την Τοπική Αυτοδιοίκηση, υποχρεώσεις των προσώπων που διορίζονται στις θέσεις των άρθρων 6 και 8 του ν. 4369/2016, ασυμβίβαστα και πρόληψη των περιπτώσεων σύγκρουσης συμφερόντων και λοιπές διατάξεις» (Α' 224).



Ένας άλλος παράγοντας που θα πρέπει να συνεκτιμάται κατά την διαμόρφωση μιας νέας στρατηγικής στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού της δημόσιας διοίκησης είναι η εμπέδωση της ανάγκης για αξιολόγηση της απόδοσης του προσωπικού.

Η αρχή της αξιοκρατίας, τόσο κατά την επιλογή του προσωπικού της δημόσιας διοίκησης όσο και κατά την υπηρεσιακή του εξέλιξη, αποτελεί βασική αρχή του Υπαλληλικού Κώδικα με ευθεία - ως γνωστό - κατοχύρωση στο άρθρο 103 παρ. 7 [εδ. β] του Συντάγματος, συνιστά δε, ταυτοχρόνως, κανόνα οργάνωσης και λειτουργίας της διοίκησης για τη θεραπεία του δημοσίου συμφέροντος, υπό την έννοια της διασφάλισης τόσο του κύρους και της αποτελεσματικότητας αυτής, όσο και της αξιοπρέπειας και προσωπικότητας των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων.

Η εφαρμογή της αρχής της αξιοκρατίας σκοπεί στη διάκριση των προσώπων ανάλογα με τις ικανότητες και τα προσόντα τους, οι βασικές δε αρχές και κατευθύνσεις του συστήματος αξιολόγησης, σύμφωνα με πάγια νομολογία του Συμβουλίου της Επικρατείας, «είναι η αντικειμενική και αμερόληπτη στάθμιση, βάσει σαφώς προσδιορισμένων κριτηρίων της επαγγελματικής ικανότητας και καταλληλότητας των υπαλλήλων σε σχέση με το αντικείμενο της εργασίας τους και τα καθήκοντά τους...»¹². Σύμφωνα με την παραπάνω νομολογία επαναλαμβάνεται, δηλαδή, ότι η αρχή της αξιοκρατίας έχει συνταγματική περιωπή, ενώ ένα σύστημα αξιολόγησης το οποίο θέλει να είναι σύμφωνο με την αρχή αυτή πρέπει και οφείλει να παραθέτει εκ των προτέρων κριτήρια επαγγελματικής ικανότητας, βάσει των οποίων θα γίνει η εν λόγω αξιολόγηση.

Ωστόσο, η συγκριτική αξιολόγηση των υπαλλήλων μέσω του εργαλείου της ποσόστωσης και ο προσδιορισμός ανώτατων ποσοστών υπαλλήλων που μπορούν να αξιολογηθούν ανά κλίμακα βαθμολογίας (ως άριστοι, καλοί, μέτριοι ή ακατάλληλοι), ασφαλώς και δεν ανταποκρίνεται στην πιο πάνω αρχή. Πράγματι, η μέθοδος της ποσόστωσης, αναγκαστικά, περιορίζει κατηγορία ή κατηγορίες υπαλλήλων που θα κριθούν αντικειμενικά με αμιγώς αξιολογικά κριτήρια και σε σχέση με το αντικείμενο της εργασίας τους, ενώ δημιουργεί ομάδες υπαλλήλων που θα "πρέπει" να αποτελέσουν περιεχόμενο της εκάστοτε ποσόστωσης.

Η αξιολόγηση της απόδοσης είναι μια διαδικασία με την οποία ενημερώνεται και ενθαρρύνεται ο κάθε εργαζόμενος για να φτάσει στο καλύτερο δυνατό επίπεδο απόδοσης μέσω της κατάλληλης συνεχούς υποστήριξης της υπηρεσίας του και δεν θα πρέπει να αντιμετωπίζεται ως κύρωση, συνδεδεμένη με ενδεχόμενο κίνδυνο απώλειας της κατεχόμενης απ' αυτόν θέσης.

Η εφαρμογή ενός συστήματος αμοιβής βάσει της απόδοσης θα μπορούσε να παρακινήσει το προσωπικό να βελτιώσει την απόδοσή του και να αναπτύξει τις ικανότητές του, ιδίως υπό συνθήκες

¹² Βλ. σχετικά, ΣτΕ 2778/1991.



δημοσιονομικής προσαρμογής και διοικητικής αναδόμησης. Με βάση το προτεινόμενο αυτό σύστημα που έχουν υιοθετήσει και άλλες χώρες μέλη του ΟΟΣΑ¹³, η αξιολόγηση των υπαλλήλων πρέπει να βασίζεται στη μέτρηση της απόδοσής τους, όπως αυτή θα προκύπτει από την εκπλήρωση στόχων βάσει δεικτών, σε συνδυασμό με κριτήρια όπως η συμπεριφορά και οι διοικητικές τους ικανότητες. Παράλληλα, οι οργανικές μονάδες θα αξιολογούνται, επίσης, βάσει των στόχων που θα έχουν συμφωνήσει, σε στρατηγικό και επιχειρησιακό επίπεδο.

Βέβαια, η διαμόρφωση ενός στοχευμένου συστήματος κινήτρων το οποίο θα στηρίζεται στη μέτρηση και αξιολόγηση της απόδοσης των υπαλλήλων και των δομών (performance management)¹⁴ προϋποθέτει την αλλαγή της δημοσιούπαλληλικής νοοτροπίας, την επίτευξη ευρύτερης συναίνεσης, αλλά και ικανό χρονικό ορίζοντα για την αφομοίωση του εν λόγω συστήματος. Τα οφέλη από τη λειτουργία ενός συστήματος διοίκησης βάσει στόχων και απόδοσης, θα είναι πάντως περιορισμένα αν δεν υπάρχει, σε μακροπρόθεσμο πλαίσιο, η σύνδεση της διαχείρισης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού με τους στρατηγικούς στόχους που έχει θέσει κάθε δημόσιος οργανισμός.

Εν τέλει, η εισαγωγή κάθε νέου συστήματος αξιολόγησης στο σύνολο της κεντρικής διοίκησης θα πρέπει να γίνεται ύστερα από διαβούλευση με τα ενδιαφερόμενα μέρη και εφόσον έχουν αντιμετωπιστεί προηγουμένως οι λειτουργικές και οργανωτικές του αδυναμίες.

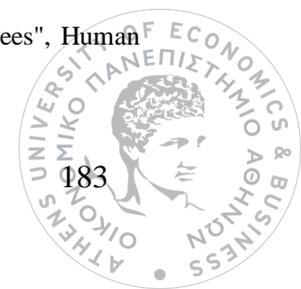
3^{ος} παράγων: η βελτίωση της κατάρτισης του προσωπικού

Τελευταία, αλλά όχι έσχατη, παράμετρος που πρέπει η νέα στρατηγική για τη διαχείριση ανθρώπινου δυναμικού να λάβει υπόψη, είναι η βελτίωση της κατάρτισης του προσωπικού με διττό στόχο: αφενός, τη δημιουργία μιας διοικητικής «ελίτ» στην Ελληνική Διοίκηση που θα αποτελεί ανάχωμα στο πελατειακό σύστημα και τις πολιτικές επιδιώξεις και, αφετέρου, την ενίσχυση του επαγγελματισμού σε όλο το προσωπικό της δημόσιας διοίκησης.

Σήμερα, την εποχή της δια βίου μάθησης, δεν νοείται η διοίκηση να μη μεριμνά για την επιμόρφωση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού της. Πέραν της επιμόρφωσης του συνόλου του προσωπικού, θα πρέπει να ληφθεί ειδική μέριμνα για την επιμόρφωση των μετακινούμενων, και τούτο για δύο λόγους: πρώτον για να είναι ικανοί να επιτελέσουν τα καθήκοντά τους στις νέες τους θέσεις, γεγονός που θα αυξήσει την αποτελεσματικότητα του Δημοσίου και δεύτερον, για την προσωπική ευδοκίμηση του υπαλλήλου, ο οποίος θα αισθάνεται πιο δυνατός βάσει των νεοαποκτηθεισών

¹³ Βλ. OECD, Developing Human Resource Management Strategies to Support Strategic Agility in the Public Sector, OECD Publishing, Paris, 2012. Βλ. ακόμη τη μελέτη του ΟΟΣΑ: "Εξασφαλίζοντας τη δέσμευση των δημοσίων υπαλλήλων για δημόσιες υπηρεσίες υψηλής απόδοσης", Newsletter του Τομέα μόνιματζίμεντ δημόσιας διοίκησης και αυτοδιοίκησης (TOMDDA), Νοέμβριος 2017, σσ. 27-31, σε www.eede.gr/newsletters/tomdda/TOMDDA_onPublicManagement_Issue5.pdf

¹⁴ Βλ. σχετικά, Sahoo, C.K. 2012, "Performance management benefits organizations and their employees", Human Resource Management International Digest, Vol. 20 Issue: 6, pp. 3-5.



γνώσεων και δεν θα έχει τη δυσάρεστη αίσθηση ότι απλώς μετακινείται ασκόπως και για λόγους τους οποίους ο ίδιος δεν γνωρίζει.

Συμπερασματικές παρατηρήσεις

Συνοψίζοντας, η κρίση μπορεί να αποτελέσει ευκαιρία για μια νέα στρατηγική της διαχείρισης ανθρώπινου δυναμικού που θα στηρίζει και θα προωθεί μια δυναμική, ευπροσάρμοστη, εξωστρεφή, προσανατολισμένη στην ποιότητα του παραγόμενου έργου και υπηρεσίας διοίκηση. Η μετάβαση σε ένα νέο μοντέλο οργάνωσης και διαχείρισης ανθρώπινων πόρων προϋποθέτει, όμως, την αξιοποίηση σύγχρονων τεχνικών και μεθόδων, προσαρμοσμένων στα ιδιαίτερα χαρακτηριστικά της ελληνικής διοικητικής δομής και κουλτούρας. Ειδικότερα, μια αντίστοιχη στρατηγική πρέπει, μεταξύ άλλων, να στοχεύει στην άρση όλων των εμποδίων που έως σήμερα περιορίζουν την κινητικότητα. Απαιτείται επίσης η δραστική ενίσχυση της δυνατότητας διαχείρισης και αξιολόγησης δεδομένων που σχετίζονται τόσο με το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό όσο και με τις υφιστάμενες και μελλοντικές ανάγκες. Η διάγνωση των αναγκών σε όρους προσφοράς και ζήτησης δεξιοτήτων και προσόντων είναι απαραίτητη, προκειμένου για τον ορθολογικό προγραμματισμό και την τεκμηρίωση των αποφάσεων σχετικά με τον αριθμό, τα ποιοτικά χαρακτηριστικά και την κατανομή του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού σε τομείς προτεραιότητας. Επομένως, μέσα από το στρατηγικό προγραμματισμό για το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό μπορεί να διασφαλιστεί ο στόχος της στελέχωσης των δημόσιων υπηρεσιών με το σωστό αριθμό ανθρώπων, τις κατάλληλες δεξιότητες, στη σωστή θέση, στο σωστό χρόνο.

Καταλήγοντας, θα πρέπει να τονισθεί ότι η οικονομική κρίση αποτελεί συνάρτηση της πολιτικο-διοικητικής και κοινωνικής κρίσης και για το λόγο αυτό, πρέπει να αντιμετωπιστεί ως μία μοναδική ευκαιρία για ουσιαστικές μεταρρυθμίσεις και εκσυγχρονισμό της δημόσιας διοίκησης. Μία ευκαιρία για να ευοδωθούν μεταρρυθμιστικές απόπειρες δεκαετιών και να αναδειχθεί, με τον τρόπο αυτό, ο πραγματικός ρόλος που αναλογεί στη δημόσια διοίκηση. Η παρούσα οικονομική κρίση μπορεί πράγματι να αποτελέσει την κατάλληλη αφορμή για τη χάραξη μιας νέας στρατηγικής στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού της Ελληνικής Δημόσιας Διοίκησης.

9. ΟΛΙΣΤΙΚΟ ΜΟΝΤΕΛΟ ΠΡΟΣΕΓΓΙΣΗΣ ΤΗΣ ΔΙΑΧΕΙΡΙΣΗΣ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΙΝΟΥ ΔΥΝΑΜΙΚΟΥ

N. Κωνσταντόπουλος

ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ:

Στο σχεδιάσμα αυτό θα γίνει μια πρώτη παρουσίαση των διαφορετικών Πλαισίων (Τομείς) Δράσης που εμφανίζονται στη καθημερινότητα της ανάληψης ευθυνών και δράσεων των εργαζομένων στους χώρους εργασίας, επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς. Η διαμόρφωση των πλαισίων δράσης88 πραγματοποιείται μέσα από την συνεχή δραστηριοποίηση των εργαζομένων, τις πολυσχιδείς σχέσεις που αναπτύσσονται στους εργασιακούς χώρους, την εμφάνιση των επιμέρους συμφερόντων, τις αλλαγές που επιβάλλει η αγορά αλλά και οι επιδιώξεις των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών. Πρόκειται για έναν άλλο τρόπο να προσεγγίσουμε τη διάσταση της διαχείρισης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στις επιχειρήσεις και τους οργανισμούς, από αυτούς που έχουν προταθεί έως σήμερα και οι οποίοι εστιάζουν αποκλειστικά στους τρόπους με τους οποίους οι επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμοί επιχειρούν να μεγιστοποιήσουν την απόδοση των εργαζομένων τους.

Ο νέος αυτός τρόπος στηρίζεται στην αντίληψη ότι το σύνολο των δράσεων που πραγματοποιούνται καθημερινά στους χώρους εργασίας, ανήκουν σε ξεχωριστά πλαίσια δράσεων τα οποία έχουν κοινά χαρακτηριστικά. Η απόδοση των εργαζομένων, πλέον, δεν εστιάζεται μονοδιάστατα στο πως θα «παρακινηθούν» οι εργαζόμενοι για να αποδώσουν το σύνολο των ικανοτήτων / δεξιοτήτων που διαθέτουν αλλά στο σύνολο των δραστηριοτήτων / δράσεων που αναλαμβάνουν και κυρίως σε διαδικασίες που εντάσσονται στην οργάνωση και λειτουργία της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.

Προτείνονται τέσσερα πλαίσια (τομείς) δράσεων στους οποίους ανήκει το σύνολο των καθημερινών εργασιακών ενασχολήσεων των εργαζομένων. Οι τομείς (πλαίσια) αυτοί προσδιορίζονται μέσα από ένα σύνολο πέντε διαστάσεων. Οι διαστάσεις αυτές διαμορφώνουν την ιδιαιτερότητα του κάθε πλαισίου (τομέα) δράσης και διαχωρίζουν το κάθε πλαίσιο από τα υπόλοιπα. Το ολιστικό αυτό μοντέλο δίνει τη δυνατότητα να αντιληφθούμε το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό στην ολότητά του (ιδιαιτερότητες, ικανότητες, αδυναμίες, προβλήματα, αντιξοότητες, κλπ.) και όχι εστιάζοντας μονοδιάστατα στις στρατηγικές και τις πολιτικές που θα του δώσουν το έναυσμα (παρακίνηση) για να αποδώσει το μέγιστο των δυνατοτήτων του, όπως κάνουν το σύνολο των θεωριών μέχρι σήμερα. Η «παρακίνηση» αυτή ενσωματώνεται στο κάθε πλαίσιο (τομέα) δράσης και όχι «μόνο» στις πολιτικές παρακίνησης της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.



ΕΙΣΑΓΩΓΗ:

Το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό και ο τρόπος που προσεγγίζεται από την επιστημονική κοινότητα εξαρτάται, σε πολύ μεγάλο βαθμό, από ένα σύνολο παραμέτρων που εντοπίζονται είτε στο εσωτερικό των οργανισμών / επιχειρήσεων (ενδο-επιχειρησιακές παράμετροι) είτε στο ευρύτερο εξωτερικό περιβάλλον της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού (αγοραίες, κοινωνικές, πολιτικές, οικονομικές και πολιτιστικές παράμετροι). Για να γίνει κατανοητός ο τρόπος προσέγγισης και ανάλυσης του εργασιακού περιβάλλοντος και κυρίως του ίδιου του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού από την επιστημονική κοινότητα πρέπει να σκιαγραφηθούν οι διάφοροι, κατά καιρούς, τύποι και τρόποι προσέγγισης και να εστιάσουμε στις αιτίες αλλαγής προσέγγισης που επιλέγουν, σε διάφορες χρονικές περιόδους, οι επιστήμονες. Για να γίνει αυτό θα οδηγηθούμε από τη διοίκηση προσωπικού στη διαχείριση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού και θα εντοπίσουμε τους λόγους της αλλαγής αυτής. Η πορεία αυτή θα μας παρουσιάσει και τις βασικές πτυχές της ανάλυσης των επιστημόνων για το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό.

Η Διοίκηση Προσωπικού είναι ο κλάδος που διερευνά τους τρόπους και τις μεθόδους με τους οποίους οι εργαζόμενοι που έχουν την απαιτούμενη αρμοδιότητα / εξουσιοδότηση διαχειρίζονται άλλους εργαζόμενους στους χώρους εργασίας. Πρόκειται για συντονισμένη διερεύνηση μέρους του διοικητικού συστήματος των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών.

Ένα συγκεκριμένο ερώτημα τίθεται αναφορικά με την οριοθέτηση των μορφών εκδήλωσης της διοίκησης του προσωπικού. Εάν αναγάγουμε την έρευνά μας στο επίπεδο συσχετισμού των ανεξάρτητων και της εξαρτημένης μεταβλητής και εάν εκλάβουμε τη διοίκηση προσωπικού ως εξαρτημένη μεταβλητή τότε θα πρέπει να αναζητηθούν οι ανεξάρτητες μεταβλητές, δηλαδή, οι παράμετροι που ορίζουν τη διαμόρφωση των ποικιλόμορφων εμφανίσεων της εξαρτημένης μεταβλητής. Με αυτό τον τρόπο σκέψης φτάνουμε σε δύο διαπιστώσεις :

- Ο τρόπος εκδήλωσης της διοικητικής δράσης σχετικά με το προσωπικό μιας εταιρείας / οργανισμού εξαρτάται από τη διαμόρφωση άλλων μορφών (ειδών) διοίκησης αλλά κυρίως από τη διάρθρωση έξω-διοικητικών παραμέτρων.
- Η σύσταση και το εύρος των παραμέτρων αυτών (των ανεξάρτητων μεταβλητών) είναι αναμενόμενο να επηρεάζουν παράλληλα και τον τρόπο που οι επιστήμονες αναπτύσσουν τις οπτικές γωνίες προσέγγισης του αντικειμένου έρευνάς τους και συνεπώς οι διαμορφώσεις των παραγόντων αυτών να συντελούν αναπόφευκτα στην εξέλιξη / αντιληπτική μεταβολή του σχετικού επιστημονικού κλάδου.

Μια σύντομη και ενδεικτική προσέγγιση¹⁵ μερικών από αυτές τις παραμέτρους θα διευκολύνει την κατανόηση των επιδράσεων τους στη διοίκηση του προσωπικού.

Στη συνέχεια, θα προσδιορίσουμε τον τρόπο προσέγγισης των πλαισίων (τομέων) δράσης που είναι το κύριο ζητούμενο στο κείμενο αυτό, αλλά και τους λόγους ανάδυσης αυτού του τρόπου προσέγγισης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού. Θα οριστούν οι διαστάσεις που οριοθετούν τα πλαίσια (τομείς) δράσεις και θα παρουσιαστούν συνοπτικά οι λόγοι ύπαρξης της κάθε διάστασης. Αμέσως μετά, θα παρουσιαστούν τα τέσσερα πλαίσια (τομείς) δράσεων που έχουν διαμορφωθεί στις σύγχρονες επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς. Τέλος, θα προσδιοριστούν τα τρία βασικά στοιχεία / συστήματα στήριξης των πλαισίων δράσεων του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού και στο τέλος του πονήματος, μετά από καταληκτικά συμπεράσματα, θα παρουσιαστεί ένα συνοπτικό σχέδιασμα των πλαισίων δράσεις που θα προσδιορίζει, σχηματικά, το προτεινόμενο μοντέλο.

A. ΑΠΟ ΤΗΝ ΑΝΤΙΛΗΨΗ ΤΟΥ ΠΡΟΣΩΠΙΚΟΥ ΣΤΗΝ ΑΝΤΙΛΗΨΗ ΤΟΥ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΙΝΟΥ ΔΥΝΑΜΙΚΟΥ. ΙΣΤΟΡΙΚΗ ΑΝΑΔΡΟΜΗ:

Υπάρχουν στις επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς τα άτομα (στελέχη) τα οποία ασκούν πολλές μορφές (πολλών ειδών) εξουσίας. Σε παλαιότερες εποχές ο ιδιοκτήτης της επιχείρησης ασκούσε αποκλειστικά το κύριο διοικητικό έργο μέσα από τη θέση του διευθυντή ή του γενικού διευθυντή¹⁶. Ήταν αυτός ο οποίος όφειλε να λαμβάνει τις πλέον σημαντικές αποφάσεις για την επιχείρηση αφού όριζε την επιχειρησιακή στρατηγική και τους στόχους που εντάσσονταν σε αυτήν ώστε να αυξάνονταν τα κέρδη ή να αναδιοργάνωνε την επιχείρηση αν η επιχείρηση επί σειρά ετών κατέγραφε ζημιές. Άρα αυτό που ο διευθυντής – ιδιοκτήτης όριζε, δηλαδή ήταν υπεύθυνος να κάνει ήταν να στοιχειοθετεί το «όραμα» της επιχείρησης, δηλαδή προς τα ποια κατεύθυνση θα πορευθεί η επιχείρηση / οργανισμός (Παπαδάκης 2016) Κάτω από αυτόν οι διευθυντές τομέων ή λειτουργιών, οι διευθυντές γραμμής όπως τους λέμε σήμερα, είναι υπεύθυνοι να ανακαλύπτουν, στηριζόμενοι στη διαδικασία του προγραμματισμού (Παπαλεξανδρή, Μπουραντάς 2016, σελ. 231-265) τις ενδεδειγμένες στρατηγικές εφαρμογής αυτής της πολιτικής δηλαδή να επινοούν το κατάλληλο τρόπο με τον οποίο θα εφαρμόσουν την επιχειρησιακή πολιτική. Η

¹⁵ Η προσέγγιση θα είναι ιστορική για να διαπιστωθεί ευκολότερα η διαμόρφωση και ο ρόλος των παραμέτρων αυτών στη διοίκηση προσωπικού.

¹⁶ Σήμερα στις περισσότερες επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς την θέση αυτή, που έχει μετονομασθεί σε θέση διευθύνοντος συμβούλου, κατέχει άτομο που διαθέτει εξειδικευμένες οικονομικές και διοικητικές γνώσεις [για το ρόλο της εξειδίκευσης βλέπε Παπαλεξανδρή, Μπουραντάς, 2016, σελ. 122, επ.] και όχι αναπόφευκτα αυτός που διαθέτει το αναγκαίο κεφάλαιο δημιουργίας και λειτουργίας της επιχείρησης.



αμέσως επόμενη βαθμίδα εξουσίας, οι προϊστάμενοι, είναι επιφορτισμένοι με το έργο της εποπτείας της εκτέλεσης αυτών των στρατηγικών. Τέλος στο κάτω μέρος αυτής της κλίμακας δράσης και ευθυνών βρίσκονται οι υπάλληλοι ή οι εργάτες εκτέλεσης των διαφόρων έργων.

Οι επιστήμονες για να καταγράψουν αυτό το πραγματικό φαινόμενο επιχειρησιακής διάρθρωσης κατέφυγαν στη σύλληψη του γεωμετρικού σχήματος της πυραμίδας. Στο επάνω μέρος της πυραμίδας τοποθέτησαν τις λειτουργίες όπου λαμβάνονται οι πλέον καίριες και ζωτικές *αποφάσεις* (Schermerhorn 2012, σελ. 213-217) για την επιχείρηση και στο κάτω μέρος καταχώρισαν τις *εργασίες εκτέλεσης* των ειλημμένων αποφάσεων. Στον ενδιάμεσο χώρο της πυραμίδας κατέταξαν τις λειτουργίες σύνδεσης αυτών των δύο ενεργειών που είναι κυρίως *λειτουργίες ελέγχου και εποπτείας* (Evans 2017, Fletcher 2019). Ήταν πλέον λογικό, μέσα από αυτή την οπτική γωνία αλλά και τις επικρατούσες συνθήκες κατά τη βιομηχανική περίοδο (ταύτιση ιδιοκτησίας και διοίκησης) να γίνει ένας πρωταρχικός διαχωρισμός μεταξύ της εξουσίας της διοίκησης και του προσωπικού. Συνεπώς οι πρώτες προσεγγίσεις του ιδιαίτερου πεδίου διοίκησης των εργαζομένων καλύπτονται από την ανάλυση των μεθόδων που μετέρχονται οι υπεύθυνοι για να *επιβάλλουν* τις θέσεις του ιδιοκτήτη / διευθυντή.

- Επρόκειτο για ένα σύστημα διοίκησης και οργανωσιακής επικοινωνίας που εξυπηρετούσε τις διαρθρωμένες σχέσεις της βιομηχανικής κοινωνίας όπου η παραγωγική διαδικασία των βιομηχανιών βασιζόταν στη μαζική παραγωγή. Κατ' επέκταση ο τρόπος προσέγγισης της ανάλυσης του φαινομένου αυτού από τους επιστήμονες της αντίστοιχης περιόδου υπάκουε σε συγκεκριμένη λογική που υποθαλπόταν από την παντοδυναμία της "κυρίαρχης ιδεολογίας" και της διαμόρφωσης των εννοιών στο χώρο της διοίκησης των επιχειρήσεων και οργανισμών (Mikkelsen and Wåhlin 2019).

Στις δεκαετίες 1960 - 70 μία σειρά από συγκεκριμένες μεταβλητές / παραμέτρους κάνουν την εμφάνισή τους παρεμβαίνοντας στην ανά-οριοθέτηση του τρόπου με τον οποίο οι επιχειρήσεις ενεργοποιούνταν στη αγορά, δηλαδή μέσα από τη μαζική παραγωγή και διάθεση των προϊόντων τους. Τη βιομηχανική λογική της μαζικής παραγωγής (Chandler 1990) διαδέχεται η λογική της ποιοτικής παραγωγής. Η μεταβιομηχανική περίοδος που η εδραίωσή της οριοθετείται, με χρονικές παρεκκλίσεις ανάλογα με τις επικρατούσες συνθήκες στις διάφορες χώρες, γύρω στο 1970 (Crafts 1995) χαρακτηρίζεται από την αλλαγή της πλειοψηφίας των βιομηχανικών επαγγελματιών. Μέχρι το 1970 (κυρίως από το 1920 μέχρι το 1970) η πλειοψηφία των επαγγελματιών οριζόταν από την παραγωγική

διαδικασία ήταν, δηλαδή, ο μεγαλύτερος αριθμός των επαγγελματιών ήταν άμεσα συνδεδεμένος με την παραγωγή (εξαρτιόταν ή εξυπηρετούσε την παραγωγή προϊόντων). Αυτό που αλλάζει γύρω στα 1970 είναι η μετατόπιση του κέντρου βάρους του καθορισμού των επαγγελματιών. Η πλειοψηφία των επαγγελματιών δεν οριοθετείται πλέον από την παραγωγική διαδικασία αλλά είναι συναφής με τις υπηρεσίες.

Από εκείνη ακριβώς την στιγμή και μετά, το 1970, η πλειοψηφία των επαγγελματιών εντάσσεται στον χώρο των υπηρεσιών. Όταν επικαλούμαστε το χώρο των υπηρεσιών δεν εννοούμε π.χ. το σερβιτόρο αλλά αναφερόμαστε σ' όλες αυτές τις υπηρεσίες που αναπτύσσονται στον χώρο των επιχειρήσεων, των βιομηχανιών που δεν ασχολούνται πλέον άμεσα με την παραγωγή του προϊόντος αλλά με άλλες λειτουργικές διαδικασίες όπως τη διάθεση και προώθηση του προϊόντος, τη διαφήμισή του (το marketing), την αποθήκευσή του και άλλες πολλές. Γίνεται, λοιπόν, αντιληπτό ότι σε κάποια χρονική στιγμή, ενώ τα περισσότερα επαγγέλματα ήταν στο κάτω μέρος τις κλίμακας / πυραμίδας εκεί όπου εκτελούνται οι εργασίες για να παραχθεί το μαζικό προϊόν, αρχίζει να αυξάνεται η ζήτηση για επαγγέλματα που τοποθετούνται στο ενδιάμεσο της πυραμίδας. Υπάρχει πλέον ανάγκη από εξειδικευμένα άτομα εφοδιασμένα με γνώσεις διαφορετικού περιεχομένου και επιπέδου (γνώσεις σχετικές με την αγορά, το προϊόν, την τεχνολογία, κ.λπ.) τα οποία θα είναι κατάλληλα για να συμμετέχουν σε διαδικασίες όπως η λήψη αποφάσεων, ο προγραμματισμός, ο σχεδιασμός νέων προτάσεων ανάπτυξης, κ.ά. (Cortes and Salvatori 2019). Οι τάσεις ή οι παράμετροι οι οποίες βοήθησαν σε αυτή την αλλαγή είναι κοινωνιολογικές, ψυχολογικές, πολιτικές και οικονομικές. Έως τη δεκαετία του 70 οι άνθρωποι ικανοποιούσαν τις ανάγκες τους με τα μαζικά παραγόμενα προϊόντα¹⁷ και δεν αισθάνονταν την ανάγκη να οριοθετηθούν καταναλωτικά με διαφορετικό (ιδιαίτερο) τρόπο ο ένας από τον άλλο.

Τι είναι, όμως, αυτό που κάνει τους ανθρώπους να διαφοροποιηθούν και να δουν ότι οι ανάγκες τους είναι διαφορετικές, ή να επιζητούν να ικανοποιήσουν τις ίδιες ανάγκες με διαφορετικά προϊόντα; Οι άνθρωποι την δεκαετία του 50 είχαν άλλες προτεραιότητες, ερχόταν από ένα καταστροφικό δεύτερο παγκόσμιο πόλεμο, οι βιομηχανίες οι περισσότερες ήταν κατεστραμμένες, οι ανάγκες ήταν κυρίως ανάγκες επιβίωσης. Άρα σε αυτή τη διαδικασία της επιβίωσης η λογική της μαζικής παραγωγής είναι η πλέον ενδεδειγμένη γιατί ο άνθρωπος θέλει να ικανοποιήσει πρωταρχικές κυρίως ανάγκες. Στις δεκαετίες του 50 και

¹⁷ Υπήρχε ένα ROL, ένα TIDE, υπήρχαν δύο είδη ψωμιού, το άσπρο και το μαύρο και όχι δεκάδες "τύποι" όπως σήμερα.



του 60 μπαίνουν οι βάσεις, μέσα από το εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα, για να διαρθρωθεί στην κάθε χώρα, κυρίως στις ευρωπαϊκές και στην Αμερική, η λογική της "ιδιαιτερότητας" που θα οδηγήσει στη συνέχεια την αμφισβήτηση της μαζικής κατανάλωσης. Δεν πρέπει να λησμονείται το γεγονός ότι εκείνη την εποχή, στις χώρες αυτές, κυριαρχεί η αστική τάξη, είτε με τους εκπροσώπους της τους συντηρητικούς είτε με τους φιλελεύθερους. Αυτή η τάξη οριοθετεί ένα τέτοιο εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα που να αναπαράγει την δική της λογική, την λογική της αστικής τάξης (Weininger and Lareau 2018). Αυτό το σύστημα μπαίνει σε διαδικασία παραγωγής αποτελεσμάτων / συνεπειών στην δεκαετία του 60 όπου τα "προϊόντα" αυτής της εκπαιδευτικής πολιτικής, οι φοιτητές, αρχίζουν να αμφισβητούν το ίδιο το σύστημα και κατ' επέκταση τη καθεστηκία τάξη, μέσα από τη διεκδίκηση της επιβολής, στο κοινωνικό σύστημα, των επιλογών τους¹⁸. Παράλληλα, οργανώνονται πολλά και διαφορετικά κινήματα διεκδίκησης δικαιωμάτων και διαφορετικών απόψεων (το κίνημα των γυναικών, τα περιβαλλοντικά κινήματα, ενάντια στο πόλεμο του Βιετνάμ, οι *hypes*, κ.ά.). Το εκπαιδευτικό σύστημα, λοιπόν, είναι αυτό που δίνει την δυνατότητα σε αυτές τις ομάδες ανθρώπων να διεκδικήσουν τις απόψεις τους και τη διαφορετικότητά τους, να αντιτεθούν, να αντιληφθούν ότι μέσα από αυτή τη δημιουργία των κινήματων τους μπορούν να πουν όχι στην κεντρική εξουσία. Αυτό το όχι τους δίνει την δυνατότητα να διαπιστώσουν, με την πάροδο του χρόνου, ότι μπορεί ο καθένας να είναι διαφορετικός και αυτή την διαφορετικότητα του να την διεκδικεί. Αυτή η διαφορετικότητα θα μεταφερθεί σιγά-σιγά, μέσα από συγκεκριμένες διαδικασίες αλλά και τη συμμετοχή και άλλων παραμέτρων, στο χώρο της κατανάλωσης προϊόντων (Rojas-Rivas et al 2019). Την αλλαγή αυτή θα τη διαπιστώσουν οι επιχειρήσεις σταδιακά, κυρίως όμως θα οδηγηθούν σε αλλαγή τακτικής με την ενεργειακή κρίση του 1974.

Τι πρέπει να γίνει, όμως, για να μπορέσουν οι επιχειρήσεις να ανταποκριθούν, στις νέες συνθήκες αγοράς; Να είναι πιο ευέλικτες, να είναι πιο εύκαμπτες. Το πυραμιδικό σύστημα σημαίνει ότι όλες οι αποφάσεις παίρνονται από τη κορυφή. Σε μία αγορά αποκλειστικής διάθεσης προϊόντων μαζικής παραγωγής δεν υπάρχει πρόβλημα στη λήψη αποφάσεων από την κορυφή της πυραμίδας. Σε μια αγορά όμως που οι ανάγκες είναι κατηγοριοποιημένες, διαφοροποιημένες και συνεπώς πολυποίκιλες η εταιρία θα πρέπει να αντιλαμβάνεται άμεσα τις ανάγκες του κάθε πελάτη και τον τρόπο που εναλλακτικά (και σταδιακά) διαμορφώνονται αυτές οι ανάγκες (Solomon 2018, σελ. 11 επ). Σε αυτή την

¹⁸ Αποκορύφωμα αυτής της διαδικασίας υπήρξαν τα γεγονότα του 1968 σε Γαλλία και ΗΠΑ.



περίπτωση λοιπόν η επιχείρηση πρέπει όχι μόνο να αντιληφθεί την αλλαγή των αναγκών αλλά να πάρει και άμεσα αποφάσεις για διαμόρφωση της στρατηγικής της.

Άρα αρχίζει κατά τη δεκαετία του 1980 να είναι επιτακτική ανάγκη να αναδιοργανωθεί η επιχείρηση δηλαδή να λειτουργεί με διαφορετικό τρόπο, με άλλα λόγια η οργάνωση της επιχείρησης να είναι πάνω σε διαφορετική βάση για να μπορεί να λαμβάνει άμεσα αποφάσεις. Τότε ακριβώς οι μελετητές στην εισαγωγή του όρου της εύκαμπτης επιχείρησης (De Mezes and Kelliher 2011). Αυτή η αλλαγή σηματοδοτείται από την ανάγκη να καταδειχθεί η ανάγκη που αντιμετωπίζει η σύγχρονη επιχείρηση να προσαρμόζει την στρατηγική της αλλά και τις πολιτικές της άμεσα ούτως ώστε να ανταποκρίνεται στις απαιτήσεις της αγοράς (Salaman and Asch 2003). Η αγορά είναι πολύ ευμετάβλητη άρα θα πρέπει οι επιχειρήσεις να είναι εύκαμπτες για να αντιμετωπίσουν αυτό το ευμετάβλητο της αγοράς.

- Κατανοούμε εύκολα λοιπόν ότι αλλάζει και ο τρόπος που σκεφτόμαστε το επιχειρείν αλλά και ο τρόπος με τον οποίο ήταν οργανωμένη η επιχείρηση και αυτό οφείλεται ακριβώς στο γεγονός ότι οι συνθήκες της αγοράς αλλάζουν και απαιτούνται άμεσες αλλαγές από τις επιχειρήσεις.

Στο σημείο αυτό τίθεται το ερώτημα, οι αλλαγές αυτές στο έξω-επιχειρησιακό αλλά και στο ενδο-επιχειρησιακό πεδίο πως επηρεάζουν, τη διοίκηση προσωπικού; Το εισαγωγικό (ιστορικό) αυτό κεφάλαιο έχει το στόχο να δώσει την δυνατότητα να αντιληφθούμε γιατί παλιότερα ήταν σε αποκλειστική χρήση ο όρος της διοίκησης προσωπικού: επειδή σχεδόν το σύνολο των εργαζομένων εκλαμβάνονταν σαν μια μάζα ομοιόμορφης δράσης και απασχόλησης, το προσωπικό. Υπήρχε ένας υπεύθυνος τον οποίο εκείνες τις εποχές τον αποκαλούσαν «προσωπάρχη», (ο όρος χρησιμοποιείται ακόμη και σήμερα, στις δημόσιες υπηρεσίες υπάρχει και σήμερα προσωπάρχης αλλά όχι και μόνο στις δημόσιες αλλά και σε μερικές ιδιωτικές οικογενειακού προτύπου και προσωποκεντρικής διοίκησης)¹⁹. Υπήρχε λοιπόν ο «προσωπάρχης» ο οποίος ήταν υπεύθυνος στο να διοικεί αυτό το προσωπικό, στο να έρχεται σε συνεννόηση με τα συνδικάτα που εκπροσωπούσαν τους εργαζομένους, να ασχολείται με την μισθοδοσία, με λίγα λόγια να είναι ο ενδιάμεσος μεταξύ των εργαζομένων και της επιχείρησης. Ο ρόλος του ήταν αυτός της διαμεσολάβησης.

Στις νέες συνθήκες της αγοράς, μετά το 1970 ο τρόπος με τον οποίο βλέπουμε τον εργαζόμενο διαφοροποιείται, αλλάζει. Δεν μιλάμε πλέον για προσωπικό αλλά για

¹⁹ Αυτές οι αλλαγές δεν είναι ορατές από την μια μέρα στην άλλη, είναι αλλαγές που θέλουν χρόνια για να πραγματοποιηθούν γιατί μιλάμε για συνήθειες για έξις, οι άνθρωποι μερικά πράγματα δεν τα αλλάζουν εύκολα.



ανθρώπινο δυναμικό. Ποια είναι η διαφορά; Ο όρος προσωπικό αναφέρεται σε αυτό που κάνει αυτός ο άνθρωπος, στην εργασία του. Εκλαμβάνεται ως προσωπικό γιατί εκτελεί μια δουλειά, ένα έργο. Στη σημερινή περίοδο ο εργαζόμενος γίνεται αντιληπτός με βάση τις δυνατότητές του να *αποδώσει έργο* και μπορεί να αποδώσει πολύ ή λίγο. Αυτό το πολύ ή λίγο της απόδοσής του μας δίνει την δυνατότητα να αντιληφθούμε ότι έχουμε να κάνουμε με ένα δυναμικό το οποίο άλλες φορές ενεργοποιείται και έχει μεγάλη απόδοση και άλλες φορές δεν ενεργοποιείται με αποτέλεσμα τη χαμηλή απόδοση του (Krausert 2009). Για αυτό πλέον το λόγο δεν αναφερόμαστε στον όρο του προσωπικού αλλά χρησιμοποιούμε τον όρο του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού²⁰. Για αυτό το λόγο αρχίζει να εμφανίζεται και ο όρος της διαχείριση στη θέση της διοίκησης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού. Η επιχείρηση οφείλει να ανακαλύψει τους ενδεδειγμένους τρόπους ώστε να *παρακινήσει* τους εργαζόμενους (Miner 2005) σε μέγιστη *αποδοτικότητα* (Armstrong 2009, Konstantopoulos and Triantafylloopoulos 2013). Αυτή η αναπροσαρμογή της ορολογίας μας δίνει την δυνατότητα να αντιληφθούμε ότι πλέον τον εργαζόμενο στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό δεν τον προσεγγίζουμε όπως πριν από τα τέλη της δεκαετίας 1970. Γίνεται δηλαδή κατανοητό ότι ο πλέον σημαντικός πόρος σε μια επιχείρηση είναι ο ανθρώπινος πόρος, που με γνώμονα τη γνωστική του διάσταση αλλά και το σύνολο των ικανοτήτων / δεξιοτήτων του ανά-προσδιορίζει την απόδοση της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού (Davenport 2008). Για αυτό κιάλας προσπαθούμε να τον διαχειριστούμε με τέτοιο τρόπο ώστε να αποδώσει τα μέγιστα των δυνατοτήτων του. Η προσέγγιση του εργαζόμενου γίνεται πλέον με «οικονομικούς» όρους, αφού αξιολογείται το ύψος της απόδοσής του (Doppelt 2019, Wolfson and Mathieu 2018).

Αλλάζει, ουσιαστικά, ο τρόπος με τον οποίο φέρονταν ή αντιλαμβάνονταν οι επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμοί, την περίοδο της μαζικής παραγωγής, τον εργαζόμενο. Συνεπάγεται, ότι οι αλλαγές αυτές θα επηρεάσουν αναπόφευκτα και τις στρατηγικές επιλογές και πρακτικές των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών. Ταυτόχρονα διαφοροποιείται και ο τρόπος προσέγγισης από τους επιστήμονες του κάθε κλάδου του συγκεκριμένου αντικείμενου έρευνάς τους, με απλά λόγια αλλάζει η φιλοσοφία προσέγγισης του εργαζόμενου στις επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς (Armstrong 2011, σελ. 7 επ).

- Η προηγούμενη ανάλυση πρέπει να μας ωθήσει να σκεφτούμε ότι οι συσχετισμοί δεν είναι μονοσήμαντοι αλλά πολυσήμαντοι και πολυσύνθετοι. Δηλαδή είναι πολλοί οι παράγοντες δημιουργίας των συνθηκών για ριζικές αλλαγές στο πεδίο του

²⁰ Η τον όρο των ανθρώπινων πόρων. Για της επιστημολογικές διαφορές των όρων βλέπε Ν. Παπαλεξανδρή, Γ. Χαλκιά, Λ. Παναγιωτοπούλου, 2001, σελ. 10 και επόμενες.



εργαζόμενου, και όχι μόνο, στις επιχειρήσεις και τους οργανισμούς (Hayes 2014, Salaman and Asch 2003). Άρα θα πρέπει να έχουμε στο μυαλό μας μια σειρά από μεταβλητές που παρεμβαίνουν για να πραγματοποιηθεί μία αλλαγή σε επιχειρησιακό και επιχειρηματικό επίπεδο.

Συμπεράσματα: Η διάσταση της σύγχρονης επιχειρηματικότητας είναι δύσκολο να κατανοηθεί χωρίς τη συμβολή του όρου της **αποδοτικότητας** του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού.

Η αποδοτικότητα είναι άρρητα συνδεδεμένη με την **παρακίνηση** του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού.

Ο παλαιός τρόπος αντιμετώπισης των εργαζομένων από την επιχείρηση κατά τη βιομηχανική περίοδο ήταν **"μαζικός"** βασισμένος στη **μη διαφοροποίηση** τους.

Στη μεταβιομηχανική κοινωνία, όμως, οι επιχειρήσεις προσανατολίζονται προς την **"ενεργοποίηση της δυναμικότητας"** των εργαζομένων, προσπάθεια που στηρίζεται στην αλλαγή της οπτικής γωνίας ανάλυσης και μελέτης του ρόλου του ανθρώπινου παράγοντα στην εργασία.

Στην εποχή της μαζικής παραγωγής ο ανθρώπινος παράγοντας είχε **επικουρικό ρόλο** (το κύριο και βασικό ρόλο παραγωγής τον κατείχε η "μηχανή").

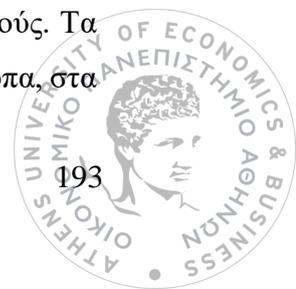
Στη σημερινή περίοδο ο εργαζόμενος γίνεται ο βασικότερος μοχλός λειτουργίας της επιχείρησης μέσα από τη μεταβλητή της **"γνώσης"** (η οποία δημιουργείται συσσωρευτικά από την βασική εκπαίδευση και την συνεχή επιμόρφωση, τη λεγόμενη **δια βίου εκπαίδευση**).

Στη βιομηχανική περίοδο η επιχειρησιακή επικοινωνία οριοθετείται με βάση τη κάθετη μορφή της **"μεταβίβασης εντολών"** (από επάνω προς τα κάτω) και της **"έκφρασης παραπόνων"** (από κάτω προς τα επάνω επικοινωνία).

Στη μεταβιομηχανική εποχή οι **"ικανότητες / δεξιότητες"** του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού γίνονται αναπόσπαστος παράγοντας της επιτυχημένης επιχείρησης / οργανισμού και η προσπάθεια ανάπτυξης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού προσλαμβάνει νέες διαστάσεις.

B. ΟΙ ΚΥΡΙΕΣ ΔΙΑΣΤΑΣΕΙΣ ΤΟΥ ΜΟΝΤΕΛΟΥ «ΠΛΑΙΣΙΑ (ΤΟΜΕΙΣ) ΔΡΑΣΗΣ»:

Από την προηγούμενη ιστορική αναδρομή, και κυρίως από το πεδίο των συμπερασμάτων, μπορούν να εντοπιστούν οι βασικοί παράγοντες που οριοθετούν την σύγχρονη αντίληψη για το ρόλο της διαχείρισης ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στις επιχειρήσεις και τους οργανισμούς. Τα τελευταία χρόνια έχουν αναπτυχθεί αρκετές θεμελιώδεις θεωρίες και θεωρητικά πρότυπα, στα



πλαίσια των θεωριών της οργανωσιακής συμπεριφοράς, που έχουν επιστρατευτεί για να εξηγήσουν τη συμβολή του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στην απόδοση των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών (Armstrong 2011, σελ. 9 επ). Μερικές από τις θεωρίες αυτές είναι οι βασικοί πυλώνες της εξήγησης της απόδοσης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού, όπως οι θεωρίες της παρακίνησης, για παράδειγμα η «θεωρία των προσδοκιών» (Vroom 1964), που στηριζόμενη στη διαπίστωση της διαφορετικότητας των αναγκών, επιθυμιών και στόχων των εργαζομένων υποστηρίζει ότι τα «κίνητρα ανταμοιβής» κινητοποιούν τους εργαζόμενους για μεγαλύτερη απόδοση στην εργασία εφόσον, οι εργαζόμενοι, αντιλαμβάνονται, σε ατομικό επίπεδο, τη χρησιμότητα, για αυτούς του ίδιους, των κινήτρων αυτών. Εξυπακούεται ότι απαραίτητη διάσταση είναι η κατοχή, από τους εργαζόμενους, εξειδικευμένων ικανοτήτων / δεξιοτήτων (Armstrong 2011, σελ. 10)²¹. Το μοντέλο AMO (Ability + Motivation + Opportunity), Δυνατότητα + Κίνητρο + Ευκαιρία υποστηρίζει ότι η αποδοτικότητα των εργαζομένων εξαρτάται από την ύπαρξη και ενεργοποίηση των τριών αυτών διαστάσεων. Οι επιχειρήσεις μπορούν να επιτύχουν υψηλότερη απόδοση από τους εργαζόμενους τους εάν αναπτύξουν τις δεξιότητες των εργαζομένων αυτών, και ενθαρρύνουν μέσω κινήτρων την προσπάθειά τους να επιτελέσουν ουσιαστικά και αποδοτικά την εργασία που τους ανατίθεται. Στην ίδια οπτική αναφορικά με την υψηλότερη απόδοση των εργαζομένων στις επιχειρήσεις και οργανισμούς κινούνται και άλλες θεωρίες, όπως η Θεωρία Ανθρώπινου Κεφαλαίου (Human Capital Theory), η Θεωρία Εξάρτησης Πόρων (Resource Dependence Theory), Θεωρία Βάση των Πόρων (Resource - Based Theory), η Θεσμική Θεωρία (Institutional Theory), η Θεωρία Κόστους Συναλλαγών (Transaction Cost Theory), η Θεωρία Αντιπροσώπευσης (Agency Theory), η Ενδεχομενική Θεωρία (Contingency Theory) κ.α., (Armstrong 2009 και 2011, Batistic 2018, Beer 2009 και 2015, Bratton and Gold 2012, Maatman, et al. 2010, Mayo 2001, Price 2007, Tzabbar et al. 2017). Στο σύνολό τους αυτά τα θεωρητικά πρότυπα προσπαθούν να ερμηνεύσουν τον τρόπο με τον οποίο οι επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμοί θα επιτύχουν να αξιοποιήσουν τις ικανότητες και δεξιότητες του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού τους ώστε αυτό το τελευταίο να έχει τη μέγιστη απόδοση, για να μπορούν αυτές (οι επιχειρήσεις) να πραγματοποιήσουν τους επιχειρηματικούς και επιχειρησιακούς στόχους που έχουν θέσει.

Οι μέχρι σήμερα προσεγγίσεις του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού κυριαρχούνται από τις διαστάσεις διαχείρισης, από τη μεριά της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού, των εργαζομένων της. Ο ίδιος ο εργαζόμενος, δηλαδή το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό, δεν «συμμετέχει ενεργά» σε αυτή τη διαχείριση παρά μόνο μέσα από τις διαστάσεις της δέσμευσης και τις παρακίνησης

²¹ Αναφερόμενος στους Porter and Lowler 1968.



(Armstrong 2011, σελ. 7 επ), που «επιμελούνται» συνειδητά και εστιασμένα οι επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμοί, μέσα από τις στρατηγικές διαχείρισης ανθρώπινου δυναμικού και τις πολιτικές που εφαρμόζουν. Στο μοντέλο που προτείνεται, στο κείμενο αυτό, ο ανθρώπινος παράγοντας είναι η βάση της εστιασμένης διερεύνησης και της ανάλυσης αφού δεν λαμβάνονται υπόψη παρά οι ίδιες οι δράσεις του ανθρώπινου παράγοντα στις επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς μέσα από τη καθημερινότητα της ανάθεσης εργασιών. Ταυτόχρονα, λαμβάνονται υπόψη και αναλύονται διεξοδικά οι σχέσεις που αναφύονται και οι προοπτικές που αναπτύσσονται για το σύνολο του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού αλλά και τις ίδιες τις επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς που εργάζονται. Το μοντέλο δεν ενδιαφέρεται αποκλειστικά για τον τρόπο με τον οποίο το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό θα αποδώσει το μεγαλύτερο μέρος των δυνατοτήτων του αλλά ενδιαφέρεται να ερμηνεύσει τον τρόπο που κινείται, δρα, αντιδρά, αποδίδει ή όχι, συμμετέχει ή απέχει σε / από δράσεις, αντιλαμβάνεται, συνειδητά ή μη την καθημερινότητά του. Τέλος, επιχειρεί να ερμηνεύσει το σύνολο αυτών των διαστάσεων με γνώμονα την «εργασιακή λογική» που διαμορφώνεται στους χώρους εργασίας στα πλαίσια της οργάνωσης των καθημερινών εργασιών στη βάση της επιχειρούμενης επίτευξης των στόχων των επιχειρήσεων και οργανισμών.

Υποστηρίζεται, λοιπόν, σε αυτό το μοντέλο, που παρουσιάζεται εδώ, ότι στους χώρους εργασίας διαμορφώνονται, στη βάση της προσπάθειας επίτευξης των στόχων των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών, διάφορα «πλαίσια δράσεις» του συνόλου των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων (stakeholders) και των ατόμων που απαρτίζουν τις ομάδες αυτές. Με απλά λόγια, το προτεινόμενο μοντέλο προωθεί την ιδέα ότι το σύνολο των δράσεων, δραστηριοτήτων των εργαζομένων σε έναν οργανισμό / επιχείρηση δεν είναι «κατά τύχη» δράσεις ή δράσεις που εξυπηρετούν μόνο την επίτευξη των στόχων του οργανισμού / επιχείρησης αλλά προσδιορίζονται από ένα σύνολο διαστάσεων που κάνει ώστε μερικές δράσεις να ανήκουν σε ένα ιδιαίτερο πλαίσιο δράσεων και άλλες σε άλλο πλαίσιο δράσεων. Προτείνει, το μοντέλο αυτό, να γίνει αντιληπτός, ο κάθε χώρος εργασίας, ως ένα δυναμικό σύστημα διαμόρφωσης διαφορετικών πλαισίων δράσης και δραστηριοτήτων του συνόλου των εργαζομένων και των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων. Με γνώμονα αυτή την αντίληψη το σύνολο των δράσεων της εργασιακής καθημερινότητας θα εντάσσεται σε ένα, και μόνο, πλαίσιο δράσεων.

Στηριζόμενοι στην αντίληψη αυτή, αναφορικά με τους χώρους εργασίας, πρέπει να ορίσουμε τις διαστάσεις που διαμορφώνουν το κάθε πλαίσιο (ή τομέας) δράσης στο οποίο ανήκει – εντάσσεται, κάθε φορά ένα σύνολο από τις καθημερινές δραστηριότητες των εργαζομένων. Έχουν εντοπιστεί πέντε διαφορετικές διαστάσεις που προσδιορίζουν την ιδιαιτερότητα του κάθε πλαισίου (τομέα) δράσεων:



- Η πρώτη διάσταση είναι η «*στόχευση του πλαισίου δράσης*». Πρόκειται, για το κυρίαρχο στόχο του συνόλου των δράσεων / δραστηριοτήτων που αναπτύσσονται σε κάθε ένα από τα πλαίσια δράσεων. Το σύνολο των δράσεων κάθε πλαισίου (τομέα) εξυπηρετεί σε φανερή ή λανθάνουσα μορφή έναν συγκεκριμένο στόχο. Η «στόχευση του πλαισίου δράσεων» είναι το στοιχείο βάσης στη διαμόρφωση του κάθε πλαισίου αν και όχι το μοναδικό αφού υποστηρίζεται και από άλλες, εξίσου σημαντικές, διαστάσεις. Θα πρέπει εδώ να εστιάσουμε ιδιαίτερα στο «λανθάνον» της στόχευσης του κάθε πλαισίου δράσεων, αφού τις περισσότερες φορές δεν είναι εμφανής η στόχευση για κάθε μια από τις ενέργειες, δράσεις, δραστηριότητες, των εργαζομένων και των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων, που εντάσσονται σε κάθε πλαίσιο (τομέα) δράσεων.
- Η δεύτερη διάσταση είναι η «*λογική ρύθμισης του πλαισίου δράσης*». Πρόκειται για τη «λογική» που ρυθμίζει το σύνολο των δράσεων που εντάσσονται σε κάθε ένα πλαίσιο και προσδιορίζει, ως ένα βαθμό, την «ομοιογένεια» των δράσεων του κάθε πλαισίου δράσεων. Η «λογική» αυτή καλύπτει αφενός την «ορθότητα» των δράσεων που εντάσσονται σε κάθε ένα από τα πλαίσια και αφετέρου την αναγκαιότητα της κάθε δράσης - δραστηριότητας.
- Η τρίτη διάσταση είναι η «*διάσταση σύνδεσης*» του πλαισίου δράσης. Πρόκειται για μια ουσιαστική διάσταση, αφού διαμορφώνει τις προϋποθέσεις ώστε η κάθε δράση – δραστηριότητα, στη καθημερινότητα της εργασίας να μην είναι μονοδιάστατη, αλλά να προσδιορίζει το «πολυδιάστατο» της κάθε δράσης / δραστηριότητας. Η διάσταση αυτή δηλώνει, κυρίως σε λανθάνουσα μορφή, την πολυπλοκότητα της κάθε εργασιακής δράσης / δραστηριότητας, στους χώρους εργασίας.
- Η τέταρτη διάσταση είναι οι «*ικανότητες / δεξιότητες βάσης του πλαισίου δράσης*». Πρόκειται για τις ικανότητες / δεξιότητες που είναι «απαραίτητες» στο κάθε εργαζόμενο για να μπορεί να αναλαμβάνει δράσεις / δραστηριότητες στο κάθε πλαίσιο (τομέα) δράσεων. Η διάσταση αυτή προσδιορίζει το μίνιμουμ των ικανοτήτων που είναι αναγκαίες για την ανάληψη κάποιας δράσης από το κάθε εργαζόμενο.
- Τέλος, η Πέμπτη διάσταση είναι οι «(προ)απαιτούμενες αντιλήψεις των εργαζομένων και των stakeholders» για τις δράσεις / δραστηριότητες του κάθε πλαισίου (τομέα) δράσεων. Πρόκειται για τις «κανονιστικές» αντιλήψεις του κάθε πλαισίου δράσης που είναι απαραίτητες ώστε να μπορούν να πραγματοποιούνται οι δράσεις κάθε πλαισίου. Αυτές οι αντιλήψεις διαμορφώνουν και ένα σύνολο στάσεων και κατά συνέπεια και

αντίστοιχες συμπεριφορές των εργαζομένων. Άρα, οι συμπεριφορές προσδιορίζουν και ένα τρόπο συγκεκριμένο δράσεων και δραστηριοποιήσεων των εργαζομένων.

Γίνεται αντιληπτό λοιπόν, μετά από τη σύντομη παρουσίαση των διαστάσεων των πλαισίων (τομέων) δράσεων ότι ο νέος αυτός τρόπος προσέγγισης δεν εστιάζει μόνο στις στρατηγικές και πολιτικές της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού για την παρακίνηση του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού αλλά στο σύνολο των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων (stakeholders) και στο κάθε εργαζόμενο ξεχωριστά και στο πως αυτός δρα και δραστηριοποιείται στην καθημερινότητα της εργασίας του. Το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό εκλαμβάνεται ως σύνολο και όχι «αποκομμένα» από τη ροή της καθημερινότητάς του στους χώρους εργασίας. Δεν είναι ένας «στόχος» (για να κάνει αυτό που επιθυμεί η επιχείρηση / οργανισμός) αποκομμένος από την εργασιακή του πραγματικότητα αλλά αντιμετωπίζεται ως, ιδιαίτερης υπόστασης, αδιάσπαστο κομμάτι του εργασιακού πάζλ.

Γ. ΠΑΡΟΥΣΙΑΣΗ ΤΩΝ ΤΕΣΣΑΡΩΝ ΠΛΑΙΣΙΩΝ ΔΡΑΣΗΣ:

Από έρευνα πεδίου που έχει προηγηθεί στους χώρους εργασίας επιχειρήσεων και οργανισμών του δημοσίου διαπιστώθηκε η ύπαρξη τεσσάρων πλαισίων (τομέων) δράσεων των εργαζομένων και των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων.

❖ Το πρώτο πλαίσιο είναι αυτό που περιλαμβάνει δράσεις που έχουν να κάνουν με τη «διάρθρωση και πραγμάτωση των στρατηγικών επιχειρησιακών στόχων» της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Πρόκειται για το σύνολο των επιμέρους δραστηριοτήτων που έχουν να κάνουν με τη διαμόρφωση των στρατηγικών στόχων αλλά και το πώς αυτοί οι στόχοι θα επιτευχθούν από την επιχείρηση / οργανισμό. Σε αυτό το πλαίσιο οι ιδιαίτερες πέντε διαστάσεις, που παρουσιάστηκαν στην προηγούμενη ενότητα, προσδιορίζονται με τον ακόλουθο τρόπο:

- Η *στόχευση πλαισίου* ορίζεται ως η προσπάθεια «επιβίωσης» της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού στο αγοραίο και κοινωνικό περιβάλλον. Όλες οι δράσεις / δραστηριότητες αυτού του πλαισίου στοχεύουν στο να ανταπεξέλθει με επιτυχία η επιχείρηση / οργανισμός στις δύσκολες αγοραίες και κοινωνικές συνθήκες.
- Η *λογική ρύθμιση* στο πλαίσιο δράσεων, της διάρθρωσης και πραγμάτωσης των στρατηγικών επιχειρησιακών στόχων, προσδιορίζεται ως η «οριοθέτηση και ο συντονισμός του συνόλου των επιχειρησιακών δράσεων» της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Πρόκειται για τη λογική συντονισμού όλων των δράσεων / δραστηριοτήτων ώστε να μπορεί να πραγματοποιηθούν οι στρατηγικοί στόχοι της

επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.

- Η διάσταση σύνδεσης του συγκεκριμένου πλαισίου δράσεων πραγματοποιείται μέσα από την «σύζευξη» του εξωτερικού (αγοραίου) και του εσωτερικού (ενδοεπιχειρησιακού) περιβάλλοντος. Γίνεται κατανοητό το γεγονός ότι για να μπορέσουν να διαμορφωθούν και στη συνέχεια να επιτευχθούν οι στρατηγικοί στόχοι της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού είναι απαραίτητη η συνεχής ανατροφοδότηση με ενδεδειγμένες πληροφορίες από το αγοραίο αλλά και το ενδοεπιχειρησιακό περιβάλλον, ώστε οι δράσεις να έχουν τη δυνατότητα να συνεισφέρουν στη στόχευση του συγκεκριμένου πλαισίου.
 - Οι ικανότητες βάσης του πλαισίου δράσεων της «διάθρωσης και πραγμάτωσης των στρατηγικών επιχειρησιακών στόχων», που οφείλει να διαθέτει κάθε εργαζόμενος για να «δραστηριοποιείται» στο συγκεκριμένο πλαίσιο δράσεων, και λαμβάνοντας υπόψη τη διάσταση της σύνδεσης, που μόλις παρουσιάστηκε, προσδιορίζονται ως αναλυτικές και συνθετικές δεξιότητες, ώστε να μπορούν να διερευνηθούν διεξοδικά τα δεδομένα από το εξωτερικό και εσωτερικό περιβάλλον. Ταυτόχρονα, απαιτούνται και άλλες δύο ακόμα ικανότητες, αυτή του σχεδιασμού των δράσεων, για να μπορέσουν να προσδιοριστούν και στη συνέχεια να επιτευχθούν οι επιχειρησιακοί στόχοι, και κυρίως οι επικοινωνιακές ικανότητες, σύνολο ικανοτήτων που είναι απαραίτητη προϋπόθεση για το συγκεκριμένο πλαίσιο δράσεων όπως θα γίνει αντιληπτό μέσα από την Πέμπτη διάσταση που θα παρουσιαστεί αμέσως παρακάτω
 - Οι (προ)απαιτούμενες αντιλήψεις (στάσεις) των εργαζομένων στο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «διάθρωσης και πραγμάτωσης των στρατηγικών επιχειρησιακών στόχων» είναι η αποδοχή και η στήριξη των στρατηγικών στόχων της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Γίνεται σαφές στη βάση αυτή της διάστασης, ο λόγος του απαραίτητου των επικοινωνιακών ικανοτήτων του συνόλου των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων, όπως εκτέθηκαν στην προηγούμενη διάσταση, ώστε να είναι εφικτό να διαμορφώνονται αντιλήψεις και στάσεις στήριξης των στρατηγικών στόχων της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.
- Μέσα από τις πέντε παραπάνω διαστάσεις γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι βρισκόμαστε σε ένα άλλο πεδίο διερεύνησης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού από αυτό που έχει οριοθετηθεί από τη μέχρι τώρα βιβλιογραφία. Ταυτόχρονα, η διάσταση των στρατηγικών επιχειρησιακών στόχων «φεύγει» από την αποκλειστική αρμοδιότητα

της ανώτατης διοίκησης και γίνεται «κτήμα» όλων των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων αλλά και κάθε ενός από τους εργαζόμενους στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό, μέσα από τις δράσεις / δραστηριότητες που ανήκουν στο πλαίσιο αυτό. Για παράδειγμα, ένας εργαζόμενος που του ανατίθεται ένα έργο, όταν σχεδιάζει τον τρόπο εκτέλεσης του συγκεκριμένου έργου, και ενημερώνεται για το τι ακριβώς πρέπει να προσέχει αλλά και ποιο είναι το ζητούμενο δεν κάνει τίποτε άλλο από το να βρίσκεται στο συγκεκριμένο πλαίσιο δράσεων προσπαθώντας, συνειδητά ή μη να στοχεύει σε ένα αποτέλεσμα «συμβατό» με τους στόχους της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Επίσης, γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι ο τρόπος με τον οποίο γίνεται χρήση του όρου της «στρατηγικής» στα πλαίσια του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού από τους μελετητές του χώρου δεν προσομοιάζει με τον τρόπο που χρησιμοποιείται εδώ στο μοντέλο των πλαισίων δράσης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού. Μπορούμε να αντιληφθούμε, ότι η οπτική των πλαισίων δράσης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού αναπροσδιορίζει την ίδια την συνεισφορά και το ρόλο των εργαζομένων στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό.

- ❖ Το δεύτερο πλαίσιο δράσεων είναι αυτό που περιλαμβάνει δράσεις αναφορικά με την *«επιτέλεση των καθημερινών έργων»*. Πρόκειται για το σύνολο των επιμέρους δραστηριοτήτων που έχουν να κάνουν με την πραγματοποίηση του «φόρτου εργασίας» του κάθε εργαζόμενου. Σε αυτό το πλαίσιο οι ιδιαίτερες πέντε διαστάσεις, που παρουσιάστηκαν σε προηγούμενη ενότητα, προσδιορίζονται με τον ακόλουθο τρόπο:
 - Η *στόχευση του πλαισίου «επιτέλεσης των καθημερινών έργων»* ορίζεται ως η προσπάθεια *«καθημερινής εργασιακής ολοκλήρωσης»* του κάθε εργαζόμενου στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό. Η στόχευση αυτή προσδιορίζει ένα σύνολο προσωπικών και ομαδικών διαστάσεων.
 - Η *λογική ρύθμιση* στο πλαίσιο δράσεων, της *«επιτέλεσης των καθημερινών έργων – εργασιών»*, προσδιορίζεται ως η *«αποδοτική και αποτελεσματική λειτουργικότητα της εργασιακής καθημερινότητας»* των εργαζομένων στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό. Αυτή η αποδοτική και αποτελεσματική λειτουργικότητα είναι άρρηκτα συνδεδεμένη με το προηγούμενο πλαίσιο δράσεων, της *«διάρθρωσης και πραγμάτωσης των στρατηγικών επιχειρησιακών στόχων»* γιατί σε άλλη περίπτωση η επιτέλεση των καθημερινών έργων- εργασιών θα ήταν εργασίες *«χωρίς αντίκρισμα»*. Αυτό δεν σημαίνει ότι πρόκειται για ίδια πλαίσια δράσης ή ότι οι δράσεις των δύο πλαισίων συγχέονται.

Απλά, πρέπει να γίνει αντιληπτή η λογική του προηγούμενου πλαισίου δράσεων που είναι η «*οριοθέτηση και ο συντονισμός του συνόλου των επιχειρησιακών δράσεων*» της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.

- Η *διάσταση σύνδεσης* του συγκεκριμένου πλαισίου δράσεων πραγματοποιείται μέσα από την «*σύζευξη*» του *ατομικού (προσωπικού)* και του *ομαδικού (συλλογικού) έργου*. Πρόκειται για μια σημαντική διάσταση στη λειτουργία των σύγχρονων επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών, που διαμορφώνει και τα επίπεδα αποδοτικότητας και αποτελεσματικότητάς τους.
 - Οι *ικανότητες βάσης* του πλαισίου δράσεων της «*«επιτέλεσης των καθημερινών έργων»*», που οφείλει να διαθέτει κάθε εργαζόμενος για να «δραστηριοποιείται» στο συγκεκριμένο πλαίσιο δράσεων, και λαμβάνοντας υπόψη τη διάσταση της σύνδεσης, που μόλις παρουσιάστηκε, προσδιορίζονται ως *υψηλός εργασιακός αυτοέλεγχος* και *δεξιότητα συστηματικής συνεργασίας*, ώστε να μπορούν να έχουν αποτέλεσμα όλες οι εργασίες που αναλαμβάνει ο κάθε εργαζόμενος στους χώρους εργασίας του.
 - Οι *(προ)απαιτούμενες αντιλήψεις* (στάσεις) των εργαζομένων στο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «*επιτέλεσης των καθημερινών έργων*» είναι η *αποδοχή της συστηματικής και ουσιαστικής αυτοαξιολόγησης απόδοσης έργου*, στοιχείο που προϋποθέτει την αποδοτική και αποτελεσματική διάσταση της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.
- Με την ολοκλήρωση της παρουσίασης των πέντε διαστάσεων που ορίζουν το δεύτερο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «*επιτέλεσης των καθημερινών έργων*», γίνεται, πλέον, ξεκάθαρο, ότι βρισκόμαστε σε ένα άλλο πεδίο διερεύνησης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού από αυτό που έχει οριοθετηθεί από τη μέχρι τώρα βιβλιογραφία. Το πλαίσιο αυτό δίνει έμφαση στην εργασιακή ατομικότητα και συλλογικότητα και «αποχαρακτηρίζει» την «ένταση» που συνοδεύει τους όρους της αποδοτικότητας, της αποτελεσματικότητας και της αξιολόγησης απόδοσης, αφού τις προσδιορίζει απαραίτητα στοιχεία της λειτουργίας της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.
- ❖ Το τρίτο πλαίσιο δράσεων είναι αυτό που περιλαμβάνει δράσεις που αναφέρονται στην «*πραγματικότητα της συστηματικής αλλαγής*». Πρόκειται για το σύνολο των επιμέρους δραστηριοτήτων που έχουν να κάνουν με την καθημερινή αλλαγή που πραγματοποιείται χωρίς την κατανόησή της από τους ίδιους τους εργαζόμενους. Σε αυτό το πλαίσιο οι ιδιαίτερες πέντε διαστάσεις, που παρουσιάστηκαν σε προηγούμενη ενότητα, προσδιορίζονται με τον ακόλουθο τρόπο:



- Η *στόχευση του πλαισίου* της «πραγματικότητας της συστηματικής αλλαγής» ορίζεται ως η προσπάθεια «καθημερινής προσαρμογής» του κάθε εργαζόμενου στις διαρκείς αλλαγές που του παρουσιάζονται σε κάθε βήμα της εργασίας του στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό. Η στόχευση αυτή προσδιορίζει ένα σύνολο από προσπάθειες που επιδιώκουν την διαρκή προσαρμογή του εργαζόμενου στις «νέες» συνθήκες που παρουσιάζονται διαρκώς μπροστά του στο χώρο εργασίας του.
- Η *λογική ρύθμιση* στο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «πραγματικότητας της συστηματικής αλλαγής», προσδιορίζεται ως η «ενδεδειγμένη διαρκής αναπροσαρμογή» των εργαζόμενων στις επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς. Γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι η διάσταση της αλλαγής είναι μια «διαρκής πάλη» ανάπτυξης και βελτίωσης των δεξιοτήτων του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού, χωρίς όμως αυτή η πάλη (προσπάθεια) να γίνεται αντιληπτή από τον ίδιο τον εργαζόμενο.
- Η *διάσταση σύνδεσης* του συγκεκριμένου πλαισίου δράσεων της «πραγματικότητας της συστηματικής αλλαγής» πραγματοποιείται μέσα από την «σύζευξη» του *παλαιού* (δεδομένου και ελέγξιμου) και του *νέου* (δύσκολα ελέγξιμου). Γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι το παλαιό και το νέο προσδιορίζονται στα πλαίσια των δράσεων που, ο κάθε εργαζόμενος, κάνει καθημερινά στο χώρο εργασίας του. Άρα, το «παλαιό» είναι απαραίτητο στοιχείο για την κατανόηση του «νέου».
- Οι *ικανότητες βάσης* του πλαισίου δράσεων της «πραγματικότητας της συστηματικής αλλαγής», που οφείλει να διαθέτει κάθε εργαζόμενος για να «δραστηριοποιείται» στο συγκεκριμένο δράσεων, και λαμβάνοντας υπόψη τη διάσταση της σύνδεσης, που μόλις παρουσιάστηκε, προσδιορίζονται ως *ικανοποιητική αντίληψη των εργασιακών θεμάτων*, και *μετασχηματισμού της γνώσης σε δράση* (κυρίως σε νέα δράση) ώστε να μπορούν να αντιμετωπιστούν με επιτυχία οι νέες συνθήκες που παρουσιάζονται στις επιχειρήσεις και τους οργανισμούς.
- Οι *(προ)απαιτούμενες αντιλήψεις* (στάσεις) των εργαζομένων στο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «πραγματικότητας της συστηματικής αλλαγής» είναι η *αποδοχή και του νέου και της καινοτομικής αναγκαιότητας* ώστε να μπορεί η επιχείρηση / οργανισμός να αντιμετωπίσει τις τεχνολογικές, και όχι μόνο, σύγχρονες προκλήσεις.
 - Με την ολοκλήρωση της παρουσίασης των πέντε διαστάσεων που ορίζουν το τρίτο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «πραγματικότητας της συστηματικής αλλαγής», γίνεται ακόμα πιο πειστικό το επιχείρημα ότι βρισκόμαστε σε ένα άλλο πεδίο διερεύνησης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού από αυτό που έχει οριοθετηθεί από τη μέχρι τώρα

βιβλιογραφία. Επίσης, γίνεται κατανοητό ότι η διάσταση της μονόπλευρης καθοδήγησης και εξάρτησης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού από την ανώτατη διοίκηση δεν μπορεί να ισχύει αφού απενεργοποιεί ουσιαστικά το ανθρώπινο δυναμικό αφαιρώντας του τη δυναμική του.

- ❖ Το τέταρτο πλαίσιο δράσεων είναι αυτό που περιλαμβάνει δράσεις που έχουν να κάνουν με την *«διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων»*. Πρόκειται για το σύνολο των επιμέρους δραστηριοτήτων που αφορούν στην ομαλή λειτουργία του κάθε οργανισμού / επιχείρησης. Πρόκειται για μια ουσιώδη εργασιακή πραγματικότητα που η σύγχρονη βιβλιογραφία αντιμετωπίζει μόνο στα πλαίσια της μισθολογικής πρακτικής και της ηθικής ανταμοιβής. Είναι το πλαίσιο δράσεων όπου προσδιορίζεται και καθορίζεται η πραγματικότητα των σχέσεων των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων αλλά και οι σχέσεις σε διαπροσωπικό επίπεδο. Σε αυτό το πλαίσιο οι ιδιαίτερες πέντε διαστάσεις, που παρουσιάστηκαν σε προηγούμενη ενότητα, προσδιορίζονται με τον ακόλουθο τρόπο:
 - Η *στόχευση του πλαισίου «διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων»* ορίζεται ως η προσπάθεια *«ατομικής ή/και συλλογικής (εργασιακής) επιβίωσης / επιβεβαίωσης»* του κάθε εργαζόμενου και των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων στους χώρους εργασίας των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών. Η στόχευση αυτή προσδιορίζει ένα σύνολο προσωπικών και ομαδικών συμφερόντων που διαχειρίζεται ο κάθε εργαζόμενος σε ατομικό και συλλογικό επίπεδο.
 - Η *λογική ρύθμιση* στο πλαίσιο δράσεων, της *διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων*, προσδιορίζεται ως η *«εργασιακή / οργανωσιακή διασφάλιση»*. Γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι η διεκδίκηση των συμφερόντων είναι όχι μόνο ατομικό διαδικαστικό αλλά και συλλογικό. Πρέπει να δοθεί ιδιαίτερη έμφαση στον όρο *«συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων»* αφού σε αυτόν εμπεριέχονται ατομικά, συλλογικά αλλά και της ίδιας της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.
 - Η *διάσταση σύνδεσης* του συγκεκριμένου πλαισίου δράσεων της *διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων* πραγματοποιείται μέσα από την *«σύζευξη»* του *ατομικού συμφέροντος* (προσωπικού), του *συλλογικού συμφέροντος* (σε επίπεδο ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων που ανήκει ο κάθε εργαζόμενος) και των *συμφερόντων του οργανισμού / επιχείρησης* όπως αυτό εκφράζεται θεσμικά σε κάθε περίοδο. Γίνεται αντιληπτό το πεδίο *«ισορροπιών» / «εντάσεων – συγκρούσεων»* που διαμορφώνεται, εξ ορισμού σε κάθε οργανισμό / επιχείρηση.

- Οι ικανότητες βάσης του πλαισίου δράσεων της «διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων», που οφείλει να διαθέτει κάθε εργαζόμενος για να «δραστηριοποιείται» στο συγκεκριμένο πλαίσιο δράσεων, και λαμβάνοντας υπόψη τη διάσταση της σύνδεσης, που μόλις παρουσιάστηκε, προσδιορίζονται ως *σχεδιασμού κατάλληλων δράσεων, επικοινωνίας και αποτελεσματικής διαπραγμάτευσης*, ώστε να μπορούν να διεκδικήσουν τα ατομικά, συλλογικά αλλά και της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού συμφέροντα.
- Οι (προ)απαιτούμενες αντιλήψεις (στάσεις) των εργαζομένων στο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων» είναι η «η κατά περίπτωση κατανόηση των πραγματικών διακυβευμάτων» στο πλαίσιο του συνόλου των διαφορών που εκδηλώνονται στις επιχειρήσεις / οργανισμούς.
 - Με την ολοκλήρωση της παρουσίασης των πέντε διαστάσεων που ορίζουν το τέταρτο πλαίσιο δράσεων της «διεκδίκησης συγκρουόμενων συμφερόντων», ολοκληρώνεται η παρουσίαση των τεσσάρων διαφορετικών πλαισίων δράσης του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στις επιχειρήσεις και τους οργανισμούς. Ολοκληρώνεται έτσι, το συνολικό πάζλ στο οποίο κινείται η κατανόηση της πραγματικότητας του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στους χώρους εργασίας με έναν τελείως διαφορετικό τρόπο από αυτόν που ορίζει η σύγχρονη βιβλιογραφία του συγκεκριμένου πεδίου έρευνας. Γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι το τέταρτο πλαίσιο δράσεων καλύπτει ένα πολύ σημαντικό αριθμό καθημερινών δραστηριοτήτων του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού στο χώρο εργασίας του. Το συγκεκριμένο πλαίσιο δράσεων είναι καθοριστική σημασίας για την λειτουργικότητα και, κατ' επέκταση, την αποδοτικότητα των επιχειρήσεων / οργανισμών. Η ανάδειξη της διεκδίκησης των ατομικών, συλλογικών και επιχειρησιακών συμφερόντων σε ιδιαίτερο πλαίσιο δράσεων σε κάθε επιχείρηση / οργανισμό καταδεικνύει τη σημαντικότητα της διαφορετικότητας στους χώρους εργασίας.

Δ. ΣΥΣΤΗΜΑΤΑ ΑΛΛΗΛΕΠΙΔΡΑΣΗΣ ΜΕ ΤΑ ΠΛΑΙΣΙΑ ΔΡΑΣΗΣ ΤΟΥ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΙΝΟΥ ΔΥΝΑΜΙΚΟΥ

Από την παραπάνω σύντομη παρουσίαση του μοντέλου των πλαισίων δράσεων του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού συνάγεται το συμπέρασμα ότι τα πλαίσια αυτά για να διαμορφωθούν και να λειτουργήσουν κανονικά εξαρτώνται από ένα σύνολο συστημάτων που υπάρχουν εντός ή εκτός της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Τρία είναι αυτά τα συστήματα, η ύπαρξη των οποίων,



δίνει «νόημα» στη διαμόρφωση και την ύπαρξη των πλαισίων δράσης. Τα δύο είναι συστήματα που αναπτύσσονται στην ενδοεπιχειρησιακή (οργανωσιακή) πραγματικότητα ενώ το τρίτο καλύπτει την έξω-επιχειρησιακή πραγματικότητα:

- ✚ Το *λειτουργικό σύστημα της οργανωσιακής δομής* της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Πρόκειται για έναν αριθμό παραμέτρων που διαμορφώνονται από τις συμπεριφορές του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού και των αποφάσεών του αναφορικά με τη λειτουργία της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Εντοπίζονται τρία επιμέρους υπό-συστήματα που συνθέτουν το λειτουργικό σύστημα της οργανωσιακής δομής της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού.
 - Η *οργανωσιακή κουλτούρα* της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Πρόκειται για το συλλογικό προγραμματισμό του τρόπου σκέψης ενός συνόλου ανθρώπων (επιχείρησης / οργανισμού) που βασίζεται σε κοινές ιδέες, πιστεύω και αξιακά πρότυπα (Keyton 2005, σελ. 17-18). Εξυπακούεται ότι, αυτός ο «προγραμματισμός» της σκέψης που προσδιορίζει στη συνέχεια τις στάσεις των ανθρώπων, για ένα σύνολο πραγμάτων, επιδρά στους εργαζόμενους και στο τρόπο που δρουν και δραστηριοποιούνται στη καθημερινότητα των εργασιακών τους θεμάτων – ζητημάτων. Η οργανωσιακή κουλτούρα συμβάλει, σημαντικά ή περιορισμένα, ανάλογα με την παρέμβαση ή μη διαφόρων άλλων παραγόντων, στο τρόπο εκδήλωσης των δράσεων των εργαζομένων στα διάφορα πλαίσια που παρουσιάστηκαν πιο πάνω.
 - Το *οργανωσιακό κλίμα* της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Διαμορφώνεται από το σύνολο των αλληλεπιδράσεων, σχέσεων, εξαρτήσεων και αντιθέσεων που αναπτύσσονται μεταξύ των εργαζομένων στους χώρους εργασίας. Πρόκειται για ένα σύστημα ανταλλαγών που προσδιορίζει την οπτική των εργαζομένων για τον τρόπο με τον οποίο θα αντιλαμβάνονται το εργασιακό περιβάλλον. Το σύστημα των ανταλλαγών αυτών προσδιορίζεται από τις κοινές εργασιακές εμπειρίες των εργαζομένων, σε καθημερινό πρακτικό επίπεδο (Erhart et al 2014, σελ. 63 επ). Άρα, οι ίδιες οι δράσεις – δραστηριότητες των εργαζομένων (στα διάφορα πλαίσια που παρουσιάστηκαν πιο πάνω) και ο τρόπος που εξελίσσονται (με συνεργασία πραγματική, ή τυπική, με χωρίς συνεργασία, κλπ.) προσδιορίζει το οργανωσιακό κλίμα που με τη σειρά του, αυτό το τελευταίο, επιδρά στις δράσεις - δραστηριότητες των εργαζομένων.
 - Η *επικοινωνιακή πρακτική* της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού. Η επικοινωνιακή διαδικασία, είτε η τυπικά προσδιορισμένη είτε η άτυπη, λαμβάνει χώρα σε ένα

προσδιορισμένο πεδίο ανταλλαγής, που μπορεί να ονομαστεί «επικοινωνιακή σκηνή» όπου το κύριο ζητούμενο είναι η «πρόθεση» του κάθε συμμετέχοντα να «αποκτήσει ένα όφελος». Αυτός ο τρόπο αντίληψης της επικοινωνίας, που είναι εκ διαμέτρου αντίθετος από τα μηχανιστικά πρότυπα, τύπου Shannon, πρώτον την διαφοροποιεί από το οργανωσιακό κλίμα και δεύτερον της αποδίδει μια ουσιαστική συμβολή στη λειτουργία της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού αλλά και των πλαισίων δράσεων που παρουσιάστηκαν πιο πάνω. Ταυτόχρονα, η αντίληψη αυτή της επικοινωνιακής διαδικασίας, μειώνει και τη σημασία των μηχανισμών παρακίνησης αφού ο κάθε εργαζόμενος επιζητά την «αναγνώριση» ή την «επιβεβαίωση» από διάφορα κανάλια επικοινωνίας μέσα στην επιχείρηση / οργανισμό

✚ Το *προσωποδυναμικό (ή ατομικό) σύστημα* της επιχείρησης οργανισμού. Πρόκειται για την επαγγελματική και κοινωνική «ταυτότητα» του κάθε εργαζόμενου που διαμορφώνεται είτε (και κυρίως) από έξω-επιχειρησιακούς παράγοντες είτε (δευτερευόντως) από οργανωσιακούς. Η «ταυτότητα» αυτή, στην οποία εμπεριέχονται και στοιχεία από την οργανωσιακή κουλτούρα, προσδιορίζει την προσωπικότητα του κάθε εργαζόμενου και συμβάλει καθοριστικά στα πλαίσια δράσης που παρουσιάστηκαν πιο πάνω. Εντοπίζονται τέσσερα διαφοροποιημένα πεδία διάρθρωσης αυτής της «ταυτότητας»:

- Οι *Νοοτροπίες* και τα *Αξιακά Πρότυπα* του κάθε εργαζόμενου. Είναι το σύνολο των ιδιαίτερων αξιακών στοιχείων που συνθέτουν τα πιστεύω και τις πεποιθήσεις του κάθε ανθρώπου για την ζωή, τη κοινωνία και γενικότερα για τον κόσμο. Ο κάθε εργαζόμενος εισέρχεται καθημερινά στο χώρο εργασίας του «μαζί» με τα πιστεύω του και τις πεποιθήσεις του, και σε πολύ μεγάλο βαθμό δρα και δραστηριοποιείται εργασιακά με γνώμονα αυτό το «προσωπικό» του σύστημα αξιών. Άρα, τα πλαίσια δράσεις επηρεάζονται από το συγκεκριμένο πεδίο διάρθρωσης της «ταυτότητας» του κάθε εργαζόμενου
- Οι *Ατομικές Ανάγκες* του κάθε εργαζόμενου. Δεν πρόκειται μόνο για τις ανάγκες του κάθε εργαζόμενου αλλά, και κυρίως, για τον τρόπο με τον οποίο ο κάθε εργαζόμενος αντιλαμβάνεται αυτές τις ανάγκες. Είναι άλλοι άνθρωποι που συγχέουν τις επιθυμίες τους με τις ανάγκες τους, άλλοι που αντιλαμβάνονται ότι έχουν πολλές ανάγκες και άλλοι που αντιλαμβάνονται ως ανάγκες λιγότερες από αυτές που «πράγματι» έχουν. Γίνεται αντιληπτό ότι η διάσταση της αντίληψης των αναγκών παίζει ένα σημαντικό ρόλο στα πλαίσια

δράσεων, κυρίως δε στο πλαίσιο της διεκδίκησης των ατομικών, συλλογικών και επιχειρησιακών συμφερόντων

- Οι *Γνωστικές και Αντιληπτικές Ιδιαιτερότητες* του κάθε εργαζόμενου. Ήδη αναφερθήκαμε, προηγουμένως στην αντίληψη των αναγκών. Το πεδίο των γνωστικών και αντιληπτικών ιδιαιτεροτήτων του κάθε εργαζόμενου προσδιορίζει, σε πολύ μεγάλο βαθμό, τις δράσεις του στα τέσσερα διαφορετικά πλαίσια. Είναι προτιμότερο να αναφερόμαστε στο πεδίο αυτό στη βάση των ικανοτήτων. Πρέπει να κατανοούνται ως γνωστικές και αντιληπτικές ικανότητες. Ο τρόπος πρόσληψης μιας πληροφορίας, διαμορφώνει την αντιληπτική ικανότητα του κάθε ανθρώπου, ενώ ο τρόπος που ο κεντρικός επεξεργαστής του εγκεφάλου του κάθε ανθρώπου μέσω της σκέψης καταλήγει στην αντίστοιχη ερμηνεία, προσδιορίζει την γνωστική ικανότητα του ανθρώπου αυτού (Quinlan and Dyson 2008, σελ. 146).
- Το επίπεδο της *Συναισθηματικής Νοημοσύνης* του κάθε εργαζόμενου. Το πεδίο της συναισθηματικής νοημοσύνης έχει την προσοχή της επιστημονικής κοινότητας στραμμένη επάνω του, τα τελευταία 30 χρόνια. Πρόκειται για τη συμμετοχή των συναισθημάτων στους χώρους εργασίας, δηλαδή του ρόλου που διαδραματίζει στην καθημερινότητα της εργασίας η συναισθηματική λειτουργία του κάθε εργαζόμενου. Τα τελευταία χρόνια έχει εστιαστεί η έρευνα στο ρόλο που η συναισθηματική νοημοσύνη προσδιορίζει, με καθοριστικό τρόπο, το σύνολο των ανθρωπίνων σχέσεων (Goleman 2006). Στο κείμενο αυτό η συναισθηματική νοημοσύνη γίνεται αντιληπτή ως ουσιώδες στοιχείο στην εκδήλωση των δραστηριοτήτων των εργαζομένων στα διάφορα πλαίσια δράσεων.

✚ Το *κοινωνικό και αγοραίο περιβάλλον* που περιβάλλει την επιχείρηση / οργανισμό. Περιλαμβάνει το σύνολο των στοιχείων, παραγόντων που υπάρχουν στο κοινωνικό, οικονομικό, πολιτικό και πολιτιστικό πεδίο αλλά και τις σχέσεις, συγκρούσεις, κλπ. που εκδηλώνονται στην αγοραία πραγματικότητα. Τα στοιχεία αυτά είναι σημαντικής αξίας για τη λειτουργία της επιχείρησης / οργανισμού αλλά και για τα πλαίσια δράσεων του ανθρώπινου δυναμικού

Ε. Καταληκτικά Συμπεράσματα: Στους χώρους εργασίας διαμορφώνονται τέσσερα διαφορετικά πλαίσια δράσεων: το πλαίσιο διάρθρωσης και προσπάθειας επίτευξης των στρατηγικών στόχων, το πλαίσιο επιτέλεσης του καθημερινού εργασιακού έργου, το πλαίσιο

δράσεων για την αντιμετώπιση της πραγματικής αλλαγής που συντελείται καθημερινά στους χώρους εργασίας και το πλαίσιο της διακύβευσης των ατομικών, συλλογικών και επιχειρησιακών συμφερόντων. Το σύνολο των εργασιακών δράσεων που επιτελείται καθημερινά ανήκει σε ένα από τα πλαίσια αυτά. Το κάθε πλαίσιο διαρθρώνει την ιδιαιτερότητά του μέσα από τη συμβολή πέντε διαστάσεων. Η διάσταση της στόχευσης του πλαισίου εκφράζει τον πραγματικό στόχο του ίδιου του πλαισίου. Η διάσταση της λογικής προσδιορίζει και ρυθμίζει τη λειτουργία των δράσεων κάθε πλαισίου. Η διάσταση της σύνδεσης ορίζει τις διασυνδέσεις διαφορετικών στοιχείων, παραγόντων, παραμέτρων που εκδηλώνονται σε κάθε πλαίσιο δράσης, μέσα από τις οποίες προσδιορίζεται η πολυπλοκότητα των δράσεων κάθε πλαισίου. Η διάσταση των βασικών ικανοτήτων, που είναι απαραίτητες για την ανάληψη της κάθε δράσης – δραστηριότητας από τους εργαζόμενους, προσδιορίζουν ένα αναγκαίο στοιχείο ώστε ο κάθε εργαζόμενος να μπορεί να διεκπεραιώνει με επιτυχία τις δράσεις κάθε πλαισίου. Τέλος, οι (προ)απαιτούμενες κανονιστικές αντιλήψεις, που διαμορφώνουν και τις αντίστοιχες στάσεις και συμπεριφορές των εργαζομένων και των ομάδων διακύβευσης συμφερόντων. Τα πλαίσια δράσεων στηρίζονται σε (αλληλεξαρτώνται με) τρία διαφορετικά συστήματα. Το λειτουργικό σύστημα, που περιλαμβάνει, την οργανωσιακή κουλτούρα και κλίμα και την επικοινωνιακή πρακτική. Το προσωποδυναμικό (ατομικό) σύστημα, που περιλαμβάνει τις νοοτροπίες και αξίες κάθε εργαζόμενου, τις ατομικές ανάγκες, τις γνωστικές και αντιληπτικές ικανότητες και τη συναισθηματική νοημοσύνη. Το κοινωνικό και αγοραίο σύστημα (περιβάλλον). Το μοντέλο αυτό παρουσιάζεται σχηματικά στο επόμενο σχεδιάγραμμα.

**ΠΡΟΤΥΠΟ ΠΛΑΙΣΙΩΝ ΔΡΑΣΕΩΝ ΤΟΥ ΑΝΘΡΩΠΙΝΟΥ ΔΥΝΑΜΙΚΟΥ
ΣΤΟΥΣ ΧΩΡΟΥΣ ΕΡΓΑΣΙΑΣ**

Τομέας Δράσης: Επτέλεσης Καθημερινού Έργου

Στόχευση Πλασίων: Καθημερινή Εργασιακή Ολοκλήρωση

Ιστική Ρύθμιση: Αποδοτική και Αποτελεσματική Λειτουργικότητα της Εργασιακής Καθημερινότητας

Διάσταση Σύνδεση: Σύζευξη του Ατομικού και του Συλλογικού (Ομαδικού) Έργου

Ικανότητες Βάση: Υψηλός Εργασιακός Αυτοέλεγχος και Δεξιότητα Συστηματικής Συνεργασίας

(Προ)Απαιτούμενες Αντιλήψεις: Αποδοχή της Συστηματικής και Ουσιαστικής Αυτοαξιολόγησης Απόδοσης Έργου

Τομέας Δράσης: Διάρθρωσης Στρατηγικών Επιχειρησιακών Στόχων και η Πραγμάτωσή τους

Στόχευση Πλασίων Δράσης: Επιβίωση της Επιχειρήσης / οργανισμού στο αγοράσιο και κοινωνικό περιβάλλον

Ιστική Ρύθμιση: Οριοθέτηση και Συντονισμό του Στόχου των Επιχειρησιακών Δράσεων

Διάσταση Σύνδεση: Σύζευξη Εξωτερικού (Αγοράς) και Εσωτερικού Περιβάλλοντος

Ικανότητες Βάση: Αναλυτικές και Συνθετικές Ικανότητες [Ανάλυση και Σύνθεση Δεδομένων], Σχεδιασμού και Επικοινωνίας

(Προ)Απαιτούμενες Αντιλήψεις: Εργαζομένων: Αποδοχή και Στήριξη των Επιχειρησιακών Στόχων

-Επιχειρησιακή Κουλτούρα
-Επιχειρησιακό Κλίμα
-Επικοινωνιακό Σύστημα

-Επαγγελματική και Κοινωνική Ταυτότητα Εργαζομένων:
*Νοοτροπίες και Αξιακά Πρότυπα,
*Ατομικές Ανάγκες,
*Γνωστικές Ικανότητες,
*Συναίσθηματική Νοημοσύνη.

-Επιχειρηματικό (Αγοράσιο) / Κοινωνικό Περιβάλλον

Τομέας Δράσης: Διεκδίκησης Συγκρουόμενων Συμφερόντων

Στόχευση Πλασίων: Ατομική, Συλλογική και Επιχειρησιακή Επιβίωση / Επιβεβαίωση Ιστική Ρύθμιση: Εργασιακή / Οργανωσιακή Διασφάλιση

Διάσταση Σύνδεση: Σύζευξη Ατομικού, Συλλογικού Συμφερόντος και Συμφερόντων Οργανισμού / Επιχειρήσης

Ικανότητες Βάση: Σχεδιασμού Κατάλληλων Δράσεων, Επικοινωνίας και Αποτελεσματικής Διαπραγμάτευσης

(Προ)Απαιτούμενες Αντιλήψεις: Η Κατά Περίπτωση Κατανόηση των Πραγματικών Διακυβευμάτων

Τομέας Δράσης: Πραγματικότητας της Συστηματικής Αλλαγής

Στόχευση Πλασίων: Προσπάθεια Καθημερινής Προσαρμογής

Ιστική Ρύθμιση: Ενδέσμημένη Διαρκής Αναπροσαρμογή

Διάσταση Σύνδεση: Σύζευξη Παλαιού και Νέου

Ικανότητες Βάση: Αντίληψη Εργασιακών Θεμάτων / Μετασχηματισμός της Γνώσης σε Νέα Δράση

(Προ)Απαιτούμενες Αντιλήψεις: Αποδοχή του Νέου και της Καινοτομικής Πραγματικότητας

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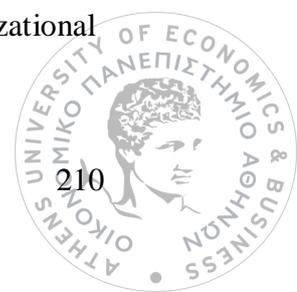
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II. ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR



1. LIVING AND LEADING CONSCIOUSLY: A ROAD MAP FOR MOVING FROM TOXIC TO VIRTUOUS LEADERSHIP

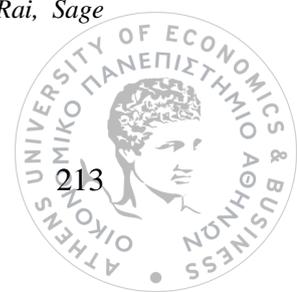
A. Bhandarker, P Singh

‘Human beings are not glorified animals they are repressed angels’ - Viktor Frankl (1)

The perennial human quest is for health, wealth, happiness and above all to be immortal and remembered. This is a universal human quest regardless of age and stage in life. We have experienced this phenomenon while dealing with students, bureaucrats, political executive as well as corporate honchos. However, in reality, few are able to achieve it all. It is perplexing that despite being endowed with great potential, human beings are unable to actualize their cherished life goals. Even in a Maslovian sense, self-actualizing people are in a miniscule minority. Thinkers and scholars globally have been wrestling with this paradox- that despite being endowed with potential, few are successful in realizing the same. This probably happens because human beings’ live life in a mechanical and myopic way. They are unaware of the blocks and barriers, which arrest them from transcending their limitations. In order to live fully, they need to move away from this toxic element of their nature and strive to move towards their virtuous side of their essential nature.

This article is primarily devoted to the journey which leaders need to take to move from their toxic nature (darkness) to their virtuous nature (light). It seeks to carve out the road map that positional leaders need to follow, in order to move from darkness to light, that is from Id to Superego, and from instinctual to conscious behavior so that they can transform themselves to become Philosopher-Kings (mentioned both in the Ramayana (the great Indian epic) and in the Socratic Dialogues – The Republic). They must also strive to move from the trapping of unconscious living and leading, to becoming fully conscious and thereby become functional, creative and productive leaders.

**Based on Chapter 4, Leadership Odyssey: Darkness to Light, P Singh, A Bhandarker and S Rai, Sage Publications, New Delhi, 2015*



It may be worthwhile to mention what the iconic guru Warren G Bennis (2) once said that if leaders are prisoners of their unconscious conspiracies, they lose their power to become fully functional and self-actualizing leaders. A similar concept has been articulated by leading thinkers like Maslow, Chris Argyris, McGregor, Eric Fromm, Viktor Frankl, Brandon, Assagioli and others from the humanistic school of thought. In sum it may be emphasized that leaders must undertake this personal pilgrimage, to move from darkness to light, to become virtuous leaders.

Our decades old experience in the corporate sector, as consultants, coach and mentors, brings out that while there is widespread prevalence of toxic leaders, virtuous leaders are in a miniscule minority in all walks of life-politics, business, bureaucracy and academia. There is a dire need for more virtuous leaders since they are the leaders who can make the difference in human life, institutions and society. Scanning the literature on virtuous leaders has powerfully shown that they have a significant and positive impact on people and organizations -see Singh et al (3). They generate high degree of commitment and high morale. They create enthusiasm, team work and pursuit of excellence by triggering the positive energy among followers. They create a performance centric work culture, encourage expression of ideas and promote creativity and innovation thereby building a winning organization.

Journey from Toxic to Virtuous Leadership

Almost all institutions of governance whether political, bureaucratic, and corporate, are currently experiencing severe crisis of leadership. Globally openness and tolerance seem to be going down and anxiety and threat perceptions seem to be increasing. Politically, the happenings across US, parts of Europe and Asia are reflecting this intolerance and anxiety. The scenario in the business sector is not very different. In many cases it is evident that politicians, bureaucrats and businessmen are mostly focused on self-aggrandizement, many times at the cost of the public they are supposed to serve. In fact a powerful nexus exists among the political elite, bureaucrats and businessmen.

The multitude of sordid scams over the last decade, amply demonstrate, the low level to which the values of corporate leaders, politicians and bureaucrats have fallen. The above cited nexus among bureaucracy, businessmen and politicians is probably a global phenomenon. However, in India it has reached unprecedented levels. In summary, the contemporary business



world is characterized by crony capitalism, exploitation and defrauding of the public exchequer. This is a depressing scenario about the manner in which most public institutions and corporate sector are managed and governed in India.

Great thinkers like Buddha, Chanakya, Confucius, Aristotle, Plato and such others, emphasized that the behavior of kings and leaders must be aligned with the contextual reality - as per time, place and people. In the light of this perennial wisdom, we now very briefly touch upon the current contextual imperatives, which powerfully influence the needed leadership competencies.

Today, the combination of I.T. and powerful media, have rendered leaders 'naked' in the public eye. In fact, figuratively speaking, leaders live in glass houses and whatever they do is closely scrutinized and observed by stakeholders and above all the media. Stakeholders' expectations from leaders are so high that leaders are expected to be holier than the pope, with teeth whiter than the blood hound.

From the above, it can be briefly concluded that we need leaders who are characterized by integrity, transparency and ethical orientation. They must have competency to tolerate ambiguity and complexities, as well as manage things both objectively and pragmatically. They must develop heightened human sensitivity, humility, emotional stability and a participative approach to inspire, galvanize and channelize the energies of their followers towards the larger goal.

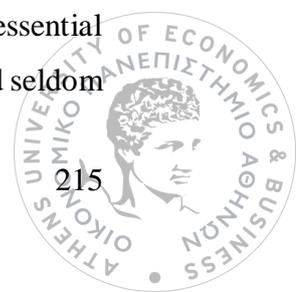
This is possible only when leaders move from toxic orientation consisting of dispositional mindsets like arrogance, close mindedness, being abusive, 'me' centric, sadist, Machiavellian, narcissistic etc. to virtuous orientation characterized by humility, honesty, heightened human sensitivity, openness, listening, intuitive power etc.

This part of the paper focuses on the following stages of the journey –

- 1) Moving from toxic to virtuous state;
- and
- 2) Developing gestalt holistic of mind;

1) Psychological blocks:

Many kinds of blocks, dilemmas and inner contradictions plague human nature and require a separate discussion. We focus herein on the most common factors which are essential to the way people function. Most human beings are in the grip of habits and routines and seldom



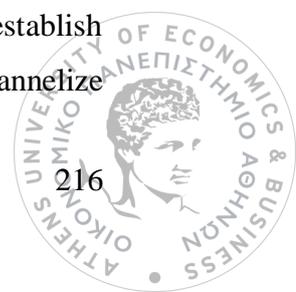
spend time living consciously. They are busy responding to daily challenges and demands and focused on fulfilling their basic needs. They realize many of their problems when it is too late to do anything about it.

This raises the following questions:

- ❖ Why do human beings lead their lives so mechanically?
- ❖ Why are they unable to move beyond their myopic and self-serving routines?
- ❖ Why are people unable to recognize their inner blocks and barriers and transcend them?
- ❖ Why is it that despite a plethora of writings and advice on the subject, only a few succeed in attaining the holy grail of self-actualization?

The answer –in our judgment- lies in the way human beings lead and live their lives. Unfortunately, they seldom question and reflect on why they do things in a certain way and the likely consequences of their actions. They are in fact trapped by their own unconscious conspiracies, the power of habit and their reluctance to confront life’s challenges. Many times, they are in the grip of tamo-guna, id, bad habits, toxic orientation, arrogance, narcissism and focused on self and self-preservation. Most senior level executives in our experience suffer from the delusion that they are always right and that they are paragons of all wisdom with a monopoly on the truth. They are therefore incapable of self-regulation- that is reflect, introspect and reexamine their purpose in life. Thus, they are unable to create escape velocity which is essential for them to move from one orbit of living to the next. They are trapped by the power of gravitational pulls within themselves which pull them downwards and restrict them from changing, transforming and becoming fully actualizing human beings.

The biggest block between a person’s intention to change and action to achieve this change, is the power of one’s unconscious conspiracy, which exerts relentless pressure to keep one from changing and transcending to a higher level of self. The biggest challenge is therefore to manage one’s own unconscious conspiracy. This is possible –as mentioned earlier- only when the person creates escape velocity, like the rocket which moves to the next orbit. In other words, this escape velocity has to exceed the gravitational forces of his toxic side. This is possible by training one’s energy to consciously move from the toxic side to the virtuous side – from darkness to light. The most powerful device in this quest is continued self-reflection and mindfulness in thinking ahead regarding the likely consequences of one’s actions. Above all, human beings need to clarify their highest life philosophy, meaning and purpose, and establish clarity on how they would like to be remembered. Such clarity will help them to re-channelize



their energy towards becoming self-actualizing, fully productive and creative human beings. This will enable them to discard their toxicity and replace it with the power of enlightenment. They need to continuously confront and challenge themselves in the words of Swami Vivekananda, (one of India's great sages of the 19th century) to 'Arise, Awake and Stop not till the Goal is achieved'. They must live life mindfully and consciously at their highest level of Self. This Self must be in charge of the total person so that the energies of the lower self can be redirected and channelized meaningfully.

We strongly believe in the ancient Indian wisdom cited below that all human beings have abundant potential and power to become virtuous leaders:

Every Akshara (alphabet) has the power of mantra.

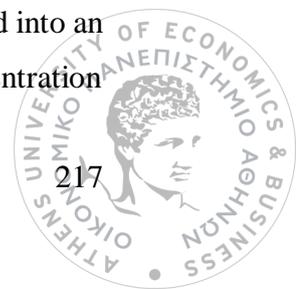
Every plant has medicinal value;

Every human being is a competent human being with a reservoir of vast potential

What he lacks is strong will; determination; the right mentoring; and clarity of life goal.(4)

In our experience most leaders don't see life holistically and live in a conditioned manner, mechanically and in an autopilot mode. Position holders with such mindsets are preponderantly governed by the sensory-motor centric mind, characterized by photogenic lens and video graphic capability –metaphorically speaking. Whatever they see and hear is recorded and imprinted in the mind. Those experiences and events and interactions which cause pain, anxiety, conflict and unpleasantness normally get suppressed into the unconscious level of the psyche and are subsequently expressed in terms of biases, stereotypes and prejudices, significantly affecting their interactions and behaviour. Similarly, certain positive events and experiences may also- for various reasons-, get relegated to the unconscious. Human behavior therefore is significantly affected by contents of the unconscious mind as brought out by the famous analogy of the iceberg implying that most of human behavior is driven by the unconscious self.

Describing the workings of the human being, the Katha-Upanishad –an Ancient Indian scripture (5 & 6) used the analogy of the chariot. It likened the human being to a chariot; the Self is the Lord of the Chariot; the intellect is viewed as the charioteer; and the sense organs are considered to be horses. If these horses (senses) are not controlled by the charioteer (intellect); they may run amok and pull the chariot (human being) in any direction they wish. In other words, if the sensory centric and conditioned mind is not trained and converted into an intellect and wisdom centric mind (characterized by volition), there is lack of concentration



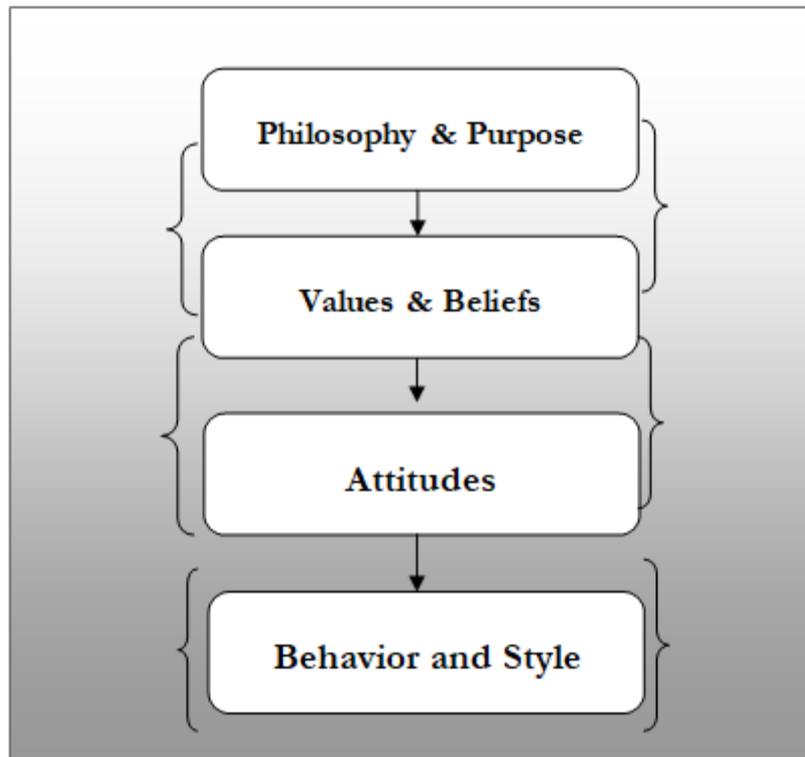
and lack of a meditative mind, both being essential for tranquility and mental stillness. Mind without equanimity, peace and tranquility is restless, hyperactive and devoid of balanced judgment. Describing the workings of the human mind, Swami Chinmayananda in his commentary on the Gita (7) said it is like a tree which emerges from a seed, the source of all evil starts from our own wrong thinking or false imagination/ delusion. Thought is creative. It can make us or mar us. If rightly harnessed by controlling the sense organs, it can be used for constructive purposes; if misused it can totally destroy us. When one constantly thinks upon a sense object, the consistency of thought creates in him an attachment for the object of his thought; and when more and more thoughts flow towards an object of attachment, they crystallize to form a burning desire for possession and enjoyment of the object of attachment. The same force of motivation when directed towards obstacles that threaten the non-fulfillment of one's desires, is called *krodha* (anger); from anger comes delusion; from delusion loss of memory, and the destruction of discrimination; from the destruction of discrimination he perishes⁷.

It is in this perspective that Nathaniel Branden's (8) observation is quite meaningful. He says 'the tragedy of so many people is precisely that to a large extent, they live mechanically; they don't examine their motives, thoughts and actions and react in auto-pilot mode in a robotic fashion. They respond to events through the prism of stereotypes, rather than examining realities and dealing with them'. Therefore, their responses and actions are devoid of reality check.

They wrongly assess themselves and the environment which results in illusions and delusions, misplaced judgments, denial, poor decisions and actions. Such people (and by extension leaders) therefore lead unproductive, and uncreative lives and are unable to successfully meet the challenges which life throws up. In a nutshell, they don't live their lives consciously; they are not in touch with reality and do not live in a fully functioning, productive and creative manner. Needless to say, it is such people who become toxic leaders. To become virtuous leaders, it is essential for them to lead life consciously. This is only possible when there is clarity of life purpose, life goal and life role which in our experience, many leaders do not possess. The aphorism, 'begin with the end in mind', tells us that we must be clear about where we are headed and steer the ship of our lives in that direction.



MODEL 1 : From Philosophy to Behavior



Model 1 depicts the above cited aphorism (begin with the end in mind), highlighting the role of philosophy, purpose of existence, their influence on values and beliefs, thereby affecting leader behavior and styles. The odyssey to virtuous leadership will therefore have to commence from clarity regarding life philosophy, purpose and goal. To be a virtuous leader therefore it is absolutely essential to understand and clarify the purpose and meaning of one's own existence.

Unless leaders engage in such reflection and exploration, they would not be in a position to activate their higher-level energies; move from unconscious to conscious self; and from physical and materialistic self to spiritual self as mentioned earlier. Unless they tread this path of exploration and self- discovery, they will not grow as virtuous leaders, notwithstanding the abundance of potential residing in them. They will be consumed with material and physical desires, greed, envy, jealousy etc., which will keep them in the grip of self-gratification and push them in a toxic direction.

To move from toxicity to virtuousness, understanding the essence of the following prayer is extremely important.

Asato Maa Sat Gama Ya -- Lead me from Untruth to Truth

Tamaso Maa Jyotir Gama Ya-- Lead me from Darkness (Ignorance) to Light (enlightenment)

Mrtymorā Amritam Gama ya-- Lead me from Mortality to Immortality (9)

It is important to mention that this prayer is universal in its nature – similar prayers are common across various cultures and religions. The essence of this prayer is generally accepted as the path to becoming a virtuous person and a virtuous leader. This is because only truthful persons can be courageous, bold, fearless and overcome all adversities. The enlightened leader can be more objective, judicious, unbiased, prudent and can take decisions, giving foremost consideration for equity, justice and fairness. Leaders desiring to be immortal will lead a contributing life and leave a legacy and footprints on the sands of time. Examining the lives of Gandhi, Mandela, Lincoln, Roosevelt, Jamsetji Tata, G D Birla, J R D Tata, Akio Morita, Henry Ford, Andrew Carnegie, Fulbright, Einstein, Newton, Edison and many such leaders, shows that they amply symbolized the above-mentioned qualities. It is no wonder that in the annals of history, they are considered to be transformational and virtuous leaders, having made immense contributions to make a difference to communities, organizations and nations.

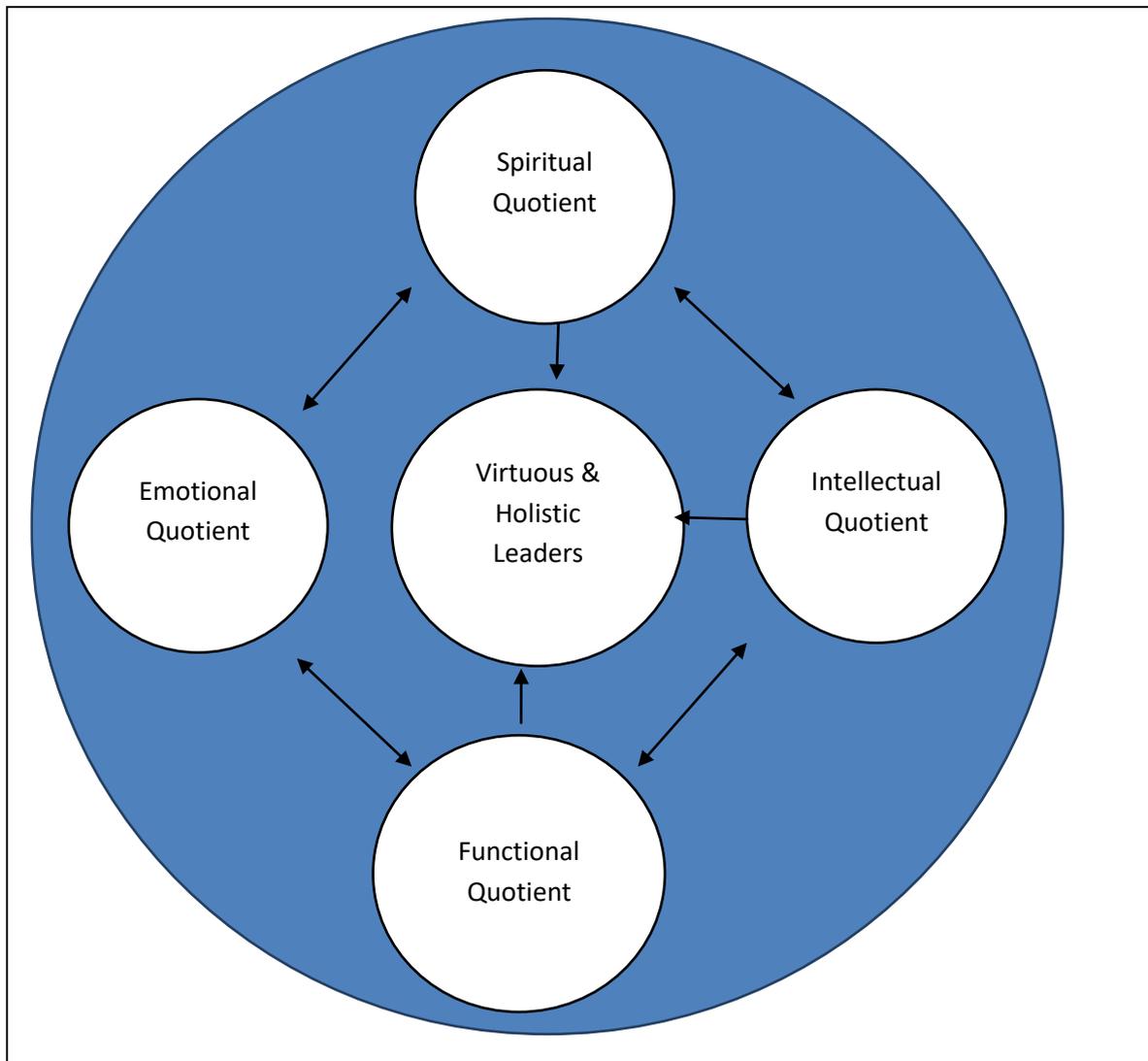
Towards Gestalt Holisticity:

A virtuous leader must be holistically healthy in terms of all the four levels of self – physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual. Once the leader develops gestalt holisticity- that is integrated self- he attains the highest level of complex capability as indicated in the following quote by Lao-Tzu – ‘An integral being knows without going; sees without looking and accomplishes without doing’ (10). In order to move from toxicity to virtuousness, it is important for role holders and leaders to have a holistic understanding of who they are as human beings. The following model powerfully depicts all the four levels of self at which development is required to become a virtuous and holistic leader.

It may be worthwhile to mention that these four levels of self are closely connected and interrelated and have a significant influence on each other. These four levels need to be aligned and operate synchronously. The state of equilibrium which ensues enables leaders to become virtuous and holistic in their thoughts, feelings and actions. If any of them is not adequate in their functioning, there is a break in the operational alignment, and leads to imbalance across all the four self-levels. In other words we are propounding the paradigm of gestalt holisticity in the functioning of the self. This would operate like a symphony, effortlessly producing melody by coordinating across multiple instruments.



MODEL 2: VIRTUOUS & HOLISTIC LEADER



The relevance of developing each level of self to become a holistic and virtuous leader is now discussed in greater detail below:

Physical Self:

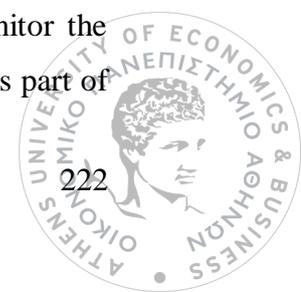
In the last 30 years of our work in the corporate world, we have seen that those leaders who have made the difference, those who have been excellence seekers, those who have been contribution centric and those who have left a powerful legacy, used to stretch and work hard, much more than ordinary managers. They believed that hard work alone pays in life and worked long hours stretching into $\overrightarrow{16}$ -hour work days; frequently travelling nationally and globally (about two weeks in a month) was a way of life for them. They were always connected with

their stakeholders through different media- email, sms, whats-app, twitter - and what's more, they were prompt in responding to messages which they received from them even at odd hours.

Those leaders aspiring to be Virtuous leaders have to be in peak physical condition, in order to cope with the ravages of travel, meetings and long hours of work. When the leader's health does not support him, then living such a physically demanding life- which is a reality in today's corporate world- will be well nigh impossible. Many are the cases where leaders have experienced stress related burnouts at a young age. It is in this perspective that the adage, 'Shareer madhyam khalu dharma sadhanam' (11)- the body is the vehicle for the pursuit of dharma- duty, is very apt. Therefore, developing a healthy body is sine qua non for effectively pursuing one's life goal and effectively discharging one's role and in turn laying the foundations to become a virtuous leader. A myriadways have been suggested for developing physical fitness- various techniques of exercise, sports and games, healthy diet, and a disciplined life. Findings from the study by Bhandarker and Singh (12) powerfully brings out that those who lead disciplined lives and regularly exercised and maintained a healthy diet, were more capable of managing stress and tension without falling sick. In contrast, those who did not practice the above were less healthy and more prone to illnesses besides being unable to manage their stress (13).

It may be worthwhile to highlight the role of yoga for building a healthy body characterized by flexibility, stamina and overall fitness. It is possible to develop a healthy body through the practice of yoga asanas that is yoga postures. We are briefly highlighting below the important role of yoga asanas in building health.

Asanas are a form of physical exercise encompassing muscles, nerves and glands in the body. They help to develop a fine physical architecture, which is strong and elastic and not muscle bound. It keeps the body healthy and free from disease and leads to the reduction of fatigue and significantly soothes the nerves. Its greater impact however is the manner in which it also trains and disciplines the mind (14). By performing asanas, one achieves complete equilibrium of different parts of the physical system. In fact, since the physical self, intellectual self, emotive self and spiritual self -as mentioned earlier- are closely connected with each other, achievement of physical health through yogasanas also significantly affect the mental, emotional and spiritual self. Deepak Chopra in his book the seven spiritual laws of success (15) says that the human body is like a symphony. 'A single cell in the human body is doing about six trillion things per second and it has to know what every other cell is doing at the same time. The human body can play music, kill germs, make a baby, recite poetry and monitor the movement of the stars all at the same time. Because the field of infinite correlation is part of



its information field. Human nervous system can command organizing power through conscious intent. Intent in the human species is not fixed or locked into a rigid network of energy and information. It has infinite flexibility’.

Such healthy and physically fit individuals demonstrate higher capability to handle conflicts, emotional tensions and stress. By practicing asanas, dualities like loss and gain, victory and defeat, fame and shame, body and mind and mind and soul, significantly vanish (15, 16, 17). It is therefore viewed as the fundamental vehicle to pursue dharma, as mentioned earlier.

It is in this framework that we strongly recommend yoga for building a healthy body- which is one of the prerequisites to become a holistic and virtuous leader. It may be noteworthy to mention that the present Prime Minister of India -Narendra Modi regularly practices yoga and manages to put in long working hours getting to sleep only for 3 hours every day. Today yoga has gained worldwide acclaim and following and in recognition of the same, 21 June has been declared Yoga Day by the United Nations.

Mental Self:

The contemporary business world can be aptly described as a world of competitive wars. In fact, today we see the Darwinian principle –survival of the fittest- in full blown form in the corporate world. All the leaders are fiercely battling, combating and competing for their very survival. This business war is very complex, uncertain, volatile and turbulent. Leaders are fighting without being aware, either of the enemy or of the territory. Such complexity of the business scenario has contributed to phenomenon like sleeplessness, tension, mental turbulence, anxiety, fear as well as many psychosomatic diseases.

To become a virtuous leader in such a situation, it is essential to develop a mental state which is steady, tranquil, peaceful and restful. When the leader is able to develop such a mental state he is able to plan, prioritize and organize effectively to cope with the above mentioned problems, issues and challenges. In fact, human beings are driven by the power of thought and hence it is extremely critical to keep the mind in balance.

There are many modes available to develop mental balance- Transcendental meditation, Art of Living, Vipassana meditation techniques as well as Relaxation Response techniques. However, we will be focusing on Pranayama (breath techniques which form a part of Yoga) as the key technique to develop mental balance. The utility of pranayama has also been experienced by the two authors.

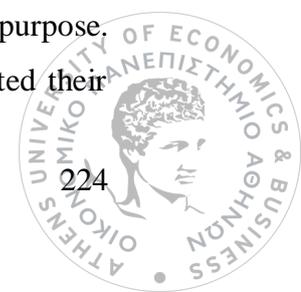


We now briefly write on the role of pranayama in developing mental health, moving from sensory motor centric mind to intellect centric and wisdom centric mind. Pranayama is both science and art of breathing and consists of rhythmic breathing at a slow pace which results in tranquility and peace. The practice of pranayama is based on three basic practices of breathing- inhaling, exhaling and holding the breath. By following rhythmic principles of all the three, one develops mastery over the technique. It fundamentally leads to slowing down the pace of breathing, leading to longevity of life. In fact, according to yogic principles, fast breathing leads to shorter life spans. Further it is worthwhile to mention that slow breathing strengthens the respiratory system, soothes the nerves and reduces tensions and cravings. Reduction of cravings leads to a steady mind and puts it in a calm and restful state. In other words, when desires and senses are controlled, the mind is calm and still. In contrast when desires and cravings are not controlled, they lead to disarray, making the mind agitated, restless, unsteady and troubled.

In the practice of pranayama, since the eyes are shut, all external sensory stimuli are blocked, thus keeping the mind peaceful, calm and still, a prerequisite for meditation. During pranayama, it may be worthwhile to highlight that one experiences lesser and lesser excitation of the thinking process until one transcends thought completely and arrive at the source of thought- pure consciousness. Here the mind is silent. During this process, one finds that breathing gradually slows down, signifying a decrease in metabolic rates. In medical terms a state of homeostasis or balance is established. As mentioned earlier, it may be reemphasized that the mind which is peaceful, calm and equanimous, enables a leader to take prudent and objective decisions. A balanced mind is capable of seeing issues at multiple levels, and therefore bring holistic perspective in deciding what is good and appropriate for all stakeholders. It helps individuals to become holistic and virtuous leaders. Contrary to this, an agitated and turbulent mind is incapable of seeing things clearly, holistically and in a detached fashion, leading to unwise decisions. Such a person is likely to be abrasive, reactive and arrogant which impairs decision making. These clearly bring out that the person in such a state can become toxic.

Emotional Self:

It is a known axiom that to be an outstanding leader, one needs -among other things- passionate and committed followers. In fact, leadership legitimacy itself hinges upon the leader's ability to create willing followers, who subscribe to the leader's thinking and purpose. Great leaders in history were those who could create such followers who propagated their



teachings and wisdom to different parts of the world. For example, Jesus could build 12 devoted followers; Buddha developed 5; and likewise, the Sikh Guru Gobind Singh also had 5 acolytes. George Washington, Gandhi, Mandela, Martin Luther King, Lincoln, Eisenhower and many other such leaders could understand this wisdom and demonstrated tremendous sensitivity towards followers; and made efforts to mentor, coach and develop them.

In today's business world, management thinkers like Jim Collins, Bennis, Kouzes and Posner, Noel Tichy, Ram Charan, Nitin Nohria and Rosabeth Moss Kanter have unanimously concluded that it is people power which provides sustainable competitive advantage. Other levers of competitive advantage such as cost leadership, quality leadership and customer and innovation centric leadership, are able to provide only temporal competitive edge since these pillars can be easily imitated and copied by competitors. It is in this perspective that we would like to highlight the importance of Virtuous Leaders developing robust capability at the emotional level which is the core requirement to connect with people, as well as enthuse, motivate and inspire them.

It may be relevant at this stage to ask the question, 'How can humanistic values, emotional sensitivity and emotional balance be heightened in a leader? This question can be appropriately answered by understanding the dominant locus of emotional power. Emotional power is said to reside specifically in the right brain, which is the seat of interpersonal, holistic, intuitive, innovative, and imaginative capabilities.

Besides this intelligence from the heart level has been found to contribute significantly to generating and sustaining positive emotions in a person (18). It has been found that people who experienced positive emotions had greater mental clarity, significant shifts in perceptions and heightened intuitive awareness. Mystics, thinkers, writers and poets like Isabelle Allende, Maya Angelou, Paulo Coelho, Joe Dispenja, Deepak Chopra, Howard Martin, Gary Zukav, Baptist de Pape and Simon Greiner have evocatively described the power of the human heart in dealing with people as well as understanding the meaning and purpose of life. The global spiritual guru, Deepak Chopra (19) stated, 'most people think, the heart is mushy and sentimental ...The heart is intuitive, it is holistic, it is contextual, it is rational... the heart has a computing ability, that is far more accurate and far more precise than anything within the limits of rational thought¹⁸.

If one listens to the silent voice of the heart, one becomes more attuned to one's holistic self. There is greater clarity about the sense of direction and purpose of life. In other words, it clarifies what one really wants out of life, besides developing awareness about what life wants



from him. Speaking about the problems besetting humanity today Deepak Chopra said, most of them are caused by the loss of one's connection with one's soul, and one's heart' (19)

'Unfortunately, in the contemporary world... we pay more attention to our mind and thoughts in day to day life than we do to our hearts. We are often locked inside our heads, having programmed ourselves to rein in our emotions and dismiss intuition... More often than not, when we face an important decision, we weigh the pros and cons and decide that the rational choice is the best one'(de Pape 20). In the whole process it is forgotten that decision making has two components- rational and emotional- the former affecting quality and the latter affecting acceptance and implementation by the people.

Great leaders like Gandhi, Mandela, Martin Luther King, George Washington, heard the inner voice of their heart and soul and despite several trials and tribulations, boldly pursued their difficult and trying agenda. Being in touch with their inner voice, gave them the courage, conviction and steadfastness to oppose mighty empires and authority figures for the right cause. The greatest quality of a Virtuous Leader is that he connects with people, establishes rapport and relates with stakeholders. In fact, it is the power of concern, compassion and love of Virtuous Leaders towards fellow human beings which manifests itself in this way. We strongly believe that the heart unites while the mind divides. In the contemporary world there is greater demand for freedom and autonomy, dignified treatment, equity and fairness. Those leaders, who are naturally predisposed positively towards people, are able to respond to these demands. They are able to enthuse, galvanize, inspire and motivate their followers. They are thus great team builders, mentors, philosophers, guides and therefore every follower would like to work with such a virtuous leader. It has been found that the practice of pranayama and meditation significantly contribute in heightening both intellectual as well as emotive power

Spiritual Level:

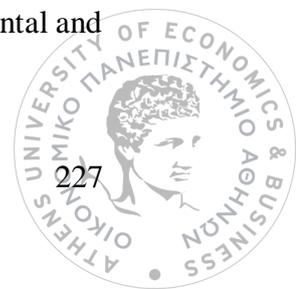
One of the greatest discoveries of humanity- in our judgment- has been the existence of God, who is believed to regulate the functioning of the universe and that of human lives. According to the ancient Hindu belief, there is a concept of rebirth and that of Karma (actions) of a previous life, which determine human destiny in a subsequent life. No one knows whether God exists, and none can emphatically aver that punarjanma (rebirth) is a reality. Perhaps belief in God is like the sheet anchor which protects one and gives hope in times of failure, defeat, loss, shame etc. In fact, God is also the last resort when the going gets tough and the one who is thanked profusely when things go right.

The following quotes further reinforce the above statement:



- Every sort of energy and endurance, of courage and capacity for handling life's evils, is set free in those who have religious faith - William James (21)
- I could feel no doubt of man's oneness with the universe... it was a feeling that transcended reason; that went to the heart of man's despair - Richard E Byrd (22)
- The beauty of the world and the orderly arrangement of everything celestial, makes us confess that there is an excellent and eternal nature which ought to be worshipped by mankind – Cicero (23)
- I cannot conceive how a man would look to heaven and say there is no God – Abraham Lincoln (24)
- I triumph still, if thou abide with me – Henry Francis Lyte (25)
- If God be with us, who can be against us? -Romans 8:31 (26)
- Lead Kindly Light... the night is dark and I am far from my home - John Henry Newman (27)
- Cast thy burden upon the Lord and he shall sustain thee - Psalms 55:22 (28)
- Lord is my strength and my shield, my heart trusteth him and I am helped - Psalm 28:7 (29)
- So, by my woes to be nearer, my God, to Thee - Genesis 28:11–19(30)
- My faith in God is complete so I am unafraid – William G Farrow (31)
- All who call on God in true faith, earnestly from the heart, will certainly be heard and will receive what they have asked and desired - Martin Luther King (32)
- Abandoning all dharmas of the mind, take refuge in me alone; I will liberate thee from all sins - Bhagavad Gita (33)

This belief system has immensely aided and provided emotional strength and courage to Virtuous leaders like Gandhi, Mandela, Lincoln, Roosevelt and many other great leaders. These leaders took the difficult path, experienced great trials and tribulations and yet came out of it all victorious perhaps because of their faith. Their belief in the saying 'this too shall pass away' kept them mentally and emotionally balanced. They believed that without divine assistance nothing is possible and that with it nothing is impossible. Those virtuous leaders, who believe in spirituality and the existence of an almighty God, are courageous, unafraid to face even death and are able to take great risks for the larger cause of their people. No wonder such leaders could change the course of history, through the power of their faith. We would like to reiterate here that the path of yoga enables people to experience the bliss which lies beyond mental and emotional stillness.



We would like to however caution leaders aspiring to move from their toxic side to their virtuous side to practice yoga and meditation, under the guidance of a Master who can teach them the right approach. Finally, it may be worthwhile to reemphasize that one will have to make efforts to develop and evolve all four levels of the self. Such holistic development of the self helps an individual to become a virtuous leader.

It would be worthwhile to reaffirm that by activating the virtuous side, there is every possibility for a person to become the best that he or she is capable of. It is about making the choice of how one would like to lead life- constantly moving towards the light or moving towards the darkness within one's own nature. This philosophy has been succinctly captured by David Thoreau's lines below-

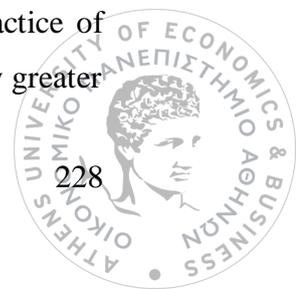
"Let go of the past and go for the future. Go confidently in the direction of your dreams. Live the life you imagined."

David Thoreau (34)

Finally, we would like to recommend Ten Commandments which can immensely help readers and leaders in their odyssey towards Virtuous leadership:

- Clarify the purpose of your existence- think of life beyond self
- Be true to yourself and listen to your inner voice
- Abandon cynicism and embrace optimism
- Be courageous and never give up in the face of adversity
- Have faith
- Do unto others what you would like others to do to you
- Let Karma, not reward be your driving force
- Look beyond, Look around and Look within
- Strive to lead a holistic life- integrating your physical, emotional, intellectual and spiritual selves
- Lead life mindfully and consciously

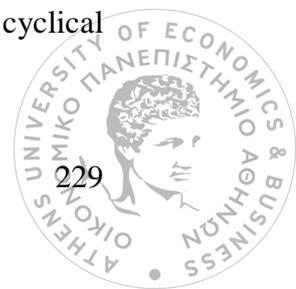
By practicing the above commandments, we are sure that the perennial human quest for health, wealth, happiness and immortality will be significantly achieved. Further practice of these commandments by everyone will contribute to create a society characterized by greater



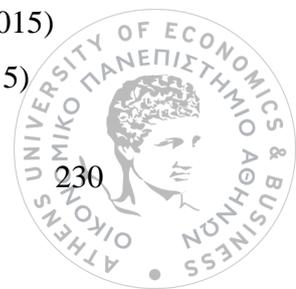
harmony with nature and with each other; a society where equity, justice and fairness will prevail; where people live with dignity and mutually work for the upliftment of all. It must be emphasized here that the creation of such a society will throw up many Virtuous leaders, a sore requirement of this jaded, cynical, corrupt contemporary world.

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2. THE CAPTIVATOR LEADER: LEADING GREATLY WITH ETHOS, PATHOS AND LOGOS

D. Bourantas, V. Agapitou

ABSTRACT

In this work, we present the concept of captivator leader. Drawing from the extensive leadership literature and the essentials of influential communication, we develop a theoretical model that takes into account the whole spectrum of human experience, that is heart, brain and soul, of both leader and followers. In other words, after having established that leadership phenomenon has been mostly studied fragmentally, we argue that leaders, future leaders and scholars can benefit from a more holistic approach to leadership.

THE CAPTIVATOR LEADER

1. Who Is That Captivator Type?

Captivating leadership is a concept that we propose for the first time here and to the best of our knowledge nothing similar has been written so far. But, as they say, good things, when short, are twice as good. Let's start right away with giving you the rationale behind the development of the concept and we will follow with the analysis of the comprising components of the concepts.

First things first, we need to understand the definition of captivator leader. During our research for this work, we came across the notion of captivator leader just once, in a “white paper” of a well-known and respected consulting and leadership training firm, the DDI (Appelbaum & Paese, 2001). In this paper, captivator leader is the one who “builds up on established foundation of trust to instill people with feeling of excitement and belonging, transfers the energy to their message in such a compelling way that people take ownership of strategy or vision and are empowered to carry it out”. Briefly for DDI captivating leadership is about passion, commitment and empowerment.

Another interesting point that can help us better understand the concept is the fact that organizations- and managers, for that matter- can buy the physical presence of people, for a certain period of time, within a particular setting and for a minimum of somatic and mental tasks. What they cannot buy though is the enthusiasm, inspiration, passion, heart, soul and mind of those people. Not because they can't afford them. Because they cannot be bought but



only earned. And this is the outcome of successful leadership and what's more of captivating leadership.

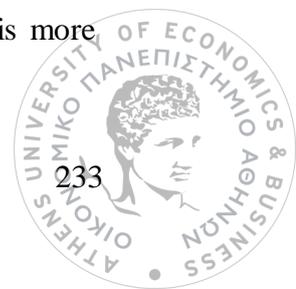
Before we continue, let's pause for a moment and do a thought experiment. We believe that it will help you grasp the concept much better than us merely presenting it to you, no matter how eloquently we might do it. So, try to remember those people in your life, be it supervisors, friends, teachers, parents or any other person that had you enchanted and charmed, and answer the following questions:

- What were your feelings and emotions during your interaction with them?
- How did you perceive them?
- What was their influence on your thinking, values, energy, choices and behaviors?

So, have you felt delight, enthusiasm, or highly energetic, excited, pleasantness, enhanced, and influenced? Were your perceptions of that person anything close to being interesting, inspiring, exciting, charming, attractive, trustworthy, benevolent, pleasant, enchanting, or fascinating? Did they catch your attention and inspired you to become more creative, and had you thinking differently, more critically and radically? If yes, then you are in accordance with the highly respected vocabularies that define the term captivator.

Thus, based on the aforementioned ideas and taking into consideration the vast number of leader definitions that can be found in the relevant literature, we define captivator leader as following. The captivator leader is a leader who, by exercising positive and creative influence on the *mind*, *hearts* and *soul* of the people around them, affects them emotionally and intellectually, and makes them want to behave and act rightly. Through this influential process, people expand their possibilities (potential) and give their best selves both individually and collectively for extraordinary achievements and a better future. And *when* people perform at the best of their abilities and draw on universal values they can achieve extraordinary results, changes are more feasible and acceptable, and there are greater chances that life of both leaders and followers will become more meaningful and fulfilling. Also, in line with Aristotelian thinking, personal eudemonia, euphoria and happiness will be gradually associated with collective happiness, and people will want to work and strive for the "common good", which refers to policies, decisions, and actions that are beneficial for most or all members of a given community or society (Kashdan, Biswas-Diener & King, 2008). Now, let us elaborate a bit more on the defining characteristics of this type of leader:

1. The captivator leader strives for the euphoria, eudemonia and happiness of their followers. The concept of captivation as will see in the next pages is more



extended and inclusive than the motivation, commitment, empowerment and engagement.

2. The captivator leader emerges across all hierarchical levels and in all types of collective entities such as organizations, classrooms, families, societies.
3. What the captivator passes on is better than what they found; better people, institutions, organizations and so on. Their legacy matters because it is connected with people; the final test of such a leader is whether the people that stay behind have the *conviction* and *will* to carry on.
4. The captivator leader does not employ improper ways to influence others; they are not demagogues, populists, charlatans or hegemonic.
5. Captivator leaders excel and influence through their decisions, roles, and behaviors but mainly through captivating communication which is based on ethos, pathos and logos.
6. All captivator leaders are leaders but all leaders are not captivators.

Are you getting an idea of what a captivator leader is all about? To make things clearer, we have generated several questions according to which we will unfold the dimensions of the captivating leadership model. Before posing them though, it is important to underline that the approach we have adopted is holistic and systemic. According to holistic approaches, thinking isn't simply "out of the box", but instead it believes that it removes the box altogether (Quatro, Waldman & Galvin, 2007). In this sense, with our model, we aspire that business people will find ways to develop entirely new mindsets and beliefs about their companies and their roles within them (see figure).

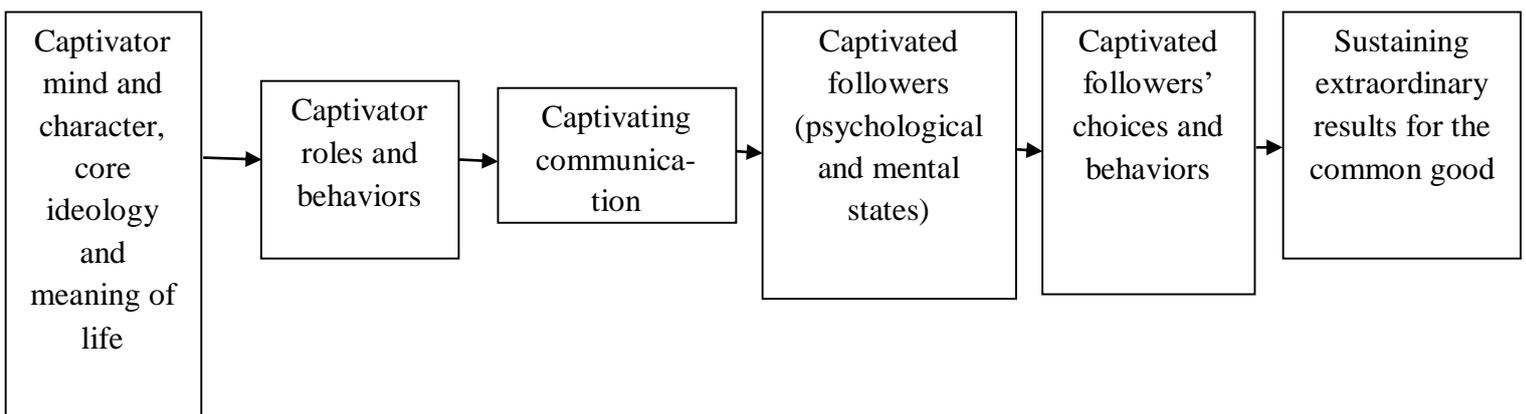
- Who is that captivated follower? What are their characteristics? In what ways are they changed after having interacted with a captivating leader? Captivated followers constitute a key idea in our model, since they are the ultimate goal of captivating leadership. However, -and this is an important contribution- we have mentioned earlier that the *raison d' être* of captivating leadership is promoting common good. Therefore, it is safe to argue that captivated followers are also the means towards the common good, since they will benefit themselves.
- Through which particular roles, behaviors and attitudes do leaders captivate their followers in order to guide them to extraordinary performances?
- Which are those personality traits that need to be developed as to have a leader that captivates us?



- Given that the roles and behaviors can be viewed as the outcome of the important decisions that we make, then we cannot ignore the cognitive aspect of captivator leaders, i.e. the qualities of thinking and effective decision making or problem solving.
- How do captivating leaders communicate with their followers? Without communication, there is no influence. Without communication, there are no meaningful human relationships.
- How do the character and the competencies of the captivator leader develop in order to practice captivating leadership effectively?

Following is a schematic representation of the answers to the questions above. Stay assured. You will understand more in the next few pages.

Figure 1: A holistic approach of captivating leadership



2. The Captivated Followers: Taking a Step Forward From the Concepts of Satisfaction, Motivation, Commitment, Empowerment and Engagement

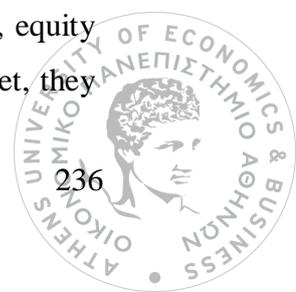
To achieve sustained organizational effectiveness and success while being highly competitive is a process that requires efficiency and productivity, innovativeness, organizational learning and continuous adaptation to changes, exceptional customer service and relationships. Strategy, organizational structure and processes, systems and the technology all play a significant role to the above. But without the knowledge, abilities and willingness of the people within the organizations to perform at their best and do the right things right, none of those are possible. The human capital, which is a term that includes the intellectual, emotional and social capital, is by far the most crucial contributor for the sustaining success of the modern

organizations. Indeed, if you think about it, it is the people that make and implement the important or the not-so important decisions that determine all the other factors of success.

During the last decades, we have seriously expanded our knowledge firstly on the ‘why’ and following on ‘how’ and ‘what’ organizations and managers should do so that their people perform at their best both as individuals and as members of a team (Hamel, 2006). As a result, the notions of motivation, commitment, empowerment and lately engagement have been employed and enriched to serve this purpose. However, the challenges that leaders face nowadays have somehow moved away from the traditional supervisor-employee format (Romeike, Wohlers, Hertel & Schewe, 2016). As follows, we notice a void in the development of new ideas and practices which the contemporary leader could use in order to meet the difficult challenges of the modern business world. It is our strong belief that the concept of captivated leadership opens the road for a more holistic and integrated understanding of the leadership processes, better grasps the conditions within modern organizations operate while at the same time appreciates the new type of employees. Let us start by presenting the traditional ideas upon which we have built our ideas.

2.1. Satisfied and motivated people.

Motivation is one of the first subjects that was found at the centre of research, consultancy, training and organizational behavior. However, even outside organizations, parents and teachers have also been preoccupied with the issue of motivation, because they wanted to know more on how to inspire and drive their children to achieve more, to give their best selves or to behave in a prescribed manner. When we are talking about motivated people, we practically refer to those individuals who feel the need to put extra effort and are driven by an internal desire to achieve high end results in whatever they do. Now, let’s transfer this to the workplace. There have been developed numerous theories in an attempt to explain this multi-dimensional and rather psychological concept (Johnson & Nandy, 2015). One of those theories has been proposed by F. Herzberg (1967) and although has received attention, contemporary organizations do not seem to adopt his premises. According to his theory, the satisfying employees are not necessarily the motivated ones; in other words, we might as well have employees that do not have anything to complain about, but at the same time they do not feel motivated to perform at their best. Trying to fathom this phenomenon, Herzberg suggested that job satisfaction and motivation are two distinct ideas. Particularly, he said that employees are satisfied by the salaries, the work conditions, the relationships, the sense of security, equity and justice, the supervision, and the work process. When these conditions are not met, they



feel dissatisfied and they either leave the organization or in cases of lack of alternatives, they remain but they perform poorly and demonstrate negative behaviors. However, if the management fixes the aforementioned conditions, the employees may be satisfied but motivation is still an issue. Putting it differently, satisfied employees do not necessarily feel motivated, and it is very possible that they perform at their minimum standards with the only purpose to keep the job. On the contrary, motivation is considered a whole different story. Herzberg argues for the existence of motivating factors, such as the sense of achievement, the recognition of contributions, the interest of the job itself and how significant and meaningful employees find it, the opportunities for personal development and career advancement, the freedom of initiative and the participation in decisions concerning their jobs (see figure 2).

Figure 2: Two-factor Model of Motivation

Hygiene factors/Dissatisfiers	Motivators/Satisfiers
1. company policy and administration	1. achievement
2. supervision	2. recognition
3. relationship with supervisor	3. work itself
4. work conditions	4. responsibility
5. salary	5. advancement
6. relationship with peers	6. growth
7. personal life	
8. relationship with subordinates	
9. status	
10. security	

2.2. Committed people.

Although what we know about motivation is of extreme importance and usefulness for both managers and organizations (for example, this is how HR policies are shaped), we still cannot explain the high degree of turnover of talented and capable people, who leave the organizations seeking for better working alternatives (Esmaeili, 2016). This theoretical gap led to the development of the idea of organizational commitment. Initially, the concept was used to measure how committed to the organization employees were. The three components that made up the idea of organizational commitment were (Meyer & Allen, 1991):

- A strong desire to remain member of the organization

- A strong belief and acceptance of the values and goal of the organization
- A readiness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization

Later on, the idea of commitment has been evolved to include the degree to which employees are committed to their leader (Kim, Eisenberger & Baik, 2016). So, commitment to supervisor practically means that the subordinates experience the following:

- Loyalty to supervisor
- Identification with the supervisor character and accomplishments
- Internalization of the supervisors values
- Willingness to dedicate to the supervisor or seek and promote the supervisor's welfare at the expense of personal interests
- Willingness to exert extra effort and behalf of the supervisor
- Desire to be attached to or follow the supervisor

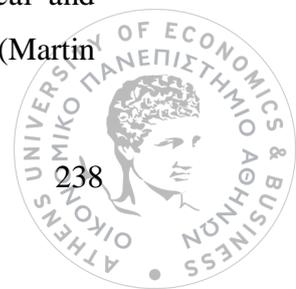
2.3. Empowered people.

The two aforementioned concepts of motivation and commitment refer to the degree that people want to remain in the organization and to the amount of effort they exert in order to achieve excellent performance. However, when we are talking about extraordinary employee performance, focusing only on wants it does not complete the picture. To do so, it is imperative to take a look at their abilities, which in turn reflects on their wants. The idea of empowerment has been developed to describe the process according to which employees recognize and use their resources (Zimmerman, 1995). It is based on the idea that giving employees authority, opportunity, motivation, as well holding them responsible and accountable for outcomes of their actions, will contribute to their competence and performance. Empowerment has been found to be characterized by the following dimensions:

- Sense of purpose (meaning)
- Sense of competence
- Sense of self-determination (feeling of control)
- Sense of impact (belief one's efforts) can make the difference

2.4. Engaged people.

Recently, motivation and commitment have been combined to form a newly developed concept, which is defined as engagement. Engagement is seen as a psychological and attitudinal state which is above and beyond satisfaction, motivation and commitment (Martin



& Dowson, 2009). A number of authors describe engagement with terms like passion, commitment, willingness to invest to oneself and effort to help the organization to succeed. Engagement also encompassed the eudemonic dimension of pleasantness, enthusiasm and happiness (Stairs & Galpin, 2010). The engaged people “give their all”, demonstrate high levels of activation and energy, take initiatives and proactively seek opportunities to contribute. This stream of recent was vigorously adopted by the organizations with the purpose to create and reinforce a positive organizational climate and improve work conditions, internal communication, human resources management systems, organizational culture and leadership skills of managers.

2.5. Captivated people.

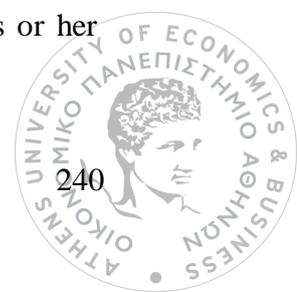
The concepts we have discussed thus far, namely motivation, commitment, empowerment and engagement, share a lot of common ideas, they are interdependent, and they have proven to be of particular usefulness for all types of organizations and leaders. However, our experience and research both converge that all these concepts also share two weaknesses. The first weakness relates to the fact that all concepts have been conceptualized as being the *means* to achieving organizational results. This conceptualization does not take into account the fact that people, when they go to work, they do not leave parts of their self at home. Instead, they are coming as whole to the organizations they work in, bringing in their thoughts, desires, fears, emotions etc. This is of extreme importance, especially in our days, where the work-shifts extend way beyond the forty hours, thus rendering the time we spend working a significant period of our lifetime. Therefore, we believe that all ideas relating to the well-being of people working in modern organizations, such as satisfaction, happiness, pleasantness, and meaning, should not be considered only as a means towards better organizational results, but rather as a means and ends at the same time. In other words, we should make this shift and start viewing well-being as a goal per se and not as a way to increase organizational profits. The second weakness relates to the fact that none of the aforementioned concepts entails all the dimensions which determine the eudemonia, euphoria, well-being and happiness of people working in the organizations.

Therefore, in an attempt to get past these weaknesses, we propose the concept of captivation aspiring to integrate and expand all the above ideas. To this end, we need to answer three fundamental questions: firstly, what the captivated feel for the captivator, secondly, how the captivated people perceive the captivator and thirdly how the captivated eventually feel and experience. So, when people interact with captivator leaders, they end up being inspired



and influenced. It is like those interactions energize a process of transmitting positive energy from the leader to others. As a result, people feel love, admiration, affection, sympathy and compassion for their leader. Those interactions have similar effect on how people perceive their leader. We argue that the leader is perceived as being exciting, fascinating, compelling, charming, reliable etc. Now, combining the answers to the above questions, we can see the effect of captivator leaders on the emotions and thoughts of the people they interact with. So, captivated people -now- experience all sorts of positive emotions such as inspiration, enthusiasm, joy, pride and passion. Similar is the impact on thoughts; captivated people are creative, they think radically, proactively and systematically.

From the above, the notion of captivation should be understood as to hold the attention of by fascinating, enchanting, and also as deep involvement of interest. Notice that even from the very definition, captivation is a more holistic and generic term that includes the notions of motivation, commitment, empowerment, and engagement. To elaborate a bit more, think of leadership as a notion that is about carrying in your very person, something which on some scale captivates others. The notion of captivation has been carefully selected. Strangely, one is able to captivate others with fear, but the kind of leadership we are promoting here is certainly something closer to respect and the best kind of captivation is one based on inspiration- where followership happens because people are free to follow, because they see in you something which they want to invest in. The leader finds that their followership want to give their attention, but most importantly their time. The captivated people feel all the cognitive, psychological and attitudinal states of satisfaction, motivation, commitment to organization, empowerment and engagement (see table). Apart from those, though, they experience the psychological, attitudinal and mental states that result from inspiration, eudaimonia, and euphoria. Inspiration is the action of moving the intellect or emotions. Euphoria, is a Greek word, is a feeling or state of intense excitement, happiness and well-being. *Eudaimonia* another Greek word, which refers to a state of having a good indwelling spirit or being in a contented state of being healthy, **happy** and prosperous. In moral philosophy, eudaimonia is used to refer to the right actions as those that result in the well-being of an individual. In this case, well-being becomes an essential value. In a more literal sense, eudaimonia means to have a good guardian spirit. As the ultimate goal, eudaimonia is an objective state rather than a subjective state, which characterizes a well-lived life regardless of the emotional state of the one experiencing it. In a more general sense, eudaimonia can be perceived as any theory that places the personal happiness of an individual and his or her complete life at the core of ethical concern.



As follows, captivation is not a state that results through the implementation of the right policies, systems and organizational culture, nor is the outcome of a leadership vision and values. Of course, their value is not undermined but instead they take a whole new meaning under the way the leader communicates them.

Figure 3: Synopsis of the concept of captivated people

How captivated leader is perceived	What people feel for the captivator	How captivated people end to feel	How captivated people think
Compelling	Admiration	Inspired	Creatively
Charming	Affection	Enthusiastic	Rationally
Attractive	Intimacy	Passionate	Proactively
Exciting	Compassion	Proud	Radically
Benevolent	Love	Engaged	Systemically
Competent	Sympathy	Empowered	Challenging
Assertive	Empathy	Motivated	
Authentic		Committed	
Trusting		Persuaded	

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3. PUBLIC SERVICE MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG GREEK PUBLIC SECTOR EMPLOYEES

A. Krompa, D. Iordanoglou

Abstract

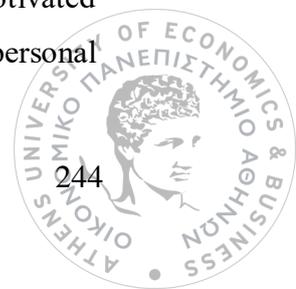
Public Service Motivation (PSM) has been attracting increased attention over the last decades. The present study aimed at examining the relationships between Public Service Motivation, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Commitment in the public sector in Greece. One hundred and fifty-three employees working at the Greek Ministry of Education participated in the study. The theoretical model of the study was tested through structural equation modeling (SEM). The results showed that Public Service Motivation had a positive effect on Job Satisfaction, which in turn had a strong, positive influence on Organizational Commitment. No direct relationship between Public Service Motivation and Organizational Commitment was found. The findings somehow contradict the widespread negative perception of the public sector in Greece, suggesting that Greek public sector employees are intrinsically motivated by a commitment to public interest, a desire to protect citizens and an inclination for personal sacrifice.

Keywords: Public Service Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Public Sector in Greece, Economic Crisis

INTRODUCTION

Public Service Motivation (PSM), *public service ethos* as called in the United Kingdom or *l'éthique du bien commun* as it is known in France, has been attracting increasing interest in the field of public administration, due to its association with a number of positive outcomes, such as performance, Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction.

In this paper, we analyzed the responses of 153 employees of the Greek Ministry of Education during a period when the public sector was mostly affected by wage reductions and shrinkage of employment due to the economic crisis. Findings may have some important implications, as they contrast with the general perception of the public sector in the country which is largely negative; instead, they suggest that Greek public sector employees are intrinsically motivated by a commitment to public interest, a desire to protect citizens and an inclination for personal



sacrifice, following to a large extent the international trends in the field. In an era when public sector is challenged to “do more with less”, management (the State) may use the results in order to develop an organizational morale grounded in Public Service Motivation.

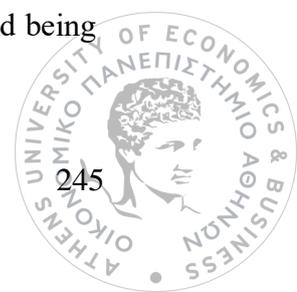
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Public Service Motivation

Perry and Wise (1990) defined Public Service Motivation as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organizations”. Brewer and Selden (1998) suggested that “PSM is the motivational force that induces individuals to perform meaningful public service”. Rainey and Steinbauer (1999) put forward a broader definition of the concept, comparing it with altruism. Vandenabeele (2007) described Public Service Motivation as “the beliefs, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate”. According to Perry and Wise (1990), an individual’s PSM may be attributed to a mixture of rational, normative and affective motives, whose influence may vary during the individual’s lifetime, depending on various personal or environmental factors.

Existing research provides evidence for the prevalence of PSM among the employees of the public sector (as compared to the employees of the private sector) in the sense that they are less motivated by external motives and more pushed by their inner drive to serve the public interest. Even though Public Service Motivation is higher in the public sector than in the private sector, this finding does not exclude the existence of the concept in the latter (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Motives to serve the public interest may cut across any sector of employment, governmental, business, or nonprofit (Wise, 2000).

According to Perry (1997), PSM is positively related to a number of antecedents, namely closeness to god, parental modeling, education and negatively associated with church involvement. Bright (2005) also found that a significant positive relationship exists between Public Service Motivation of individuals, their management level, their level of education, as well as their gender (female employees being more likely to display higher levels of PSM). Naff and Crum (1999) found that minority employees, women and individuals who had completed at least a bachelor’s degree, had higher levels of PSM. Charbonneau and Van Ryzin (2017) found that gender, age and race had no particular influence on PSM, whereas growing up in a family with a conservative point of view, growing up in a religious family, and being



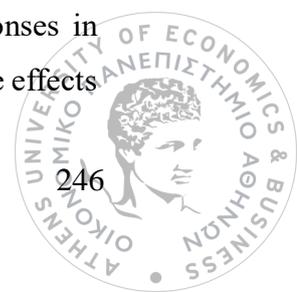
raised by a parent who served in the military appeared to be consistently associated with overall PSM levels and their sub-dimensions.

Besides social and demographic factors, there is a series of management practices that may influence Public Service Motivation of individuals (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). Transformational leadership behavior, with regard to inspirational motivation, has an influence on the individual's PSM levels (Vandenabeele, 2014). Leaders may activate altruistic motives among their subordinates by engaging peoples' existing values, delegating meaningful tasks and highlighting and rewarding values associated with serving the public interest (Paarlberg, Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). It is of significant importance that appropriate motivational techniques are in place in order to maintain or increase individuals' level of PSM during employment (Taylor, 2007).

Contrary to the general perception that financial incentives will increase individuals' motivation and performance at work, pay for performance practices do not seem to have a positive effect on PSM of public servants (Atkinson, Fulton & Kim, 2014; Bright, 2005). Taylor (2007), however, points out that employees of the public sector with high levels of PSM are not willing to accept less than satisfactory employment conditions to serve the public interest: altruistic motives are not unlimited and should in no case be taken for granted; instead, they should be encouraged and reinforced through a positive and supportive work environment.

As far as Greece is concerned research on the concept of Public Service Motivation (*stricto sensu*) is limited. Manolopoulos (2007) analyzed a sample of responses from three large state-owned corporations and concluded that extrinsic rewards were mainly used as a tool to empower and motivate employees in the extended Greek public sector. He attributed this finding to these organizations' bureaucratic structure that hinders employees' intrinsic motivation. The researcher regrets the fact that the Greek public administration does not provide for adequate levels of intrinsic satisfaction to employees (i.e. recognition for work, opportunities for scientific advancement, creativity, personal development, etc). Pay incentives appeared to be more attractive to more educated people and to employees with previous experience in the private sector, who also value intrinsic motivation less.

The empirical research on Public Service Motivation has confirmed its correlation to a series of positive work outcomes. Specifically, PSM was found to have a positive influence on Job Satisfaction, intention to remain with the organization and support for the government reform efforts (Naff & Crum, 1999). In their study of local government employees' responses in Wales, Gould-Williams, Redman and Limpanitgu (2010) found significant and positive effects



of Public Service Motivation on satisfaction and commitment. Liu, Tang and Zhu (2008) in their investigation of the existence of the concept in China, also confirmed that Public Service Motivation has an impact on Job Satisfaction. Ferdosipour and Montazeri (2012) indicated that a meaningful relationship exists between Public Service Motivation and Organizational Commitment. Crewson (1997) found evidence of PSM being positively related to Organizational Commitment among federal employees. According to Castaing (2006), PSM may significantly explain affective commitment in the French civil service. PSM has been found to have some influence on individuals' behavior. For instance, university professors with higher levels of the traditional society-oriented PSM, displayed a higher failure rate and lower grades, while those with higher user orientation, displayed lower failure rates, higher grades and also less dispersion in the grades of students (Andersen, Pallesen & Salomonsen, 2010), while Brewer and Selden (1998) found a linkage between PSM and whistleblowing. The mediating effect of compatibility has been also added to the discussion on the positive outcomes of PSM. Stein (2008) found that PSM fit (when employees can 'use' their PSM in the organization they work for) has a significant effect on Job Satisfaction and inclination to stay in the job. Another recent study (Potipiroon & Ford, 2017) revealed that the relationship between PSM and Organizational Commitment was dependent upon intrinsic motivation; when task enjoyment was high, the effect of PSM on Organizational Commitment was positive, whereas when task lacked such interest, the effect of PSM became significantly negative. Moreover, it is suggested that employees with high PSM should be appointed to jobs that contribute to society, while employees with high user orientation should be appointed to jobs that concern helping other persons (Andersen & Kjeldsen, 2013).

Job Satisfaction

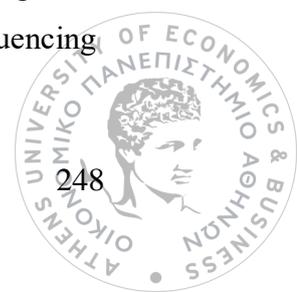
Job Satisfaction is one of the most frequently studied variables in organizational behavior research. Locke (1976) defined employee satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience. On the contrary, dissatisfaction exists when expectations are not met. According to Spector (1997:2), Job Satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and its different aspects: it is the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs. The most important antecedents of Job Satisfaction mentioned in the literature are: genetic/individual predispositions and personality traits (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal & Abraham, 1989; Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997; Saari & Judge, 2004; Staw & Ross, 1985), individual needs, values, expectations - discrepancy theory (Aamodt, 2010: 371), cultural



differences (Aamodt, 2010: 369; Silverthorne, 2005: 174), the characteristics of the job (Aamodt, 2010: 376; Saari and Judge, 2004), person-organization/job fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005), fairness in rewards provided (Aamodt, 2010: 374). Job Satisfaction is associated with a series of important outcomes, not only for the organization, but also for the employee's wellbeing, i.e. job performance, satisfaction from life (Saari & Judge, 2004). On the other hand, job dissatisfaction may result in counterproductive behavior (Aamodt, 2010: 396). Absenteeism and employee turnover are also negatively correlated with Job Satisfaction (Silverthorne, 2005: 171). In Greece, one very important study on Job Satisfaction is that by Demoussis and Giannakopoulos (2007), who confirmed that significant differences exist between Job Satisfaction in the private and public sector, in favor of the latter. The scholars calculated specific percentages of salary reductions that employees of the private sector would be willing to undergo, in order to avoid a job in the private sector and maintain the initial level of Job Satisfaction with earnings (7.1%), job security (9.5%), working hours (8.2%) and working schedules (14.8%).

Organizational Commitment

Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974: 604) defined Organizational Commitment in terms of “the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization” and argued that such a commitment can generally be characterized by at least three factors: a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Moreover, according to Meyer and Allen (1991), Organizational Commitment is a “psychological state that characterizes the employee’s relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization”. To conceptualize Organizational Commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) developed a model of three dimensions, comprising affective, continuance and normative commitment. Organizational Commitment may affect employees’ intent and desire to remain in the organization, as well as employee turnover (outcomes). In the public sector, Organizational Commitment may be distinguished into three forms (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996): identification commitment - related to the employees' degree of pride for their organization, affiliation commitment - related to the sense of belonging to the organization and exchange commitment - related to the degree the organization recognizes effort and people's accomplishments. According to Park and Rainey (2007), factors influencing



Organizational Commitment were transformation-oriented leadership, empowerment, goal clarity, public service-oriented motivation, procedural equity perceptions and objective appraisal systems. Yang and Pandey (2009) found that normative commitment is significantly and positively influenced by goal clarity, and negatively influenced by bureaucratic structures. In Greece, Bourantas and Papalexandris (1992) found that Organizational Commitment of managers in the public sector is lower than in the private sector and part of this difference can be attributed to the bigger “culture gap” that exists in the public sector.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, their difference and the causal effects between them has been the subject of numerous studies in the literature of organizational behavior.

According to Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002), the main difference between Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction is that while Organizational Commitment can be defined as the emotional responses of an employee towards their organization, Job Satisfaction is the responses that an employee has towards any job. Knights and Kennedy (2005) argue that Job Satisfaction is an antecedent of Organizational Commitment; they posit that Job Satisfaction is a micro determinant of commitment, reflecting immediate affective reaction to the job and the job facets, whereas Organizational Commitment has a macro orientation, developing more slowly after the individual possesses a firm understanding of the organization.

Several researchers have made the case that Job Satisfaction is a predictor of Organizational Commitment (Porter et al., 1974; Price, 1977; Rose, 1991).

Markovits, Davis, Fay and Dick (2010), in their research among public and private sector employees in Greece, argue that if public sector employees perceive their jobs as satisfying, then they are likely to respond positively with high commitment. This is because when public sector employees experience satisfaction with their job and their environment, then their stereotypical image of the public sector organization as a typical bureaucracy collapses. Public sector employees become better disposed to the organization and their levels of commitment and loyalty rise. Malik, Nawab, Naeem, and Danish (2010) found that there was a significant positive influence of satisfaction with job dimensions (work, quality of supervision, pay) displayed by university teachers in Pakistan as regards Organizational Commitment. Akanbi and Itiola (2013) found that the reward system, job related stress, job meaningfulness, training



and supervisory role together and independently had an effect on Organizational Commitment among surveyed employees in the federal health care system in Nigeria.

Suma and Lesha (2013), in their study among municipality employees in Albania, proved a significant positive correlation between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment. Top and Gider (2013) carried out a research in three hospitals in Turkey, in their effort to examine the relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment among nurses and medical secretaries; they proved a significant and positive relationship between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment.

Following the previous theoretical discussion, four research hypotheses were formulated.

Hypothesis 1. Public Service Motivation is positively related to Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 2. Public Service Motivation is positively related to Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 3. Job Satisfaction is positively related to Organizational Commitment.

Hypothesis 4. Public Service Motivation is positively associated with education, age, position of responsibility and gender (being female).

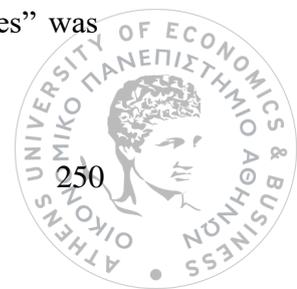
METHOD

Sample and procedure

The sample of the present study consisted of 153 public sector employees working in the Central Services of the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, Culture and Sports in Athens, Greece. The Ministry of Education was then one of the 16 ministries of the Greek central government. The method of stratified sampling was used, as the population was divided into groups, according to the order of command (staff, Heads of Units, Heads of Directorates, Heads of Directorates General). Two hundred and fifty questionnaires were handed, of which 153 were finally filled-in, in the presence of the researchers. The response rate was 61.2%.

Measures

The questionnaire consisted of four parts. *Part A* comprised of demographic questions. *Part B* included questions on Public Service Motivation – (PSM) and Perry’s 24-item scale was used (Perry, 1996) which consists of four dimensions namely, *Public Policy Making*, *Public Interest*, *Compassion* and *Self-Sacrifice*. His scale is regarded as the fundamental measurement tool of Public Service Motivation although its relevance in different “administrative cultures” was questioned by some researchers (Mihalcioiu, 2011).



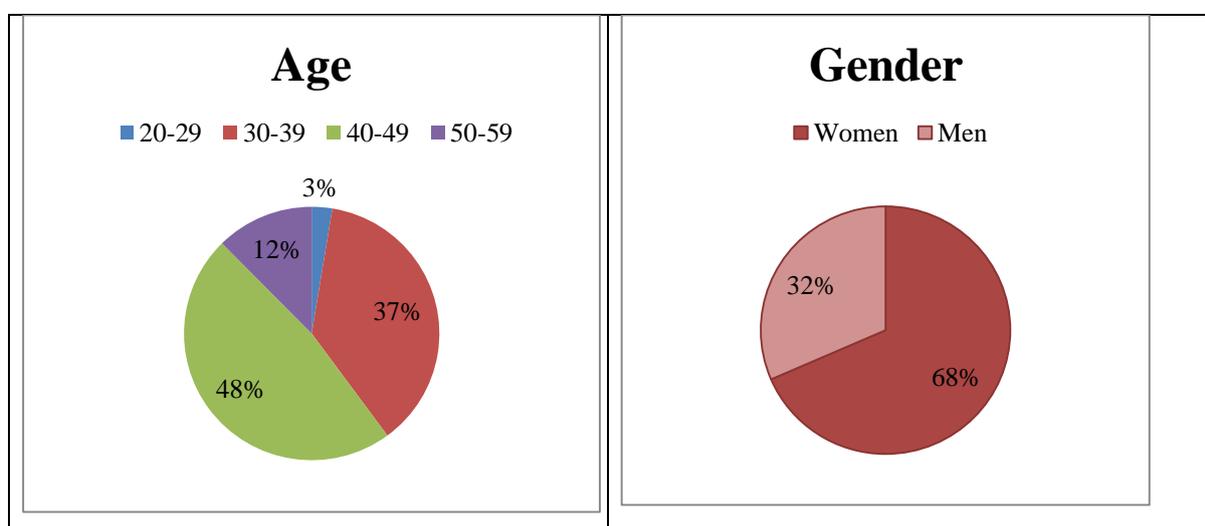
Part C included questions on Organizational Commitment. Meyer and Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used. The scale includes eighteen questions, six for each type of Organizational Commitment.

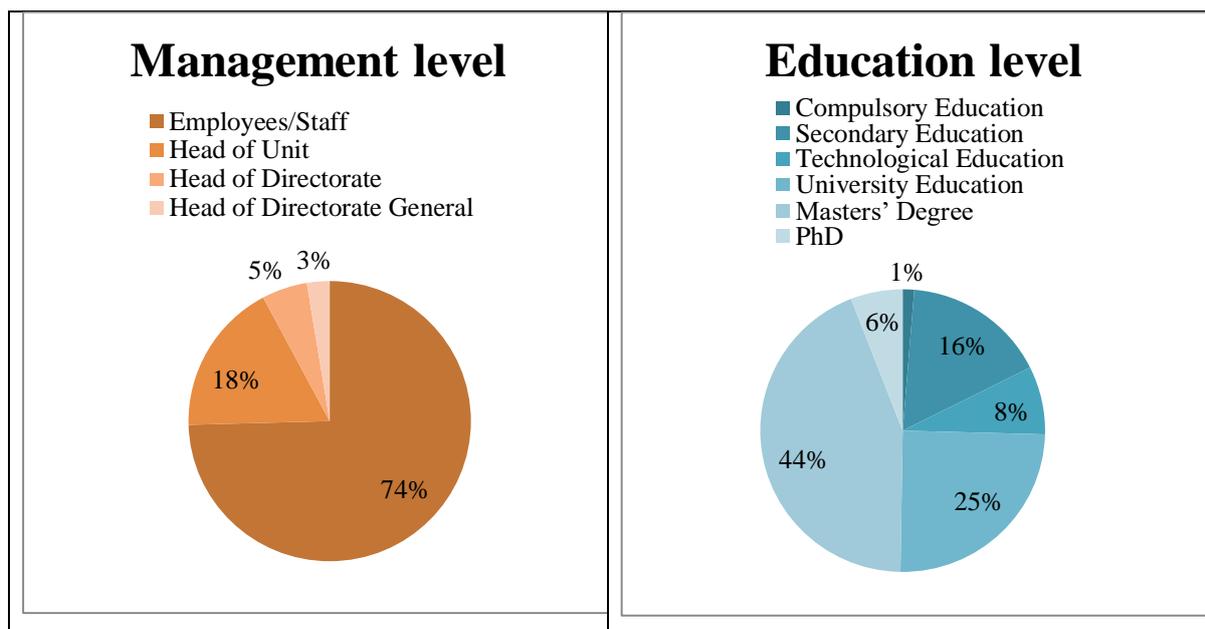
Part D examined Job Satisfaction. The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) as provided by the Bowling Green State University (Lake, Gopalkrishnan, Sliter & Withrow, 2010) was used. Five (out of six) dimensions were evaluated, the *Work on Present Job*, *Pay*, *Opportunities for Promotion*, *Supervision*, and *People on Your Present Job*.

RESULTS

Some basic demographic characteristics of the sample are displayed below. The majority of the respondents were 40-49 years old (48%), followed by participants aged 30-39 years. Women were mostly represented (68%). As for the order of command, staff participated with a percentage of 74%, followed by heads of units (18%), heads of directorates (5%) and heads of directorates general (3%). Regarding the level of education, two out of three respondents held a higher education degree (69%), from either a university (44%) or a technological institution (25%).

Figure 1: Demographics





The descriptive statistics for the variables of the study are presented in Table 1. As can be seen, for the Public Service Motivation, Public Interest had the highest mean (3.93), followed by Compassion (3.54) and Self-Sacrifice (3.48). Attraction to Public Policy Making received the lowest score with a mean of 2.81. Overall PSM mean was calculated 3.43.

All three dimensions of Organizational Commitment were positively rated. Respondents exhibited higher scores for Affective Commitment (3.31), followed by Continuance Commitment (3.27) and Normative Commitment (3.00). Mean score for Organizational Commitment was 3.19.

As can be further seen in Table 1, Job Satisfaction has a mean of 3.02. Employees were mostly satisfied by Supervision and People (means of 3.76 and 3.69 respectively), suggesting that sources of satisfaction are more people-related. Two out of five Job Satisfaction dimensions, namely satisfaction with Pay and Opportunities for Promotion had a lower mean (2.17 and 2.51 respectively). This should not come as a surprise, given the sharp wage cuts that public sector employees suffered as a result of the economic crisis in Greece and the limited opportunities for promotion available.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

Variable	Min	Max	M	SD
Public Service Motivation	2.55	4.59	3.43	.36
Public Policy Making	1.00	4.67	2.82	.80
Public Interest	2.00	5.00	3.92	.52

Compassion	2.13	5.00	3.53	.45
Self-Sacrifice	2.50	4.50	3.47	.44
Organizational Commitment	1.22	4.72	3.19	.64
Affective Commitment	1.00	5.00	3.31	.85
Continuance Commitment	1.00	5.00	3.27	.71
Normative Commitment	1.00	4.67	3.00	.78
Job Satisfaction	1.73	4.20	3.02	.43
Supervision	1.67	4.94	3.76	.68
Pay	1.00	4.11	2.17	.65
Opportunities for promotion	1.00	4.00	2.51	.64
People on Your Present Job	1.33	4.83	3.69	.68
Work on Present Job	1.22	4.56	3.00	.67

The conceptual model of the study was tested through the structural equation modeling method (SEM) using AMOS 20. The overall fit of the data to the examined model was tested initially on the basis of the chi-square statistic. Nonsignificant values suggest a good fit, as they indicate a minor discrepancy between the observed and the estimated covariance matrices. However, the chi-square statistic is very sensitive to sample size and departures from normality, and in large samples, trivial differences between the two matrices may be declared significant. In order to overcome this problem, various alternative indices of fit have been proposed. In this study the CFI, GFI, and RMSEA were adopted. CFI and GFI indexes range from 0 to 1 and values greater than .90 are indicative of a well-fitting model, whereas for RMSEA values less than .05 indicate a close fit to the model.

The results revealed a significant chi-square value and unacceptable values for the goodness of fit indices. Examination of the modification indices revealed that the model could significantly improve if four error covariances were included, namely, between satisfaction with Pay and Opportunities for Promotion, satisfaction with Pay and Supervision, satisfaction with People and Supervision, as well as between Continuance Commitment and Normative Commitment. Their inclusion resulted in acceptable values for the three fit indices ($\chi^2 = 99.00/47$, GFI = .905, CFI = .903, RMSEA = .085). The results of the analysis are presented in Figure 2. As can be seen, Public Service Motivation had a moderate positive effect on Job Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$) confirming Hypothesis 1. Job Satisfaction was also found to have a strong influence on Organizational Commitment ($\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$) confirming

Hypothesis 3. On the other hand, Public Service Motivation did not have a significant positive effect on Organizational Commitment, thus Hypothesis 2 was rejected.

Figure 2. The structural model of the study

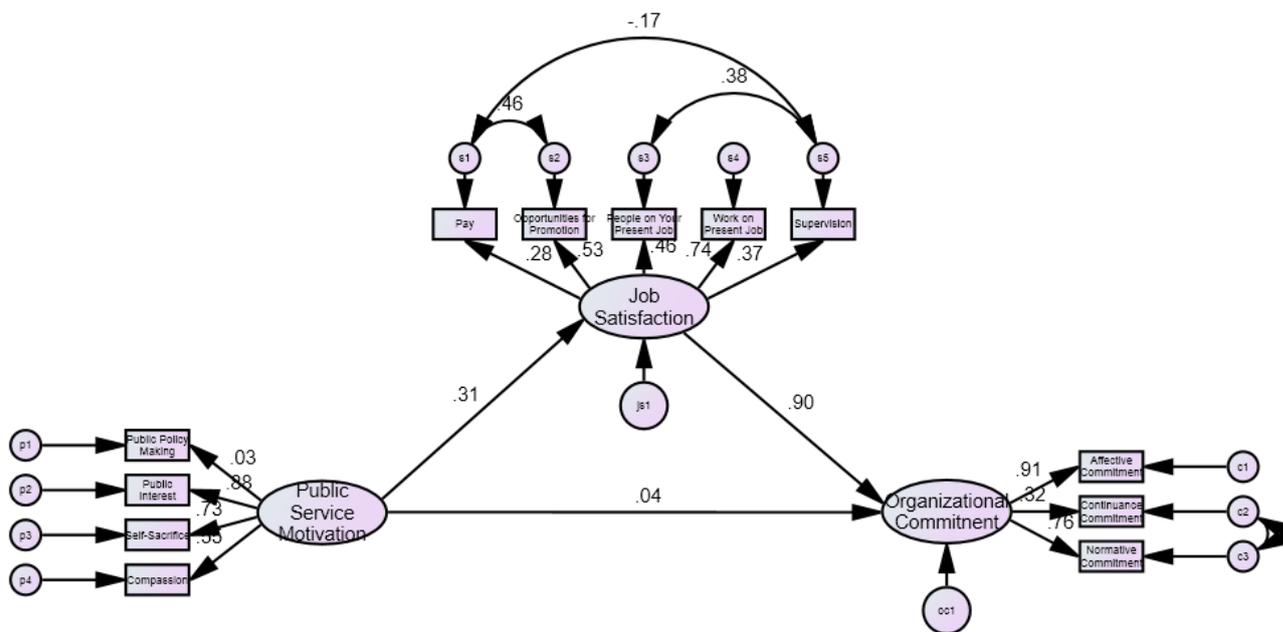


Table 2 presents the structural coefficients of the specific parameters of the latent variables.

Table 2. The Structural Coefficients Between the Parameters of the Latent Variables

Public Interest	→	Work on Present Job	.20**
Pay	→	Affective Commitment	.23**
Opportunities for Promotion	→	Affective Commitment	.43**
Opportunities for Promotion	→	Normative Commitment	.36**
People on Present Job	→	Affective Commitment	.38**
People on Present Job	→	Normative Commitment	.31**
Work on Present Job	→	Affective Commitment	.60**
Work on Present Job	→	Normative Commitment	.51**
Work on Present Job	→	Continuance Commitment	.21**
Supervision	→	Affective Commitment	.30**
Supervision	→	Normative Commitment	.25**

*p<.05 **p<.01

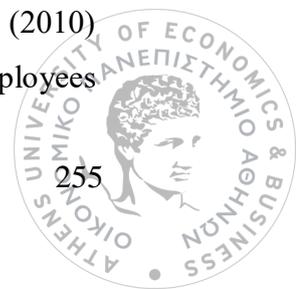


As can be seen, the strongest relationships emerged between Work on Present Job and two of the three Organizational Commitment facets, namely Affective (.60, $p < .01$) and Normative (.51, $p < .01$). Other relatively strong and moderate effects on Affective Commitment were found from Satisfaction from Opportunities for Promotion (.43, $p < .01$), Satisfaction from People on Present Job (.38, $p < .01$), Satisfaction from Supervision (.30, $p < .01$) and Satisfaction with Pay (.23, $p < .01$). Opportunities for Promotion (.36, $p < .01$), People on Present Job (.31, $p < .01$) and Satisfaction from Supervision (.25, $p < .01$) had also moderate effects on Normative Commitment. The only effect on Continuance Commitment was revealed from Work on Present Job (.21, $p < .01$). In addition, a moderate relationship was found between Public Interest and satisfaction from Work on Present Job (.20, $p < .01$). This seems to be the only significant link that exists between Public Service Motivation and Job Satisfaction and serves as a proxy for verifying the validity of our conceptual model.

In order to examine Hypothesis 4, namely whether education, age, management level and gender, as independent variables, have an impact on the PSM score (dependent variable), one-way ANOVA and t-tests were conducted. Regarding age, no significant differences were revealed between the four age groups [$F(3,149)=1.217$, $p=0.306$]. The results of the t-test for gender indicated that there was no significant difference between men ($M=3.4971$, $SD=.37194$) and women ($M=3.4109$, $SD=.35648$) in relation to Public Service Motivation. One-way ANOVA for the management level revealed that the homogeneity of variance test had been violated. [Sig. for Levene Statistic=0.018]. Last, one-way ANOVA was carried out to compare the effect of education level on PSM. There was a significant effect for the six examined levels of education [$F(5,147)= 3.930$, $p=0.002$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that all levels of education of respondents, apart from compulsory (Secondary Education, Technological Education, University Education, Masters and PhD level) had an effect on the PSM level. Having mentioned all the above, hypothesis 4 is partially confirmed.

DISCUSSION

The support of the relationships proposed by the conceptual model of the present study made apparent the significant contribution of Public Service Motivation on Job Satisfaction, confirming previous findings (Gould-Williams et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2008; Naff & Crum, 1999). Indeed, Naff and Crum (1999) indicated that PSM was the most powerful predictor of Job Satisfaction. It also corroborates the finding of the Andersen and Kjeldsen study (2010) that the positive relationship between PSM and Job Satisfaction is stronger among employees

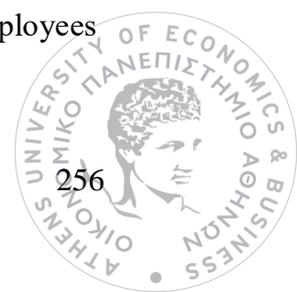


in organizations which provide public services, i.e. health, education, and cultural services. In fact, the relationship supported from our conceptual model between Public Interest and satisfaction from Work on Present Job suggests that being interested in and contributing to community matters as well as considering public service as an important civic duty, may significantly explain satisfaction from working in a public authority, such as the Ministry of Education.

Another important finding of this study was that no (direct) association exists between PSM and Organizational Commitment, invalidating previous literature, such as Ferdosipour and Montazeri (2012), who proved that high PSM levels are associated with higher Organizational Commitment and lower turnover intentions. On the other hand, a substantive and positive association was revealed between Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment. Our study suggests that all Job Satisfaction dimensions individually affect at least one Organizational Commitment facet. The results of the present study add to the findings of the Markovits et al. (2007) study in Greece, in which it is argued that if public sector employees perceive their jobs as satisfying, then they are likely to respond positively with high commitment. This finding also provides evidence for similar international research proposing that Job Satisfaction significantly and positively explains Organizational Commitment.

Taking into account the first finding of the present study - that PSM positively affects Job Satisfaction - as well as that Job Satisfaction strongly predicts Organizational Commitment, we may conclude that public sector employees with high levels of altruism are expected to be satisfied with their job and that this pleasurable emotional state may also lead to high levels of commitment to the organization.

Last, among four demographic variables (education, age, management level and gender), only education was found to significantly affect Public Service Motivation. These results corroborate previous research (Bright, 2005; Moynihan & Pandey, 2007; Naff & Crum, 1999; Perry, 1997) that PSM is positively associated with education. As Bright (2005) pointed out, this can be explained by the fact that individuals with a higher education level have a greater degree of awareness and can recognize the value of public service to society. However, the results of the present study seem to contradict Bright's (2005) findings as regards the positive association between PSM, gender and management level. Furthermore, findings are consistent with those of Charbonneau and Van Ryzin (2017) relating to the non-existing influence of gender and age on PSM. Last, the results are in accordance with the work of Desmarais and Gamassou (2014), which showed that higher PSM levels were not validated among employees of the highest hierarchical levels.

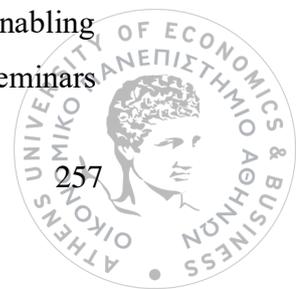


CONCLUSIONS

Taking into account the fundamental weaknesses of the Greek administrative system - mostly related to structural coordination, red-tape, deficient goal setting and human resources management (National Strategy for the administrative reform 2017-2019, Hellenic Ministry of Administrative Reconstruction) - a series of proposals are herewith drafted. From an HRM perspective, these measures may be utilized with a view to positively influencing levels of Public Service Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, especially under conditions of uncertainty due to the economic recession.

The positive relationship between PSM and Job Satisfaction which was supported by the present study justifies the need to cultivate the altruistic predisposition of public servants. Since pay and other material rewards are fixed by the law, the State (employer) may consider putting more emphasis on the fair allocation of intangible rewards to employees, such as praise, recognition and increased autonomy. Management by Objective techniques may be used to sensitize staff towards the public administration's mission to serve the public interest. Transformational leadership could instill a deeper spirituality on the staff's work and promote attitudes of self-denial in serving the community. Reducing red-tape, increasing employee participation in decision-making, team working/team building or establishing quality circles may also be used to intrinsically motivate employees. Other suggestions for management include avoiding assigning routine tasks, opting for job enrichment and matching staff competences/skills and job position. It is to be noted that the Institute of Public Administration in Ireland, a country similarly affected by the economic crisis, emphasized the importance of transformational or value-based leadership, person-organization fit, effective goal setting and creating a supportive work environment, as ways to develop an organizational culture grounded in Public Service Motivation (State of the Public Service Series, 2013-https://www.ipa.ie/_fileUpload/Documents/PublicServiceMotivation.pdf). As education was the only independent variable that significantly contributed to PSM (higher education levels were related to higher PSM levels), the results of the present study could also have practical implications for the selection and training of public servants.

In addition, since Job Satisfaction was found to exert a strong effect on Organizational Commitment, a series of suggestions could be formulated in order to achieve better Job Satisfaction and thus better Organizational Commitment. These include ameliorating the work environment in a spirit of respect and justice, creating a pleasant workplace and enabling people to engage in social networking activities. Encouraging staff to participate in seminars



and other training activities as part of their personal development could also be suggested. Other ideas might be encouraging staff to freely voice their opinion on perceived injustices or deficiencies in decision-making and resource distribution, managing conflicts in a proactive manner, and implementing effective job design practices (Iordanoglou, 2008). Greater emphasis is placed on the role of the immediate supervisor who acts as a proxy for the perceived job satisfaction of their subordinates in what regards assigning challenging tasks, offering rewards and recognition, enhancing self-esteem, providing feedback, guaranteeing respect and appreciation for the individual, freedom of initiative, etc.

It is to be noted that legislation provides for, *inter alia*, plenary meetings of employees at Directorate or Unit level in order to set, monitor and evaluate goal setting in their services. Even though these legislative provisions establish a functional and participatory environment that could promote levels of motivation and job satisfaction, it is unfortunate that the system has not been operational yet.

As regards increasing Organizational Commitment, management should clearly communicate the mission and values of the organization, so that people may identify with and contribute to the achievement of goals; build confidence in the leadership's efficacy to implement long-term vision; invest in the continuous development of employees and design personalized career paths (Iordanoglou, 2008).

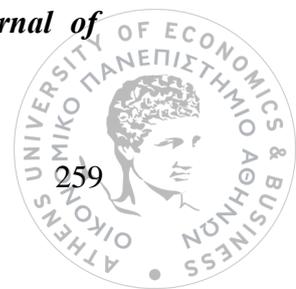
The main limitation of the present study is related to the number of responses collected among the employees of the Ministry of Education, which may render the results less conclusive. This drawback was largely due to the timing, since respondents were asked to participate in the survey during the summer. The findings of this research could also be more credible if data collection was extended to include other Ministries and government agencies.

Furthermore, future research can focus on examining motivation, satisfaction and commitment not only in the public but also in the private sector, in order to identify similarities and differences and shed light on the effect of those variables on job and organizational performance.



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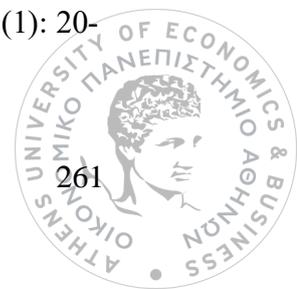
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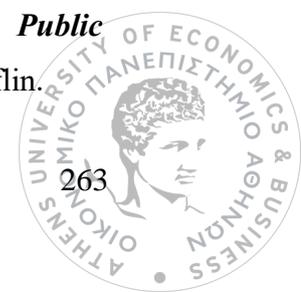
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4. ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF SILENCE AT WORK: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

V. Lazanaki, M. Vakola, E. Aklidou

Abstract

Discovering the antecedents and consequences of employees' silent behaviour may reveal important contingencies that can explain why employees choose to adopt such behaviours and which are the consequences for both individuals and organizations. We interviewed 30 full-time employees working for a range of industries such as pharmaceuticals, banking, shipping, consulting, coming from both the public and the private sector. Our analysis showed many causes of remaining silent at work such as individual characteristics, organizational characteristics, interpersonal relationships and fear of suffering the consequences. This work shed light to various reasons behind employees' silent behaviours to different recipients such as supervisors, colleagues and subordinates. Our research identified individual-level such as stress and job dissatisfaction, team-level such as distant or toxic interpersonal relationships and organizational level consequences such as low morale.

Keywords

Silent behaviour, organizational silence, organizational communication, qualitative research

Introduction

Employees' comments, suggestions, ideas are critical to an organization's performance especially in a very competitive landscape (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005; Wilkinson & Fay, 2011). However, employees choose to remain silent about important issues at work with very disrupting not only individual level consequences such as increased stress and psychological and physiological problems, but also organizational level outcomes such as less innovation and positive change, corruption and poor organizational decision making (Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003).

There is a growing number of studies investigating how and why employees often feel uncomfortable raising issues, problems and concerns to their supervisors (Milliken et al., 2003; Morrison, 2011). However, there is still room for further investigation of when and why employees choose to remain silent, which are the factors that affect this decision-making process, and what are the consequences of this choice. This work goes beyond the existing research in two ways.



Firstly, as Morrison (2011) suggested, scholars in this field have not specified the recipient/target of silent behaviour and when they do so they chose to focus on just one which usually takes the form of upward silence or one's teammates. She continues by clarifying that the antecedents and outcomes of the decision to remain silent is likely to differ and that depends on whether the behaviour is directed at a supervisor or one's peers (Morrison, 2011). Responding to this call, we investigated the antecedents and consequences of employees' choice to remain silent or speak up of issues of concern. Our central focus was to explore whether this behaviour differs when it is directed not only to a supervisor or co-worker but also to a subordinate. Secondly, this holistic approach leads to a better understanding not only of the antecedents that are responsible for voice or silent behaviours but also of the consequences of this behaviour. Due to the exploratory nature of this research, we believe that a qualitative study based on interviews is appropriate to investigate in depth the antecedents and consequences of silent behaviour directed to supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates.

Literature Review

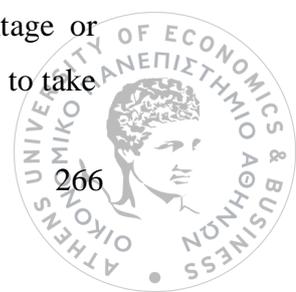
Understanding employees' silent behaviour

The definition of silence can be put down on a conscious withholding of any kind of information, any suggestions or ideas, even questions that deal with serious organizational issues from individuals that they could be in a position to handle these cases (Milliken et al., 2003; Pinder & Harlos, 2001). An employee prefers to remain silent when he/she is in a position to hold information that could be proved valuable, but he/she does not want to share it mainly out of fear or being worried about possible negative results or even feelings of futility (Milliken et al., 2003).

Antecedents of employees' silent behaviour

Discovering the antecedents of employees' silent behaviour may reveal important contingencies that can explain why employees choose to adopt such behaviours.

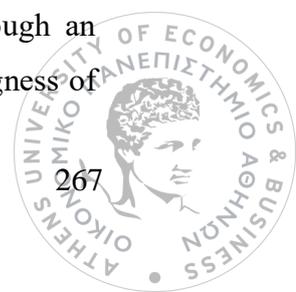
There is a number of organizational factors are responsible for employees' silent behaviour (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). The majority of research findings are related with the top management and supervisors' attitudes towards silence (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Their argument is based on the theory that if the above is true, it can easily be outlined by the top management's not plainly expressed beliefs, structures, and fears. Precisely, when managers are under the impression that employees tend to be interested in personal advantage or misinformed, and when they are afraid of receiving negative feedback, then they tend to take



centralized decisions that worsen employees' tendency to silence and make them even more hesitant of speaking up about certain issues (Morrison, 2011). According to Saunders, Sheppard, Knight & Roth (1992), employees are willing to share their concerns and suggestions with their bosses only if they were more receptive and anticipated towards them. The above coincides with Glauser's (1984) previous researches which suggested that open communication with upper management is influenced not only by a skillful communicator, the type of the message and the organizational context, but also by a skillful association between supervisor and subordinate. Aspects of an organizational context may affect employees' willingness to speak up. An important assumption is that even the most proactive or satisfied employees are likely to understand as to whether it is safe and/or worthwhile to speak up in their particular context (Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, Hayes, & Wierba, 1997; Edmondson, 2003; Milliken et al., 2003).

Research on issue selling has been confirmed based on the option that employees prefer to resort to the safe site of "reading the context" for clues that they have to do with "context favourability" (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, and Dutton, 1998; Dutton et al., 1997). That means that they prefer to bring up an issue where the management is willing to consider and there would be the least of negative consequences (Dutton et al., 1997). Other components that have been used to define context favourability and willingness to communicate and bring up issues, are based on organizational support, norms and the trait of one's relationship with senior management (Ashford et al., 1998). Senge (1999) describes the silence climate as a "silo" mentality in which people tend to handle problems in their own functional areas, ignoring the difficult interaction between the silos. As a result, people tend to discuss these issues only in private, and thus they reinforce the climate of dissatisfaction that it remains confidential and, as a result, not for discussion. Senge (1999) continues that some managers have lived for so long in environments where fear and silence are the norms, that they cannot imagine an alternative way of working and behaving. This limited capacity for openness results in remaining silent, reinforcing the existing dissatisfying situation and creating "silent" norms and behaviours for the newcomers (Vakola & Bourantas, 2005). According to Morrison & Milliken (2000), when silence becomes the norm within an organization known as "a climate of silence" there are negative outcomes such as less effective organizational change processes, low internal motivation, low satisfaction, withdrawal, turnover, sabotage/deviance and stress (Greenberger & Strasser, 1986; Parker, 1993).

Managers or supervisors influence employees' attitudes or behaviours through an active or a passive pathway. The authority position of managers increases the willingness of



employees to adopt the norms practiced by the managers. They have the referent and/or expert power and are viewed by employees as capable of fulfilling their informational and social needs. As a result, employees actively follow what is communicated by the managers when these have power (Fisscher, Nijhof, & Steensma, 2003). Apart from the active pathway, there is a possibility of adopting the positions of managers, which occurs through careful reflection on the observation and actions of the managers. The process of reflection may lead to acceptance of the norms (cf. Schön, 1983).

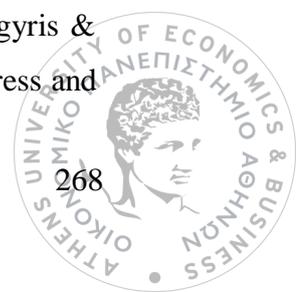
Hierarchical or status differences also contribute to silence since employees withhold their opinions when they feel that these are not taken into account or might be received as unsuitable (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Employees tend to hold back information in order not to upset or create problems (Ewing, 1977; Redding, 1985; Sprague and Rudd, 1988).

There are also some personal antecedents of silence. When there is no support by the supervisor on employees' new ideas or suggestions, or employee is afraid of running the risk to be labelled as a “troublemaker”, then the employee resort to a silent behaviour instead of expressing disagreements or different opinions (Vakola & Bourantas, 2005). Most of research in silence shows that fears can explain silent behaviours. Employees are afraid of spoiling their image by getting negative remark (Ashford et al., 1998), harming their existing relationships or losing their privileges or not getting new ones such as promotion or have a negative impact on others, creating unnecessary problems to others and fear of impacting others negatively (Gutek, 1985; Rudman et al., 1995) or suffer from negative consequences of silence (Dutton et al., 1997; Near and Miceli, 1992).

Another reason why employees choose to remain silent is their strong belief that even if they choose to share their opinions, knowledge or experience, would make no difference whatsoever or elicit any kind of response positive or negative (Ryan and Oestreich's, 1991). It is important to note here that some employees continue to withhold their opinions because they see no point even when they face important problems and challenges (Morrison and Milliken (2000). This sense of futility and learned helplessness may result in employees' indifference and isolation (Seligman, 1975).

Consequences of employees' silence

Employees' reluctance to speak up about work-related matters has been linked to many important individual and organizational outcomes such as decreased innovation (Argyris & Schön, 1978), failure to address ethical transgressions (Clapham & Cooper, 2005) stress and



depression (Cortina & Magley, 2003) and lower commitment and job satisfaction (Vakola & Bourantas, 2005).

An organization can really suffer a great loss of intellectual contribution of employees, missing in solution of problems that could have been taken into consideration and solved, if only feedback had been provided, loss of information that could have been acquired and therefore solutions to problems they would not have remained insufficient (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). The organization will suffer from ineffective organizational procedures due to organizational silence, which leads to lack of feedback, lack of information, lack of analysis of ideas and alternatives (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Employees' silence leads to derogative attitude towards the organization's values and these can result in no quality in their business (Joinson, 1996).

From the employees' point of view, by remaining silent, they are not able to put their suggestions and feelings distinctly in the workplace. Additionally, it influences their commitment, trust and satisfaction towards their job to the point of resigning (Vakola & Bourantas, 2005). Employees in an organization that fosters silence may feel that bringing up an issue, may have negative results or may run the risk to be seen as the persons who have betrayed the organization, despite the fact that they only try to point out the wrongdoing of the organization (Dutton et al., 1997; Near and Miceli, 1992).

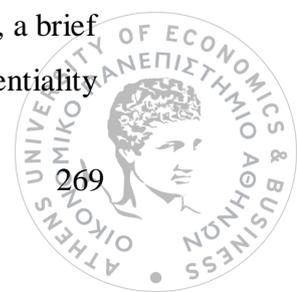
Methodology

Sample

We conducted thirty interviews with full-time employees working for a range of industries such as pharmaceuticals, banking, shipping and consulting. Forty per cent of the sample were male and their average tenure in their current job was 8 years (min= 2 years, max=27 years). Their average age was 36 years old (min=26 years; max=58 years) and a 37 per cent hold a master's degree. We sent out an invitation to participate to MBA students and those that responded positively received guidelines explaining the purpose and the process of the study.

Data collection and coding

The interviews were tape recorded and lasted between 25 to 40 minutes. Following the call for participation and guidelines sent, an appointment was set up according to interviewee availability. Each respondent was interviewed by one of the authors. At the beginning, a brief description of the aims and objectives of the study were presented along with a confidentiality



agreement. Then, questions were asked according to an interview guide structured in four distinctive sections related to a) frequency of silence experience, b) antecedents of silent behaviours, c) reasons behind silent behaviour to three recipients (supervisors, colleagues and subordinates) and d) consequences of silent behaviours.

More specifically, the interviewers asked respondents if they haven't spoken about a work-related issue to their supervisor, colleague or subordinate. Interviewers encouraged the respondents to describe the issue and elaborate using examples. (b) how often do they find themselves in this position, (c) if they can give us a concrete example when they feel that they should not or they could not speak openly towards their supervisor, their colleagues and their subordinates, (d) which are the reasons that they feel they should not speak openly about these issues, (e) what are the consequences for preferring to remain silent. We used standard practices for qualitative data analysis. In order to acquire an original list of categories on which answers could be coded, the researchers reviewed the transcripts individually and finalized a list of all of the important issues and the reasons that interviewees had come up with. We then prepared a preliminary coding list to create categories and then we coded the final list.

Results

The purpose of this study was to shed light on the antecedents and consequences of remaining silent at work. This study investigated the range of organizational issues that may cause organizational silence. According to the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that issues, antecedents and consequences of organizational silence were explored on three levels (supervisor, co-worker and subordinate). As it is shown in table 1, our analysis revealed that remain silent about issues and problems at work is a very common situation with 87 per cent of our sample (26 out of 30 people) saying that, on at least one occasion, they were not willing to speak openly about an issue at work. More specifically, 63 per cent of our sample (19 of 30 people) said that they remained silent about an issue to their supervisor.



Table I. Frequencies of the silence behaviours

Question	Percentage of respondents
Have you ever found yourself in a position that you choose not to speak openly about an issue that has to do with your work towards your supervisor? <div style="text-align: right;"> Generally, yes No, not at all </div>	<div style="text-align: right;"> 63 37 </div>
Have you ever found yourself in a position that you choose not to speak openly about an issue that has to do with your work towards your colleagues? <div style="text-align: right;"> Generally, yes No, not at all </div>	<div style="text-align: right;"> 53 47 </div>
Have you ever found yourself in a position that you choose not to speak openly about an issue that has to do with your work towards your subordinates? <div style="text-align: right;"> Generally, yes No, not at all I do not have subordinates </div>	<div style="text-align: right;"> 40 50 10 </div>

This percentage decreases to fifty-three per cent when the respondents considered the same question but this time the recipient was a colleague. And it decreases to forty per cent, when the respondents described the frequency of silent behaviours toward their subordinates. We have to notice that ten percent of the sample (3 of 30 people) do not have subordinates.

Reasons behind silent behaviours

Interviewees explained their silent behaviours reporting a range of reasons as shown in table II.

Towards their supervisors

Our analysis showed that there are eight categories that explain reasons behind silent behaviours towards one's supervisor namely fear of losing or not getting, individual characteristics, organizational characteristics, timing, trust, impact on others, expected outcome and confidentiality.

The most frequently mentioned reason was the fear of losing or not getting (50,3 per cent). This category includes the fear of punishment, loosing privileges, loosing job, not getting promoted, loss of respect and trust and fear of being labelled as troublemaker or as complainer. More specifically, a male interviewee explained *“You do not want to speak openly to someone because you believe that indirectly this will have bad results for you. The way, in which the others think of you, will change if you speak and disagree with the supervisor”*. A female interviewee also mentioned: *“They did not hear me, maybe they will blame me for having problem with him, they will think that I am the troublemaker”*. She continued: *“The silence towards the supervisor happens because I am afraid that I will lose my job and I do not want to make a bad impression. Unfortunately, in some organizations, it is forbidden to express any personal opinion - complaints and defend yourself.”*

The second reason was the individual characteristics (36.7 per cent), and especially the lack of confidence and the lack of experience. A female newly recruited employee said *“You do not know how others will get it. It is the insecurity of inexperience, which every new employee has”*. Another interviewee explained *“I believe that the reasons are inside us. For example, I do not feel comfortable to speak openly to my supervisor. She is very supportive but I prefer not to express myself because I am not sure about the way of saying it.”*



Table II. Reasons of silent behaviour to different recipients¹

Supervisors		Colleagues		Subordinates	
<i>Fear of losing or not getting</i>		<i>Fear of losing or not getting</i>		Confidentiality	
Fear of punishment		Loosing privileges			
Loosing privileges		Fear of damaging the relationship			
Loosing job	50,3	Loss of respect and trust	33,3		23
Not getting promoted	3%		3%		%
Fear of damaging the relationship					
Loss of respect and trust					
Fear of being labelled as troublemaker /as complainer					
<i>Individual characteristics</i>		<i>Confidentiality</i>		<i>Fear of losing or not getting</i>	
Lack of self confidence	36,6			<i>getting</i>	17
Lack of experience	7%		10%	Fear of damaging the relationship	%
				Loss of respect and trust	
<i>Impact on others</i>	33,3	<i>Self interest</i>			
Concerns about negative impact on others	3%	Politics/ Competition	10%		
Not want to upset or embarrass someone					

¹ The percentages sum up to more than 100 per cent, as most interviewees report more than one reason for remaining in silence

Or not want somebody else to get into trouble					
<i>Expected outcome</i> Feelings of futility Speaking up will not make a difference	20%	<i>Impact on others</i> Concerns about negative impact on others Not want to upset or embarrass someone Or not want somebody else to get into trouble	6,67 %		
<i>Timing</i> Looking for the right moment No other people around No other more urgent issues	6,67 %	<i>Individual Characteristics</i> Lack of self confidence Lack of experience	3,33 %		
<i>Organizational characteristics</i> Unsupportive culture Centralized decision making	3,33 %	<i>Timing</i> Looking for the right moment/ Not other people around No other more urgent issues	3,33 %		
<i>Trust</i> Poor relationships	3,33 %	<i>Recipients' Characteristics</i> Bad attitude Poor listening skills	3,33 %		
<i>Confidentiality</i>	3%	<i>Expected Outcome</i> Will not make a difference	3%		

The third mentioned reason for which respondents remain silent towards their supervisor was the concerns about impact on others (33,3 per cent). They don't want to upset or embarrass someone. Also, they don't want to be the reason for somebody else to get in trouble. A male interviewee explained *“The issue was related to the behaviour of a colleague, and I was afraid of the consequences on his job. I didn't want to hurt him”*

Another reason had to do with the expected outcome of remaining silent or speaking up. Many respondents (20 per cent) commented that even if they speak to their supervisor about an issue or a problem, it will not make a difference. Two interviewees shed light to different issues related to this reason: *“Once, I did not speak to my supervisor, because I did not have the feedback, that I needed to do my job and I did not have the adequate coaching in order to do my work. And I have communicated this to him and it did not make any difference. I believed that that was the reason not to communicate it again”* and *“My supervisor made a mistake while processing an order. I didn't say anything because he would have recognised it and he would probably have blamed me for this”*.

An additional reason is the timing (6,7 per cent). Interviewees mentioned that they want to find the right moment to speak with their supervisor, when there will not be other people around and when they will not have other more urgent issues to discuss. Some examples of this reason are the following: *“I prefer to find the right moment to speak up, when there is no rush or when my supervisor doesn't have to deal with other more important issues. I remain silent when my supervisor's attention is on something else and I am trying to find the right moment which could be some days later”*.

Another reason is related to some organizational characteristics (3,33 per cent), and especially the unsupportive culture and the centralized decision making. The following quote is an example: *“I feel uncomfortable to discuss some issues because our organization have some 'unwritten rules'. There are some issues or people that you cannot comment or criticize openly or, in a meeting, for example. This doesn't mean that you don't do it behind closed doors”*

Lower percentages (3,33 per cent) are explained by lack of trust, poor relationship with the supervisor and the supervisor's bad attitude. Interviewees mention here that they have a toxic relationship with their supervisor and as a result they don't trust him/her. The following is an example of this reason: *“I don't trust her. I can say that openly and I said it to her face. She will not support her team if she has something to gain for herself. I don't share any information or knowledge because she may use it against me”*.



An additional reason is the confidentiality of the issue at hand (3 per cent). Respondents believe that if they speak openly to their supervisor, the issue will not stay in the office. A male interviewee explained: *“There is no need to inform supervisor, about my relationship with my subordinates. There is no reason. Let some things stay in the office”* .

Towards their colleagues

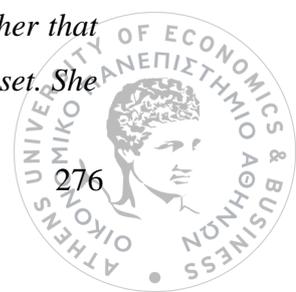
Our analysis showed that there are eight categories that explain reasons behind silent behaviours towards one's co-worker, namely fear of losing or not getting, confidentiality reasons, self-serving reasons, impact on others, individual characteristics, timing, recipients' characteristics and expected outcomes.

The most frequently mentioned reason about which respondents remain silent in their working environment towards their colleagues was the fear of losing or not getting (33.3 per cent). They fear that they will destroy the relationships with the other coworkers and the relationship between them will deteriorate. Also, they believe that they will lose some privileges such as team membership. An interviewee explained that *“Frequently, I do not share things with my colleagues because I am afraid that they will take it in the wrong way and this will damage our co-operation”*. Another one mentioned *‘I prefer not to share some information because some colleagues will not understand the importance anyway. They may think that I have other reasons for saying this and may not think I am part of the team’*.

The second most commonly expressed reason is about confidentiality reasons (10 per cent). They believe that their colleagues cannot keep secrets and their discussions will not stay in the office. This is a major issue because there are confidential issues of various importance levels at the office. One interviewee said *‘Confidentiality is the main issue why I cannot talk to some of my colleagues. I find it extremely difficult because one of them is a very close friend of mine. But some things need to stay at this department and not go outside’*.

According to the third set of reasons which is related to self-interest (10 per cent), the respondents wish to protect themselves from internal 'competition' and find themselves ahead of the political 'game'. One interviewee mentioned *‘Once you give the information out you have no further control. That means that your internal ‘competitors’ or people you don't trust may use it against you’*.

The concerns about the impact on others was another reason about the silence of the employees (6.67 per cent). They do not want to upset or embarrass someone and also, they do not want somebody else to get into trouble. An interviewee explained *‘I don't say to her that she needs to come on time and that I end up doing her job because she will be very upset. She*



may have an argument with me and if somebody else find this out she will get in a lot of trouble.'

Some respondents indicated some individual characteristics (3.33 per cent) which impede them to speak up to their colleagues. Especially the lack of confidence and the lack of experience. An interviewee admitted *'I prefer to do the extra work than having to talk openly and have an argument'*.

A small minority (3.33 per cent) mentioned the timing as a reason for remaining silent. They mentioned that they either looking for the right moment or to be alone with their colleague or not to have more important issues to discuss. Similarly, another small minority (3.33 per cent) explained that recipients' (in this case colleagues) bad characteristics such as bad attitude and poor listening skills is the reason for their silence. A small percent (3%) answered that a main reason was the expected outcome. They mentioned that they do not speak to their colleagues because it will not make a difference. An interviewee said *'what's the point of talking to her? I have done it many times in the past with no results. I can tell you that in some instances, things went worse when I opened my 'mouth'*.

To their subordinates

Our analysis showed that there are two categories that explain reasons behind silent behaviours towards one's subordinate namely confidentiality and fear of losing or not getting.

The most commonly indicated reason to remain silent towards their subordinates was confidentiality (23 per cent). Respondents believe that is too early to know about the issue, because of the nature of the issue and he fears that this will not stay at the office. The following quotes are some of the examples: *"There are some issues for which I want to talk to my subordinates, but there is the fear that they will not stay at the office."* and *"Subordinates have to know only some issues not all the issues."*

The second most frequent reason was the fear of losing or not getting (17 per cent). They are afraid of losing the respect and the trust of their subordinate and they will damage their relationship. An interviewee gave an example *"A subordinate asked me to do a favor with rude manner. I did not answer because I did not want to damage the relationship with him."* Another one explained *'it is better to find out for other 'sources' so there will be not tension among us'*



Consequences of remaining silent at work

An employee may suffer from consequences if he/she chooses to remain silent at work. More specifically, our analysis showed that there are individual, team and organizational level outcomes.

On an individual level, the most frequent answer was the psychological outcomes (46.7 per cent), such as stress and all the other emotions that stress produce (feelings of tension, suffocation, emotional bursts). An interviewee explained '*When you don't say what is in your head you feel a 'weird' pressure. I feel my neck hot and after a while I have a headache*'. Another one mentioned '*When I don't say what I think, I am thinking about it at home and at night. The next morning, I feel tired*'.

Another individual-level consequence of silence is the loss of motivation. Interviewees experienced decrease in job satisfaction and detachment from their employers, when they cannot freely communicate their important issues. This is a very characteristic quote for this category: '*I remember that in my previous job, every time I wanted to talk to supervisor about my promotion, he would change the subject immediately. This happened three or four times and I realized that he wanted to avoid it. I stopped trying and every time he asked my opinion I didn't feel like saying anything. Every day, I was leaving at five o'clock sharply. I was feeling that there was no future for me in there.*'

The last category of the individual-level reasons is related to ineffectiveness due to lack of communication. Respondents (10 per cent) indicated that in a workplace where employees choose not to share information or opinions or ideas, there were more inefficiencies and lack of co-ordination. This situation resulted in difficulties in meeting personal or organizational goals.

Table III. Consequences of silence

Individual-level		Team- level		Organizational-level	
Psychological outcomes Stress Feelings of tension, and suffocation Mood swings and emotional bursts	46,7%	Ineffectiveness Decrease of team effectiveness Issues remain without solution	26,7%	Loss of motivation Low morale and motivation	33%
Loss of motivation Decrease of job satisfaction Loss of meaning Mechanisation of work	30%	Relationships Distant or toxic interpersonal relationships	23%	Ineffectiveness Decrease in organizational effectiveness	17%
Ineffectiveness Difficulties in reaching goals Double the effort for the same output	10%			Trust Lack of organizational trust	7%

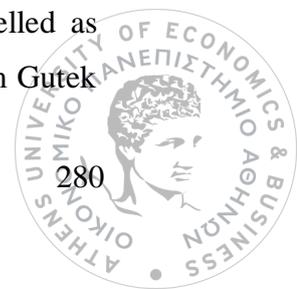
Apart from individual-level consequences, teams suffer from lack of team effectiveness and from the development of distant or toxic interpersonal relationships. Almost a third of our sample (26.7 per cent) explained that when there is silence in the team, various issues cannot be solved. An interviewee explained *“There are issues that remain without solution when you are in silence. This can lead to bad relationships and reduced team performance.”* In addition, respondents believed that if they do not speak openly they will create distant or toxic relationships. That means that in a workplace where there is no open communication and employees withhold their opinions for various reasons, problems remain unsolved and as a result the quality of team relationships deteriorates (23 per cent). A manager said *“I believe that the silence has very bad consequences to the organizational culture and to the relationships among the employees. Because, if there is not a clear communication, they will be misalignments and miscommunications, which can make the relationships distant.”*

Similarly, to the individual-level consequences, respondents (33 per cent) explained that employees' silent behaviour will have an effect on morale and motivation. When employees withhold their opinions about critical issues, organizations will suffer from low motivation. The second most frequent answer was the decrease in organizational effectiveness (17 per cent). The respondents think that in organizations where silence prevails there is decrease in organizational effectiveness because the problems remain unsolved and there is no action to change in a timely and effective way. As one employee described *“The problem can lead to the decrease of effectiveness in the organization. If you do not speak openly, you do not have the opportunity to help the organization be effective”*. Finally, there is lack of trust in an organization when you cannot share your ideas, constructively criticise or make positively remarks. A manager explained *“I believe that remaining silent, can lead to a lot of bad situations. A very important is that when you cannot raise an issue, then you will lose your trust of the organization and you will start to fear your colleagues and be cautious.”*

Discussion

This study examined the antecedents and consequences of employees' silent behaviour. Results showed important contingencies that can explain why employees choose to adopt such behaviour and which are the consequences for individuals, teams and organizations.

A common reason among all levels (supervisors, colleagues and subordinates) was the fear of losing or not getting. This category included the fear of punishment, losing privileges, losing job, not getting promoted, loss of respect and trust and fear of being labelled as troublemaker or as complainer which was consistent with the relevant findings from Gutek



(1985) and Rudman et al. (1995). These authors supported that employees are afraid of spoiling their image by losing their privileges or not getting new ones such as promotion or have a negative impact on others, creating unnecessary problems to others and fear of impacting others negatively.

Confidentiality was a common reason between the three levels (supervisors, colleagues and subordinates). Employees feel that they cannot express themselves to others because they do not have confidence. They believe that other employees will not keep secret their feelings and thoughts and this urge them to remain silent. They believe that if they speak openly, the issue will not stay in the office.

Another common reason between the two levels (supervisors and colleagues) was the individual characteristics. Respondents feel that they don't have enough confidence and/or experience to raise or handle an issue with their supervisors and colleagues. They didn't report this problem with their subordinates.

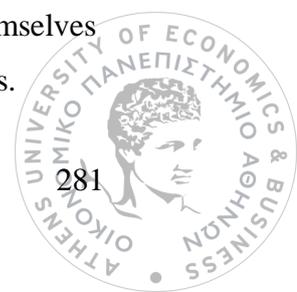
Another important finding between two levels (supervisor and colleagues) was the concerns about supervisors' impact on others. Employees do not want to upset or embarrass someone. Also, they do not want to be the reason for somebody else to get in trouble. Impact on others is a basic reason not to speak openly also for colleagues, but not for the subordinates.

As Seligman (1975) suggested, many respondents from two levels (supervisor and colleagues) felt that even if they spoke to their supervisor about an issue or a problem, it would not make a difference. They had a sense of futility. This sense of 'nothing will change' even if I spoke up was a reason to explain employees' silence to their supervisors and colleagues.

The results of the study also suggested that supervisors' lack of trust and especially the poor relationship with the supervisor as well as supervisor's bad attitude led employees to remain in silence. Saunders et al. (1992) suggested that employees were willing to share their concerns and suggestions with their managers only if they were more receptive and supportive.

Timing was another reason of remaining silent between two levels (supervisor and colleagues). Employees do not speak openly because they look for the right moment, when other people will not be around. Also, they think that there are more urgent issues to speak about them in a specific moment. Timing did not stop employees from speaking openly to subordinates, because they do not feel pressure from what subordinates will think.

Organizational characteristics were the reason for which employees do not speak openly to supervisors. The unsupportive culture of the organization and the centralized decision making can make employees feel that they do not have the right to express themselves to their supervisors. Also, they felt that the organization will not support their opinions.



Self-interest was another reason that employees hesitate to express themselves, especially to their colleagues. They felt competitive towards their colleagues, and not towards their supervisor and their subordinates.

Another reason that employees do not speak openly was recipients' characteristics. The bad attitude of colleagues and the poor listening skills can urge employees to this phenomenon. They feel that nobody of their colleagues can feel them and support them.

Respondents also pointed out the consequences of remaining silent at work. The most frequent consequence on personal level was the psychological outcomes, such as stress and all the other emotions that stress produce (feelings of tension, suffocation, emotional bursts). This finding was supported in the past from Cortina and Magley, (2003).

Employees on personal and organizational level referred as a consequence the loss of motivation, which can lead to low job satisfaction. The loss of work meaning and the mechanization of the work. Vakola and Bouradas (2005) and Milliken et al. (2003) supported also that the reluctance to speak up about work-related matters has been linked to low satisfaction.

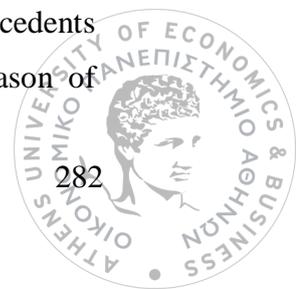
Remaining silent had also, as a result to all levels (personal, team and organizational), the ineffectiveness, which decrease team performance, because there are issues that remain without solution.

A consequence of silence in team level was that employees' relationships become more and more distant and toxic. People, who do not talk to each other about their concerns, feel that they do not have common things among them and that they do not belong together.

In organizational level, employees' silence led to lack of organizational trust. Employees feel that organization cannot support them more and that it does not give them the opportunities to feel safe.

The first limitation of this paper was that our research was based on a cross-sectional sample that may have an impact on our results. Another limitation was that we asked participants to reflect on past experiences that may have an impact on their answers.

Researchers can benefit from these qualitative findings in order to empirically explore the construct of organizational silence and its associated processes. More specifically, researchers can take into consideration the three recipients' levels of silence and the common and different reasons that explain silent behaviour across levels that can inform their research design. Practitioners and policy makers can benefit from the identification of the antecedents and consequences of organizational silence. Since one of the most important reason of



remaining silent is the fear of losing or not getting, organizations should have processes in place to ensure that when an employee will express himself or herself will not suffer the consequences. Also, it is important to offer training to managers and employees on how to give and receive feedback as a way of creating an organizational culture receptive to feedback. Organizations are advised to foster perceptions of trust among employees by encouraging open communication with emphasis on feedback, accurate information, adequate explanation of decisions, and open exchange of thoughts and ideas. Also, organizational culture that shares values supportive to trust, such as open communication, inclusiveness, participation and involvement in the organizational processes will enhance and establish trustworthy behaviours. This climate of ‘trustworthiness’ needs to be supported by the behaviour of leaders and supervisors. More specifically, managers can consider involving employees in organizational processes, such as decision-making or determination of work roles, which was found to positively influence the development of trust.

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5. DISCREPANCY BETWEEN IDEAL AND ACTUAL CARING CULTURE: EFFECTS ON EMPLOYEE COMMITMENT AND SATISFACTION

G. Papagiannakis, E. Galanaki

Abstract

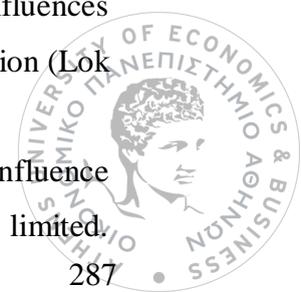
A person-organizational culture fit approach may add to our understanding on how work attitudes are shaped, but this link has been under-investigated by extant research. In this study, we investigate whether discrepancies between the ideal and the actual caring organizational culture influence employee organizational commitment and job satisfaction. We draw on the person-organization fit literature to specify a testable theoretical framework. Employing the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness) project methodology and using a sample of 638 employees, we found evidence that overall supports our main premise. The results of seemingly unrelated equations (SUR) analysis showed that in most cases, a high discrepancy between the ideal and the actual organizational caring culture leads to lower employee commitment and job satisfaction. The findings of this research emphasize the importance of the gap between the ideal and the actual organizational culture, most notably collectivism, in shaping individual's behaviour in organizations. The theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: Caring Organizational Culture; GLOBE project; Job Satisfaction; Organizational Commitment; Person-Organization Fit

Introduction

Organizational commitment and job satisfaction constitute the main primary attitudes that depict employees' perceptions of and feelings about their work environment and their jobs (Sisson, 1990; Thompson, 2011). Much of the previous research has proposed that the person-organization fit (P-O fit) perspective can help us understand how work attitudes are shaped (for a review see Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Obviously, employees will be more satisfied when their beliefs, attitudes, and values fit with the organizational-level characteristics of their firms. In this broader framework, a prominent research inquiry is the examination of the person-organizational culture interaction (T. A. Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013; Mathew & Ogbonna, 2009; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991) as culture provides a reference for corporate shared values, rituals, norms and basic assumptions and influences employees' sense of engagement and identification with and belonging to an organization (Lok & Crawford, 2004).

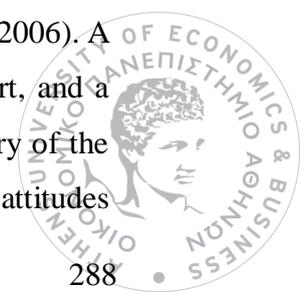
Although person-organizational culture congruency is expected to significantly influence employee work attitudes, our knowledge about the specific link between the two is limited.



More specifically, some studies have used ethnography and single-case designs to theorize about the multidimensional nature and complexity of the person-organizational culture relationship (Mathew & Ogbonna, 2009). Other studies have examined the effect of perceived organizational culture on work attitudes (e.g. Ortega-Parra & Sastre-Castillo, 2013). However, these studies do not assess whether current organizational culture matches employee needs and preferences; thus, they do not consider individuals' heterogeneous predispositions. O'Reilly et al. (1991) utilize the organizational culture profile instrument that measures organizational and individual values and find that a strong fit on the basis of value congruency has a positive influence on both normative commitment and job satisfaction. These findings, although important, are confined by the fact that values reflect only one facet of organizational culture (Earley, 2006) and do not capture the total effects of the person-organizational culture interaction. Therefore, although a person-organizational culture fit perspective is critical to better understand how work attitudes are shaped, this link has not been fully addressed by the empirical research.

On the other hand, the study of organizational culture in management research has traditionally mostly focused on task-specific aspects, such as future and performance orientation, than on relations-specific aspects, such as collectivism or humane orientation, where research is more limited (see for example Cohen & Keren, 2008). Even in such studies, the focus is either on the actual caring culture aspects (Francesco & Chen, 2004) or on the ideal ones, the values (Cohen & Keren, 2008).

The objective of the present study is to provide empirical evidence on the person-organizational culture relationship. Specifically, this study investigates whether person-organizational culture discrepancies affect employee commitment and job satisfaction. We utilize the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) instrument that measures both *actual* and *ideal* organizational culture in a consistent and comparable manner (Robert House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). Comparing the two constructs, we focus on the effect of their *discrepancies* (rather than their congruency or fit), a measure that allows us to evaluate a wider range of configurations between the actual and the ideal organizational culture, i.e., positive and negative discrepancies. We particularly focus on the discrepancies in the *caring* organizational culture that comprises three of the nine dimensions of the GLOBE instrument, namely, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism and humane orientation. Focusing on a meaningful set of organizational cultural dimensions, we address relevant calls to centre cultural research around smaller, theoretically cohesive frameworks (Earley, 2006). A caring culture cultivates employee pride, identification, feelings of collective support, and a sense of belonging to something greater. A caring culture links to the caring category of the ethical climates theory (Victor & Cullen, 1988), which correlates with positive work attitudes



(Sims & Keon, 1997; Sims & Kroeck, 1994). While ethical caring climate refers to issues such as the common good and “what is the right thing to do”, the caring culture encompasses collectivism, concern, sensitivity and generosity.

This study departs from previous work and contributes to the extant literature in several ways. First, it adopts a person-organizational culture framework to examine work attitudes. In doing so, the study complements the P-O fit literature, which is dominated by ethical climate and value-based perspectives (Ambrose, Arnaud, & Schminke, 2008; O'Reilly et al., 1991; Valentine, Godkin, & Lucero, 2002), by offering new empirical evidence from the perspective of organizational culture. In addition, by upgrading the role of individual predispositions, it advances our current knowledge of the conditional effects of organizational culture. Therefore, this study furthers our understanding of the interaction between the ideal and the actual and its effects on people and organizations.

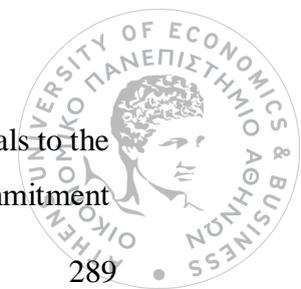
Second, this study re-examines the concept of organizational caring from a new perspective. Ethical climate studies (Sims & Keon, 1997; Sims & Kroeck, 1994) examine organizational caring as a unidimensional concept that is linked to the benevolence category of ethical theory (Victor & Cullen, 1988). The present work operationalizes caring culture as a multifaceted construct that comprises institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism and humane orientation. In that respect, it treats organizational caring as a more complex construct with diverse dimensions. By offering original empirical findings, this study advances our understanding of the effects of each dimension on work attitudes.

Finally, this study introduces a consistent and reliable methodology to measure person-organization interaction. Inconsistent measurement is one of the main weaknesses of the P-O fit field (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Some studies rely only on the perceived culture without assessing how well the climate or culture meets the needs and expectations of employees. Other studies operationalize both environmental and personal characteristics and compare the two measures. The greatest challenge is for the two measures to be comparable and to actually measure the same thing (O'Reilly et al., 1991). This study adopts the GLOBE instrument, which measures the actual and the ideal organizational culture in a comparable manner. It therefore ensures the reliability of the analyses and proposes a methodological approach that could resolve comparability issues and increase the credibility of the P-O fit empirical literature.

Theory and Hypotheses

Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Organizational commitment refers to the psychological attachment of individuals to the organization (Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). The higher the employees' commitment



is, the higher their loyalty to the organization, their willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization and their desire to remain employed by the organization (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Early research has sufficiently demonstrated that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct. According to the dominant approach (Allen & Meyer, 1990), organizational commitment comprises the following three factors.

(a) *Affective commitment*, which reflects “an affective or emotional attachment to the organization, such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership in, the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990: 2). This type of commitment is highly induced by individual and organizational value congruency.

(b) *Continuance commitment*, which refers to the bond between individuals and their organization as a result of contemplating the consequences (costs) of not being committed (considering the alternatives to being committed).

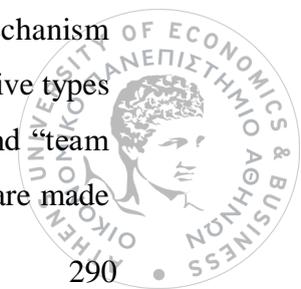
(c) *Normative commitment*, which expresses the perceived link of an individual to the organization through a sense of moral obligation. This type is manifested in the extent to which an employee feels obliged to make personal sacrifices for and not to criticize the organization.

In addition to organizational commitment, companies also seek to enhance their employees' physical and mental health, sense of happiness and social well-being, which can be reflected in the term *job satisfaction* (Grant, Christianson, & Price, 2007). Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one's job experiences" (p.1300), and in general, it encapsulates employees' feelings about their work (Brunetto, Teo, Shacklock, & Farr-Wharton, 2012). Job satisfaction is rightfully referred to by some as the “Holy Grail” of the organizational behaviour field (Edmans, 2012).

Collectivism and Humane Orientation: the caring dimensions of organizational culture

Although there is no universally accepted definition of organizational culture, many researchers agree that it refers to a pattern of values, beliefs, rituals, norms and assumptions that are shared among employees (Schein, 1992). Thus, organizational culture, as “the way we do things around here”, helps members of a group identify with one another and behave as expected, even when they are not instructed on what to do (Schein, 1999). Culture also determines whether and how well an employee fits into the organizational context (O'Reilly et al., 1991).

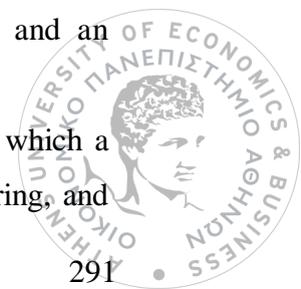
In this study, we use the ethical climate literature to specify and utilize the cultural dimension of *caring*. The ethical climate is a subset of organizational work climates and is defined as “a perception of what constitutes right behaviour and thus becomes a psychological mechanism through which ethical issues are managed” (Martin & Cullen, 2006:177). One of the five types of ethical climate is the caring climate, which is associated with the “friendship” and “team interest” ethical criteria (Victor & Cullen, 1988). In a caring environment, decisions are made



with an overarching concern for the well-being of others (Simha & Cullen, 2012). Thus, from a utilitarian perspective, organizational caring encourages behaviours that yield a positive outcome for the greatest number of constituents. A caring climate also creates a situation in which members of the collective feel like important members of a family (i.e., the organization) that supports and protects them. Moreover, caring workplaces cultivate greater cohesion and a positive affective tone among organizational members (Cullen, Parboteeah, & Victor, 2003). In the empirical domain, some studies have found a positive link between caring climate and both organizational commitment (Cullen et al., 2003; Ruppel & Harrington, 2000; Tsai & Huang, 2008) and job satisfaction (Ambrose et al., 2008; Deshpande, George, & Joseph, 2000; Elçi & Alphan, 2009; Wang & Hsieh, 2012). Other studies have incorporated the notion of fit between the expected and current caring climates and have reported mixed results. Sims and Kroeck (1994) have found that caring climate fit is correlated with affective commitment, not with continuance commitment and job satisfaction. In another study, however, Sims and Keon (1997) have found caring climate to significantly correlate with both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction.

In this study, we complement the current literature on caring climate by adopting a cultural perspective to study the effects of caring organizations on work attitudes. Links between organizational climate and organizational culture have been proposed by many scholars (e.g. D. R. Denison, 1996). However, a “rapprochement of the two siblings” (Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2011) has not yet been realized. Approaching an ethical climate construct from a cultural perspective is expected to offer new insights into the broader concept of organizational caring. Indeed, the dearth of research that investigates the link between corporate culture and work attitudes is an issue that has been raised by several scholars because of the prominent role of culture in shaping employee commitment and job satisfaction (Mathew & Ogbonna, 2009). The concept of caring is embodied in two core dimensions of organizational culture that encapsulate the meaning of both team interest and friendship ethical criteria: collectivism and humane orientation. Collectivism is viewed as either psychological collectivism (C. L. Jackson, Colquitt, Wesson, & Zapata-Phelan, 2006) or as one end of the individualism-collectivism continuum (Parker, Haytko, & Hermans, 2009; Sarkar, 2009). Collectivism is divided into two subconstructs (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishii, & Bechtold, 2004). The first is *institutional collectivism*, which refers to encouraging and rewarding collective action and team spirit even at the expense of individual goals. The second is *in-group collectivism*, which refers to the mutual and bidirectional demonstration of pride and loyalty between employees and an organization.

Humane orientation, the second dimension of caring culture, reflects the degree to which a collective encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring, and



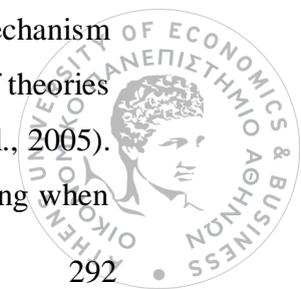
kind to others (R. J. House & Javidan, 2004). The term refers mostly to pro-social behaviour in interpersonal situations, such as concern for others, tolerance of errors, generosity, friendliness, and sensitivity to others (Brodbeck, Frese, & Javidan, 2002; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004).

The Effect of Caring Culture Discrepancies

The research that examines the effects of perceived organizational culture on employee attitudes is informative (Ortega-Parra & Sastre-Castillo, 2013). However, in principle it fails to consider the fact that each employee has specific expectations about the *ideal* organizational culture, i.e., that each employee adopts an individual point of reference when evaluating the *actual* organizational culture. We argue that this point of reference may influence how employee commitment and satisfaction are affected by the actual organizational culture (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999). This argument is consistent with previous work that differentiates between “what is or what are common behaviours, institutional practices, proscriptions, and prescriptions” and “judgments on what should be” an organization’s ideal practices (R. J. House & Javidan, 2004:15). The former cultural expression is rooted in the psychological and behavioural tradition, while the latter has its roots in the anthropological tradition of culture assessment.

The *discrepancy* measurement adopted in this study has a significant advantage over other measurements such as fit and congruency because it captures both the positive and negative deviations of the actual caring culture when compared to the ideal caring culture. Fit and congruency measurements reflect the level of agreement or correlation between the actual and perceived culture. However, discrepancy allows us to evaluate the effect of two possible configurations: one in which the actual culture is worse than the ideal (i.e., does not fulfil the expectations of the individual); and the other in which the actual culture is better than the ideal. The research on the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal caring culture shows that in general, people expect to find a stronger caring culture than they actually do (Gelfand et al., 2004; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2004). This finding has important theoretical and practical implications. Unfortunately, little is known about the effects of this discrepancy, as the empirical studies that introduce the above dichotomy to explain employee attitudes are limited (Mathew & Ogbonna, 2009). Moreover, to the best of our knowledge, no study has focused specifically on the discrepancy in the caring culture dimension and its effects on employee commitment and satisfaction.

The P-O fit, as developed in the early 1990s (O'Reilly et al., 1991), can offer the mechanism based on which the above link is valid. The P-O fit theory falls within a broader set of theories of fit, including person-job, person-group and person-supervisor (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). It proposes that a person will feel better and remain longer in an organizational setting when



there is a good fit between her personal characteristics and the characteristics of the organization. Conversely, people who value cultural situations that differ from those actually experienced in their organization will be less attached or satisfied in their role as members of an organization that does not meet their expectations (Lee & Antonakis, 2014).

Accordingly, we expect that caring culture discrepancies (with positive values to denote that the actual caring culture is worse than the ideal caring culture) will be negatively associated with both employee commitment and job satisfaction. Theory suggests that in caring environments that promote collectiveness and a sense of familiarity and long-term job security, employees are more loyal and committed (Parkes, Bochner, & Schneider, 2001). In addition, employees will be more committed to firms that meet their expectations about the level of in-group harmony, personalized relationships and norms that favour in-group embeddedness, all of which are characteristics of a caring organization (Clugston, Howell, & Dorfman, 2000).

Additionally, as social exchange theory suggests, employees who perceive that their organizations care about their well-being will be inclined to reciprocate by demonstrating higher levels of organizational commitment (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). With respect to the humane dimension of organizational caring, employees are expected to be more attached to firms that demonstrate higher-than-expected levels of consideration and concern for people's needs and emotions (e.g. Lok & Crawford, 2004). Based on the above discussion, we surmise that individuals who believe that their ideal of a caring culture is not met in practice will experience lower commitment to their organization. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1.1: *The discrepancy between the ideal and the actual caring culture will be negatively related to affective employee organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 1.2: *The discrepancy between the ideal and the actual caring culture will be negatively related to continuance employee organizational commitment.*

Hypothesis 1.3: *The discrepancy between the ideal and the actual caring culture will be negatively related to normative employee organizational commitment.*

Similarly, a high degree of discrepancy between the ideal and the actual may fail to fulfil human needs, desires and preferences and thus generate negative subjective experiences (Ruiz-Palomino, Martínez-Cañas, & Fontrodona, 2013). More specifically, employees who work in an organization that neither promotes nor encourages collaboration, individual sacrifice for a group or interdependent working at the desired level are likely to develop feelings of resistance and experience a low level of job satisfaction (Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). In addition, employees with high levels of collectivism who work in an organization that has cultivated a friendly, congenial, supportive, accepting and helpful workgroup atmosphere are expected to report a higher level of job satisfaction (Hui & Yee, 1999). Employees who perceive that their

ideal for a caring culture is not fulfilled at their workplace will feel uncomfortable performing employment tasks and therefore will be dissatisfied in their job.

Hypothesis 2: *The discrepancy between the ideal and the actual caring culture will be negatively related to employee job satisfaction.*

Methods

Sample and Data

To test our hypotheses, a structured questionnaire was used to survey a sample of employees. Using the Infobank-Hellastat database (<http://www.hellastat.eu>), which provides contact information for all private and public Greek companies, we randomly selected 300 companies that represent various industries and domains. We contacted these firms by phone or email, requested permission to gather data from their employees and in return, provided feedback on their organizational culture. Eighty-five companies agreed to participate in the survey, which produced a response rate of 28.3%.

To facilitate the data-collection process, postgraduate students were trained as research assistants as part of a research assignment on organizational culture. Each research assistant visited two organizations and distributed the questionnaires to employees who had at least two years of working experience in the current organization, thus ensuring that the respondents had enough experience to evaluate the culture of their organizations. The research assistants informed the respondents about the research and assured them that their responses would only be used for scientific purposes. Nine hundred and forty-five questionnaires were distributed. Two weeks later, the research assistants collected the completed questionnaires directly from the respondents in sealed envelopes, thus safeguarding the respondents' anonymity. The respondents were alternatively permitted to return their completed questionnaires by mail.

The data collection process ran from April 2011 to May 2012 and resulted in 638 (of 945) individual responses from 81 companies. Seven responses from four companies were eliminated because of inadequate completion of the research instrument. Each company was represented by at least four employees, and the average number of respondents per firm was approximately eight. The collected questionnaires came from people who worked in a wide range of functions, departments and vocational specializations, such as administration (33%), sales (14%), human resource management (9%), retail (8%) and support services (7.5%). The majority of the respondents were women (56%). The respondents' average age was 38.8 years (SD=8.9, min=20, max=46).

Measures

Organizational Caring Culture: We used the GLOBE questionnaire to measure the three dimensions of caring culture. The dataset used in this study is part of a wider research project that measures additional constructs that go beyond the scope of this work. The GLOBE questionnaire has been used extensively to evaluate organizational culture and is considered a very reliable instrument (Chhokar, Brodbeck, & House, 2007; R.; House, Hanges, Javidan, & Dorfman, 2004). The GLOBE questionnaire uses a 7-point Likert-type scale to measure 9 cultural dimensions based on 34 questions that address the organizational culture “as it is” (Actual Culture) and 41 questions that address the organizational culture “as it should be” (Ideal Culture). All of the scales for the organizational culture dimensions are available on the official GLOBE website (<http://business.nmsu.edu/programs-centers/globe/>).

Table 1 presents a sample item, the mean value, the internal reliability score and the number of items included for each caring culture dimension. Note that the mean values for the Actual Caring Culture measurements are significantly lower than the mean values for the Ideal Caring Culture measurements. This difference ranges from 0.67 (5.08-4.41) for Humane Orientation to 1.21 (5.12-3.91) for Institutional Collectivism. These numbers clearly indicate that on average, employees feel that the actual caring culture of their organization is lower than their ideal cultural reference.

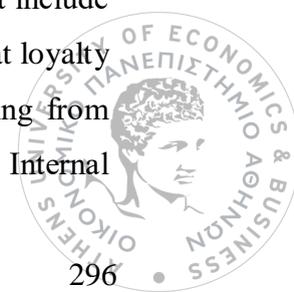
Table 1: Culture constructs, sample items, means and reliability scores

Culture Construct Definitions	Indicative questionnaire item	Actual Culture measurements				Ideal Culture measurements			
		<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>Alpha^a</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>sd</i>	<i>Alpha</i>
Institutional Collectivism	<i>Leaders encourage (should encourage) group loyalty even if individual goals suffer.</i>	3	3.91	1.33	0.68	3	5.12	0.83	0.74
In-Group Collectivism	<i>Employees feel (should feel) great loyalty toward this organization.</i>	5	4.44	1.15	0.81	6	5.36	0.84	0.71
Humane Orientation	<i>People are generally (should be) very tolerant to mistakes.</i>	3	4.41	1.10	0.84	4	5.08	0.76	0.78

a=Cronbach's alpha reliability score

For each of the three cultural dimensions, we calculated a discrepancy score using the following composite formula: (“Ideal Culture”- “Actual Culture”) / (“Actual Culture”). Composite measures generally help us better understand the impact of the phenomena under study (Shawver & Sennetti, 2009). In this case, the difference between the ideal and the actual is important but observing the proportion of this discrepancy over actual practice is more informative when assessing the cultural discrepancy. The difference between the ideal and the actual is weighted with the actual caring culture. The resulting variables were labelled Institutional, InGroup and Humane.

Organizational Commitment: Organizational Commitment was measured using the Allen and Meyer commitment questionnaire (Allen & Meyer, 1990). This questionnaire uses a 5-point Likert-type scale to measure 3 dimensions of organizational commitment, i.e., affective, normative and continuance commitment, based on 27 questions (9 for each dimension) (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Items that compose the affective commitment construct include “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” and “This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me”. Items that compose the normative commitment construct include “It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to” and “I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization”. Items that compose the continuance commitment construct include “One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain” and “Jumping from organization to organization does not seem at all unethical to me (Reversed)”. Internal



reliability analyses for the three measures produced Cronbach's alpha values of 0.83, 0.78, and 0.71 respectively.

Job Satisfaction: Job Satisfaction was measured using the overall job satisfaction questionnaire (Fields, 2002:5). This questionnaire measures job satisfaction on a 5-point Likert-type scale with the following three questions: “All in all, I'm satisfied with my job”, “In general, I like working at my company” and “In general, I don't like my job (reversed)”. The measure is highly reliable (Cronbach's alpha=0.81).

Controls: We included several control variables that previous research has identified as significant antecedents of employees' attitudes, i.e., gender, working experience, education, company type and hierarchical level (Hunter & Thatcher, 2007; Macintosh & Krush, 2014; Markovits, Davis, Fay, & van Dick, 2010). First, to consider gender differences, we included a dichotomous variable labelled *Gender* (female=0; male=1). Second, we included a continuous variable measuring the working experience of the individual in years (*Experience*). Third, we controlled for the number of years that individuals have spent on their education (*Education*). Fourth, to capture differences attributed to whether the organization is a private or public entity, we included a dichotomous variable labelled *Company Type* (private=0; public =1). Finally, we entered a variable labelled *Levels Top*, which expresses the hierarchical level of the respondent in a reverse order (the fewer levels from the top, the higher the hierarchical level of the respondent).

Analyses

Means, standard deviations and correlations for all constructs are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. Means, standard deviations, and Pearson correlations

Variable	N	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Gender	635	0.43	0.50											
2 Experience	567	9.93	8.56	.15 **										
3 Education	611	16.00	3.06	-.01	-.16 **									
4 Company Type	638	0.32	0.47	-.28 **	-.11 **	.13 **								
5 Levels top	587	3.04	2.26	.04	.16 **	-.07	-.27 **							
6 Institutional	638	0.56	0.91	-.10 **	.07	-.01	.15 **	.12 **						
7 InGroup	638	0.30	0.49	-.10 **	.02	-.04	.28 **	-.03	.49 **					
8 Humane	638	0.25	0.53	-.03	.04	-.04	.08 *	.05	.59 **	.57 **				
9 Com_aff	638	3.27	0.79	.18 **	.19 **	-.05	-.29 **	.01	-.34 **	.39 **	.31 **			
10 Com_cont	638	3.44	0.64	.04	.16 **	-.17 **	-.15 **	.18 **	.06	-.02	-.05	.26 **		
11 Com_norm	638	3.08	0.67	.14 **	.17 **	-.17 **	-.30 **	.01	-.24 **	-.25 **	-.16 **	.68 **	.25 **	
12 Job Satisfaction	638	3.95	0.85	.08 **	.04	-.02	-.19 **	-.04	-.35 **	-.43 **	-.35 **	.67 **	.19 **	.47 **

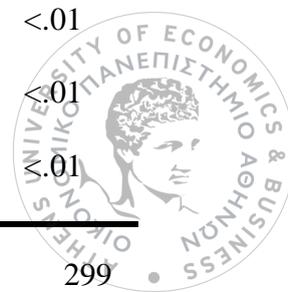
* p < .05, ** p < .01

Respondents appear to be committed to their employer (affective, continuance and normative commitment means>3), but mostly out of concern over the consequences of not being committed (continuance commitment mean> affective and normative commitment means). Finally, the mean for job satisfaction (3.95) is significantly higher than any dimension of organizational commitment.

Table 2 shows that the correlations among the three discrepancy constructs (ranging from .49 to .59) and the four dependent constructs (ranging from .19 to .68) are relatively high. To confirm that each construct of the above groups is different from the other constructs of the group, we conducted a discriminant validity analysis using a series of confirmatory factor models. Note that, because the discrepancy constructs have been generated by a formula and thus are not linked to specific items, the discriminant analysis was performed for the actual and the ideal caring culture dimensions. For each group of constructs, we estimated an unconstrained model in which all correlations between the pairs of latent variables were free to vary. This model was then compared with a series of constrained models, each having one interfactor correlation set to 1 (indicating that the two factors are the same constructs). As shown in Table 3, the produced chi-squared values for the unconstrained models were in all cases significantly lower than the chi-squared values of the constrained models, indicating discriminant validity between all constructs (Bagozzi, Youjae, & Phillips, 1991).

Table 3. Discriminant validity tests

Pair of Constructs ($\Phi=1$)	χ^2	d.f.	p
<i>Actual Culture</i>			
Base model (Unconstrained)	233.56	51	
1 vs. 2 ^a	245.99	52	<.01 ^b
1 vs. 3	246.66	52	<.01
2 vs. 3	243.29	52	<.01
<i>Ideal Culture</i>			
Base model (Unconstrained)	505.94	62	
1 vs. 2	667.59	63	<.01
1 vs. 3	790.71	63	<.01
2 vs. 3	1,081.41	63	<.01



Dependent Variables

Base model (Unconstrained)	1,391.84	318	
1 vs. 2	1,511.05	319	<.01
1 vs. 3	1,415.78	319	<.01
1 vs. 4	1,440.17	319	<.01
2 vs. 3	1,525.52	319	<.01
2 vs. 4	1,576.09	319	<.01
3 vs. 4	1,472.52	319	<.01

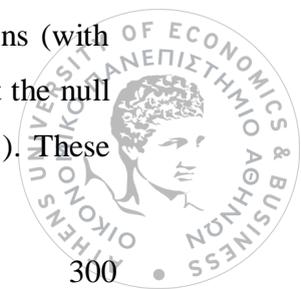
^aFor Actual and Ideal Culture: 1= Institutional Collectivism; 2=In-Group Collectivism; 3=Humane Orientation.. For the Dependent Variables model: 1=Affective Commitment; 2=Continuance Commitment; 3=Normative Commitment; 4=Job Satisfaction

^bDenotes the significance of χ^2 difference between the constrained and unconstrained model

The robust results of the above discriminant validity analysis indicate that the relatively high correlations between the three dimensions of caring organizational culture should not be considered as problematic. To further examine potential multicollinearity issues, we calculated the variance inflation factor (VIF) scores for all independent variables using the *collin* command in the STATA software. VIF estimates the proportion of variance of a coefficient that is inflated due to linear dependence with other predictors. All values were below the recommended cut-off of 10 (ranging from 1.06 to 1.87), indicating that our data does not suffer from multicollinearity (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2006).

Statistical approach

Because we have modelled the cultural discrepancies to have *simultaneous* effects on several indicators of job commitment and organizational commitment, the dependent variables of this study are viewed as a system. Indeed, the three types of organizational commitment have been showed to be positively correlated with each other (Meyer et al., 2002). Therefore, to test the hypotheses of this study, we used the STATA software and employed Seemingly Unrelated Regressions (SUR), a class of multivariate regression with correlated error terms. The logic behind the use of SUR is that *if* the error terms of the dependent variables are correlated, then a more efficient estimator is produced by estimating all equations jointly (Zellner, 1962). Our analysis revealed a significant correlation in the error terms across the four equations (with correlations ranging from .28 to .63), whereas a Breusch-Pagan test failed to support the null hypothesis that the four equations are independent (chi-squared = 596.04, $p < 0.001$). These results indicate that the use of SUR is necessary to produce efficient estimators.



Another issue of concern is that we gathered multiple responses from each company and thus certain unobserved, firm-specific phenomena may uniformly affect the responses from individuals who work at the same company. To account for this nested nature of the data, we used clustered residual analysis (each firm defines a group). In particular, we used the *vce* (*cluster clustvar*) option in the *mysureg* module of STATA, which allows for intergroup correlation. With this treatment, the observations are still assumed to be independent across groups (clusters) but not necessarily within groups (Williams, 2000).

Table 4 reports the results of the SUR, assessing possible effects of cultural discrepancies on the three types of organizational commitment and on job satisfaction. Hypothesis 1 predicted that the discrepancy between the ideal and the actual caring culture would be negatively related to Affective (Hypothesis 1.1), Normative (Hypothesis 1.2) and Continuance (Hypothesis 1.3) employee commitment. According to the SUR results, Institutional and InGroup collectivism variables have negative and statistically significant effects on Affective Commitment ($b=-0.16$ $p<0.05$ and $b=-.36$ $p<.0.5$, respectively) and Normative Commitment ($b=-0.13$ $p<0.05$ and $b=-.19$ $p<.0.5$, respectively). These results provide partial support for Hypotheses 1.1 and 1.3 while Hypothesis 1.2 is not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the discrepancy between the ideal and the actual caring culture would be negatively related to Job Performance. Table 4 shows that the Institutional and InGroup variables have negative and statistically significant effects on Job Satisfaction ($b=-0.16$ $p<0.05$ and $b=-.49$ $p<.0.5$), providing partial support for Hypothesis 2.

Table 4. Results of seemingly unrelated regressions (SUR)

Variables ^a	Affective Commitment			Continuance Commitment			Normative Commitment			Job Satisfaction		
	Coef	SE	CI (95%)	Coef	SE	CI (95%)	Coef	SE	CI (95%)	Coef	SE	CI (95%)
Intercept	3.36 ***	(.17)	3.02 3.70	3.66 ***	(.14)	3.37 3.95	3.66 ***	(.16)	3.33 3.99	4.35 ***	(.19)	3.98 4.73
Controls												
Gender	.14 **	(.07)	.01 .28	-.02	(.04)	-.09 .06	.07	(.05)	-.03 .17	.03	(.06)	-.09 .15
Experience	.01 ***	(.01)	.00 .02	.01	(.01)	-.01 .02	.01 ***	(.01)	.01 .02	.01	(.01)	-.01 .01
Education	.01	(.01)	-.01 .01	-.02 ***	(.01)	-.03 -.01	-.03 ***	(.01)	-.04 .01	-.01	(.01)	-.03 .01
Company type	-.25 ***	(.09)	-.44 -.06	-.13 *	(.08)	-.29 -.01	-.28 ***	(.07)	-.42 -.14	-.12	(.12)	-.36 .11
Levels top	-.12	(.01)	-.04 .02	.05 ***	(.01)	.03 .07	-.02	(.01)	-.03 .01	-.01	(.02)	-.05 .01
Main effects												
Institutional	-.16 ***	(.04)	-.24 -.08	.04	(.04)	-.04 .12	-.13 ***	(.04)	-.21 -.05	-.16 ***	(.06)	-.28 -.04
InGroup	-.36 ***	(.07)	-.50 -.22	-.10	(.07)	-.24 .05	-.19 ***	(.07)	-.33 -.05	-.49 ***	(.08)	-.66 -.32
Humane	-.07	(.10)	-.27 .13	.05	(.06)	-.07 .17	.05	(.06)	-.05 .17	.11	(.11)	-.33 .12
R-squared	.28 ***			.11 ***			.20 ***			.24 ***		
RMSE	.66			.59			.59			.75		

^aValues are unstandardized regression coefficients, with robust, clustered errors in parentheses. CI=confidence intervals (lower and upper bound)

* p < .10, ** p < .05, *** p < .01; N=523

Robustness Checks

Common method bias

One issue of potential concern in self-reported data is that of common method variance resulting from sources such as the consistency motif and social desirability (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Jeong-Yeon, & Podsakoff, 2003). Given that such variance can threaten the validity of constructs and distort their relationships, we took certain procedural and statistical remedies. To reduce response pattern bias, a) we ensured proximal separation between the items that belong -in theory- to the same factor by positioning them in a non-sequential order and b) we used many reverse-coded items. For example, the three items comprising Institutional Collectivism (Actual) are positioned at the seventh, twelfth (reverse), and thirtieth place of the same scale.

To statistically evaluate the severity of the common method bias, we applied the unmeasured latent method factor technique (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Using SmartPLS software (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2005), we constructed a structural model that replicates the model of this study with the addition of assigning a common method factor (latent variable) to all indicators of the model. Note that the independent variables of this study do not directly link to specific indicators, as they derive from calculations based on the “Actual” and “Ideal” constructs. Thus, the latter variables were entered into the model. Obviously, if the initial constructs do not suffer from common source bias, then their derivatives would also be free of such bias. Next, we compared the method factor loadings to the indicators' substantive factor loadings. This technique models the effect of the method factor on the distinct measures rather than on the latent constructs that these measures represent and thus does not require that the method factor affect each measure equally. The average of the indicators' substantive explained variance is 0.477, while the average method variance is 0.015. Thus, due to its small magnitude and significance ($.015/0.477 = 3.15\%$), common method variance is unlikely to be a serious threat in this study. The detailed methods and results of this analysis are available upon request.

Social Desirability Bias

Another common threat is social desirability bias, which refers to some people's tendency to respond in a socially acceptable manner (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To address this issue, we guaranteed the anonymity of the respondents, asked them to be honest and assured them that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We also presented our items in a non-threatening, neutral tone (Nederhof, 1985) and avoided posing questions to which the socially acceptable answer is obvious. Additionally, by conducting the survey from a distance, we eliminated any bias caused by the interviewer's presence.

In addition to these procedural remedies, we checked for over- or under-reported data but found no consistent pattern. For example, the mean values of the 7-scale questions that measure the employee evaluation of the actual caring culture range from 3.91 to 4.41 (see Table 1). Similarly, the mean values of the 5-scale questions that measure employee commitment range from 3.08 to 3.44. The only exception is the mean value of the level of employee job satisfaction that has a relatively high score of 3.95 on a 5-scale question. Nevertheless, the variation of this response is satisfactory, because 34% of the respondents report a low or medium level of job satisfaction. Moreover, even if this construct suffers from a small monotonic inflation that raises the average level artificially, it does not bias the strength or the direction of the relationships among the variables. Indeed, in cases of social desirability bias, statistically significant relations are less likely to occur because there is less variability in the respondents' survey answers. Therefore, by finding statistically significant relations, further support is offered for the strength of the examined relationships (Hardin & Hilbe, 2007). Only the absolute mean value of a variable that is potentially inflated (in our case, *job satisfaction*) should be interpreted with caution.

Endogeneity

A potential concern with the presented findings is reverse or simultaneous causality between predictors and dependent variables. The reverse causality argument suggests that employees with high (low) levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction may be positively (negatively) affected by this condition, resulting in a tendency to favourably (unfavourably) evaluate the current caring culture. If this is the case, the independent variables of this study are endogenous with regards to the dependent variables, and the results of the statistical estimations could be biased (Antonakis, Bendahan, Jacquart, & Lalive, 2010).

To empirically test the validity of this argument, we conducted subsample analyses, following previous work (Cheng, Ioannou, & Serafeim, 2014). If the reverse causality holds, we would expect a stronger relationship between the independent and dependent variables for individuals with high levels of job commitment and satisfaction. To perform the subsample analyses, we categorized individuals into three groups based on the score they gave to each of the dependent variables. To illustrate, based on the scores of the Affective Commitment variable, we constructed a dummy variable with three groups: the *low group* that includes individuals whose scores on Affective Commitment fall into the lower 25 percentile, the *high group* that includes individuals whose scores on Affective Commitment fall into the upper 25 percentile and the *medium group* that covers the remaining middle-level scores. Setting *medium group* as the baseline category, we interacted the low and high group categories with the Institutional

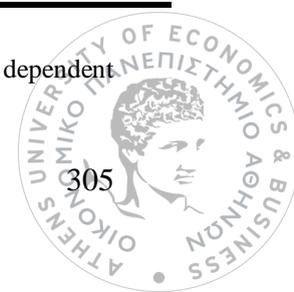
variable. The same process was followed for the other dependent variables. The results in Table 5 show that, contrary to the predictions of the reverse causality argument, in the subgroups of individuals with lower (higher) commitment and satisfaction, the relation between caring organizational culture discrepancies and commitment/satisfaction is not weaker (stronger). Indeed, in most cases the interaction is not significant, suggesting weak variability between subgroups; in the cases where the interaction is statistically significant, the sign of the coefficient is the opposite of what the reverse causality argument would predict. We conclude from this test that the results presented are unlikely to be driven by reverse causality and thus are not threatened by endogeneity issues.

Table 5. Results of subgroup analyses

Variables ^a	Affective		Continuance		Normative		Job Satisfaction	
	Commitment		Commitment		Commitment			
Institutional*low category ^b	.05	** (.02)	.03	(.02)	.01	(.02)	.02	(.03)
Institutional*high category	-.00	(.02)	-.01	(.02)	.03	(.02)	-.02	(.04)
InGroup*low category	.06	* (.03)	.08	** (.03)	.00	(.03)	.15	*** (.04)
InGroup*high category	-.01	(.04)	.03	(.02)	-.06	(.04)	-.00	(.06)
Humane*low category	-.04	(.03)	-.03	(.03)	.01	(.03)	.05	(.04)
Humane*low category	-.05	(.03)	-.00	(.03)	-.02	(.03)	.00	(.05)
Direct effects	Incl.		Incl.		Incl.		Incl.	
Controls	Incl.		Incl.		Incl.		Incl.	
Constant	3.27	*** (.00)	3.47	*** (.00)	3.27	*** (.00)	4.20	*** (.00)
R-squared	.83		.83		.82		.76	

^aValues are unstandardized regression coefficients, with robust, clustered errors in parentheses

^b Low and high categories differ in each equation because their calculation is based on the scores of each dependent variable.



Discussion

This study contributes to the intersection of two major lines of research. The first examines whether perceived organizational culture influences employee attitudes (Ortega-Parra & Sastre-Castillo, 2013). The second line of research, which uses the person-organizational fit framework, considers the match between organizational and individual characteristics; however, within this stream, the studies that adopt a cultural perspective are limited and mostly focus on the value-based aspects of culture (O'Reilly et al., 1991). The present study adopted an organizational culture perspective to predict that caring culture discrepancies affect employee commitment and satisfaction.

Overall, the findings presented in this study support our initial premise as most of the variance in organizational commitment and satisfaction was explained by the caring culture discrepancies, particularly those associated with the institutional and in-group collectivism dimensions of organizational caring. These findings enrich our knowledge of the importance of congruency between organizations and people (Oh et al., 2014), with specific reference to the caring aspects of this interaction. In this way, our findings complement prior research into the relation of both caring organizational values (Cohen & Keren, 2008) and caring organizational culture practices - mostly collectivism- (Francesco & Chen, 2004) with employees' work attitudes.

By showing the importance of an alignment between employee expectations and actual organizational caring culture, we offer support to a non-univocal approach to organizational culture evaluation and application. We also provide empirical support to the previous work on organizational culture (Goodman & Svyantek, 1999; Robert; House, 2004) and argue that individuals are affected not only by how things actually are in their organizations but also by their ideal image of how things should be and the relative difference between the two (i.e., the discrepancy).

More specifically, the results emphasize the importance of congruency between the ideal and the actual caring culture if employees are to connect with their employer out of a sense of obligation and a feeling of belonging to a family (Parkes et al., 2001). The results also suggest that when firms care about the well-being of their employees, organizational commitment may be the result of a reciprocation process, as predicted by social exchange theory (Masterson et al., 2000). Similarly, the caring culture discrepancy was found to shape employee job satisfaction. The theoretical importance of this finding derives from the fact that although organizational commitment is more attached to organizational-level attributes and thus is more

likely to be affected by organizational culture, job satisfaction is largely a task-specific attitude. In this respect, the effect of the caring culture discrepancy, an organizational-level aspect, appears to diffuse and influence attitudes (such as job satisfaction) that are more task-specific. Interesting conclusions and theoretical contributions can also be inferred from the unsupported hypotheses, which reveal two patterns that warrant further discussion. According to the first pattern, humane orientation discrepancies do not appear to affect any of the examined dependent variables of the study. Note that humane orientation refers to the degree to which an organization encourages and rewards individuals for being fair, altruistic, generous, caring and kind to peers and members of the organization. Thus, this result is possibly more an issue of personal codes and principles than of utilitarianism, which is central to caring ethical climates and collectivism (Simha & Cullen, 2012). Treating others humanely is not necessarily related to prioritizing collective goals (at a group or institutional level) over individual goals but rather to “doing the right thing” and behaving according to personal values and codes.

According to the second pattern, continuance commitment is not significantly affected by any of the caring culture discrepancies. This finding supports the idea that continuance commitment is substantially different from both affective and normative commitment. To understand this difference, consider that a person who scores high in continuance commitment is an employee committed to his/her employer based on a concern about the perceived personal sacrifice and few alternatives if not committed (Vandenberghe & Panaccio, 2015). These consequences are primarily related to factors outside the company, such as the risk of unemployment, the rewards and benefits of alternative employment, and delayed career advancement (Meyer et al., 2004). The fact that continuance commitment refers to the opportunity costs of not being committed may therefore explain why discrepancies in caring culture do not significantly affect this employee attitude.

Implications for Business and Society

This study offers valuable insights into the role of organizational caring for contemporary businesses. It particularly accentuates the pivotal role of the congruency between the ideal and the actual caring cultures. The study turns practitioners’ attention to the alignment between employee expectations and the current organizational caring culture. In this respect, Chatman (1989) has suggested that the recruitment and selection process should identify a match between organizational and individual values. This study’s findings suggest that a match between individual preferences and the actual state of the caring culture could be valuable for both companies and employees.

Furthermore, the importance of the caring culture should be viewed within the wider discussion of companies' social responsibility (Aguinis & Glavas, 2012). Currently, the manner in which companies treat their employees is considered a part of their social responsibility behaviour; thus, stakeholders' expectations (including those of the employees) are taken more into account by the socially responsible business. Companies should therefore strive to cultivate a caring and friendly environment. This need is apparent given that the actual caring culture of this study's sample firms was found to be lower than the employees' ideal. In this respect, firms could invest in improving internal communication and enhancing employee relations if the sense of belonging to something important, which supports the pride of the in-group, is to be encouraged in the members of the collective. Similarly, firms could nurture a sense of belonging among employees by adopting initiatives that promote their participation in the decision-making process (Davenport, 2012). When such initiatives are supported, employees are more likely to internalize business issues in the same manner as in their in-groups and families.

Another practical route of enhancing a sense of belonging to a significant in-group, family-like collective is to care for an organization's members. This objective can often be achieved by providing fringe benefits, which give a sense of encouragement and taking care of members' personal needs, as a family would do. In fact, recent research shows a strong link between fringe benefits and commitment and satisfaction (Kuvaas, 2006), as opposed to performance-related pay, which increases intragroup competition, especially when linked to individual performance.

In addition, organizations should consider work-family balance through relevant and appropriate policies. Work-family balance is the most commonly referred aspect of a caring culture and caring has mostly been studied in relation to such organizational practices (Cook, 2009). These policies should allow members to balance their family and work lives so that the employer does not become an enemy of the family, thus permitting its inclusion in the employee's inner-group. Flexible working time arrangements and family-friendly policies are several ways in which companies can move in this direction.

Taking the above discussion one step further, the quest for organizational commitment and job satisfaction transcends the boundaries of organizations and their responsibilities (Edmans, 2012) to refer to overall employee happiness and well-being (Fisher, 2010) with extensions to the level of society (Ashkanasy, 2011). Additionally, organizational culture has a dialectic relationship with societal culture (Javidan, House, Dorfman, Hanges, & Luque, 2006). This study accentuates the importance of caring culture, most importantly collectivism, to employee attitudes. An extension of this finding at the societal level would emphasize the practical

significance of a utilitarian ethical stance. This orientation would balance the individualistic character of Western societies underlying their values of personal gain, career advancement and individual recognition (Gelfand et al., 2004). A balance between individualism and collectivism at the level of the societal culture may be a way to achieve a balance between the ideal and the actual perceptions of collectivism at both the organizational and the individual levels.

Implications and Directions for Future Research

The significant effects of caring culture discrepancies on work attitudes imply that organizational caring may also influence other important employee attitudes and behaviours, such as productivity, efficiency and turnover intentions. We propose that research on organizational culture should incorporate this important dimension of culture into future studies. For example, existing organizational culture dimensions such as those of the “clan” and the “group” (Deshpandé, Farley, & Webster Jr, 1993; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983), as well as of “involvement” (D. Denison, Nieminen, & Kotrba, 2014) could be expanded or modified to include the idea of organizational caring articulated in this study.

In the methodological domain, we utilize a new discrepancy measure between the ideal and the actual caring cultures that incorporates the effect of where the organization actually stands in relation to its caring culture. This composite measure allows us to concurrently consider not only the difference between the actual and the ideal caring culture but also the starting point of reference. This method is superior and more robust than a simple abstraction between the two constructs and provides a means of standardization. We therefore propose its use in future studies that seek to investigate the discrepancy effects of person-organizational constructs. Future research could also compare the effectiveness of composite measures with other linear metrics in their ability to predict organizational variables such as work attitudes.

Limitations

Further implications can be derived from this study’s limitations. First, the present study draws conclusions from a survey conducted in a single country. Nevertheless, the effect of organizational culture on firm outcomes is also affected by national culture (Combs, Milosevic, Jeung, & Griffith, 2012). In this respect, cross-national research could assess whether societal culture affects the formation of the ideal caring culture. Previous research has established that some societies score higher in their collectivism or humane orientation ideals (Brewer & Venaik, 2011; Gelfand et al., 2004; Zhang, Liang, & Sun, 2013). It makes sense to expect that

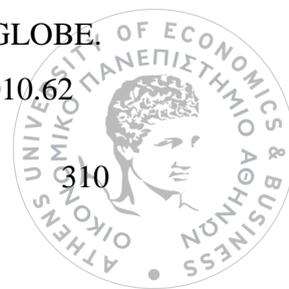
in societal cultures that score higher in collectivism, individuals will have greater expectations and ideals of collectivism. Further research is necessary to establish whether the effects of the caring culture discrepancy identified here are similar in countries with different national values related to collectivism.

Second, answers were provided by a single respondent, raising concerns of common method bias. The results of the performed econometric analyses suggest that common method bias is not likely to be an issue. However, future studies should attempt to eliminate any possibility of such a bias by employing a multi-method design that is based on multiple sources and different types of data (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Third, we did not examine whether certain variables moderate the examined relationships. For example, one could argue that the effects of caring culture discrepancies on employees' attitudes may vary across different types of leadership styles, such as transactional, transformational or charismatic (Pendleton & Furnham, 2011). Future studies could extend the framework of this study to account for such influences and thus provide further understanding of the conditions under which the examined relationships are enhanced.

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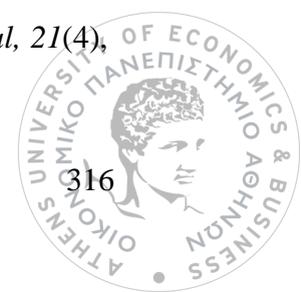
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6. JOB CRAFTING: BENEFICIAL OR HARMFUL FOR THE ORGANIZATIONS?

L. Paraskevopoulou

**Το πλήρες κείμενο δεν έχει άδεια δημοσίευσης
από τη συγγραφέα**



7. LEADERSHIP IN THE DIGITAL ERA: LEARNING FROM THE PAST AND CHALLENGES FOR THE FUTURE

G. P. Prastacos

1. Introduction

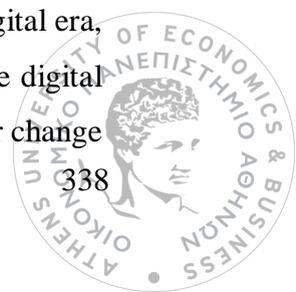
Leadership is the key differentiating factor between successful and less successful organizations. As such, it is also one of the most important topics in management education. With successful leadership, companies grow and thrive. With successful leaders, nations flourish. History is full of examples of great leaders. Alexander the Great, Winston Churchill, Mahatma Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, Martin Luther King, Henry Ford, Andrew Carnegie, Walt Disney, Bill Gates, and many more have been great leaders at the corporate or the societal level.

Prominent leadership scholars have studied leadership extensively, and the leadership literature is voluminous. Researchers have analyzed the phenomenon of leadership, various leadership styles and behaviors, developed leadership models, such as the authentic leadership, servant leadership, transformational leadership, and more (see e.g. Avolio et. al. 2009; Antonakis & Day, 2018).

Going forward, there is no doubt that these leadership characteristics will continue to be important. The best leaders will have a vibrant vision and an ability to communicate effectively that vision to multiple stakeholders, while inspiring all levels of the organization. They will work hard, act as role models, encourage ethical behavior, and be committed to the success of their organizations. They will be honest and forthright, recognizing that integrity is very important to gain the trust of their people, and to maintain and grow the relationships with their partners.

However, as we enter the digital age, many things are changing in the external environment and internally within companies: data and technology are everywhere, new business models become dominant, demographics and cultures are changing, the workplace is transformed, and change has become the norm rather than the exception. It is certain that all companies, from startups and online businesses to incumbents in all traditional industries will need effective leadership to address these challenges and to transform their organizations for the digital era.

Therefore, a number of questions arise: What are the key forces of disruption in the digital era, and how is this affecting leadership? What are the “requirements” of the leader in the digital age in order to effectively address these forces? How do the key functions of the leader change



in the digital era? How do these requirements and functions compare to what we have learned from the past?

This paper is organized as follows. First, we briefly review three leadership models we consider particularly relevant in the digital era. Next, we examine what we consider are the key forces that impact organizations in the digital era, and the leadership challenges they present. Based on these challenges, we then make some preliminary observations about the requirements and the functions of leadership in the digital era. Finally, we close with some conclusions and directions for further research.

2. A brief review of three leadership models

There are three behavioral leadership models we consider particularly relevant to the topic of this paper: the transformational leadership model, the authentic leadership model, and the servant leadership model. For each of these models, we will present briefly the key characteristics of the corresponding leader. In section 4, we will return to these models and examine how some of these characteristics are important for leaders in the digital age.

The Transformational Leader

Transformational leadership was advanced by Burns (1978, 2003), Bass (1990b, 1998a), Bass and Avolio (1993), Yukl (1998), and others. A key trait of transformational leaders is their ability to project a strong vision and personality, and to inspire the followers to work towards common goals through their appeal to higher ideals and improved performance. Transformational leadership differs from transactional leadership in that it is not based on a give-and-take relationship, but on the strength of the energizing vision of the leader, and his/her ability to inspire followers.

According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders are characterized by the following:

- *Idealized influence*: Transformational leaders become role models for followers and earn their trust, respect and admiration; they embody the qualities they want in their team.
- *Inspirational motivation*: Transformational leaders motivate their followers by providing a vision and a meaning to the tasks of followers. They arouse team spirit, are enthusiastic and optimistic, and help followers develop desirable visions for the future. Combined, these first two traits are what constitute the transformational leader's *charisma* (Antonakis et. al., 2012).

- *Intellectual stimulation:* Transformational leaders challenge followers to be innovative and creative, and thus stimulate innovation and creativity. They encourage them to question the status quo and any existing assumptions, reframe situations, approach old problems from new perspectives, and achieve higher levels of performance.
- *Individualized consideration:* Transformational leaders demonstrate genuine concern for the needs and the feelings of their followers, and act as coaches or mentors for the personal development of each follower. This, in turn, increases the trust between the organization's members and the leader, and has positive impact on the effectiveness of the leader's decisions

The Authentic Leader

The digital era is an era of data and transparency, and both of these characteristics are key components of the authentic leadership model. More specifically, an authentic leader is one who demonstrates a high degree of the following four behavioral factors (Walumbwa et al. 2008):

- *Self-awareness:* Authentic leaders are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, and of their impact on the others via their interactions and behavior. They gain increased knowledge about themselves through interaction with others and through a meaning-making process that contributes to the way one views him- or herself.
- *Relational transparency:* Authentic leaders are open and transparent in communication with others, and in the way they share thoughts and feelings.
- *Balanced processing.* Authentic leaders use objective data to make final decisions.
- *Internalized moral perspective.* Authentic leaders lead and act guided by internal moral standards, which regulate behavior. Hence, authentic leaders are aware of their values, and by staying true to their own values, they demonstrate a sense of authenticity and genuine behavior, which increases their credibility and earns the trust of their followers (Avolio et al. 2004).

In essence, authentic leaders express their “true self” in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings” (Harter, 2002). According to Luthans and Avolio (2003) they possess confidence, optimism, hope, efficacy, courage, and resilience. They have an inherent ethical/moral component and follow a transparent decision making process to address ethical issues and achieve authentic and sustained moral actions (May et al. 2003).

The Servant Leader



The Servant Leadership Model was developed by Greenleaf (1977), who proposed that effective leaders should overcome their own egos by addressing the needs of their followers. According to Reinke (2004), “a servant-leader is one who is committed to the growth of both the individual and the organization, and who works to build community within organizations.” Servant leaders are motivated by more than the need for power; it is the need to serve (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

According to Spears (2010), a servant leader listens carefully to what is being said; strives to understand, empathize with others and identify the will of the people; seeks to heal relationships; exhibits awareness and self-awareness; and relies on persuasion, rather than authority and compliance, in their decision-making process. Servant leaders stretch their thinking to encompass broader-based concepts beyond the present-day need, are able to foresee the outcomes of a decision based on lessons from the past and working with intuition, are deeply committed to the success of everyone in their organization, and continuously try to build communities among them.

The Servant Leadership Model has been gaining popularity in the recent years. Van Dierendonck (2011) indicates that the servant leadership model may well be what organizations need today, especially given today’s demand for more ethical, people-centered management. The strong ethical ground of the servant leader makes this type of leadership even more appropriate. In addition, Eva et al. (2019) suggest that the modern organization does not offer the sense of community and engagement that employees might need and, therefore, a servant leader, with his/her commitment to build a community might be able to fill this gap.

Personality Traits of Leaders

The five-factor model of personality (often termed the *Big Five*) has been a well-accepted personality framework. It has been developed by Costa & McCrae (1992) and others, and it establishes five major personality dimensions (factors) that are generally applicable, each one comprising six traits. Although there have been critiques of the five-factor model (see, e.g., McAdams, 1992; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000), there is strong consensus for regarding it as the most accepted framework for describing the overarching aspects of personality (Goldberg, 1990; Judge et al. 2002). In meta-analyses conducted (see, e.g., Judge et al. 2002; Bono and Judge, 2004), this framework and the relationships of the five personality dimensions to the leadership behaviors of transformational or transactional leaders were confirmed. The personality dimensions of the five-factor model and the traits in each dimension are the

following:

- *Neuroticism* refers to individuals who “tend to view the world through a negative lens” (Bono and Judge, 2004). They have a tendency to be “anxious, self-pitying, tense, touchy, unstable, worrying”, and demonstrate “hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, fluctuating moods, vulnerability” (McCrae & John, 1992).
- *Extraversion* refers to individuals who are described as “active, assertive, energetic, enthusiastic, outgoing, and talkative” (McCrae & John, 1992). They are upbeat, and optimistic (Costa & McCrae, 1992), sociable (Judge et al. 2002), seek excitement (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975), and they have and value warm personal relationships (Depue & Collins, 1999).
- *Openness to experience* refers to individuals who demonstrate openness to culture and intellect (McCrae & Costa, 1997). These individuals have a tendency to be “artistic, curious, imaginative, insightful, original, with wide interests” (McCrae & John, 1992). They are “nonconforming, unconventional, and autonomous” (Judge et al. 2002), “creative, introspective, resourceful” (Bono and Judge, 2004) and demonstrate “fantasy, feelings, values, a wide range of interests, follow unusual thought processes, value intellectual matters” (McCrae & John, 1992).
- *Agreeableness* refers to individuals who have the tendency to be “appreciative, forgiving, generous, kind, sympathetic, trusting” (McCrae & John, 1992). They are “cooperative, trusting, gentle, modest, altruistic (Graziano & Eisenberg, 1997), and demonstrate “trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty and tendermindedness” (McCrae & John, 1992).
- Finally, *conscientiousness* refers to individuals who have the tendency to be “efficient, organized, planful, reliable, responsible, thorough” (McCrae & John, 1992). They have a “strong sense of direction and work hard to achieve goals” (Costa & McCrae, 1992). They demonstrate “competence, order, dutifulness and self-discipline, and strive for achievement” (McCrae & John, 1992).

We will refer back to these leadership models and personality traits to examine how relevant they are in addressing the challenges of the digital era.

3. Key forces driving change in the digital era and their impact on leadership



Let us now turn our attention to the digital era. What are the forces of the digital era that cause disruption to the enterprises and how do they impact leadership? Here are seven important forces that are changing the landscape:

1. Data is everywhere

We live at times where the generation and availability of data is phenomenal. This availability, coupled with the advances in analytics and machine learning, has a huge impact on the way problems are addressed and decisions are made. Leaders in the digital era should possess analytical thinking, possess a certain amount of curiosity so that they can ask the right questions, and be able to develop and evaluate alternative analytical scenarios. This will help them articulate a strong and compelling story and vision that will elevate the level of the organization and of its members. This new environment also requires that leaders understand the implications and limitations of technology and analytics, and can implement innovative policies that will improve their decision making, create excellent customer experience, while they also consider rigorous governance policies with regard to data quality, safety, security and privacy.

2. Technology is redefining the workplace

Artificial intelligence, robotics and automation are reshaping the way business is conducted, and creating a lot of discussion about the future of work (see, e.g. Kittur et al. 2013, Seidel et al. 2019), the availability and type of jobs that will be needed in the future, changes needed in the organizational structures, relations between supervisor and employee, especially when a human is replaced by a robot, etc. These advances have major impact on leadership. Since most of the developments in this area are still unknown, leaders in the digital era must be comfortable with uncertainty, and technology-savvy, so that they can visualize the workplace of the future where humans and machines work synergistically. They must be able to think analytically and be open to innovation. Given that employment in some sectors will decline sharply, new jobs will appear, and new skills will be needed across all sectors, they must possess a certain amount of curiosity to monitor the developments in technology and the changes in skills needed. They must be bold and quickly adopt new methods of work in the workplace to improve processes, implement short and agile teams, and improve on the efficiency of the operations, and the collaboration across the organization.

3. Continuous change is the norm



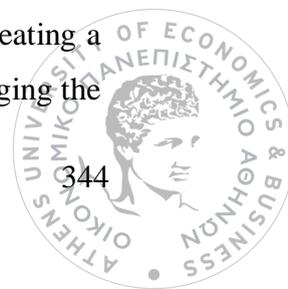
We live in an environment of continuous and accelerating change, and this has big impact on organizations. Eighty-eight percent of companies appearing on the Fortune 500 list in 1955 were not on that list in 2016. Change is becoming the norm rather than the exception, and a number of studies have been conducted to address this change (see, e.g. Prastacos et.al 2002). To start with, establishing a *sense of urgency* would be a prerequisite for any transformation process (e.g. this was the case of a major educational transformation, see Prastacos, 2017). It is also the first item in Kotter's change strategy (2017), and we believe that it is even more very appropriate today than before. Changes are happening continuously, both internally and externally, and the leader needs to overcome inertia and get on with the transformation while the company is still performing well. At the same time, it is important to develop a culture of *strategic agility* that will enable the organization to flexibly respond to complex, global and dynamically changing environments (Lewis et. al, 2014)

4. Globalization is changing

Globalization has traditionally been centered around the concept of centralized decision making and production, thus taking advantage of economies of scale. This is not the case anymore. Empowered by the internet and following a focused customer-centric approach, companies today try to achieve a balance between global scale, capabilities and strategy, with a more local approach and a better understanding of local customers, markets and regulatory environments. It is important, therefore, that the leaders in the digital era understand this and realize the need to develop *contextual intelligence* (Khanna, 2014), i.e. adopt current knowledge and concepts to a new environment. The same happens with innovation, which, in a "polycentric" world is generated locally, tested in neighboring markets, and then maybe expanded globally. This environment requires leaders to be internationally aware, and cognizant of the changing geopolitical and economic powers. They also need to be open and culturally inclusive; to promote diversity at the management level, as well as to be socially sensitive, promote the common good to the communities where the organization is active, and be ethical in their business transactions.

5. There is a need for a different approach to the customer

Social media and platform companies enable the customer today to be networked with other customers and become a major influencer in the company's reputation. At the same time, technology and big data allow companies to understand the specific features of every digital customer, and thus move from mass production to individual customization, while creating a unique experience for the customer and a 24x7 service. This new environment is changing the



way companies need to approach the customer, since they have to develop data-intensive, consumer-centric strategies to improve sales, manage reputations and grow the company. Leaders of the digital era have to understand the new technologies and be open to innovation; they must develop innovative ways to analyze customer data, and innovative approaches to the customer. They have to develop a personalized relationship of the customer with the company that will not only achieve a sale, but will also inspire to the customer loyalty, advocacy, repeat purchases, and collaboration for improved products and services.

6. The rules of competition are changing.

It used to be that companies would compete in their closed industry boundaries by trying to develop innovations that would create a better value-for-money proposition to the customer, improve on their brand and catch the customer. In the digital era this has changed. Platform companies like Airbnb are examples of companies that, through technology, have realized tremendous growth and have upset industries without having been in the specific industry before. Today companies may compete in one sector while they collaborate in another, and are increasingly organized in platform multicompany ecosystems that cross traditional industry boundaries and blur previous distinctions between competitors or collaborators, and producers or consumers. This new environment creates a very big uncertainty, which leaders in the digital age have to address; they have to be visionaries, bold, and understand technology. They have to be comfortable with the tensions that will arise, and make the most out of them, by implementing a “both/and,” as oppose to an “or” culture. By correctly leveraging these tensions, the leader can develop new solutions or business models, while he/she still exploits the organization’s resources, thus improving efficiencies and overall performance.

7. Cultures are changing

The importance of culture cannot be overemphasized, and a good corporate culture is behind the success we see in breakthrough organizations. For example, Apple’s commitment to innovation is cultural, not process driven, and hence has been very successful. Another good example has been Google. The book by Laszlo Bock (2015) contains the 10 “work rules” that have transformed Google and have created an unparalleled culture of innovation, while striking a balance between creativity and structure. In the digital era, given the availability of data (almost for everything), the networking across social media and platforms, and the many changes happening, a good culture is data-driven, open, externally looking, high performing, transparent, and empowering (Hemerling, 2018). These features have been always been elements of a good culture, but they take special importance in the digital age. To address them

effectively, leaders should be characterized by extraversion, collaboration, transparency, an openness towards innovation, and a data-driven culture. They should promote diversity and inclusion, and take the well-being of their employees as an important factor in formulating HR policies. They should also promote a purpose and a social aspect to their vision, especially given that the younger generation and the society at large are increasingly interested in issues that relate to the social impact of technology (e.g. security, privacy, employment), issues of sustainability and the broader contribution of business to society.

8. The war for talent has never been more intense.

Organizations are starved for talent as they search for ways to take advantage of developments in big data, artificial intelligence and machine learning, across the entire spectrum of digital transformation. Universities still do not produce enough graduates with those skills, and therefore there is an imbalance of talent, creating many anomalies. Companies are trying many conventional and unconventional ways to attract digital talent. This feature is an important part of the leader's agenda. In the digital era, talent is the most important resource an organization has. The leader must address this as a priority and needs to develop effective systems to recruit talent as a matter of priority. However, recruiting talent is not enough; given the decline in employee engagement, the leader has implemented policies that will raise engagement and improve retention, such as promoting a purpose for everybody's work, improving the well-being of employees, and so on.

In the following sections we have a deeper look into these forces to understand them better and try to draw conclusions about leadership in the digital era.

4. Some guidelines for leadership in the digital era

Given the challenges presented in the previous section, we will try to identify some of the key attributes that a leader needs to realize in order to address these forces successfully. We believe that significant further research has to take place on identifying the key attributes of leadership in the digital age; however, one can draw some introductory conclusions from the analysis presented earlier. We will only present attributes if we consider them relevant to the digital transformation.

Being data driven and technology-savvy are key attributes for the leader of the digital era. Adeptness in dealing with numbers and, through them, getting a feeling about trends, opportunities or threats is important today. In a world where many questions are not known yet,

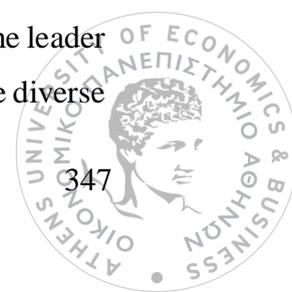


the intuition that the leader will develop through this skill will be invaluable. A deep understanding of the emerging technologies and how these affect the workplace both strategically and operationally will be important in order to develop appropriate strategies, but also to cultivate a data-driven culture that promotes collaboration, innovation, agility and speed. This requirement does not seem to fit exactly to any particular leadership model; rather, it seems to correspond to both the transformational and the authentic model: the *transformational* leadership model through the *intellectual stimulation* characteristic, and the *authentic* leadership model, through the *balanced processing* component.

The ability to develop and communicate a strong vision will be one of the most important requirements for a leader in the digital era. In a world where technologies change every business function and the rules of the competition are changing, the leader needs to have a strong and compelling vision of where he/she sees the organization, and articulate this vision effectively. He/she has to pay close attention to the trends as well as the internal signals of the organization, define a company's map and potential, and come up with a strategic narrative that he/she will communicate effectively to the rest of the organization (Lesser et.al. 2018a). A *transformational* leader will satisfy this requirement; through *inspirational motivation*, he/she will develop a strong and compelling vision, communicate it effectively, build trust, and motivate the employees to help during the implementation of the strategy.

The ability to mobilize the organization's stakeholders, to get their support for his/her vision and implementation plan, is also an important attribute of the leader. This includes both internal and external stakeholders — employees, the board, investors, the government and regulators, and the public. The leader has to work with each of these groups, listen to their expectations and take them in consideration or try to reshape them, according to the new realities and his/her vision and plan (Lesser et.al. 2018a). He/she should maintain direct access and communication with select leaders, so that their commitment is reinforced, collaboration across silos is increased, and the company's mission and values are communicated and maintained across the levels of the organization (Lesser et.al. 2018a). Again, a *transformational* leader will satisfy this requirement; as an *extroverted* person, and through *idealized influence*, *inspirational motivation* and *intellectual stimulation* he/she will develop the activities needed to mobilize the stakeholders behind the vision.

Adopting an open mind and promoting an open culture are important attributes of the leader of tomorrow. There is little doubt that the workforce in the digital era will be much more diverse



than today's and that an evidence-based culture — characterized by collaboration and transparency, open to innovation and promoting experimentation — is more likely to be a healthy culture. The reasons were outlined earlier: geographical barriers cease to exist, virtual teams work across continents, performance and innovation are greatly enhanced by diversity, work will be conducted by agile teams where collaboration and transparency will be essential, and so on. This requirement appears also to be satisfied by a *transformational* leader, since one of the key dimensions of his/her behavior is *intellectual stimulation*, encouraging an open mind, and experimentation for new innovative strategies.

Agility and flexibility are very important, not only in organizational structures, but also as a culture in the digital era. Agility will give to the organization the ability to sense opportunities and threats (possibly through strong technical skills to read tea leaves effectively), solve problems (through innovation, perseverance, empathy, engagement and effective utilization of resources), and adjust organizational structure and strategy accordingly, without losing sense of direction and focus. This, in turn, implies the leader will be able to manage tensions effectively, move quickly when the opportunity appears, make bold moves and be comfortable with a certain level of risk in his/her decisions. The practice of implementing both exploitation and exploration is important to provide strategic agility (Doz and Kosonen, 2008). Again, a *transformational* leader will satisfy this requirement; as an *extroverted* person, and through *intellectual stimulation* he/she will be able to demonstrate the agility and flexibility needed to manage the tensions and address change effectively.

Having a deep interest in attracting and maintaining talent, and in developing an environment of continuous learning and growth for them are very important attributes of the leader in the digital age. The relentless war for talent, falling engagement, increasing employee mobility and changing demographics have made this a major priority of a leader, who has to develop policies that will attract and retain talent in the organization. He/she has to make sure there are continuous training possibilities for the company's employees (as well as for him/herself), so that they not only maintain their competitive edge, but grow as professionals, ready to undertake the challenges of the digital era. He/she has to develop a cause for the organization, which will be a major factor towards attraction and enhanced engagement. This requirement would be satisfied by *servant* or *transformational* leaders; servant leaders tend to put the priority of their followers above their own, and transformational leaders exhibit an *individualized consideration* component in their behavior.

Being firmly grounded in values and ethics is very important for any leader, and this also holds for the digital era. The leader acts as a role model in the organization, and therefore, promoting and living through the values of the organization is very important. This not only aligns everybody behind the mission and the cause, but it also increases engagement and retention. In the digital era, there are many “new” important ethical issues that the digital enterprise is facing, including privacy and security issues. This requirement would be satisfied all three leadership models presented here:

transformational leaders through *idealized influence*, *inspirational motivation* and *individualized consideration* promote values and high morals and ethics at the organizational and individual level; *authentic* leaders know their values and act accordingly; and *servant* leaders act in an ethical and moral way trying to improve the well-being of their followers.

In summary, we see that, while all three leadership models presented here have correspondence with various requirements of the digital era, *transformational leadership* seems to be the one closest to satisfy all the requirements needed to address the challenges of the digital era.

5. Concluding remarks

The digital disruption is upon us, with major impact on organizations. Leaders play a major role in managing their organizations and steering them through this major disruption. In this paper we outlined the key forces of this disruption, and how the organization needs to react versus these forces. Based on these findings, we presented the key attributes of leadership in the digital era, and how the existing leadership models seem to satisfy the requirements of a leader in the digital era and concluded that the transformational leadership model appears to be the one that closest satisfies the requirements to address the challenges of the digital era.

Significant research and further analysis have still to take place to better understand the forces of disruption, the traits that respond better to these forces, and the leadership styles that are better fit to address the challenges in the digital age. Significant effort also has to take place to change curricula that will address the new reality and develop the leaders for the digital era. It is encouraging to know that AACSB already is launching an initiative to redevelop the management curriculum for the digital age (Prastacos, 2019). Given the size of the digital disruption, it is certain that more such initiatives will be launched.

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8. ON SOCIETAL CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP IN GREECE

T. Skouras

Abstract

The GLOBE Study is the foremost international effort in the comparative study of societal cultures. Professor Nancy Papalexandris participated in GLOBE as the principal country-investigator for Greece and authored the chapter assessing the research findings, which relate to the GLOBE's nine fundamental dimensions of societal culture in the Greek context. Professor Papalexandris' work constitutes a pioneering endeavor, given that Greek academics have shown on the whole remarkably little interest in the scientific study of the Greek character and societal culture. The present article is a critical commentary on her chapter, aiming to further the investigation of this foremost question for Greek society's self-knowledge. In particular and most importantly, it points to the relative neglect and underestimation of an inflated ego in the interpretation of the research findings. A fitting interpretation requires that proper attention is given to the inflated ego, as this is a central trait of the Greek character largely accounting for the special nature of the Greek societal culture.

Keywords: societal culture, GLOBE Study, Greek character, leadership, inflated ego

Prefatory notes

The international comparison of societal cultures has become a core field of international business research following Geert Hofstede's pioneering 1980 study¹. More recently, the GLOBE study has made a massive effort to expand and deepen this research field. Led by Professor Robert J. House of the Wharton School at the University of Pennsylvania, the GLOBE project (acronym for "Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness") involved 170 researchers in 62 countries, as well as a 14-member group of coordinators and research associates to collect data from 17,300 middle managers in 951 organizations. The project, which extended over many years and included at least three phases, initially developed the appropriate research instruments and then identified and assessed nine fundamental attributes or cultural dimensions of both societal and organizational cultures, in order to explore how these impact leadership in 62 societal cultures. The last phase examines the effectiveness of specific leader behaviors (including that of CEOs) on subordinates' attitudes and performance.

¹ See, Hofstede(1984).



Professor Nancy Papalexandris participated in GLOBE as the principal country-investigator for Greece and authored the chapter assessing the nine fundamental dimensions of Greek societal culture.² This is of great importance, as the scientific study of the Greek character and societal culture is gravely lacking. Even relevant information based on scientifically respectable opinion polls and questionnaire surveys have been largely absent until very recently. What might account for this evident lacuna?

To be sure, it is not due to lack of interest in the question of the character and social life of Greeks. Foreign travelers to Greece over the ages have shown considerable interest and the record of their impressions and interpretations is often available in print. But the more interesting and critical among them have habitually been denounced as being inimical to Greece (commonly branded as “anti-Greeks”) and were mostly ignored.³

Greeks have been on the whole rather uncritical in their understanding of their collective identity and, with the notable exception of satirical writers such as Roidis and Souris, they tend to have a laudatory view of their societal culture. Greek academics have been loath to critically confront the national collective character and have tended to stay away from systematically studying it. Despite the exhortation by the national poet, Dionyssios Solomos, that “the nation should learn to adopt as its own that which is true”, it would seem that fear of being accused as unpatriotic has stopped Greek academics from engaging with this sensitive question.

In this context, it may be relevant to note that the most insightful portrait of the Greek character is to be found in an apocryphal document, supposedly written about two millennia ago by a foreigner, an officer of the Roman Empire.⁴ Its close resemblance to present-day Greek behavior, was seen as evidence of the stability and persistence of the Greek character over the ages. Interestingly, this document and the character traits it discerns, play a central role in one of the rare studies of the modern Greek character by an academic historian.⁵

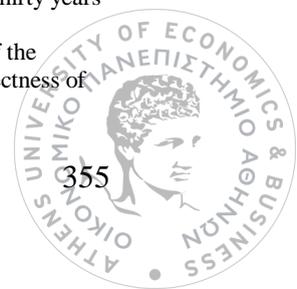
It is true that the Delphic maxim “know thyself”, despite its prominence in classical Greek philosophy, is never easy to fulfill and its achievement is much more difficult for societies than for individuals. But for Greek society it seems to be an unusually formidable task. There has been no serious critical effort to study and understand the character, culture and social life of Greeks. The common understanding of Greek societal culture hardly goes beyond encomiastic

² See, Papalexandris (2007).

³ One of the most readable and perceptive early views of modern Greece, which has recently been translated into Greek, is the book by the French writer About (1863). Edmond About was better known in Greece, and indeed internationally, by his satirical novel about a brigand in Attica, *Le Roi des Montagnes* (The King of the Mountains), which immediately earned him in Greece the reputation of being an «anti-Greek».

⁴ See, Τσάτσος (1970). This was, in fact, fabricated by a leading Greek intellectual who only admitted it in public thirty years after its original publication.

⁵ See, Βακαλόπουλος (1983). The original edition of this book refers approvingly and extensively to the insights of the imaginary Roman officer but even after recognizing the hoax (in the second edition), the author insists on the correctness of these views, since they are corroborated by a plethora of other writers cited in the book.



platitudes and chauvinistic beliefs in the superiority of Greek culture.⁶ Even the one negative trait of discord and disunity, that is generally recognized, is not explored further to seek its deeper psychological roots but is only regretted, as being the main obstacle to an even more preeminent culture and national greatness.

Given this state of affairs, the project of undertaking a scientific approach to the decipherment of Greek societal culture is certainly laudable. Especially, when it is done in a systematic framework which makes it internationally comparable to a large number of different cultures. Professor Papalexandris is, therefore, to be highly commended for initiating this effort. I am very thankful to her for asking me to participate in this project with a critical commentary on her chapter. This was meant to open the discussion on the interpretation of the GLOBE findings and contribute to the search for a better understanding of present-day Greek societal culture. As it turned out, an editorial policy change left my assignment unpublished and the present volume in honor of Professor Papalexandris seems a fitting place for my commentary, which follows immediately below, to first appear in print.

A critical commentary of the GLOBE chapter on Greece⁷

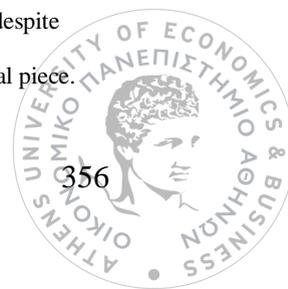
Professor Nancy Papalexandris has made an admirable effort, in the context of the GLOBE Study to reconcile and make sense of the contradictory aspects of Greek societal culture and the “double-borne soul of Greece”. In this brief comment, I will raise some question-marks regarding certain parts of the broad canvas painted by Prof. Papalexandris, which might mar the neatness of the overall picture she paints. In the process, and in order to illuminate and make salient certain central characteristics of Greek societal culture, which I feel have been somewhat glossed over, I may have fallen myself guilty to excessive schematization and overemphasis in attempting to bring these characteristics more prominently into view.

To begin with, a preliminary issue concerning the GLOBE Study's methodology might be worth considering, especially as it involves and brings to the fore a central trait of the Greek character. More specifically, there seems to be a question-mark about the appropriateness of the GLOBE Study's design in relation to Greece, given the pronounced egocentrism and inflated ego characterizing the Greek psyche. This requires some explanation, which follows immediately below.

⁶ It is indicative of this chauvinistic tendency that in a recent survey covering 34 countries, 89% of Greeks agreed with the statement «Our people are not perfect but our culture is superior to others». This percentage was the highest among all countries with only Georgia and Armenia reaching over 80% and all European countries being far below these percentages; See, Pew Research Center (2018).

⁷ This somewhat revised version of my initial commentary at the time of the GLOBE Study's publication in 2007, despite

minor changes, some updating, certain corrections and the addition of footnotes, is essentially faithful to the original piece.



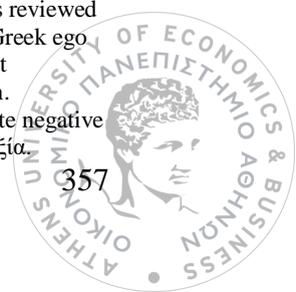
Papalexandris notes “the general tendency of most Greeks to criticize and find fault with things happening around them”. This is attributed to the Greeks’ “drive and desire for excellence” and “their need for progress”. Be that as it may, the tendency of Greeks to carp and find fault with others’ actions is well recognized. This also extends to social situations and conditions which are perceived as being due to actions of others (the others, in this context, may be social groups, such as politicians, businessmen, foreign interests, etc., or impersonal forces, such as the political system, social pressures, professional practices, the state and the like). The important factor is the “otherness” of what is being criticized and the ready repudiation of personal responsibility and involvement in the object of criticism. The corollary is a difficulty in praising others, especially when the “other” is so clearly differentiated that no credit can possibly be reflected back on the giver of praise. So, Greeks rarely praise and often criticize anything “other”.

The underlying reason for this psychological trait and attendant behavior seems to be the strong egocentrism and inflated ego, which are discernible in this as in many other instances of social life.⁸ Though its importance seems indisputable, it is certainly beyond both my capacity and the confines of this comment to delve into the deeper psychoanalytic or other origin of this characteristic. In any case, the point of interest for the GLOBE Study is that such a trait with its attendant manifestations tends to undermine the reliability of the questionnaires’ responses.

The responses on societal culture exhibit in most dimensions a marked gap between the “as is” and the “should be” states. In fact, societal culture is found lacking in all dimensions. Thus, the fault-finding and critical tendency of the Greek psyche is given full expression. But can these responses be trusted to provide an unbiased view of societal culture? The tendency to criticize is certain to bias the results in the direction of a gap between the “as is” and the “should be” states, as it is quite evident that the existence of a gap is absolutely essential for the expression of criticism while absence of such a gap makes criticism impossible. It would seem then that the reliability of the questionnaires’ responses is rather suspect. It is clear that this is due to a weakness in the study’s design specific to the Greek case, where the cultural trait of criticism is quite strong.

Could this design flaw possibly be remedied? Two courses of action seem to be open. First, the “as is” questions could have been separated from the “should be” ones and given to two separate groups of respondents. The respondents to the “as is” questions would thus not be

⁸ This seems to be corroborated by most commentators and is certainly the view of Βακαλόπουλος (1983), who has reviewed an extensive range of historical sources and other available evidence. He clearly notes the excessive nature of the Greek ego but unfortunately refers to it by the psychoanalytically-charged but not properly grounded and, therefore, somewhat misleading term “superego”(υπερεγώ). His understanding of “superego” seems to amount to unbridled egocentrism. Nevertheless, in a social context, Βακαλόπουλος emphasizes that the manifestation of this superego tends to be quite negative and argues that, in its relation to others, it expresses itself as φιλαντία, φιλοδοξία, φιλοπρωτία, φιλαρχία, ματαιοδοξία.



given an obvious opportunity to engage in criticism. Though criticism may still be engaged in by overly negative assessments, the criticism would be implicit rather than explicit in this instance and its expression would most likely be attenuated. The other course of action is to rely on objective measures or evidence from non-subjective data for the “as is” questions. This may be effective in detecting biases emanating from a culture with the tendency to be over-critical but it is doubtful whether it is practicable, since its full-scale use requires that a grade system is created for each such measure and this, if at all possible, is certainly far from an easy task. Moreover, for comparison across cultures, the measures selected must have a presence and meaning in all the societal cultures to be comparable, which is a condition unlikely to be feasible.

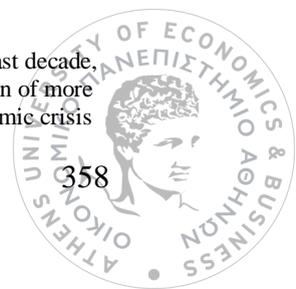
Let us now look one by one at the various dimensions of societal culture, which have been identified by the GLOBE Study. These are: 1) performance orientation, 2) future orientation, 3) assertiveness, 4) collectivism in relation to society, 5) gender egalitarianism, 6) humane orientation, 7) power distance, 8) collectivism in relation to family loyalty, 9) uncertainty avoidance.

1) Performance orientation

Greece’s “as is” score ranks last among all countries in the GLOBE Study. Is the actual situation as bad as the score indicates? Discounting the overcritical bias, there is objective evidence to largely support this assessment. Especially the public sector, which is a large employer providing about 18% of total employment,⁹ is generally considered to lack performance orientation. Pay differentials are very narrow and often make no sense at all. Promotion is based on seniority and, possibly, partisan considerations; evaluation of work performance is strongly resisted by the unions and is practically non-existent while personnel supervision mechanisms are extremely weak if not totally inexistent. Thus, work effort is largely a voluntary affair and, as might be expected, the volunteers tend to be in a minority. In addition, many public employees have a second job, often in the underground economy, for which they need to preserve their energy while in state employment.

But the disapproval of the respondents for this perceived state of affairs is not as strong as one might have imagined. The “should be” score puts Greece in the 39th position in country ranking. So, Greeks do not seem to favor too much performance orientation and seem to distrust differential rewards. The Australian tall poppy syndrome, mentioned by Prof. Papalexandris,

⁹ See, OECD Statistics. In absolute numbers, employment in the Greek public sector declined substantially in the last decade, as a result of the Memoranda agreed with the EU for the continued financing of the Greek state. Despite a reduction of more than 15% in the number of public employees, the parallel fall in total employment brought about by the long economic crisis has caused the percentage of public sector in total employment to hover around 18% since 2007.



may be in evidence here. She notes that “Greeks often refuse recognition to those performing well, while on the contrary they often think of themselves as victims of this lack of recognition, having a feeling of being betrayed by society in general”. This seems to be another manifestation of the previously mentioned hypothesis of an inflated ego.

An inflated ego takes it for granted that it is superior to others and cannot bear to be shown inferior. A performance-oriented culture with objective criteria of performance is thus not favored because it will push the inflated ego to a great degree of exertion in order to avoid a potential puncture. At the same time, puncturing becomes inevitable for many and the only way to avoid the social stigma of inferiority is to dispute the objectivity of the performance criteria and to seek alternative means to re-establish a sense of superiority. Performance orientation and the competitiveness that it promotes is, therefore, perceived in the Greek cultural setting to be acutely both psychologically painful and socially divisive.

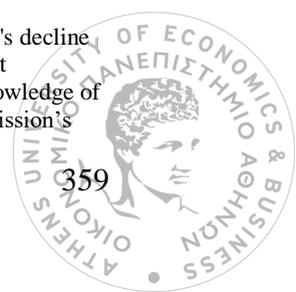
2] Future orientation

Greek culture is not oriented to programming and Prof. Papalexandris rightly points to the troubled history and marked instability of the modern Greek state as an important reason for the reluctance to plan ahead. But the example she gives of the likely response of a typical Greek, who does not plan because he may not be alive in the future, can be quite misleading. Nor is it true that “the sense of belief in the future is missing” and that any form of long-term investment is avoided.

Greeks tend to be optimistic rather than pessimistic or fatalistic in their attitude towards the future. They generally expect both theirs and especially their children’s future to be better than in the past.¹⁰ The evidence for this is that traditionally and widely they tend to engage in one of the most long-term forms of investment, their children’s education. Investment in human capital, and especially in the formation of the future generation’s human capital, shows that they are not only capable of taking a long view but that they are also prepared to make considerable sacrifices for the future. The rate of personal or household saving has been consistently high and saving in order to improve the prospects of one’s children, is considered by Greek society to be an important virtue. Thus, saving is strongly approved, even though miserliness and stinginess are clearly and equally strongly disapproved, by Greek social mores.

In conclusion, it would seem that the lack of programming in Greek societal culture is not due to fatalism or resignation. The evidence of optimism about the future and the ability to make

¹⁰ This optimism was seriously dented in the long Greek crisis of the 2010s but there are signs that, as the economy’s decline has come to an end, optimism is gradually reviving; see, Dianeosis (2018). Dianeosis is a 3-year old think tank that systematically studies what Greeks believe on a range of issues, making thus a valuable contribution to the self-knowledge of the Greek society. A noteworthy contribution to our society’s self-knowledge is also made by the European Commission’s Eurobarometer; see, Eurobarometer (2018).



sacrifices for the future of one's children contradict this motivation. They also imply that, though the historical experience of instability may have played a role in the attitude towards the future, it cannot by itself explain adequately the complexity of the society's future orientation. A possible hypothesis worth considering is that the lack of programming is the effect of two factors combining in the same direction. A more or less realistic sense of instability tending to upset any act of planning and an unrealistic sense of being capable to handle any emergency due to one's inventiveness, flexibility and superior abilities. This last is, of course, in accord with the inflated ego trait, or should I say affliction, noted already.

3] Assertiveness

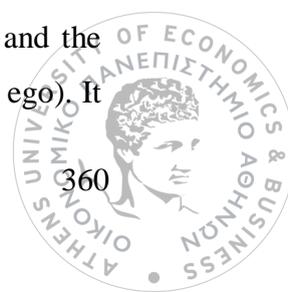
It is true that Greek societal culture does not favor aggressiveness, as Mrs. Papalexandris notes. But is assertiveness the same thing as aggressiveness? If it is not, I would argue that there is considerable evidence indicating that Greeks are assertive. For example, British colleagues have often commented to me on the assertiveness of their Greek students in class. Also, non-Greeks who are not used to Greek ways often wonder whether a friendly conversation among Greeks is likely to end in a fight. The tone of voice, the facial expressions and the gestures are so assertive that they seem outright aggressive to them. The most casual observation is sufficient to show that Greeks are not only more assertive than the British and the Northern Europeans but are much more so than most Asians, especially those from the South East and the Far East.

How then can we interpret the "as is" ranking in 58th place? The only explanation is that Greeks are not self-conscious about their assertiveness. It is so ingrained in their character and comes to them so naturally, that they are not at all aware of it. Since they do not feel or intend to be aggressive, their assertiveness is totally invisible to them. As they do not recognize it, they also do not see the desirability or need, in the expression of the "should be" opinion (56th rank), for any greater or smaller degree of assertiveness.

It may seem strange to conclude that, despite the Globe Study ranking, Greeks are assertive though not conscious of it. But could it have been otherwise if the inflated ego hypothesis is correct? Could an inflated ego be reserved, timid and non-assertive? At least, there is consistency between this conclusion and what seems to be a pivotal characteristic of the Greek psyche.

4] Collectivism: Societal emphasis

There is no question about the high degree of individualism characterizing Greeks and the difficulty of collaboration among them (again an obvious consequence of the inflated ego). It



is, therefore, no surprise that Greece is in the bottom position with respect to the “as is” ranking. The thing to be explained is the very high 5th position in the “should be” ranking. Here, the distinction between in-group and out-group seems to be of relevance.

The in-group (family, relatives and friends) is perceived as an extension of one’s own self and is a means for expanding one’s power and control over the social environment and confronting more effectively the out-group or the antagonistic “other”. The in-group is the archetypal domain of social collaboration. In expressing a desire for more social collaboration, the implicit wish is that of enlarging the in-group. Thus, the high position in the “should be” ranking is probably nothing more than the desire to enlarge one’s in-group and through that increase one’s own power. There is, of course, nothing surprising in seeing this as being highly desirable.

5] *Gender egalitarianism*

The responses here are in the range of what might be expected. Nevertheless, it would be interesting to know what the proportion of female respondents was and whether there was any difference between male and female responses.

6] *Humane orientation*

Prof. Papalexandris notes that Greece’s “as is” ranking in the 59th position does not properly reflect the actual situation. She argues that this is due to a desire for a stronger humane orientation which makes the actual situation seem “worse than what an outsider or an objective observer would perceive it to be”. This then appears to be one more instance of the overcritical bias. But the “should be” ranking, though higher, places Greece only in the 48th position. The overcritical bias would have been better served and Prof. Papalexandris’ explanation would be more convincing if the “should be” score were higher. Could it be that the awareness of the out-group or “other” is strong and puts a ceiling on the desire for greater generosity, concern and friendliness? One can only speculate on these difficult to interpret and quite unexpected rankings.

7] *Power distance*

Prof. Papalexandris argues that the actual situation does not justify the high “as is” score and I find her position convincing. This seems to be a rather clear instance of the overcritical bias. Here, the distance between the “as is” and the “should be” rankings is considerable (21st vs. 52nd).

The strong preference for minimum power distance is tantamount to a strong dislike for accepting others as superiors. The inflated ego would not have minded, of course, to treating

others as inferior but let us not forget the specific context of the responses. The respondents here are middle managers who resent having superiors much more than they enjoy their own position vis a vis their inferiors. They feel closer to the bottom of the hierarchy and identify more with those that take orders than those at the top. Therefore, the desire they strongly express is that of eliminating the power distance from the top and becoming equal to their superiors.

8] *Collectivism: Family loyalty*

The rankings here are within the range of what might have been expected. The family is the hard core of the in-group and there is no doubt about its importance in Greek societal culture. Prof. Papalexandris brings in the right kind of evidence to demonstrate its role and significance while raising a question-mark about its likely evolution in the future.

9] *Uncertainty avoidance*

The difference between the “as is” and the “should be” rankings is once more quite considerable (57th vs. 17th place). Though there is considerable evidence that the “as is” score should be low, the nearly bottom ranking is probably once more due to the operation of the overcritical bias. Prof. Papalexandris recognizes that there is evidence pointing in opposite directions and, in this regard, she mentions the fact that Greece has the highest percentage of entrepreneurs among E.U. countries. This may not be the best evidence for Greeks’ willingness to take risks, as it might be argued that this is not so much due to a preference for risk-taking but reflects more the strength of the power distance factor and the intense dislike for obeying a superior. In any case, there is other evidence indicating that Greeks are willing to assume risks. For example, Greek ship-owners dominate international shipping, which is characterized by pronounced and largely unpredictable fluctuations making it an unusually high-risk economic activity. Also, the Greek society is the most under-insured in the E.U., in terms of the proportion of GDP spent on insurance (though low future orientation may play a part here).

The contrary evidence is, of course, the strong preference for State jobs. But this again is not unequivocal because work in the public sector is not only more secure but it is also better remunerated, less demanding, more leisurely, less stressful and not lacking in opportunities for easy enrichment through corruption. The complicated legal system, which Prof. Papalexandris mentions as adding to uncertainty and insecurity, is largely the creation of the civil servants and serves to a considerable degree in increasing their power over civil society. The complicated legal system becomes a weapon in the hands of the traditionally law-trained bureaucracy for

holding citizens to ransom and increasing the scope of public officials' enrichment and, consequently, the desirability of their jobs. Thus, a high degree of uncertainty in the civil society and a strong preference for State jobs are closely connected with causation running in both directions in a self-reinforcing vicious circle.

Concluding comments on leadership

Turning now briefly to leadership, it is worth noting that “diplomatic” is the attribute to which Greeks give unusually high importance (Greece ranks 2nd among the 63 countries in appreciation of this dimension). But the reason and appropriate interpretation may not be obvious. One must remember again the strong ego of the Greek character. Diplomatic ability is desirable and even essential, if a leader is not to bruise the inflated ego of those he leads. It is deemed essential not so much in relation to outsiders and adversaries but in gaining allegiance of insiders and preserving the team's cohesion. Without diplomatic ability, the exercise of leadership will be resented and the leader will be contested ultimately from inside. Consequently, diplomatic ability should be seen as a prerequisite of paramount significance in being able to assume and exercise leadership and has very little to do with effectiveness in dealing with outsiders.

It may seem surprising that in the media analysis, the characteristic of being diplomatic does not rank highly. In contrast, the characteristic “experienced”, which is not included in the dimensions of the GLOBE study, is mentioned in 30% of all cases and is by far top of the list. This seems to be a paradox. In considering it, we should first note that the characteristic “experienced” is not at all well-defined (which is probably the reason it is not to be found in the GLOBE dimensions). Experienced in what? Experienced in leadership or experienced leader is not only tautological but does not sit well in the Greek language.

Could it be that the relevant experience concerns dealing with colleagues and members of the team? Could it be that what was meant was “experienced in handling inflated egos and defusing friction within the team”?

On the other hand, the spontaneous and non-elicited use of the word “diplomatic” would most likely confer to it the more common and obvious meaning of dealing with others outside the team. This could account for its low frequency and this, together with the conjecture about the meaning of “experienced”, would resolve the paradox.

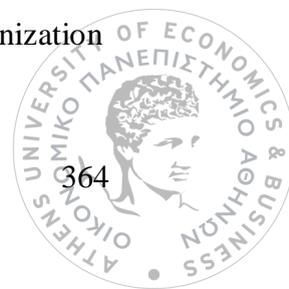
Another possible interpretation is that “experienced” is not referring to leaders but to managers, since the media analysis does not clearly differentiate between the two. Experience in dealing with management problems, though still vague, may be an acceptable factual description in a journalistic profile of a top manager. In any case, leaving aside such conjectures, it has to be

admitted that the results of the media analysis do not seem to possess the required conceptual acuity and robustness to be of considerable help.

In conclusion, we may note with Prof. Papalexandris, that the leadership profile emerging from the GLOBE analysis is in broad accord with the results of the media analysis and the second focus group. The desired characteristics in a leader are primarily those subsumed under the charismatic/ ideal category. One desirable element, which is not prominent in other parts of the study but emerges clearly in the second focus group, is that of trust. The creation of trust, not only in relation to the leader but also among the team's members, is a valued trait of leadership. Given the centrifugal and divisive tendencies the Greek psyche is likely to engender in collective contexts, in which strong egos may easily clash, trust among the members of a team including the leader is essential in keeping the team together in a common course. Thus, it is not surprising that ability in trust-building within the team, which it may be noticed is not unrelated to diplomatic handling of the team's members, is highly appreciated in a leader.

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9. PERCEIVED DISINTERESTED SUPPORT AND OUTCOMES: A VIEW THROUGH THE LENSES OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT AND ORGANIZATIONAL VIRTUOUSNESS' PERCEPTIONS

I. Tsachouridi, I. Nikandrou

ABSTRACT

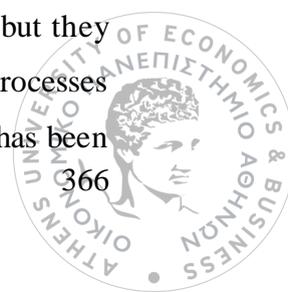
Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS) captures employees' attributions of disinterested motives to the support provided by the organization. Until now the PDS-outcome relationship has been viewed from the perspective of social exchange theory. In this study we extend this perspective by examining whether organizational virtuousness' perceptions as well as social exchange theory (through POS) can mediate the relationship between PDS and outcomes (job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions). The results of a field study in which 374 employees took part, indicate that both organizational virtuousness' perceptions and POS can mediate the PDS-job satisfaction relationship as well as the PDS-intent to quit relationship. On the contrary, only organizational virtuousness' perceptions (but not POS) can mediate the relationship between PDS and self-sacrificial intentions.

Keywords: disinterestedness, virtuousness, POS, attitudes, intentions

INTRODUCTION

Organizational Support Theory proposes that employees evaluate the benefits that they receive from their organization and form a general belief regarding the extent to which their organization values their contribution and cares about them (Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage & Sucharski 2004). Such belief is called Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Organizational Support Theory, being a social exchange theory, suggests that employees base their work effort on the levels of POS, as they want to reciprocate their organization for the treatment received. Reciprocity leads to the "return" of the favorable treatment in order to continue the cycle of exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). Research findings support this view and indicate the association between POS and employee attitudes and behaviors (DeConinck 2010; Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson & Wayne 2008; Gillet, Gagné, Sauvagère & Fouquereau 2013; Lin, Lin, Huang, Chang, Chang & Chen 2013; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog & Zagenczyk 2013).

According to Organizational Support Theory, when employees evaluate how much the organization supports them they do not pay attention only to the treatment received, but they also seek to understand the motives behind such treatment. Thus, attributional processes account for their evaluations. The concept of Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS) has been

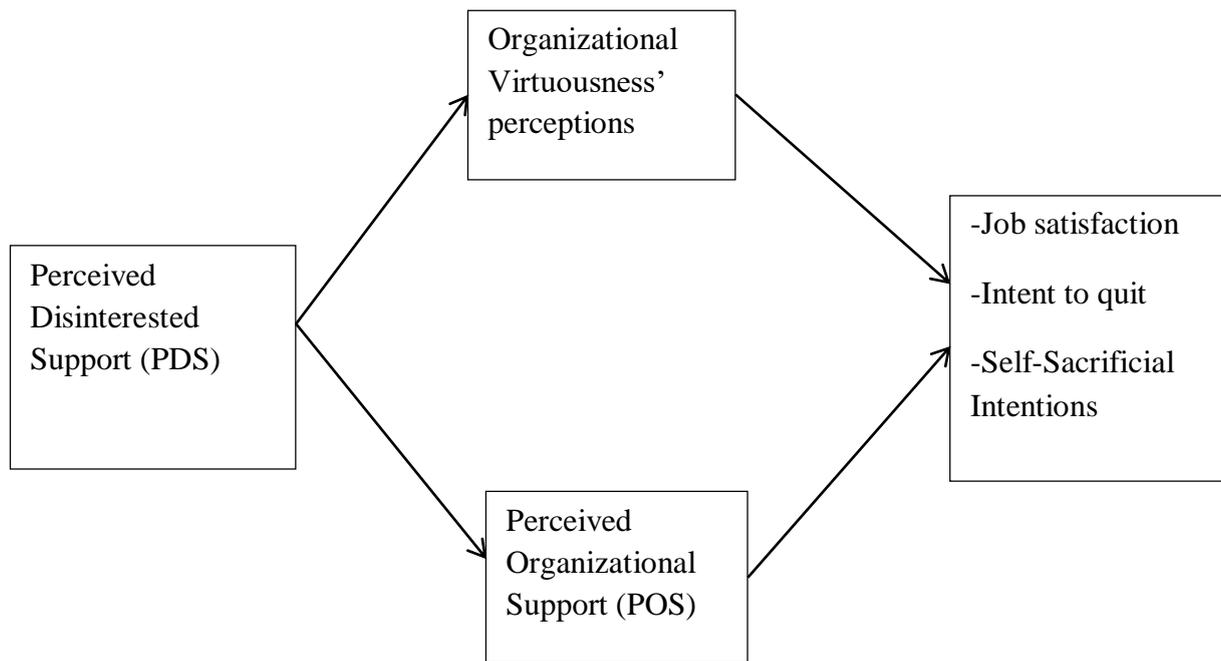


developed to capture the “support perceived by employees as not resulting from an underlying calculation” (Mignonac & Richebé 2013, p.73). PDS has been found to be positively associated with commitment, and negatively associated with turnover behaviors through the mediating role of POS (Mignonac & Richebé 2013). PDS acting as a norm of beneficence can make employees evaluate more positively their treatment by the organization (increased POS). This in turn can activate the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960) and can make employees more willing to “return” the support provided by expressing more positive attitudes and behaviors.

Such social exchange view of PDS despite providing a reasonable explanation for the PDS-outcome relationship can be limited. Beneficence and motives going beyond self-interested benefit are integral part of organizational virtuousness, which could be defined as benevolence and generosity in organizational settings (Cameron 2003). Consequently, attributing disinterested motives to the organization (PDS) can make employees consider their organization as virtuous. This could be of great importance if consider that virtuousness -going further from support and indicating honest empathetic concern- can activate the norm of beneficence from the part of the employees. Observing virtuousness can unlock the human predisposition to behave in a prosocial way and can enable individuals to go further from reciprocity and instrumental concerns (Cameron 2003).

In this study we integrate the social exchange and organizational virtue perspective in the study of PDS-outcome relationship by testing a model which incorporates PDS, organizational virtuousness’ perceptions, POS, job satisfaction, intent to quit and self-sacrificial intentions. Doing so we investigate whether the norm of beneficence (through organizational virtuousness’ perceptions) and/or the norm of reciprocity (through POS) can mediate the relationship between PDS and outcomes (job satisfaction, intent to quit and self-sacrificial intentions) (Figure 1). The study of such issue can have serious implications as it enlightens the importance of the interpretations following PDS in explaining the PDS-outcome relationship.

FIGURE 1 Conceptual Model



Our study can contribute to the existing literature through three main ways. First, we further examine the PDS- outcome relationship. PDS having recently attracted academic interest has been associated with affective and normative commitment as well as with turnover intention and turnover behavior (Mignonac & Richebé 2013). In this study we examine the association of PDS with intent to quit, as well as with job satisfaction and self-sacrificial intentions, which have never before been associated with PDS. Intent to quit is a strong surrogate indicator of actual turnover (Firth, Mellor, Moore & Loquet 2004) and thus it can have negative impact on the organization. Job satisfaction is a key variable due to its association with in-role and citizenship performance (Eatough, Chang, Miloslavic & Johnson 2011; Judge, Thoresen, Bono & Patton 2001). Self-sacrificial intentions indicating total or partial abandonment of personal interests (Choi & Mai-Dalton 1999) can also be of great importance for the survival of an organization, especially during periods of crisis and change.

Second, we investigate whether organizational virtuousness' perceptions can mediate the PDS-outcome relationship. Despite the fact that beneficence and motives which transcend instrumental concerns are an integral part of the definition of virtue (Cameron 2003; Collier 1995; Jennings 1991; Koehn 1995) it has never before been examined whether organizational virtuousness' perceptions can explain the PDS- outcome relationship. Doing so we investigate whether the norm of beneficence can explain the PDS-outcome relationship. Third, we further contribute to the study of PDS-outcome relationship through the perspective of social exchange

theory and norm of reciprocity by investigating whether POS mediates this relationship. Doing so, we extend preliminary findings regarding this issue (Mignonac & Richebé 2013).

We need to mention that examining both mediators (Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions and POS) in the same single model enables us to understand whether one of the two mediators can better explain the PDS-outcomes relationship. Consequently, it enables us to test competitive theories and examine to what extent each specific mediator explains the proposed relationship on the presence of the other mediator included in the model (Preacher & Hayes 2008).

Our paper unfolds as follows: (1) presenting the literature review and the hypotheses of the current study (2) presenting the methodological concerns (3) presenting the results and discussing the findings.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS) and Outcomes

Research findings indicate that in the workplace people do not take into account only the actions per se but also the motives attributed to such actions (Eastman 1994; Grant, Parker & Collins 2009; Halbesleben, Bowler, Bolino & Turnley 2010; Johnson, Erez, Kiker & Motowidlo 2002). Attribution theory proposes that people seek for explanations behind actions when events deviate from norms and expectations (Wong & Weiner 1981). So, they attribute motives to the positive or negative events and behaviors that they perceive. Such attribution processes can have a tremendous potential in explaining workplace behaviors (Martinko, Harvey & Dasborough 2011).

Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS), defined as disinterested motives attributed to the organization, has been associated with attitudes (affective and normative commitment) as well as with turnover intentions and behavior (Mignonac & Richebé 2013). The term “disinterestedness” could be defined as “a giving which asks nothing in return” (Baudrillard 2003, p. 103). Thus, employees attributing disinterested support to the organization experience feelings of gratitude and indebtedness which can be translated into positive attitudes and behaviors.

Based on the above rationale we propose that PDS is associated with job satisfaction, intent to quit and self-sacrificial intentions. Job satisfaction and intent to quit have attracted a great academic attention and have been found to be a response to favorable organizational treatment (Dulac et al. 2008; Gillet et al. 2013; Ngo, Loi, Foley, Zheng & Zhang 2013; Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). Self-sacrificial intentions can also be a response to favorable treatment. Despite the fact that they have attracted almost no academic interest, the study of Choi and Mai-

Dalton (1999) indicated that employees can express “self-sacrificial” behaviors in order to reciprocate for the favorable treatment received by a self-sacrificial leader. Thus, we suggest that they can be an employee response to the gratitude and indebtedness sparked by PDS. Based on the above we can expect that:

Hypothesis 1: PDS is positively associated with job satisfaction

Hypothesis 2: PDS is negatively associated with intent to quit

Hypothesis 3: PDS is positively associated with self-sacrificial intentions

Organizational virtuousness’ perceptions as mediator in the PDS-outcome relationship

Organizational Virtuousness has recently attracted a growing academic interest (Chun 2005; Rego, Vitória, Magalhães, Ribeiro & Cunha 2013; Weaver 2006; Wright & Goodstein 2007). Organizational Virtuousness is associated with excellence in organizational settings (Cameron 2003) and refers to a constellation of virtues in the aggregate (Cameron & Winn 2012). The virtues of optimism, trust, compassion, integrity and forgiveness have been found to be those virtues whose combination captures the construct of organizational virtuousness from an employee perspective (Cameron, Bright & Caza 2004).

To characterize an agent as virtuous we should examine the motives of the agent. The intentionality of the actor and the motivation to do something good regardless of external benefits are necessary in order to characterize somebody as virtuous (Cameron & Winn 2012; Collier 1995; Jennings 1991; Whetstone 2001). In other words, a virtuous agent should not calculate the pros and cons of a particular action and should desire to produce good at a disinterested basis. According to Cameron (2003) organizational virtuousness transcends the instrumental desires of the actor and does not seek for reciprocity or reward.

PDS being indicative of disinterested motives and going further from “calculation” and reciprocity can make employees believe that their organization expresses the virtues captured by the construct of organizational virtuousness (optimism, trust, compassion, integrity and forgiveness). The norm of beneficence - expressed by PDS- can make employees think that their organization shows an honest empathetic concern towards them making them perceive it as more virtuous. Based on the above we can expect that:

Hypothesis 4: PDS is positively associated with Organizational Virtuousness’ perceptions

Organizational Virtuousness despite transcending instrumentality can be beneficial for the organizations, as it can foster prosocial behavior from the part of the individuals (Cameron 2003). Observing virtuousness can create a self-reinforcing inclination to replicate this kind of behavior and benefit the others (Cameron & Winn 2012). Research findings support such view and indicate the positive association between organizational virtuousness’ perceptions and

performance (Cameron et al. 2004), as well as employee affective commitment (Rego, Ribeiro, Cunha & Jesuino 2011) and organizational citizenship behavior (Rego, Ribeiro & Cunha 2010).

Given the proposed association between a) PDS and outcomes b) PDS and Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions, and c) Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions and outcomes, we propose that Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions mediate the PDS-outcomes relationship. PDS indicating disinterested concern from the part of the organization can make employees perceive their organization as more virtuous. This in turn will activate the norm of beneficence and the prosocial motives from the part of the employees and will make them more willing to benefit their organization by expressing more positive attitudes and behavioral intentions. Based on the above we can expect that:

Hypothesis 5: Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions mediate the relationship between PDS and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 6: Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions mediate the relationship between PDS and intent to quit

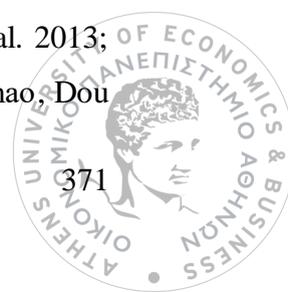
Hypothesis 7: Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions mediate the relationship between PDS and self-sacrificial intentions

POS as mediator in the PDS-outcome relationship

Organizational Support Theory suggests that when employees consider organizational treatment as discretionary, they tend to evaluate it more highly (Eisenberger et al. 2004). Reciprocity is a norm of social exchange but it is not the only norm of social exchange (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). Disinterestedness going further from reciprocity can be a stronger norm of social exchange, as it can make receivers appreciate more highly the benefits received. Research findings support this view and indicate that favorable job conditions are more positively associated with POS when they are considered discretionary (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch 1997). Furthermore, recent research indicates that PDS -acting as a heuristic of the quality of social exchange relationship in the workplace- can make employees express higher levels of POS (Mignonac & Richebé 2013). Based on the above we expect that:

Hypothesis 8: PDS is positively associated with POS

POS has attracted a great academic interest due to its association with key employee attitudes and behaviors (Baran, Shanock & Miller 2012). Research findings indicate the strong association between POS and satisfaction (Eisenberger et al. 1997; Gillet et al. 2013; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé & Johnson 2003; Ngo et al. 2013), as well as between POS and turnover intention or behavior (Allen & Shanock 2013; Dulac et al. 2008; Gillet et al. 2013; Mignonac & Richebé 2013; Muse & Wadsworth 2012; Shen, Jackson, Ding, Yuan, Zhao, Dou



& Zhang 2013). Furthermore, POS has been found to be associated with behaviors which benefit the organization such as citizenship and extra-role behaviors (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades 2001; Shoss et al. 2013; Sulea, Virga, Maricutoiu, Schaufeli, Dumitru, & Sava 2012).

Given the proposed association between a) PDS and outcomes b) PDS and POS, and c) POS and outcomes, we propose that POS mediates the PDS-outcomes relationship. PDS acting as a norm of beneficence will make employees believe that they receive more benefits from the organization (increased POS). This in turn, will make them more willing to benefit their organization in order to reciprocate it for the treatment received, as the theory of social exchange proposes. Based on the above we can expect that:

Hypothesis 9: POS mediates the relationship between PDS and job satisfaction

Hypothesis 10: POS mediates the relationship between PDS and intent to quit

Hypothesis 11: POS mediates the relationship between PDS and self-sacrificial intentions

METHOD

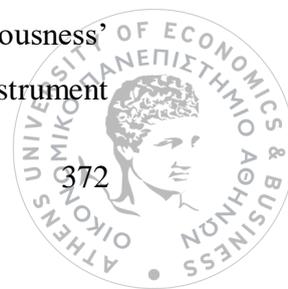
Participants

Three hundred and seventy four (374) employees working in various organizations participated in our survey. The questionnaire was administered through contacts provided by undergraduate students of our University. The sample consisted of 186 male (49.7%) and 183 female (48.9%) and 5 who did not specify their gender (1.3%). Our respondents had an average age of 40.62 years (SD= 11.25). Furthermore, 45 participants (12%) reported upper management position, 98 (26.2%) reported middle management position, 50 (13.4%) reported lower management position, 179 (47.9%) reported no management position and 2 (0.5%) did not report their position. Respondents had an average total work experience of 16.45 years (SD= 10.53). Their average organizational tenure was 10.70 years (SD= 9.49).

Measures

Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS): We measured PDS with four items adapted from the PDS scale developed by Mignonac and Richebé (2013). Sample items are: “When my company acts in employees’ favor, I think that most of the time there is a reason (i.e. they want something in return) (reverse scored)”, and “When my company acts in an employee’s favor, I think in general that it is acting relatively disinterestedly”. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used with Cronbach $\alpha = 0.76$.

Organizational Virtuousness’ Perceptions: We measured organizational virtuousness’ perceptions with the instrument developed by Cameron et al. (2004). This 15-item instrument



covers five dimensions (optimism, trust, compassion, integrity and forgiveness), which capture the construct of Organizational Virtuousness. Sample items are: “We are optimistic that we will succeed, even when faced with major challenges”, “Employees trust one another in this organization” and “This organization would be described as virtuous and honorable”. Responses were measured on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (never true) to 6 (always true)

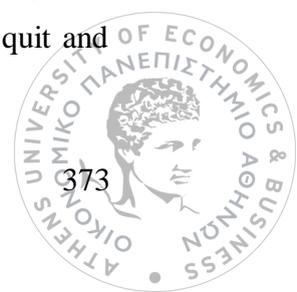
To test the validity of this multidimensional instrument we conducted a second order Confirmatory Factor Analysis using LISREL and Maximum Likelihood Estimation. The five factor model (second order) showed an acceptable fit after the removal of two items (1 related to integrity and 1 related to forgiveness) [Chi-square= 205.62, df= 60, Normed Fit Index (NFI)= 0.97, Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)= 0.97, Comparative Fit Index (CFI)= 0.98, Incremental Fit Index (IFI)= 0.98, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)= 0.081, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)= 0.047]. All items had satisfactory item reliability, as their standardized loadings on their respective factor ranged from 0.64 to 0.97. Furthermore, the five factors loaded significantly on the higher order factor (organizational virtuousness) with standardized loadings ranging from 0.77-0.88. Each dimension had satisfactory reliability, as Cronbach's alpha surpassed 0.7 (optimism: 0.72, trust: 0.72, compassion: 0.82, integrity: 0.91, forgiveness: 0.81). Furthermore, the construct of organizational virtuousness as a whole had a satisfactory reliability (Cronbach's alpha= 0.86).

We need to mention that –as organizational virtuousness is a multidimensional construct- in the subsequent analyses we used a composite score of organizational virtuousness' dimensions. The items for each of the five dimensions (with the exception of the two items removed from the analyses) were averaged to obtain a composite average for each of the five dimensions.

Perceived Organizational Support (POS): We measured POS with 5 items from the Perceived Organizational Support scale developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986). Sample items are: “The organization values my contribution to its well-being” and “The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favor”. A 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was used with Cronbach's alpha= 0.81.

Job satisfaction: To measure job satisfaction we used four items of the scale proposed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). Sample items include: “I feel fairly satisfied with my present job” and “I consider my work rather unpleasant (reverse scored)”. Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (Cronbach's alpha= 0.74).

Intent to quit: Intent to quit was measured with the three-item scale of Michaels and Spector (1982) indicating how often somebody thinks to quit, how much somebody likes to quit and



how likely it is to quit within the next year. For each item a 5-point scale was used (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.79$).

Self-sacrificial intentions: We measured self-sacrificial intentions with four items adapted from Choi and Mai-Dalton's scale (1999), which measures the employees' intentions to reciprocate the treatment received by their self-sacrificial leader. Sample items are: "If asked to do something to help the company, I would do this even if it might involve extra responsibility", "If asked to do something to help the company, I would do this even if it might bring me some discomfort" and "If it was proposed a temporary pay-cut and benefit reduction from all employees, I would agree". Responses were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (Cronbach $\alpha = 0.81$).

Validation of our Measurement model

To test the convergent and discriminant validity of our measurement model (PDS, organizational virtuousness' perceptions, POS, job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions) we conducted a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using LISREL and Maximum Likelihood Estimation. Considering that organizational virtuousness is a multidimensional construct, we used the respective five dimensions as indicators. For the other constructs of the model (PDS, POS, job satisfaction, intent to quit and self-sacrificial intentions), we used their respective manifest variables as indicators. Fit indices confirmed the acceptable fit of our measurement model [Chi-square= 862.16, $df = 260$, NFI= 0.93, NNFI= 0.94, CFI= 0.95, IFI= 0.95, RMSEA= 0.079, SRMR= 0.064). Furthermore, all scales included in our measurement model had convergent and discriminant validity as Average Variance Extracted (AVE) surpassed 0.5 and was greater than the squared correlation between each couple of constructs (Table 1). Furthermore, all standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.51-0.92 with the exemption of one item related to job satisfaction whose standardized factor loading was 0.42. So in general, there was satisfactory item reliability. Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and correlations among the variables of our model are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 1

Convergent and Discriminant Validity of our Variables

		Squared correlation with:					
	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	PDS	OV' perceptions	POS	Job Satisfaction	Intent to quit	Self-Sacrificial Intentions



Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS)	0.51	---	0.31	0.40	0.12	0.14	0.03
Organizational Virtuousness (OV) perceptions	0.55	0.31	---	0.45	0.28	0.28	0.23
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	0.55	0.40	0.45	---	0.20	0.23	0.14
Job satisfaction	0.51	0.12	0.28	0.20	---	0.49	0.10
Intent to Quit	0.67	0.14	0.28	0.23	0.49	---	0.07
Self-Sacrificial Intentions	0.63	0.03	0.23	0.14	0.10	0.07	---

TABLE 2

Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.PDS	2.86	.73	(.76)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
2.OV' perceptions	4.2	.80	.46**	(.86)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
3. POS	3.53	.69	.52**	.60**	(.81)	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
4.Job Satisfaction	3.61	.69	.28**	.43**	.40**	(.74)	---	---	---	---	---	---
5. Intent to Quit	1.96	.92	-.25**	-.41**	-.35**	-.49**	(.79)	---	---	---	---	---
6.Self-Sacrificial Intentions	3.35	.81	.20**	.42**	.34**	.23**	-.25**	(.81)	---	---	---	---
7. Gender (1= male, 2= female)	---	---	-.03	-.01	-.02	-.06	.02	-.02	---	---	---	---
8. Age	40.62	11.25	-.07	.03	-.11*	.06	-.21**	.15**	-.12*	---	---	---
9.Hierarchical position(1 = upper managem	---	---	-.06	-.08	-.03	-.08	.13*	-.24**	.17**	-.36**	---	---



ent, 2= middle management, 3= lower management, 4= non-management)												
10.Total work experience (Years)	16.45	10.53	-.06	.02	-.12*	.08	-.17**	.17**	-.12*	.83**	-.34**	---
11.Tenure in company (years)	10.70	9.49	-.04	.11*	-.10	.04	-.20**	.08	-.08	.62**	-.19**	.68**
Values in parentheses represent Cronbach a												
*p<.05												
**p<.01												

We need to mention that in order to reduce common method variance associated with self-reported data we guaranteed anonymity and we used verbal statements for the midpoints of the scales (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff 2003). Furthermore, single factor measurement model (Harman's single factor test) indicated unacceptable fit alleviating concerns regarding common method variance (Chi-Square= 3282.84, df= 275, NFI= 0.78, NNFI= 0.78, CFI= 0.80, IFI= 0.80, RMSEA= 0.171, SRMR= 0.12).

RESULTS

To test our hypotheses we used the bootstrapping technique proposed by Preacher and Hayes (2008) for testing indirect effects with multiple mediators in SPSS. Bootstrapping technique is superior to traditional Baron and Kenny approach, as well as Sobel Z Test, as it is a resampling method and avoids power problems of asymmetry and non-normal sampling distributions of an indirect effect (Shrout & Bolger 2002). Testing a multiple mediator model instead of separate simple mediation models can provide benefits, as a) it reduces the bias associated with omitted variables b) it gives us the ability to estimate the indirect effect of a mediator conditional on the presence of other mediators of the model (Preacher & Hayes 2008). Using bootstrapping we are able to understand not only whether an indirect effect actually exists, but also whether one mediator is able to mediate above and beyond the other mediators of the model.

Independent variable in our analyses was PDS and mediators were Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions and POS. Job satisfaction, Intent to quit and Self-sacrificial Intentions were our dependent variables. Gender, age, hierarchical level of current work position, total work experience and organizational tenure were used as control variables. We averaged the variables of each construct to use their composite scores in our subsequent analyses. In the case of Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions we averaged the averages for each of the five dimensions to obtain a composite score of organizational virtuousness' perceptions for each employee.

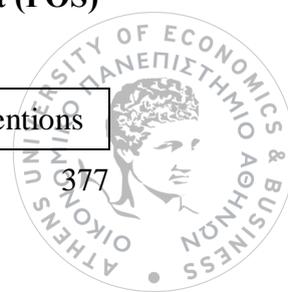
PDS-Job Satisfaction Relationship: The results of bootstrapping (Table 3) indicate that the PDS-job satisfaction relationship was fully mediated by organizational virtuousness' perceptions and POS. PDS had a statistically significant positive association with job satisfaction ($B= 0.28, t= 5.87, p< 0.001$) (Hypothesis 1 supported). Furthermore, PDS had a significant positive association with both mediators (organizational virtuousness' perceptions: $B= 0.52, t= 10.25, p< 0.001$, POS: $B= 0.51, t= 11.94, p< 0.001$) (Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 8 supported). Organizational virtuousness' perceptions (mediator) had a significant positive association with job satisfaction ($B= 0.24, t= 4.48, p< 0.001$). POS (mediator) had also a significant positive association with job satisfaction ($B= 0.22, t= 3.4, p< 0.001$). After controlling for mediators the effect of PDS on job satisfaction became non-significant ($B= 0.05, t= 0.91, p= n.s.$) indicating full mediation.

We need to mention that the total indirect effect through the two mediators had a point estimate of 0.23 and was different from zero, as 99% Bias Corrected Confidence Intervals (CI) did not include zero (Lower CI= 0.12, Upper CI= 0.35). Such indirect effect was made through both organizational virtuousness' perceptions and POS, as the confidence intervals of the specific indirect effects did not include zero (indirect effect through Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions: 0.12, Lower CI= 0.05, Upper CI= 0.23, indirect effect through POS: 0.11, Lower CI= 0.02, Upper CI= 0.21) (Hypothesis 5 and Hypothesis 9 supported). This indicates that organizational virtuousness' perceptions as well as POS mediate the PDS-job satisfaction relationship above and beyond each other.

TABLE 3

Mediator analyses for the relationship between Perceived Disinterested Support (PDS) and outcomes (job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions) through Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions and Perceived Organizational Support (POS) with bootstrap re-sampling

	Job satisfaction	Intent to Quit	Self-sacrificial intentions
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	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
B coeff 1- independent on dependent	.28***	5.87	-.33***	-5.13	.24***	4.25
B coeff 2- independent on mediator (org.virtuousness)	.52***	10.25	.52***	10.22	.52***	10.25
B coeff 3- independent on mediator (POS)	.51***	11.94	.51***	11.93	.51***	11.94
B coeff 4- mediator (org.virtuousness) on dependent	.24***	4.48	-.31***	-4.46	.33***	5.39
B coeff 5- mediator (POS) on dependent	.22***	3.40	-.26**	-3.13	.20**	2.72
B coeff 6: independent on dependent controlling for mediators	.05	.91	-.03	-.41	-.03	-.55
Total Indirect Effect	.23		-.30		.27	
Lower 99% Confidence Interval (CI)	.12		-.44		.17	
Upper 99% Confidence Interval (CI)	.35		-.16		.39	
Indirect Effect through org.virtuousness only	.12		-.16		.17	
Lower 99% CI (org.virtuousness)	.05		-.30		.08	
Upper 99% CI (org.virtuousness)	.23		-.05		.28	
Indirect Effect through POS only	.11		-.13		.10	
Lower 99% CI (POS)	.02		-.27		-.02	
Upper 99% CI (POS)	.21		-.01		.22	
B coeff 1 = PDS on dependent (job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions respectively)						
B coeff 2 = PDS on organizational virtuousness' perceptions						
B coeff 3= PDS on POS						
B coeff 4= Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions on dependent (job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions respectively) controlling for PDS and POS						

B coeff 5 = POS on dependent (job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions respectively) controlling for PDS and Organizational Virtuosity's perceptions
B coeff 6: PDS on dependent controlling for mediators
Number of bootstrap resamples: 5000
Gender, age, hierarchical level of current work position, total work experience and organizational tenure in the current organization were used as control variables
All path coefficients are unstandardized
***p<.001
**p<.01

PDS-Intent to quit relationship: The results of bootstrapping (Table 3) indicate full mediation for the PDS-intent to quit relationship. PDS had a statistically significant negative association with intent to quit ($B = -0.33$, $t = -5.13$, $p < 0.001$) (Hypothesis 2 supported). PDS had also a significant positive association with Organizational Virtuosity's perceptions ($B = 0.52$, $t = 10.22$, $p < 0.001$), as well as with POS ($B = 0.51$, $t = 11.93$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, Organizational Virtuosity's perceptions (mediator) had a significant negative association with intent to quit ($B = -0.31$, $t = -4.46$, $p < 0.001$). POS (mediator) was also negatively associated with intent to quit ($B = -0.26$, $t = -3.13$, $p < 0.01$). After controlling for mediators the effect of PDS on intent to quit became non-significant ($B = -0.03$, $t = -0.41$, $p = n.s.$).

The total indirect effect of PDS on intent to quit had a point estimate of -0.30 and it was different from zero, as 99% Bias Corrected Confidence Intervals did not include zero (Lower CI = -0.44, Upper CI = -0.16). An examination of the specific indirect effects indicates that both Organizational Virtuosity's perceptions and POS are mediators. More specifically, Organizational Virtuosity's perceptions mediated the PDS-intent to quit relationship, as its 99% Confidence Interval did not contain zero (point estimate of specific indirect effect = -0.16, Lower CI = -0.30, Upper CI = -0.05) (Hypothesis 6 supported). POS was also found to mediate the PDS-intent to quit relationship as its 99% Confidence Interval did not contain zero (point estimate of the specific indirect effect = -0.13, Lower CI = -0.27, Upper CI = -.01) (Hypothesis 10 supported). This indicates that organizational virtuosity's perceptions and POS mediate the PDS-intent to quit relationship above and beyond each other.

PDS- Self-sacrificial intentions relationship: The results of bootstrapping (Table 3) indicate full mediation for the PDS-self-sacrificial intentions relationship. PDS had a statistically significant positive relationship with self-sacrificial intentions ($B = 0.24$, $t = 4.25$, $p < 0.001$) (Hypothesis 3 supported). PDS had also a significant positive correlation with Organizational Virtuosity's perceptions ($B = 0.52$, $t = 10.25$, $p < 0.001$) and POS ($B = 0.51$, $t = 11.94$, $p < 0.001$). Organizational virtuosity's perceptions (mediator) had also a positive significant association with self-sacrificial intentions ($B = 0.33$, $t = 5.39$, $p < 0.001$). Similarly, POS had a significant positive association with self-sacrificial intentions ($B = 0.20$, $t = 2.72$, $p < 0.01$). After controlling for

mediators, PDS had a non-significant effect on self-sacrificial intentions ($B = -0.03$, $t = -0.55$, $p = n.s.$).

The total indirect effect of PDS on self-sacrificial intentions had a point estimate of 0.27 and was different from zero as 99% Bias Corrected Confidence Intervals (CI) did not include zero (Lower CI= 0.17, Upper CI= 0.39). An examination of the specific indirect effects indicates that only Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions mediate the PDS-self-sacrificial intentions relationship, as its 99% Confidence Intervals did not contain zero (specific indirect effect through organizational virtuousness' perceptions: 0.17, Lower CI= 0.08, Upper CI= 0.28) (Hypothesis 7 supported). POS was not found to contribute to the indirect effect above and beyond Organizational Virtuousness' perceptions, as its Confidence Intervals contained zero (specific indirect effect through POS: 0.10, Lower CI= -0.02, Upper CI= 0.22) (Hypothesis 11 failed to receive support).

DISCUSSION

PDS has recently attracted academic interest and captures employees' attribution of disinterested motives to the support provided by the organization (Mignonac & Richebé 2013). Until now, research has viewed PDS from the perspective of social exchange theory supporting that the norm of reciprocity can explain its positive effect. In this study we extend these findings by investigating whether theory of organizational virtuousness (through organizational virtuousness' perceptions) as well as social exchange theory (through POS) can explain the relationship between PDS and outcomes (job satisfaction, intent to quit, self-sacrificial intentions). Our research findings indicate that both organizational virtuousness' perceptions and POS can mediate the PDS- job satisfaction and intent to quit relationships. On the contrary, the PDS-self-sacrificial intentions relationship was mediated only through organizational virtuousness' perceptions but not through POS.

Our research findings underline the importance of attributions made by employees regarding the support provided by their organization. Until now research had associated PDS with organizational commitment, as well as with turnover intentions and behaviors (Mignonac & Richebé 2013). Our study extended these findings by bringing to light that attributing disinterested motives to the supportive organizational treatment received can be associated with more satisfied employees who will be more willing to stay to their organization and abandon their personal interests for the sake of their organization. These findings corroborate evidence regarding the need to incorporate attributional processes into the study of workplace behaviors (Martinko et al. 2011).

Furthermore, our study focused on the role of the interpretations following PDS in explaining the PDS-outcomes relationship. Until now, research has suggested that social exchange theory can explain the PDS-outcomes relationships. Our study further expanded such perspective by integrating organizational virtuousness' perceptions into the study of PDS' effects. This is especially important if consider that POS and organizational virtuousness have a different "nature" and can act as distinct motivating mechanisms of employees' attitudes and behaviors. POS as a central construct of social exchange theory has traditionally been associated with feelings of obligation and exchange considerations (Byrne, Pitts, Chiaburu & Steiner 2011; Eisenberger et al. 2001). The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960) is the main mechanism explaining the positive effects of POS. On the other hand, organizational virtuousness transcending expectations of reciprocity and indicating an honest empathetic concern from the part of the organization (Cameron 2003; Cameron & Winn 2012) goes further from mere support. These attributes of organizational virtuousness can be critical for employees' subsequent attitudes and behaviors as they can make employees imitate a virtuous way of acting and feeling. So, organizational virtuousness can make employees surpass instrumentality and exchange concerns and can create internal definitions of goodness leading thus to prosocial behavior (Cameron 2003).

The results of our study indicate that both POS and organizational virtuousness' perceptions can explain why employees are more satisfied and express lower intent to quit when they attribute disinterested motives to the support provided by the organization. Consequently, POS and organizational virtuousness' perceptions -despite being distinct and sparking a different kind of motivation- need to be combined in order to explain employees' job satisfaction and intent to quit as a consequence of PDS. Employees seem to be more satisfied and express lower levels of intent to quit both because they consider their relationship advantageous and because they translate disinterestedness into virtuousness. So, it is possible that they react positively towards their organization both because they want to reciprocate the treatment received and because they have developed an honest empathetic concern towards their organization. This probably means that employees are motivated both by self-interested motivations -associated with social exchange theory- and by prosocial motivations associated with virtuousness. Despite the fact that exchange and virtuousness are distinct, they can be combined in order to explain employees' reactions. This is in line with previous research suggesting that concern for the self and concern for the others can coexist and should both be examined in order to provide a more accurate understanding of work-related behaviors such as prosocial behavior (De Dreu & Nauta 2009).

As far as the PDS-self-sacrificial intentions relationship is concerned, our findings indicate that only organizational virtuousness' perceptions can explain this relationship, while POS seems to be unable to contribute to this explanation above and beyond organizational virtuousness. Employees seem to be willing to abandon personal interests and make sacrifices only because they perceive their organization as virtuous and not because they consider their relationship with the organization as advantageous. Self-sacrificial intentions indicating an abandonment of personal interests are not probably the result of instrumental considerations and of pros and cons' calculation. On the contrary, they may be the result of the honest employees' concern towards their organization. As such, employees' self-sacrificial intentions could not be explained by the norm of reciprocity but by their intrinsic motivation to benefit their organization whose disinterested motives have been interpreted as a signal of virtuousness. This probably means that the organizational virtuousness' perspective is more adequate than the social exchange perspective in order to interpret employees' self-sacrificial intentions as a response to PDS.

To sum up, our findings indicate that organizational virtuousness' perceptions should be integrated to the study of PDS-outcome relationship, as well as to the general study of employee-employer relationship which has broadly been viewed from a social exchange perspective (DeConinck 2010; Gavino, Wayne & Erdogan 2012; Muse & Wadsworth 2012; Wayne, Shore & Liden 1997; Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick 2002). Of course, we do not want to understate the importance of social exchange perspective which is one of the most influential paradigms for explaining employees' behaviors (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). Far from that we suggest that social exchange perspective could be combined with the perspective of organizational virtuousness in order to provide a more accurate, sophisticated and complete view of the relationship between organizational treatment and employees' attitudes and behaviors.

Limitations

The current study has some limitations which can provide opportunities for future research. First of all, the current study focused on attitudes and behavioral intentions (job satisfaction, intent to quit and self-sacrificial intentions). Future research could focus on other outcomes, such as in-role performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, withdrawal behaviors and counterproductive work behaviors. Collecting data from supervisors could provide useful insights regarding the relationship between PDS and real behavior as well as about the ability of organizational virtuousness' perceptions and POS to mediate such relationships.

Additionally, qualitative research could provide useful insights regarding the reasons why organizational virtuousness' perceptions were found to mediate the PDS- self-sacrificial intentions above and beyond POS, while POS failed to do so. The use of interviews or focus groups could enable researchers to understand more in depth how PDS is interpreted by employees and what kind of psychological mechanisms are activated. Such research could “enlighten” the importance of the social exchange and virtuousness as motivators of the employees' attitudes and behaviors.

Furthermore, the cross-sectional nature of our study limits our ability to make causal inferences. Future research could use longitudinal designs in order to investigate the relationships among the variables of our study. This could provide a stronger test of the examined model.

Practical Implications

Our research findings indicate that Perceived Disinterested Support can be a predictor of employee attitudes and intentions such as job satisfaction, intent to quit and self-sacrificial intentions. These findings underline the necessity to focus not only on the benefits provided to employees but also on the motives attributed to this organizational treatment. Organizational representatives should pay careful attention to the way that their “gestures” towards employees are communicated. Going beyond instrumental concerns and making employees believe that there is no “hidden agenda” should become part of the daily interactions within an organization. Furthermore, human resource management systems should be designed in a way that will permit expressions of honest care and concern towards employees. Giving employees the impression that organizational treatment is motivated by the norm of beneficence can bring benefits. This will happen through the activation of the norm of reciprocity and the norm of beneficence from the part of the employees.

It is mentionable that interpretations following PDS can be of great importance if consider that a) both perceptions of support and organizational virtuousness' perceptions seem to act as a combined motivating force behind employees' levels of job satisfaction and intent to quit, and that b) only organizational virtuousness' perceptions seem to motivate employees' levels of self-sacrificial intentions. These findings indicate that organizational representatives should pay careful attention to organizational virtuousness' perceptions held by employees. Through their verbal statements and general behavior organizational representatives should emphasize the importance of some virtues (e.g. forgiveness, trust, compassion, optimism, integrity) for the organization. Convincing employees that virtues are a “guideline” of the

organizational functions and actions will make them interpret PDS as a signal of virtuousness. This could be determining for the organizational flourishing by making employees more willing to abandon even their personal benefits for the sake of the organization.

Conclusion

Our research findings indicate that organizational virtuousness' perspective should be combined with the social exchange perspective (Blau 1964) in order to explain the PDS-outcomes relationship. POS undoubtedly has a great power in explaining employees' attitudes and behaviors as a consequence of PDS. Nevertheless, organizational virtuousness can also be of great importance as it has unique explanatory power above and beyond POS. The ability of organizational virtuousness to activate the prosocial motives from the part of those who observe it (Cameron 2003) can have serious implications for employees' subsequent behavior. So, future research could investigate the potential of POS and organizational virtuousness when they come to explain employees' responses to various aspects of organizational treatment.

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10. Η ΣΥΓΧΡΟΝΗ ΘΕΜΑΤΙΚΗ ΤΩΝ ΘΕΩΡΙΩΝ ΤΗΣ ΗΓΕΣΙΑΣ

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ΠΕΡΙΛΗΨΗ

Η θεώρηση της ηγεσίας από πολλές πλευρές (π.χ. του ηγέτη, των ακολούθων, του κοινωνικού, πολιτισμικού, εργασιακού και οικονομικού περιβάλλοντος, της τεχνολογίας επικοινωνιών, κτλ.) και η μελέτη των παραγόντων που την αναδεικνύουν και την καθορίζουν, προβάλλουν την ανάγκη, σκοπιμότητα και χρησιμότητα των πολλών και διαφορετικών θεωριών και κατ' επέκταση ορισμών της ηγεσίας. Σκοπός της εργασίας αυτής είναι η καταγραφή των θεωρητικών υποδειγμάτων ηγεσίας από το 2000 μέχρι σήμερα, η συνοπτική παρουσίαση τους κατά θεματολογία και η διαμορφούμενη εξελικτική τάση στην έρευνα για την ηγεσία. Από την καταγραφή της συχνότητας των θεμάτων των άρθρων στα εγκυρότερα επιστημονικά περιοδικά, που αφορούν στην ηγεσία, προκύπτει ότι στην πρώτη πεντάδα των θεωρητικών υποδειγμάτων είναι οι θεωρίες: (νέο) χαρισματικής ηγεσίας, ηγεσίας βασισμένης στις νοητικές διεργασίες ηγέτη και ακολούθων, στρατηγικής ηγεσίας, σχεσιακής ηγεσίας (ή κοινωνικής ανταλλαγής) και ηγεσία με βάση τα χαρακτηριστικά – ικανότητες του ηγέτη.

Λέξεις κλειδιά: ηγεσία, ηγέτης, θεωρίες ηγεσίας, θεματική θεωριών ηγεσίας

ΕΙΣΑΓΩΓΗ

Παρά την εκτεταμένη έρευνα και τη μελέτη του φαινομένου της ηγεσίας, μέχρι σήμερα, δεν έχει προταθεί μια ενιαία και αποδεκτή θεωρία ούτε έχει δοθεί ένας πλήρης, ακριβής και σαφής ορισμός για το τι είναι ηγεσία. Έχουν γραφτεί δεκάδες χιλιάδες άρθρα και βιβλία για το θέμα αυτό. Στην Αμερική, για παράδειγμα το 2015 εκδίδονταν 4 βιβλία κάθε μέρα για την ηγεσία. Η Amazon έχει στην ηλεκτρονική της βάση περισσότερους από 80.000 τίτλους βιβλίων για την ηγεσία και σχεδόν 60.000 τίτλους βιβλίων για τον ηγέτη (Alio, 2013; Storey, 2004). Ήδη από τη δεκαετία του 1970 είχε παρατηρηθεί η αδυναμία να ορισθεί σαφώς και πλήρως η ηγεσία ως φαινόμενο και ως έννοια παρά την, από τότε, πληθώρα των προτεινόμενων ορισμών (Stogdill, 1974). Αυτό συμβαίνει γιατί υπάρχει διαφορετική οπτική γωνία θεώρησης και μελέτης του φαινομένου της ηγεσίας και διαφορετικές προτάσεις για το τι συνιστά την ηγεσία,, πως αυτή εκδηλώνεται και ποια συμπεριφορά του μάντζερ/στελέχους θα τον καθιστούσε ηγέτη.

Η κοινή συνισταμένη όλων των ορισμών που έχουν δοθεί για την ηγεσία είναι πως πρόκειται για ένα κοινωνικό φαινόμενο επικοινωνίας και αλληλεπίδρασης μεταξύ συνεργούντων ατόμων. Δηλαδή προκύπτει από τη συνύπαρξη και την από κοινού δράση ατόμων, στον ίδιο χώρο και χρόνο. Συμβαίνει σε κοινωνικές ομάδες, μικρές ή μεγάλες, στον «πολιτισμένο» κόσμο της Δύσης ή στις νομαδικές φυλές. Εκδηλώνεται στις κοινωνικές εκείνες καταστάσεις όπου και όταν απαιτείται συλλογική προσπάθεια, από κοινού δράση για να γίνει κάτι, π.χ. να επιτευχθεί ένας στόχος, να πετύχει μια αποστολή. Όπου και όταν απαιτείται κάποιος να ηγηθεί, να «βγει μπροστά», να οδηγήσει δείχνοντας το δρόμο-στόχο και να κάνει τους άλλους να τον ακολουθήσουν. Αυτό το να κάνει τους άλλους αφορά στον τρόπο που χρησιμοποιεί ο ηγέτης, π.χ. πειθώ, λογική και ικανή επιχειρηματολογία, ίδιον παράδειγμα, δέλεαρ, εξαναγκασμό, παρότρυνση. Να τον ακολουθήσουν σημαίνει ότι αυτοί νιώθουν την ανάγκη ή έχουν τη βούληση (αναγνωρίζοντας τις ικανότητες του, αποδεχόμενοι τη συμπεριφορά του και ελκυσόμενοι από την προσωπικότητα του) να του εκχωρήσουν ή σεβαστούν το δικαίωμα να τους καθοδηγεί και να ζητά από αυτούς να προβούν σε συγκεκριμένες ενέργειες και συμπεριφορές. Ταυτόχρονα έχουν την απαίτηση ή την προσδοκία ο ηγέτης τους να τους εκφράζει, να τους καταλαβαίνει και να ανταποκρίνεται.

Τόσο ο ηγέτης όσο και αυτοί που τον ακολουθούν βιώνουν (ζουν) μια σχέση. Γενικά, κάθε σχέση μεταξύ ανθρώπων όπως είναι η σχέση π.χ. μεταξύ ηγέτη και ακολούθων-υφισταμένων, είναι μια σχέση δούναι και λαβείν (ανταλλακτική). Αυτή η σχέση (ηγέτη-ακολούθων) είναι μια συναλλαγή ή ένα συναλλακτικό γεγονός/συμβάν(event), το οποίο σημαίνει πως λαμβάνει χώρα σε συγκεκριμένο χώρο και χρόνο (διάρκειας στιγμής, λεπτών ωρών, ημερών, μηνών ή ετών) και πως ο ηγέτης όχι μόνο επηρεάζει, θετικά ή αρνητικά, αλλά και επηρεάζεται από όσους τον ακολουθούν. Είναι άρα μια αμφίδρομη και δυναμική αλληλεπίδραση.

Αυτή η σχέση καθορίζεται ως προς τη δημιουργία, ανάπτυξη, ωρίμανση και τέλος της, από (α) τα ειδικά χαρακτηριστικά της κάθε πλευράς- ανάγκες, αισθήματα, νοητικά σχήματα, ικανότητες, νοοτροπία), (β) τα χαρακτηριστικά αυτής ίδιας της οργάνωσης/επιχείρησης, όπως για παράδειγμα το μέγεθος της, η δομή της, η κουλτούρα της, το αντικείμενο εργασιών της, η χρησιμοποιούμενη τεχνολογία, αλλά και (γ) από χαρακτηριστικά του εξωτερικού περιβάλλοντος, όπως π.χ. κοινωνική δομή και αξίες, κοινωνικά πρότυπα και στερεότυπα, κοινωνικές συμβάσεις, οικονομικές και τεχνολογικές συνθήκες (τεχνολογία της πληροφορίας και των επικοινωνιών, κοινωνικά δίκτυα) (Μπουραντάς, 2005).

Ειδικότερα και όσον αφορά τα χαρακτηριστικά των πρωταγωνιστών σε μια σχέση ηγεσίας, η γνώση και η ικανότητα του ηγέτη να χειρίζεται τις νέες τεχνολογίες πληροφοριών θα επηρεάσει τη δυνατότητα του να ανταποκριθεί ή να επικοινωνήσει εγκαίρως, κατάλληλα και αποτελεσματικά με τους υφισταμένους του και να ικανοποιήσει τις ανάγκες ή προσδοκίες

τους. Επίσης, η εμπειρία ενός στελέχους στον α ή β τομέα απασχόλησης (π.χ. στρατιωτικό ή ακαδημαϊκό) αναμένεται ότι θα επηρεάσει τον τρόπο άσκησης ηγεσίας του σε έναν άλλο τομέα, όπως για παράδειγμα σε μια ιδιωτική επιχείρηση ή στην τοπική αυτοδιοίκηση. Το ίδιο αναμένεται να συμβεί και όσον αφορά την προσωπικότητα, τις γνώσεις του για τον συγκεκριμένο κλάδο οικονομίας και τη συγκεκριμένη επιχείρηση. Οι πρωτοβουλίες τις οποίες θα πάρει, το όραμα που έχει ή θα προτείνει, η συμπεριφορά την οποία θα επιδείξει, σχετίζονται άμεσα σε μικρό ή μεγάλο βαθμό με το γνωσιακό του προφίλ, τα νοητικά του σχήματα, τον αριθμό και την ένταση των αναγκών του, τα συναισθήματα και τους προσωπικούς του στόχους. Αφού οι άνθρωποι διαφέρουν ως προς την ενεργητικότητα ή την παθητικότητα τους ή ως προς τη δυνατότητα τους να αξιολογήσουν και κρίνουν-έχουν μικρή ή μεγάλη ικανότητα κριτικής σκέψης (Kelley, 1992), αυτό σημαίνει ότι αντιλαμβάνονται διαφορετικά μια σχέση και τον ρόλο τους σε αυτήν. Έτσι, σε μια σχέση ηγεσίας όλες οι ενέργειες και συμπεριφορές των ακολούθων-υφισταμένων επηρεάζουν τον ηγέτη αλλά και τη λειτουργία αυτής καθαυτής της σχέσης. Παρομοίως, άτομα τα οποία έχουν ζήσει σε συγκεκριμένο περιβάλλον-κοινωνικό, θρησκευτικό, οικονομικό (π.χ. κομμουνιστικό, καπιταλιστικό) ή εργασιακό (π.χ. δημόσιος ή ιδιωτικός τομέας, ειδικευμένη/ανειδίκευτη εργασία) ή εργασιακών σχέσεων (π.χ. ύπαρξη ή όχι σωματείου εργαζομένων) - κατανοούν αναλόγως και διαφορετικά μια σχέση ηγεσίας.

Με βάση τα παραπάνω και θεωρώντας την ηγεσία από την πλευρά του ηγέτη μπορεί να ορισθεί ότι, **ηγεσία είναι η αρχιτεκτονική της επιρροής των άλλων**, ώστε αυτοί να ακολουθήσουν τον ηγέτη **στην επίτευξη του οράματος** του, να επιδείξουν την απαιτούμενη/κατάλληλη συμπεριφορά, αναπτύξουν συγκεκριμένη νοοτροπία, σύστημα αξιών και συναισθήματα και στάσεις, ώστε να επιτευχθούν οι συγκεκριμένοι, κάθε φορά, επιδιωκόμενοι στόχοι, σε ατομικό, ομαδικό, οργανωσιακό και κοινωνικό επίπεδο. Ο όρος «αρχιτεκτονική» χρησιμοποιείται εδώ μεταφορικά για να δηλώσει ότι ο ηγέτης, όπως ο αρχιτέκτων, με δεδομένη τη συνθήκη πραγμάτων (εσωτερικό, κυρίως, περιβάλλον της επιχείρησης/οργανισμού, αλλά και εξωτερικό) πρέπει να “συλλάβει” το όραμα, να ορίσει το στόχο και την πορεία/σχέδιο επίτευξης του, συνδυάζοντας όλα τα συστατικά στοιχεία (συντελεστές παραγωγής) της επιχείρησης με αναφορά και επίκεντρο τους εργαζόμενους, με τους οποίους πρέπει να αναπτύξει μια διαπροσωπική σχέση, ώστε να τους παρακινήσει, εμπνεύσει και πείσει, να τον ακολουθήσουν στην υλοποίηση του οράματος και την επίτευξη των στόχων που έχουν τεθεί. Φαινόμενα ηγεσίας λοιπόν εκδηλώνονται σε κάθε πεδίο κοινωνικής δραστηριότητας, ανεξαρτήτως του σκοπού που επιδιώκεται, π.χ. σε πολιτικό, θρησκευτικό, επιχειρηματικό, συνδικαλιστικό, στρατιωτικό, αθλητικό ή επιστημονικό πεδίο. Κατ’ επέκταση γίνεται αναφορά και συζήτηση για τον τάδε ηγέτη ή ηγετική μορφή ο οποίος πέτυχε/διακρίθηκε ή απέτυχε στο πεδίο του. Το φαινόμενο της ηγεσίας είναι τόσο παλιό όσο οι πρώτες καταγραφές, από την

αρχαιότητα, για τη συλλογική δράση- προσπάθεια των ανθρώπων να κάνουν μεγάλα έργα, ή να κατακτήσουν άλλους λαούς ή να δαμάσουν/αντιμετωπίσουν/αξιοποιήσουν τα στοιχεία της φύσης ή να αλλάξουν τη μοίρα τους.

Η ιστορία έχει καταγράψει σε όλα τα πεδία ικανούς και ανίκανους ηγέτες, διαχρονικούς και ασήμαντους, πετυχημένους και αποτυχημένους, κ.ο.κ. Αυτοί οι επιθετικοί προσδιορισμοί, προφανώς βασισμένοι και σε υποκειμενικά-μη μετρήσιμα, αλλά και σε αντικειμενικά-μετρήσιμα κριτήρια, αναφέρονται είτε στην προσωπικότητα, είτε στη συμπεριφορά, είτε στις πράξεις και τα αποτελέσματα αυτών των ηγετών. Για 200 και πλέον χρόνια η έρευνα και η βιβλιογραφία-αρθρογραφία για την ηγεσία έχει ασχοληθεί στο μεγαλύτερο μέρος της με τα χαρακτηριστικά τα οποία πρέπει να έχει κάποιος για να αναδειχθεί και να χαρακτηριστεί ως ηγέτης. Από την εποχή των «μεγάλων ανδρών» ή Ηρώων (π.χ. Μέγας Αλέξανδρος, Ξενοφών¹¹, Μέγας Ναπολέων, Μεγάλη Αικατερίνη), τόσο σε επίπεδο αρχηγών κρατών, όσο και σε επίπεδο επιχειρήσεων (General Electric - Jack Welch, Apple - Steve Jobs, Facebook - Mark Zuckerberg, Ολυμπιακή Αεροπορία - Αλέξανδρος Ωνάσης κ.τ.λ.) μέχρι σήμερα, την εποχή της οικονομίας της γνώσης και της πληροφορίας, το βάρος για την ικανότητα κάποιου να ηγείται δίνεται στα χαρακτηριστικά του, που τον κάνουν να διαφέρει, να ξεχωρίζει από τους άλλους.

Αν και οι περισσότεροι ερευνητές δεν αποδέχονται σήμερα τη θεωρία των «μεγάλων ανδρών» εν τούτοις παραδέχονται και αναγνωρίζουν την επίδραση των χαρακτηριστικών της προσωπικότητας και των γνωστικών/γνωσιακών ικανοτήτων του ηγέτη στη συμπεριφορά του, στις επιλογές και πράξεις του και στη σχέση του με τους άλλους, αλλά και στο πως αυτά τα χαρακτηριστικά και οι ικανότητες γίνονται αντιληπτά, και είναι επιθυμητά ή ζητούμενα από όσους ακολουθούν ή αποδέχονται κάποιον ως ηγέτη τους (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011; Lord, Brown, 2004; Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron & Byrne, 2007; Nichols, 2016; Βακόλα & Νικολάου, 2012; Κάτου, 2017; Χυτήρης, 2017). Είναι προφανές ότι αφού οι άνθρωποι έχουν διαφορετικές προτιμήσεις, αντιλήψεις, ανάγκες και ικανότητα επεξεργασίας δεδομένων και πληροφοριών, διαφορετικά θα είναι και τα απαιτούμενα ή επιθυμητά χαρακτηριστικά και ικανότητες για τον ηγέτη, ανάλογα ή αντίστοιχα των καιρών και των χαρακτηριστικών του περιβάλλοντος.

Αυτές ακριβώς τις διαφορές στο προφίλ του ίδιου του ηγέτη και των ακολούθων του, στο περιβάλλον (π.χ. τεχνολογία, παγκοσμιοποίηση, οικονομία της γνώσης και των υπηρεσιών, διεθνικό-εθνικό-τοπικό σύστημα αξιών, εθνική κουλτούρα) αλλά και στα χαρακτηριστικά της επιχείρησης (π.χ. μέγεθος, οργανωτικό και ιδιοκτησιακό σχήμα, οργανωσιακή κουλτούρα,

¹¹ Συγγραφέας και στρατιωτικός ηγέτης(4^{ος} αιώνας π.Χ.), οδήγησε τους 10.000 στρατιώτες του, αφού τον είχαν εκλέξει αρχηγό τους, από τα βόρεια της Ασίας/Περσία στην Βαλτική(τον προορισμό και στόχο τους, όπου φθάνοντας ανέκραξαν «θάλαττα-θάλαττα»).

γεωγραφικό πεδίο δράσης, εικονική, virtual οργάνωση) αντιπροσωπεύουν και οι διάφορες θεωρίες ηγεσίας ή τα προτεινόμενα υποδείγματα ηγεσίας (Morrison, 2000).

Για παράδειγμα, το υπόδειγμα της κάθετης ή γραφειοκρατικής ή ιεραρχικής ηγεσίας του περασμένου αιώνα (δηλ. ο ηγέτης ως θέσει αρχηγός) αντιπροσώπευε την κάθετη ιεραρχική οργάνωση των μεγάλων ιδίως επιχειρήσεων. Το παραδοσιακό υπόδειγμα της άσκησης επιρροής αφορούσε ή εξυπηρετούσε τις σχέσεις μεταξύ ατόμων που αλληλεπιδρούσαν σε φυσικό προσωπικό επίπεδο (πρόσωπο με πρόσωπο) και δραστηριοποιούνταν σε συγκεκριμένο φυσικό χώρο (όλοι στον ίδιο χώρο εργασίας). Τα ζητούμενα χαρακτηριστικά για τον ηγέτη ήταν σε 2 διαστάσεις: α) ικανότητα να επιβάλλεται, να κυριαρχεί και να καθορίζει τα πράγματα αλλά και β) την ικανότητα στις σχέσεις του με τους άλλους. Στο δισδιάστατο αυτό υπόδειγμα ηγεσίας η έμφαση αρχικά δόθηκε στην ανάγκη η συμπεριφορά του ηγέτη να είναι κατευθυνόμενη προς το έργο και τα αποτελέσματα (task/results orientation) ενώ αργότερα λόγω των διαφορών που αναφέρθηκαν παραπάνω η έμφαση δόθηκε στις σχέσεις ηγέτη-ακολουθών (relationship orientation) (Bryman, 1992; Nichols, 2016).

Στη σημερινή εποχή των πολλαπλών σχέσεων του ηγέτη με τους άλλους, της πολυπλοκότητας αυτών των σχέσεων και της ανάγκης για συνεργασία, η έρευνα και η θεωρία για την ηγεσία προτείνουν διαφορετικά υποδείγματα, ανάλογα με την έμφαση που δίνουν στις παραπάνω διαφορές (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Cascio & Shurygina, 2003; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Day & Antonakis, 2012; Fry, 2003; Hazy, Goldstein & Lichtenstein, 2007; Lord & Brown, 2004; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Uhl Bien & Marrion, 2008; Zaccaro & Bader, 2003; Ziguers, 2003). Για παράδειγμα, προτείνεται το υπόδειγμα της χαρισματικής, της διαπολιτισμικής, της «ηλεκτρονικής» (e-leadership), της μετασχηματιστικής, της συναλλακτικής, της συλλογικής/ από κοινού κατανεμημένης (shared/distributed leadership), της αυθεντικής, της υπηρετικής, της ηθικής ηγεσίας, της ηγεσίας σύνθετων καταστάσεων (complexity leadership), το υπόδειγμα της (ψυχο) πνευματικής ηγεσίας (spiritual leadership) (Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2005; George, 2003; Ilies, Nahrgang & Mongeson, 2007; Russell & Stone, 2002; Schaubroeck, Lam & Cha, 2007) ή το υπόδειγμα της στρατηγικής ηγεσίας (Avolio, κ.α., 2009).

ΜΕΘΟΔΟΛΟΓΙΑ ΜΕΛΕΤΗΣ

Η παρούσα μελέτη βασίστηκε σε σχετικές έρευνες (Avolio, κ.α. 2009; Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden & Hu, 2014) που αφορούσαν στην καταγραφή των άρθρων με θέμα την ηγεσία, από το 2000 μέχρι το 2012, στα 10 καλύτερα επιστημονικά περιοδικά, όπως π.χ. Academy of Management Journal, Academy of Management Review, Administrative Science Quarterly, Journal of Applied Psychology, Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes, The

Leadership Quarterly. Στα ίδια περιοδικά, για την περίοδο 2013 μέχρι 2017, έγινε η ανάλογη καταγραφή των άρθρων, ακολουθώντας τη μεθοδολογία της έρευνας των Dinh, κ.α. (2014) δηλαδή ανάγνωση (από την ηλεκτρονική πλατφόρμα των περιοδικών και το διαδίκτυο) του τίτλου και της περίληψης του άρθρου και χαρακτηρισμός ως προς την απόλυτη πραγμάτευση – μελέτη του θέματος της ηγεσίας.

Με βάση λοιπόν την επισκόπηση της θεωρίας και τη σχετική τυπολογία/ κατηγοριοποίηση των Dinh, κ.α. (2014) έγινε η παρουσίαση των θεωριών ηγεσίας σε 19 θεματικά πεδία.

ΘΕΜΑΤΙΚΗ ΤΩΝ ΘΕΩΡΙΩΝ ΗΓΕΣΙΑΣ

Ως θεωρία ορίζεται η γνώση (κανόνες, προτάσεις, υποθέσεις, αρχές) η οποία έχει προκύψει από συστηματική παρατήρηση-θεώρηση, έρευνα και ανάλυση της πραγματικότητας (όντων και φαινομένων), την οποία και περιγράφει ή και ερμηνεύει. Η θεωρία για την ηγεσία περιγράφει και ερμηνεύει την πρακτική (δηλαδή το άγειν και το άγεσθαι), τις αιτιώδεις σχέσεις μεταξύ ηγέτη και ακολούθων-υφισταμένων, και προτείνει κανόνες σχετικούς με την άσκηση αποτελεσματικής ηγεσίας).

Η μελέτη του φαινομένου της ηγεσίας εντάθηκε ιδιαίτερα το τελευταίο τέταρτο του 20^{ου} αιώνα και την πρώτη δεκαετία του 2000. Στόχος των πολυάριθμων μελετών ήταν να εξηγήσουν τι συνιστά την ηγεσία, πώς αυτή εκδηλώνεται, και τι αποτελέσματα παράγει, σε έναν κόσμο με πολλές, καθοριστικές και συχνές αλλαγές στο μακρο-επίπεδο της τεχνολογίας, της οικονομίας, και της κοινωνίας, αλλά και στο μικρο-επίπεδο των επιχειρήσεων και οργανισμών. Το αποτέλεσμα αυτών των μελετών ήταν να προταθούν δεκάδες θεωρητικών υποδειγμάτων (θεωρίες), ανάλογα με τον τρόπο που παρατηρήθηκε και αναλύθηκε (μεθοδολογία) το φαινόμενο της ηγεσίας, τις υποθέσεις και παραδοχές που έγιναν για το πώς προκύπτει/αναδύεται η ηγεσία, με ποιο τρόπο καθίσταται λειτουργική, ποια η φορά της, και τι αποτελέσματα επιφέρει στους ίδιους τους πρωταγωνιστές(σε ατομικό και ομαδικό επίπεδο) αλλά και σε επίπεδο οργάνωσης/επιχείρησης και κοινωνίας. Συνοπτική παρουσίαση των θεωριών αυτών με βάση τη θεματική τους (τα τελευταία χρόνια), τι δηλαδή μελετούν και σε τι εστιάζουν, γίνεται παρακάτω (Avolio, κ.α., 2009; Dinh, κ.α., 2014; Ozturk, Varoglu &Varoglu, 2017).

1) Νεο-θεωρίες χαρισματικής ηγεσίας

1.1.Συναλλακτική ηγεσία

1.2.Μετασχηματιστική ηγεσία

1.3.Χαρισματική ηγεσία



- 1.4.Θεωρία της ιδεολογικής/ρεαλιστικής ηγεσίας
- 1.5.Θεωρία της υπερ-ηγεσίας
- 1.6.Ηγεσία της αυτοθυσίας ή Αλτρουιστική ηγεσία
- 1.7.Εμπνευστική/ Εμπνευστική ηγεσία (Inspirational leadership)
- 1.8.Ηγεσία της αυτοεκπληρούμενης προφητείας (Pygmalion effects theory)
- 1.9.Υπερβατική ηγεσία (Transcendental leadership) (Sanders, Hopkins & Geroy, 2003)

Αφορούν στο χάρισμα ή το ιδιαίτερα έντονο χαρακτηριστικό κάποιου να μαγνητίζει – έλκει τους άλλους. Οι θεωρίες αυτές βασίζονται στο έργο του Γερμανού φιλοσόφου Max Weber (αρχές 20^{ου} αιώνα) περί «Χαρισματικής εξουσίας» (Weber, 2006). Οι περισσότερο γνωστές είναι η θεωρία της Συναλλακτικής ηγεσίας και η Μετασχηματιστική ηγεσία, οι οποίες επικεντρώνονται στο χαρακτηριστικό αυτό του ηγέτη, στο πώς αναπτύσσεται και γίνεται φανερό και στα αποτελέσματα της αλληλεπιδραστικής σχέσης μεταξύ ηγέτη και ακολούθου – υφιστάμενου (Williams, Raffo & Clark, 2018).

2) Θεωρίες ηγεσίας και (νοητικές διεργασίες για την) επεξεργασία πληροφοριών – δεδομένων (Leadership and information processing)

- 2.1.Ηγεσία με βάση τη γνωστική/ γνωσιακή λειτουργία ηγέτη και ακολούθου – υφισταμένου (Leader and follower cognition)
- 2.2.Θεωρία της έμμεσης/ υπονοούμενης ηγεσίας (Implicit leadership)
- 2.3.Θεωρία της κοινωνικής απόδοσης (Attribution theory)
- 2.4.Θεωρία της επεξεργασίας πληροφοριών και λήψης αποφάσεων

Οι θεωρίες αυτές εξετάζουν τις γνωστικές/ γνωσιακές λειτουργίες (π.χ. νόηση, σκέψη, μνήμη, αντίληψη) του ηγέτη αλλά και των ακολούθων - υφισταμένων να επεξεργάζονται πληροφορίες και δεδομένα που αφορούν στη σχέση τους. Μελετούν πώς, με βάση το αποτέλεσμα αυτής της επεξεργασίας (τι αντιλαμβάνονται, τι κατανοούν), καθορίζουν τη συμπεριφορά τους και λαμβάνουν αποφάσεις για τη μεταξύ τους σχέση. Για παράδειγμα, από την πλευρά του υφιστάμενου, την αποδοχή ή απόρριψη του ηγέτη με βάση πώς αντιλαμβάνονται τα χαρακτηριστικά, τα «πιστεύω», τις αξίες ή τις ικανότητες του για να ηγηθεί) (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Epitropaki, Martin, Tram – Quom & Topakas, 2013).

3) Θεωρίες της κοινωνικής συναλλαγής ή θεωρίες σχεσιακής ηγεσίας

- 3.1. Θεωρία της συναλλαγής ηγέτη – μέλους (LMX Theory)
- 3.2. Σχεσιακή ηγεσία
- 3.3. Θεωρία της κάθετης δυαδικής σχέσης/ σύνδεσης (VDL Theory)

3.4. Εξατομικευμένη ηγεσία

Στην θεματική αυτών των θεωριών εξετάζονται οι σχέσεις και το πώς της αλληλεπίδρασης μεταξύ ηγέτη και ακολούθων – υφισταμένων. Η πλέον γνωστή από αυτές τις θεωρίες είναι αυτή της συναλλαγής ηγέτη – μέλους η οποία εξετάζει τις σχέσεις που δημιουργούνται από τον ηγέτη (κάθετα) με τους υφισταμένους του, και έχει, συνήθως ως αποτέλεσμα τη δημιουργία δύο τύπων σχέσης (από την πλευρά του ηγέτη). Ο ένας τύπος αφορά στη δημιουργία άμεσων, πιο επιδραστικών σχέσεων με κάποιους υφισταμένους (εσωτερική ομάδα) και ο δεύτερος λιγότερο επιδραστική σχέση με τους άλλους υφιστάμενους (εξωτερική ομάδα).

4) Θεωρίες των χαρακτηριστικών (του ηγέτη)

- 4.1. Θεωρία των (ατομικών) χαρακτηριστικών
- 4.2. Θεωρία των ηγετικών ικανοτήτων/ δεξιοτήτων
- 4.3. Θεωρία (του προφίλ) κινήτρων του ηγέτη

Οι θεωρίες αυτές εστιάζονται και μελετούν τα διάφορα χαρακτηριστικά τόσο (και κυρίως) του ηγέτη όσο και των ακολούθων – υφισταμένων. Τέτοια χαρακτηριστικά όπως τα φυσικά, πνευματικά, κοινωνικά, προσωπικότητας, εργασιακά (π.χ. εμπειρία, εργατικότητα, σταδιοδρομία, ιεραρχικό επίπεδο) προσδιορίζονται και μελετάται η επίδρασή τους στην άσκηση ηγεσίας και στην αποτελεσματικότητά της. Τα χαρακτηριστικά της προσωπικότητας (ως παραγόντων πρόβλεψης της ικανότητας του στελέχους να ηγηθεί και της αναμενόμενης επιτυχίας/ αποτελεσματικότητας της επιχείρησης/ οργανισμού) μελετώνται ήδη από τη δεκαετία του 1840 (θεωρία «μεγάλων ανδρών»/ ηρώων (Nichols, 2016; Nichols & Cottrell, 2014).

5) Ηγεσία και διαφορετικότητα

- 5.1. Διαπολιτισμική ηγεσία
- 5.2. Θεωρία (για την ηγεσία) της διαφορετικότητας

Το πολυμεταβλητό θέμα των διαφορών στο πεδίο των διαπροσωπικών σχέσεων μεταξύ ηγέτη και ακολούθων – υφισταμένων αποτελεί το αντικείμενο των θεωριών αυτών. Έτσι, εξετάζονται διαφορές οι οποίες αφορούν στην κουλτούρα, την μειονότητα, το φύλο, τη γεωγραφική περιοχή (π.χ. Ευρώπη VS. ΗΠΑ), κτλ. Εξετάζεται επίσης ποια η επίδρασή τους στο να δημιουργηθούν συνθήκες ανάδειξης του ηγέτη, στην όλη διαδικασία της άσκησης επιρροής και στην αποτελεσματικότητα του ηγέτη σε περιβάλλοντα με αρκετά και έντονα διαφοροποιητικά στοιχεία.

6) «Οπαδοκεντρικές» θεωρίες ηγεσίας (θεωρίες ηγεσίας με κέντρο βάρους τον ακόλουθο ηγέτη)

- 6.1. Θεωρία του ακόλουθου - του οπαδού
- 6.2. Ειδυλλιακή ή Ιπποτική ηγεσία (Romance of leadership)
- 6.3. Αισθητική ηγεσία

Οι θεωρίες αυτές υποστηρίζουν πως βαρύνουσα σημασία στη σχέση ηγέτη – ακολούθου – υφισταμένου έχουν τα χαρακτηριστικά του ακολούθου (π.χ. κοινωνικά, οικονομικά, αξίες, κίνητρα, κ.ά.) και οι συμπεριφορές του. Το πώς αυτός θα «δει» τον ηγέτη του και θα αναπτύξει ανάλογη σχέση μαζί του, επηρεάζεται ακόμη και από την αισθητική του (aesthetic perspective) και καθορίζει το «ειδύλλιο» αναμεταξύ τους. Η συνεχώς αυξανόμενη δύναμη των ακολούθων/ υφισταμένων (π.χ. λόγω περισσότερης μόρφωσης, μεγαλύτερης δικτύωσης αναμεταξύ τους, μεγαλύτερης και ευκολότερης πρόσβασης σε τεχνολογίες πληροφοριών και επικοινωνίας – κοινωνικά δίκτυα) καθιστά την άσκηση ηγεσίας ή και την αποδοχή του ηγέτη μία πρόκληση και ένα έργο δύσκολο.

7) Συμπεριφορικές θεωρίες

- 7.1. Συμμετοχική, Συλλογική ή Διαμοιρασμένη ηγεσία
- 7.2. Εξατομικευμένη ηγεσία
- 7.3. Θεωρία κρίσιμων περιστατικών
- 7.4. Εξουσιοδοτική ηγεσία
- 7.5. Ηγεσία της τιμωρίας και της επιβράβευσης/ συμπεριφοράς (θεωρίας της ενίσχυσης)

Η θεματική της συμπεριφοράς (δηλαδή ποια συμπεριφορά και ποιες ενέργειες ενδείκνυνται ή ποιες είναι πιο αποτελεσματικές) κράτησε για πολλές δεκαετίες (ήδη από το 1950) το ενδιαφέρον των ερευνητών και των επαγγελματιών. Οι θεωρητικές και εμπειρικές μελέτες στα πανεπιστήμια της Iowa, του Ohio και του Michigan και οι μετέπειτα σχετικές έρευνες κατέληξαν στα θεωρητικά υποδείγματα των στυλ ηγεσίας (αυταρχικό, δημοκρατικό, χωρίς παρεμβάσεις ή χαλαρό) στο υπόδειγμα του Likert, του Reddin, το Πλέγμα ηγεσίας και στη θεωρία X,Y του McGregor. Οι πιο σύγχρονες θεωρίες αφορούν στη συμμετοχική ηγεσία, τη διαμοιρασμένη ηγεσία, την εξουσιοδοτική, των κρίσιμων περιστατικών ή τη συμπεριφορά του ηγέτη σε εξατομικευμένο επίπεδο (ανάλογα με το προφίλ και τα χαρακτηριστικά του κάθε ακόλουθου – υφισταμένου). Αφορούν επίσης στο πώς ο ηγέτης χειρίζεται την τιμωρία ή την

επιβράβευση για να προκαλέσει/ παρακινήσει τον υφιστάμενό του να επιδείξει την κατάλληλη – επιθυμητή συμπεριφορά.

8) Ενδεχομενικές θεωρίες

- 8.1. Θεωρία Πορείας – Στόχου (Path – Goal Theory)
- 8.2. Θεωρία Περιστασιακής ηγεσίας ή «Καταστασιακής» ηγεσίας
- 8.3. Ενδεχομενική ηγεσία
- 8.4. Προσαρμοστική ηγεσία
- 8.5. Θεωρία των υποκατάστατων της ηγεσίας
- 8.6. Κανονιστικό υπόδειγμα λήψης αποφάσεων (Normative decision model)
- 8.7. Θεωρία του κύκλου ζωής (Ηγεσία με βάση την ωριμότητα υφισταμένων)
- 8.8. Το υπόδειγμα της πολλαπλής σύνδεσης
- 8.9. Ευέλικτη ηγεσία

Το αντικείμενο μελέτης και οι προτάσεις αυτών των θεωριών αφορούν στο πώς η κατάσταση, το περιβάλλον (όσον αφορά την ομάδα συνεργατών – υφισταμένων, την δυναμική της ή συγκεκριμένο άτομο) επηρεάζει την δυνατότητα του ηγέτη να ασκήσει ηγεσία αλλά και την αποτελεσματικότητά του ως ηγέτη. Το ενδεχόμενο να ισχύει η α, β, γ κατάσταση, για παράδειγμα, θα τον αναγκάσει να προσαρμόσει τους άλλους ή τους παράγοντες της κατάστασης, ώστε να είναι σύμφωνοι με τις αξίες, τα «πιστεύω», τους στόχους, το όραμά του. Το επίπεδο ωριμότητας των υφισταμένων του, το επείγον και η σημαντικότητα μίας απόφασης, η διάθεση και ικανότητα των συνεργατών – υφισταμένων για ανάληψη ευθυνών και υποστήριξή του, καθορίζει με ποιους, πόσο και για ποια θέματα θα συνεργασθεί και τι συμπεριφορά θα επιδείξει. Περιβαλλοντικοί παράγοντες (π.χ. οικονομικοί, εργασιακοί, οργανωσιακοί) οι οποίοι ακυρώνουν – υποκαθιστούν τον ηγέτη στο να ασκήσει ηγεσία, επίσης μελετώνται στη θεματική αυτή.

9) Θεωρίες (χρησιμοποιούμενης) δύναμης και επιρροής

- 9.1. Άσκηση Δύναμης και Επιρροής από τον ηγέτη
- 9.2. Πολιτικές διεργασίες και τακτικές επιρροής του ηγέτη

Στις θεωρίες αυτές μελετάται το ποιες πηγές δύναμης (π.χ. προσωπική, θεσμοθετημένη, νομική, οικονομική) χρησιμοποιεί ο ηγέτης για την επιρροή των ακολούθων – υφισταμένων και ποιες οι συνέπειές τους. Οι πολιτικές διεργασίες στις οποίες προβαίνει και οι τακτικές συμπεριφοράς που υιοθετεί για την πειθώ, τον εντυπωσιασμό ή την επιβολή του πάνω στους

άλλους (σε ατομικό ή και ομαδικό επίπεδο) και η αποτελεσματικότητα αυτών, αποτελούν επίσης αντικείμενο μελέτης και προτάσεων των θεωριών αυτών.

10) Στρατηγική ηγεσία

10.1. Ηγεσία σε επίπεδο ανώτατης ιεραρχίας/CEO

10.2. Ηγεσία σε ανώτερα επίπεδα ιεραρχίας

10.3. Δημόσια – Κυβερνητική ηγεσία

Οι θεωρίες αυτού του θεματικού πεδίου εστιάζουν στο ανώτατο και ανώτερα διοικητικά επίπεδα μιας επιχείρησης/ οργανισμού. Η μελέτη αφορά στο ρόλο του ηγέτη να αντιμετωπίζει τις προκλήσεις/ αλλαγές του εξωτερικού περιβάλλοντος και να επιφέρει τις απαιτούμενες αλλαγές στη δομή και λειτουργία της επιχείρησης. Ποιες ικανότητες, χαρακτηριστικά και συμπεριφορές απαιτούνται για τον ηγέτη σε τέτοιο επίπεδο, τι περιορίζει τις δυνατότητες άσκησης αποτελεσματικής ηγεσίας και ποιες συνθήκες επιβάλλουν την άσκηση στρατηγικής ηγεσίας, αποτελούν επίσης αντικείμενο μελέτης και προτάσεις αυτών των θεωριών. Ακόμη, η άσκηση ηγεσίας σε δημόσιες κυβερνητικές θέσεις (όπου απαιτείται στρατηγική – μακροχρόνια θεώρηση για τα πράγματα και οι αποφάσεις και ενέργειες του ηγέτη έχουν καθοριστικές συνέπειες για μεγάλες κοινωνικές ομάδες) εξετάζεται στις θεωρίες αυτές.

11) Θεωρίες ηγεσίας (ειδικού) περιβάλλοντος (Contextual Leadership)

11.1. Περιβαλλοντικές θεωρίες ηγεσίας

11.2. Ηγεσία (μέσω) κοινωνικών δικτύων

Η εμφάνιση και η εκδήλωση του φαινομένου της ηγεσίας και οι παράγοντες οι οποίοι καθορίζουν την αποτελεσματικότητα του ηγέτη σε συγκεκριμένο περιβάλλον, εργασιακό, κοινωνικό (π.χ. στρατός, δημόσιο, υγεία, αστυνομία, αθλητισμός, πανεπιστήμια) μελετώνται στις θεωρίες αυτής της κατηγορίας.

12) Ηγεσία πολύπλοκων συστημάτων

12.1. Ηγεσία πολύπλοκων συστημάτων

12.2. Συνενωτική/ ολοκληρωμένη ηγεσία

Οι σύγχρονες μορφές οργάνωσης, τα εφαρμοζόμενα συστήματα και οι ακολουθούμενες διαδικασίες για την αντιμετώπιση καταστάσεων (στο εσωτερικό και εξωτερικό περιβάλλον της επιχείρησης/ οργανισμού) και την επίτευξη των στόχων απαιτούν ένα άλλο/ διαφορετικό

πρότυπο ηγέτη, από ό, τι σε παλαιότερες εποχές σταθερού – αρκετά προβλέψιμου περιβάλλοντος και έντονα ιεραρχικά δομημένης επιχείρησης. Οι θεωρίες της θεματικής αυτής υποστηρίζουν πως η θεώρηση και η εφαρμογή εννοιών – αρχών της θεωρίας της πολυπλοκότητας απαιτείται για αποτελεσματική άσκηση ηγεσίας (για την παρακολούθηση και τον έλεγχο των αλληλεπιδράσεων μεταξύ όλων των υποσυστημάτων και στοιχείων που αποτελούν την επιχείρηση/ οργανισμό).

13) Ηγεσία ομάδων

13.1 Ηγεσία ομάδων

Τα απαιτούμενα από τον ηγέτη (αποφάσεις, ενέργειες και συμπεριφορές) για την μετατροπή ενός συνόλου ανθρώπων σε συνεκτική, λειτουργική και αποτελεσματική ομάδα, μελετώνται στη θεωρία αυτή. Οι μελέτες αφορούν περισσότερο σε ομάδες στο μεσαίο και κατώτερο επίπεδο ιεραρχίας, παρά στο ανώτερο και ανώτατο όπου οι ομάδες αντιμετωπίζονται ως στρατηγικής σημασίας παράγοντας (στρατηγική ηγεσία).

14) Θεωρίες ανάδυσης και ανάπτυξης ηγετών

14.1. Ανάπτυξη ηγετών

14.2. Εμφάνιση/ ανάδυση ηγετών

Στις θεωρίες αυτές τονίζεται η σκοπιμότητα δημιουργίας και ανάπτυξης ηγετών και καταγράφονται και προτείνονται σχετικές μεθοδολογίες. Μεθοδολογίες οι οποίες αφορούν, π.χ. στο πώς αναδεικνύεται και αναγνωρίζεται ο ηγέτης, σε τι να εκπαιδευθεί, πώς να αυτοαναπτυχθεί, πώς οι επιχειρήσεις εντοπίζουν, αξιολογούν και επιλέγουν δυνητικούς ηγέτες.

15) Θεωρίες ηθικής ηγεσίας

15.1. Αυθεντική ηγεσία

15.2. Ηθική ηγεσία

15.3. Εμπνευσμένη ηγεσία

15.4. Θεωρία του ηγέτη – υπηρέτη (Servant Leadership)

Οι θεωρίες αυτές εστιάζουν στη σημασία των αλτρουιστικών συμπεριφορών του ηγέτη, απέναντι κυρίως στους ακολούθους – υφισταμένους και στους άλλους stakeholders της επιχείρησης/ οργανισμού. Στοιχεία προσωπικότητας του ηγέτη όπως: η ηθική, η ακεραιότητα, η δικαιοσύνη και η επίδειξη από μέρους του ανάλογων συμπεριφορών (ώστε να δημιουργείται ένα περιβάλλον διαφάνειας, ειλικρίνειας, εμπιστοσύνης, ικανοποίησης ανωτέρων αναγκών,

επίδειξης ειλικρινούς ενδιαφέροντος, αυτογνωσίας, υπεύθυνης συμμετοχής, εκτίμησης και σεβασμού του άλλου και της συνεισφοράς του) παρατηρούνται, καταγράφονται και αξιολογούνται ως προς την επίδρασή τους στο να αναδειχθεί/ ξεχωρίσει ο ηγέτης, στη σχέση ηγέτη – ακολούθων/ υφισταμένων και στην αποτελεσματικότητα της ασκούμενης ηγεσίας.

16) Ηγεσία δημιουργικότητας, καινοτομίας και αλλαγής

16.1. Ηγεσία δημιουργικότητας και καινοτομίας

16.2. Ηγεσία οργανωσιακής αλλαγής

16.3. Ηγεσία οργανωσιακής μάθησης και γνώσης

Ο ρόλος, η ευθύνη και η υποχρέωση του ηγέτη να εισάγουν και υλοποιούν αλλαγές, να καινοτομούν και να δημιουργούν συνθήκες που θα διευκολύνουν ανάλογες ενέργειες, εξετάζονται στις θεωρίες αυτές. Πρόκειται για θεωρίες οι οποίες μελετούν τον κοινωνικοκεντρικό προσανατολισμό (έναντι του ατομοκεντρικού) του ηγέτη και τις προκύπτουσες συμπεριφορές του.

17) Θεωρίες ηγεσίας αυτοπροσδιορισμού του ηγέτη

Στη θεματική αυτών των θεωριών εξετάζεται το θέμα της αυτοεικόνας που έχει ο ηγέτης, επειδή ανήκει σε συγκεκριμένη ομάδα (π.χ. ηγέτης σε στρατιωτική μονάδα, σε πανεπιστήμιο, σε πολιτικό κόμμα, σε επιχειρήσεις ψηφιακής τεχνολογίας, στο δημόσιο ή ως μέλος μειονοτικής ομάδας – γυναίκα, αλλοδαπός, αφροαμερικανός, μουσουλμάνος, κτλ.) και κατ' επέκταση της κοινωνικής του ταυτότητας. Εξετάζεται επίσης η συμπεριφορά του απέναντι στα μέλη της ίδιας ή διαφορετικής ομάδας για να κερδίσει την αποδοχή τους ή να ελέγξει την απόρριψη και τις αρνητικές συμπεριφορές τους. Η μεροληψία, οι αρνητικές διακρίσεις, οι συγκρούσεις, η ευνοιοκρατία, παράγωγα της κοινωνικής ταυτότητας (σύμφωνα με τη θεωρία κοινωνικής ταυτότητας) εξετάζονται ως παράγοντες ανάδειξης και αποτελεσματικότητας της ηγεσίας. Σύμφωνα με τις θεωρίες αυτές μία επιχείρηση/ οργανισμός, μέσω της ηγεσίας, μπορεί να αλλάξει τις συμπεριφορές των μελών του αν αλλάξει/ επηρεάσει την αυτοεικόνα τους ή την κοινωνική τους ταυτότητα (παρέχοντας σχετική γνώση – εκπαίδευση και ελέγχοντας το συναισθηματικό δέσιμο κάθε μέλους με την ομάδα του).

18) Νεοεμφανιζόμενες θεωρίες ηγεσίας

18.1. Συναισθηματική ηγεσία

18.2. Τοξική ηγεσία



- 18.3. Βιολογικές προσεγγίσεις της ηγεσίας (Γενετική και νευροεπιστημονική θεώρηση της ηγεσίας)
- 18.4. Ηλεκτρονική ηγεσία/ ψηφιακή ηγεσία
- 18.5. Ηγεσία ανάκαμψης και διόρθωσης λαθών (Leader error and recovery theory)
- 18.6. Επιχειρηματική ηγεσία

Με βάση τις θεωρίες αυτές τα συναισθήματα, αρνητικά και θετικά, τόσο του ηγέτη όσο και των ακολούθων – υφισταμένων επηρεάζουν την αλληλεπίδραση μεταξύ τους και τα αποτελέσματα από την (προκύπτουσα) άσκηση ηγεσίας. Η προσβλητική, απαξιοτική και μειωτική προς τους άλλους συμπεριφορά του ηγέτη (toxic leadership) καθορίζει, όχι απλά τη σχέση του με τους υφισταμένους του σε καθημερινή βάση, αλλά καταλήγει και σε αρνητικά οργανωσιακά αποτελέσματα (π.χ. χαμηλό ηθικό, συγκρούσεις, αρνητικότητα, χαμηλή απόδοση).

Η βιολογική προσέγγιση της ηγεσίας εστιάζει στο αν και πόσο οι γενετικοί παράγοντες (π.χ. γονίδιο rs 4950) προσδιορίζουν την ηγετικότητα και επηρεάζουν το να εμφανισθεί και να αναπτυχθεί κάποιος ως ηγέτης (Deneve, Mikhaylov, Christakis & Fowler, 2013). Τα ευρήματα των νευροεπιστημών, για τις νοητικές διεργασίες και την επίδρασή τους στη συμπεριφορά των ανθρώπων, εξετάζονται στις θεωρίες αυτές.

Η θεωρία ηλεκτρονικής ηγεσίας (E – leadership/ Digi leadership) αφορά στην ηγεσία μέσω τεχνολογιών πληροφοριών και επικοινωνίας (ITC), ατόμων και ομάδων που βρίσκονται γεωγραφικά απομακρυσμένοι και δεν είναι δυνατή η πρόσωπο με πρόσωπο επικοινωνία και αλληλεπίδραση. Η έμφαση δίνεται στις ιδιαίτερες απαιτούμενες ικανότητες (soft skills) του ηγέτη για αλληλεπίδραση με τους συνεργάτες –υφισταμένους του.

Στη θεωρία ανάκαμψης και διόρθωσης λαθών (του ηγέτη) εξετάζονται θέματα όπως τι προηγείται των λαθών, ποια τα συνήθη λάθη και οι αιτίες τους (π.χ. λάθος ενέργεια, παράλειψη ενεργειών, προσωπικοί παράγοντες), ποιες οι συνέπειές τους σε ατομικό, ομαδικό και οργανωσιακό επίπεδο.

Ο ηγέτης ως επιχειρηματίας και ο επιχειρηματίας στο ρόλο του ηγέτη (ρόλοι, ευθύνες, συμπεριφορές, ικανότητες) είναι το αντικείμενο μελέτης και έρευνας της θεωρίας επιχειρηματικής ηγεσίας.

19) Συνδυαστικές θεωρίες ηγεσίας

- 19.1. Το (τριπλό) υπόδειγμα ηγεσίας – CIP (Charismatic – Ideological - Pragmatic)
- 19.2 Το υπόδειγμα της πλήρους ηγεσίας (Full Range Leadership Theory)



Το πρώτο υπόδειγμα αυτό υποστηρίζει, εννοιολογικά και εμπειρικά, πως η διαδικασία της ηγεσίας και τα αποτελέσματα της επηρεάζονται από τον συνδυασμό τριών ηγετικών στυλ: του χαρισματικού, του οραματιστή και του ορθολογιστή/ ρεαλιστή ηγέτη. Πέρα από το ηγετικό χάρισμα, απαιτείται ηγεσία βασισμένη σε όραμα συμβατό με τις αξίες – «πιστεύω» των ακολούθων – υφισταμένων και κατανοητό ως προς την υλοποίησή του στη βάση της συγκεκριμένης πραγματικότητας (πραγματικές δυνατότητες, δυσκολίες, απαιτούμενα μέρη, προσδοκώμενα οφέλη, συστήματα, περιβάλλον, κ.ά.) (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Lovelace, Brett, Allen & Hunter, 2018; Thoroughgood & Sawyer, 2017).

Το δεύτερο υπόδειγμα συνδυάζει τις προτάσεις της συναλλακτικής και της μετασχηματιστικής ηγεσίας για τους παράγοντες και τα χαρακτηριστικά του ηγέτη και των ακολούθων του, που μετρούν και καθορίζουν την ανάδειξη και την αποτελεσματικότητα της άσκησης ηγεσίας (Antonakis & House, 2002).

ΣΧΟΛΙΑΣΜΟΣ – ΣΥΜΠΕΡΑΣΜΑΤΑ

Από την παραπάνω, συνοπτική, παρουσίαση των θεωριών ηγεσίας προκύπτει ότι τόσο η μελέτη του φαινομένου όσο και η πρακτική της ηγεσίας μπορούν να ομαδοποιηθούν σε πέντε μεγάλες χρονικές κατηγορίες. Οι κατηγορίες αυτές είναι αντιπροσωπευτικές της κάθε φορά θεώρησης και επικρατούσας αντίληψης για το Διοικείν και κατ' επέκταση για την άσκηση επιρροής στους υφισταμένους – εργαζόμενους. Συγκεκριμένα:

- i. Ιεραρχική – εξουσιαστική θεώρηση (μέχρι τις αρχές του 20^{ου} αιώνα). Ο άνθρωπος – εργαζόμενος θεωρείται πρωτίστως ορθολογικό – οικονομικό όν. Επιδιώκει τη μέγιστη ωφέλεια, υπακούοντας στην εξουσία και στη σχέση που του επιβάλλεται. Η έμφαση δίνεται στις ικανότητες και τα χαρακτηριστικά του ηγέτη.
- ii. Ανθρωπιστική θεώρηση (μέχρι τη δεκαετία 1940) (Jakubic & Berazhny, 2017). Η αποτελεσματική διοίκηση – ηγεσία απαιτεί από τον ηγέτη να δώσει έμφαση στις καλές ανθρώπινες σχέσεις, αφού ο άνθρωπος – εργαζόμενος θεωρείται κοινωνικό όν και επιζητεί στο άτυπο κοινωνικό περιβάλλον της επιχείρησης να ικανοποιήσει ανάλογες ανάγκες. Η μελέτη της ηγετικής συμπεριφοράς κερδίζει έδαφος έναντι των χαρακτηριστικών του ηγέτη.
- iii. Ρεαλιστική θεώρηση (δεκαετία 1950 – αρχές δεκαετίας 1980). Η όλη οντότητα και το πολύπλοκο του ανθρώπου – εργαζομένου καθώς και το περιβάλλον της επιχείρησης επιβάλλουν τέτοιο τρόπο άσκησης ηγεσίας ώστε να αντιμετωπίζονται όλοι οι ενδεχόμενοι παράγοντες που επηρεάζουν την αντίδραση του στην εξουσία, στη σχέση ηγεσίας και καθορίζουν τη συμπεριφορά του. Η ενδεχομενική προσέγγιση της ηγεσίας είναι η επικρατούσα αυτή τη περίοδο.

- iv. Σχεσιακή θεώρηση (δεκαετία 1980 – 2000). Ο άνθρωπος – εργαζόμενος ως κοινωνική, γνωσιακή και συναισθηματική οντότητα, διαμορφώνει – αλλάζει αξίες, σκέφτεται κριτικά, εμπνέεται, αντιδρά αισθητικά – λογικά – συναισθηματικά, ηθικά, ατομικά ή ομαδικά, κτλ. Η φύση άρα της ηγεσίας (πρέπει να) είναι ανταλλακτική (σχέση ανταλλαγής), μετασχηματιστική, εμπνευστική, οραματική.
- v. Ολιστική θεώρηση (δεκαετία 2000 – σήμερα). Η οικονομία της γνώσης έχει αλλάξει τα δεδομένα του ενδο (επιχειρησιακού) και του εξωτερικού περιβάλλοντος της επιχείρησης. Η τεχνολογία και ιδιαίτερα οι τεχνολογίες πληροφοριών και επικοινωνίες, οι εικονικές ομάδες εργασίας (virtual teams), η πολυπλοκότητα των (οργανωτικών) συστημάτων και των υποσυστημάτων τους καθώς και οι ψυχο-γνωστικές αντιδράσεις – συμπεριφορές του σύγχρονου ανθρώπου – εργαζομένου, και η κοινωνική του δικτύωση, απαιτούν και καθορίζουν ένα διαφορετικό στυλ ηγεσίας και διαφορετικές ηγετικές ικανότητες.

Από την καταγραφή της συχνότητας των θεμάτων των άρθρων στα εγκυρότερα επιστημονικά περιοδικά, που αφορούν στην ηγεσία, προκύπτει ότι στην πρώτη πεντάδα των θεωρητικών υποδειγμάτων είναι οι θεωρίες: (νέο) χαρισματικής ηγεσίας, ηγεσίας βασισμένης στις νοητικές διεργασίες ηγέτη και ακολούθων, στρατηγικής ηγεσίας, σχεσιακής ηγεσίας (ή κοινωνικής ανταλλαγής) και ηγεσία με βάση τα χαρακτηριστικά – ικανότητες του ηγέτη.

Όλες οι παραπάνω θεωρητικές προσεγγίσεις της ηγεσίας δείχνουν το συνεχώς εξελισσόμενο φαινόμενο της ηγεσίας, το οποίο είναι συνάρτηση της ανθρώπινης φύσης, του κοινωνικού, τεχνικού, πολιτικού, νομικού και οικονομικού περιβάλλοντος. Αυτή ακριβώς η συνάρτηση αιτιολογεί το πλήθος των θεωρήσεων του και των διαφορετικών ερμηνειών – ορισμών του. Η μέχρι σήμερα μελέτη του φαινομένου της ηγεσίας έχει συμβάλει στην κατανόησή του, αλλά δεν έχει καταλήξει σε μία τελική ερμηνεία, η οποία θα έχει καθολικό και διαχρονικό χαρακτήρα, θα ισχύει δηλαδή σε κάθε περιβάλλον – συνθήκη και ανεξαρτήτως χρόνου. Η ηγεσία σε έναν αθλητικό οργανισμό, ή σε μία δημόσια υπηρεσία, σε μία βιομηχανική μονάδα ή σε έναν πολιτικό οργανισμό, κ.ό.κ., ή σε μία αναπτυγμένη ή λιγότερο αναπτυγμένη οικονομικά και τεχνολογικά κοινωνία, εκδηλώνεται διαφορετικά και απαιτεί διαφορετικές ικανότητες από τον ηγέτη (Noble, 2015).

Αν και το ζητούμενο σε θεωρητικό επίπεδο είναι ένας ενιαίος ορισμός ηγεσίας, σε πρακτικό επίπεδο το δεδομένο είναι πως η ηγεσία κάθε οργάνωσης δεν είναι θέμα χαρακτηριστικών προσόντων (του ηγέτη) όσο είναι θέμα οράματος, παρακίνησης διαπροσωπικών – διομαδικών σχέσεων και ενδυνάμωσης των ανθρώπων – ακολούθων, αλλαγής της συνθήκης και κυρίως είναι θέμα συμπεριφοράς. Στον ταχύτατα κινούμενο και μεταβαλλόμενο σημερινό κόσμο η ηγεσία είναι περισσότερο αναγκαία και απαιτείται από περισσότερους, ανεξαρτήτως της

ιεραρχικής θέσης, της οργάνωσης ή του πολιτισμικού περιβάλλοντος στο οποίο βρίσκεται κανείς (Kotter, 2013).

Μία πλήρης θεωρία για το φαινόμενο της ηγεσίας, τι προηγείται αυτού, πώς εκδηλώνεται και κυρίως τι αποτελέσματα παράγει, αποτελεί την πρόκληση και το ζητούμενο για τους ερευνητές στο μέλλον.

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III. SPECIAL ISSUES IN MANAGEMENT



1. REGIONAL CSR POLICIES AND SME's CSR ACTIONS: MIND THE GAP – THE CASE OF THE TOURISM SMEs IN CRETE

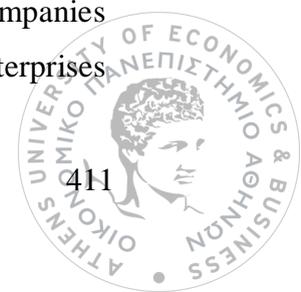
E. Apospori

Abstract: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) actions have the potential to enhance the competitiveness of SMEs. Regional authorities can support the development of SME CSR actions within the framework of their sustainable competitiveness agenda. The alignment between regional CSR policy initiatives and SMEs' CSR needs is crucial for achieving the regional sustainable competitiveness' goals. We introduce a conceptual framework to facilitate the alignment between regional CSR policies and SMEs' needs. We use this conceptual framework and the quantitative technique of survey to empirically investigate the alignment of regional CSR policies with the CSR needs of tourism for SMEs in Crete, Greece. The findings indicate gaps between the perceived level and type of support offered by regional CSR policies and the CSR needs of the SMEs. Based on the findings, we provide recommendations to the regional authorities and tourism SMEs in Crete for implementing CSR policies and actions.

Keywords: SMEs; corporate social responsibility (CSR); sustainable competitiveness; public/regional

1. Introduction

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) extends the responsibility of companies beyond their shareholders to the broader community of internal, e.g., employees, and external stakeholders, e.g., society, environment and consumers. CSR can be defined as “*a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis*” [1] (p. 6). The CSR concept suggests that companies should try to optimize their performance by maximizing synergies and minimizing conflicts among economic, social, and environmental objectives. The nature and orientation of CSR actions has changed significantly over time. Initially CSR was perceived as a philanthropic and good corporate citizenship idea [2], and mainly it was practiced by large corporations. Over time scholars suggested that CSR may become a more integral part of corporate strategy [3] and, thus, may have the potential to produce competitiveness benefits [3,4]. CSR is not applicable only to large Multinational Companies (MNCs) but it is also very relevant for Small and Medium Size Enterprises



(SMEs). Therefore, SMEs' CSR actions may potentially contribute to the enhancement of SMEs' competitiveness [5–9].

Based on its voluntary nature and business orientation it is recognized that CSR is a business led activity and that business should be the driving force behind the adoption, design and implementation of CSR actions [1,10]. However, it is also recognized that “*public authorities should play a supporting role through a smart mix of voluntary policy measures*” [11]. Significant research attention has been focused on investigating the role of governments in promoting CSR and the policy themes and policy instruments that governments may use in order to promote CSR [10,12,13]. A study on the role of governments in corporate social responsibility [12] has led to the development of a two dimensional matrix of four policy themes, and five policy instruments that can be used to systematically describe CSR policy. It has been also recognized by the literature that the type of policy themes and instruments used by governments may vary between countries [10,12] and within countries [10].

Due to the proximity of SMEs to local and regional communities, regional and local economic development strategies and development levels, CSR policies of Local and Regional Authorities (LRAs) are of particular importance for the adoption and implementation of CSR actions by the relevant SMEs [14–16]. An interesting research question that arises in regional public SME CSR policy formulation and implementation-and will be further elaborated in this paper-is “how well are regional CSR policies and policy instruments aligned with the CSR actions of the SMEs for which these policies are intended?”

The objective of this paper is twofold: First, to present a conceptual framework for investigating the alignment of regional CSR public policies and instruments and SME CSR actions, and second to use the proposed framework to investigate empirically the alignment of public CSR policies and instruments, with CSR actions of SMEs in the tourism sector in Crete Region in Greece.

The value of this research is that it can assist public authorities to develop integrated CSR strategies that will provide to SMEs the required support to develop and implement CSR actions that will enhance their competitiveness and support the sustainable development of their region. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: The literature review Section 2 discusses the relationship between SME CSR actions and regional SME CSR policies on SMEs' competitiveness and introduces the proposed conceptual framework and the research questions. The empirical research Section 3 presents the context of the research, the research methodology and the findings, while the final Section 4 summarizes the research conclusions.

2. Literature Review and Research Questions

The objective of this section is to establish the conceptual relationships between: (i) SMEs CSR actions and Competitiveness, and (ii) regional SME CSR policies and competitiveness. The discussion of these relationships is followed by the development of a conceptual framework that will be used to align regional CSR policies with SME CSR actions, and the establishment of the research questions.

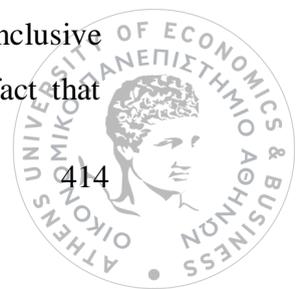
2.1. SME CSR Actions and Competitiveness

The relationship between SME CSR actions and competitiveness has been studied in the literature [5–9,13]. Apospori et al. [13] presents a literature review regarding the investigation of the relationship between SME CSR and competitiveness. This review covers the literature up to 2012 and suggests that there is a rather positive relationship between SME CSR actions and competitiveness which is context specific; however, there is “*no conclusive evidence regarding the nature, the intensity and the factors affecting this relationship*” [13] (p. 26). This review does not address issues related to the tourism industry. In this section, we are reviewing additional recent research work discussing: (i) the relationship between CSR actions and competitiveness, and financial performance, and (ii) the relationship between CSR actions and enterprise performance in the tourism sector. In what follows, we are reviewing, first, research work regarding the relationship between SME CSR actions and competitiveness; then, we discuss the relationship between CSR actions and firm performance, and we conclude with discussion regarding the relationship between CSR actions and firm performance in the tourism sector.

Competitiveness is a multidimensional concept including both tangible and intangible factors. Research efforts focused on the investigation of the relationship between SME CSR actions and SME competitiveness have used a variety of variables to measure (express) competitiveness as well as different research methods [13]. Tantalò et al. [7] studied service industry, hard goods, soft goods, and large-scale retail Italian SMEs that had successfully practiced CSR. Fifty SMEs participated in this survey. In this study, the respondents were asked to rate on a 4 point Likert scale their perception regarding the effort devoted to different types of CSR actions they had implemented, and their perception regarding the impact of the different CSR actions on their competitiveness. This study found a positive relationship between CSR effort and competitiveness. However, the R^2 of the resulted model was low. Battaglia et al. [6] investigated the relationship between CSR actions implemented by French and Italian Fashion Industry SMEs on their competitiveness performance. Correlation analysis was performed using data collected from 213 SMEs. The results of

this study revealed that there was significant correlation between CSR actions and certain competitiveness variables such as innovation, and intangible performance (mainly expressed through the relationship with stakeholders, and the relationship with credit organizations). Turyakira et al. [8] studied the impact of corporate social responsibility factors on the competitiveness of SMEs in Uganda. They used data from 383 SMEs to develop a Structural Equation Model. The results of this study suggest that CSR actions such as workforce, society, market-oriented, and regulated CSR activities have a significant positive impact on SMEs competitiveness. Madueno et al. [5] studied the relationship between corporate social responsibility and competitive performance of Spanish SME's using a multi stakeholder perspective. The study was based on data collected from 481 Spanish SMEs and used Partial Least Squares (PLS) to investigate the direct and mediated effect of CSR actions on competitive performance. The competitive performance was expressed by the following seven indicators: Sales, market share, customer satisfaction, benefits/utility, profitability, quality of products, technological superiority. The results of this study confirm that the development of CSR activities affects positively the competitive performance of SMEs. It is worth noting the mediating effect that the stakeholder linkages have on competitive performance. This study also identified that CSR actions related to priority management of employees and customer issues, have a stronger influence on SME performance than CSR actions related to environmental management and societal issues. Choongo [9] studied the impact of CSR on the performance of Zambian SMEs. The study involved 153 SMEs in two waves spanning a twelve-month period. The findings of this study indicate that there is significant relationship between CSR and financial performance. It was also found that corporate reputation and employee commitment was partially significant over time.

Significant research effort has been devoted in studying the relationship between CSR actions and the financial performance of firms. Margolis and Walsh (2003) [17] analyzed 127 empirical studies (performed between 1972 and 2002) examining the relationship between Corporate Social Performance (CSP) and Corporate Financial Performance (CFP). They found that there is a positive relationship between CSP and CFP, and that there is little evidence of the existence of a negative relationship. Another meta-analysis study conducted by Orlitzky et al. (2003) [18] also found that there is a positive relationship between CSP and CFP. However, it should be recognized that besides the studies that have provided empirical evidence for establishing a positive relationship between CSR and financial performance, there have been studies (Roman et al., 1999) [19] which suggest that there is no conclusive evidence regarding the relationship between CSP and CFP. This is due to the fact that



different empirical studies have indicated that there is positive, negative, or no relationship between CSP and CFP. Carroll and Shabana (2010) [20], suggest that the business case for CSR can be investigated by looking through a narrow or a broad lens in identifying potential benefits. The narrow view justifies CSR actions ‘*when they produce direct and clear links to firm financial performance*’ [20] (p. 101). The broad view enables companies to enhance their competitive advantage in addition to the benefits accrued by the narrow view. The broad view recognizes the complexities and the mediating variables involved in the explanation of the relationship between CSP and CFP. Therefore, inconsistencies of CFP may be explained depending on the view taken to analyze this relationship.

The relationship between CSR and firm performance in the tourism sector has been investigated indifferent geographical settings and different market segments [1–5]. Rodriguez et al. (2007) [21] explored the relationship between social-environmental responsibility and performance among 912 hotel firms in Spain, and found that hotel firm performance is strongly positively correlated with social-environmental responsibility. Kang et al. (2010) [22] investigated the effect of positive and negative CSR actions on the financial performance of tourism industries in the airline, hotel, restaurant and casino sectors and found mixed results across the different sectors and different types of CSR actions. Inoue and Lee (2011) [23], studied the effect of different dimensions of CSR (employee relations, product quality, community relations, environmental issues, and diversity issues) on the short and long term financial performance in different sectors of the tourism industry (hotel, casinos, restaurants, airlines) found that all studied CSR dimensions affect the financial performance of tourism firms. However, the resulting effects differed among the various CSR actions, and among the various segments of the tourism industry. Font et al. (2014) [24], investigated the sustainability motivations and practices of 900 small tourism enterprises in 57 European Protected areas. They found that: (i) there is a positive correlation between the number of sustainability actions undertaken by enterprises and the perception of their financial performance, and (ii) many types of sustainability actions are positively correlated with their perceived financial performance. This study identified three different profiles of enterprises that undertake sustainability actions, namely: lifestyle, business, and legitimization. None of the three profiles had a superior financial performance than the average. However, enterprises belonging to the ‘lifestyle’ cluster reported higher satisfaction regarding their economic performance. Brătucu et al. (2017) [25] studied the sustainable development practices among 34 managers of accommodations in the Carpathian Mountains in Romania and found that there is a negative correlation between low sustainability interest and competitiveness.

The results of the literature review indicate that the relationship between SME CSR actions and competitiveness is context specific, and that the one-size fits all approach is not advisable when designing programmes aiming to support SME CSR actions. An important take-away provided by the literature review regarding the relationship between SME CSR actions and competitiveness is that contextual factors related both to the external (e.g., industrial sector, broader economic environment, geographical location etc.) and internal environment (e.g., SME culture, values of the SME owner/manager, etc.) should be thoroughly analysed before embarking to the development and implementation of CSR programmes aiming to support SME CSR. With regard to the tourism sector specifically, it should be noted that the literature suggests that there is a relationship between CSR actions and competitiveness which depends on the context, segments of the tourism industry and the types of CSR actions taken.

2.2. Regional SME CSR Policies and Macro Level Competitiveness

The relationship between CSR and National and Regional competitiveness has been also established. The European Commission suggests that “*CSR can play a key role in contributing to sustainable development while enhancing Europe’s innovative potential and competitiveness*” [26] (p. 26). Zadek [27] studied the relationship between Corporate Responsibility at macro level and “concluded that responsible business practices can contribute to national and regional competitiveness, and that without such links corporate responsibility impacts are likely to remain limited” [27] (p. 334). MacGillivray et al. [28] found a very strong correlation between the National Corporate Responsibility Index and the World Economic Forum’s Growth Competitiveness index [29].

Although the initial focus of competitiveness was at national level, a case of looking at competitiveness at sub-national regional level also has been made [30]. This is due to the fact that many competitiveness determinants may vary among the regions of the same country.

The economic importance of SMEs is widely accepted worldwide. In 2016, 99.8% of enterprises operated in the European Union (EU28) non-financial business sector were SMEs. These SMEs accounted for 66.6% of the employment and contributed 56.8% of the value added generated by the non-financial sector [31]. The economic and social importance of SMEs has led governments at supranational, national, regional, and local level to develop and implement CSR policies to support the adoption and implementation of CSR among SMEs.

The crucial role of SMEs to economic development and the creation of added value suggest that regional public policies that foster the adoption of CSR practices by SMEs have the potential to produce beneficial competitiveness outcomes for the entire region.

Regional authorities are seeking to promote and support the competitiveness of their region. One way of promoting regional competitiveness is to introduce regional CSR policies that will help SMEs to design and implement CSR actions that will increase their competitiveness which in turn will contribute to the competitiveness of the region as a whole. The introduction of regional CSR policies may influence the environment within which SMEs operate and the inter-firm relationships, which in turn influence the SMEs internal environment and the associated CSR actions that will be introduced by the SMEs. Furthermore, the suitability and effectiveness of the various CSR policies undertaken by public agencies vary according to the regional context. The regional context is defined in terms, of the administrative structure of a given country, i.e., centralized vs. decentralized [10], the political culture and the development of welfare institutions of a given country, and the state of the competitiveness determinants of a given region, including the economic sectors that determine the economic strength of a region, e.g., agro-food industries, tourism, etc. The objective of the regional authorities in formulating and implementing CSR policies is to assist SMEs to increase their responsible competitiveness which eventually may have the potential to lead to the promotion of the competitiveness of the entire region. Figure 1 illustrates the association of CSR policies implemented by regional public agencies with SME CSR actions, and SME and regional competitiveness. It is worth noting that there is a feedback between the performance of the SME CSR actions in terms of their contribution to the competitiveness of SMEs, the regional CSR policies, the CSR actions implemented by the SMEs, and the inter-firm relationships. The feedback is indicated with a dotted lines in Figure 1.

Given the fact that regional authorities may use different CSR policy themes and a variety of policy implementation instruments, it is important to select this combination of policy themes and instruments that will provide the support needed by the SMEs to implement the CSR actions that will have the highest contribution to the enhancement of their competitiveness. In other words, the regional authorities should align their SME CSR policies and policy implementation instruments with the SME CSR actions in order to achieve their competitiveness goals.

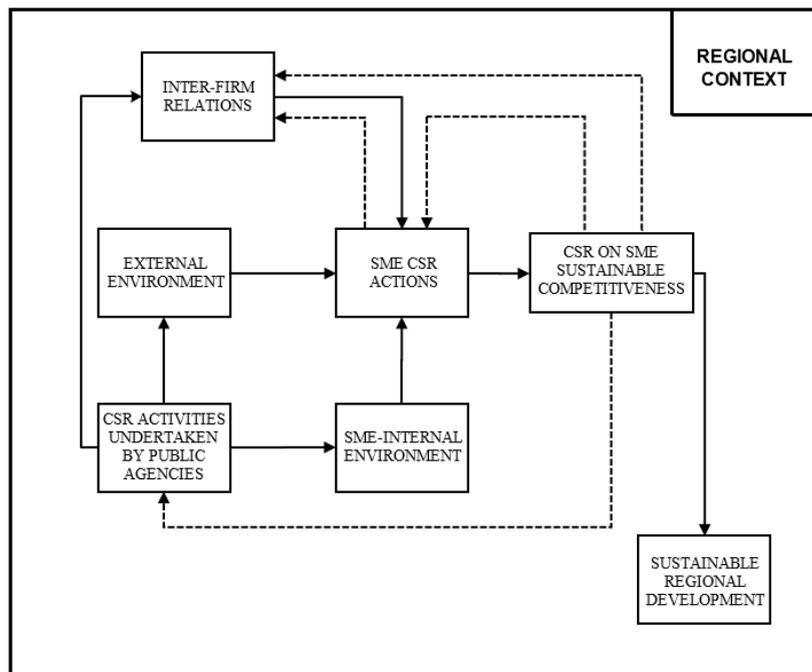
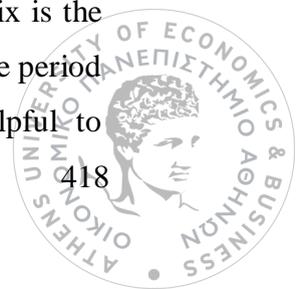


Figure 1. The Role of Regional Public Authorities in Promoting SME CSR (adapted from Apospori et al. [13]).

2.3. The Conceptual Framework

The proposed conceptual framework capitalizes on the two-dimensional matrix of CSR policy themes and CSR policy implementation instruments -proposed by Steurer et al. [12]- by (i) properly modifying the policy themes and policy instruments to reflect the policy environment of regional and local agencies, and the CSR needs of SMEs, and (ii) introducing a third dimension that represents the types of CSR actions that SMEs want to implement [14]. The two-dimensional matrix of public policy CSR themes and instruments [12] includes four policy themes and five policy instruments. The identified policy themes include: (i) awareness raising and capacity building, (ii) disclosure and transparency improvement, (iii) facilitation of socially responsible investments, and (iv) leading by example. The policy instruments used to implement the identified policy themes involve: (i) legal, (ii) economic, (iii) informational, (iv) partnering and (v) hybrid instruments [12].

The proposed classification scheme was established on the basis of the following criteria: (i) the number of themes should be small and should allow for clear differentiation among themes, (ii) the themes should be disentangled from policy implementation instruments, and (iii) the characterization of the policies should not be associated to a particular concept/theory regarding the role of government in CSR [32]. The resulted two-dimensional matrix is the outcome of a survey of existing public CSR policies in EU Member States, during the period 2006–2008 [12]. The concept of the two-dimensional matrix is extremely helpful to



systematically present and analyze public sector CSR policy initiatives. For the purpose of the present study the following policy themes: (i) awareness raising, (ii) capacity building, and (iii) fostering disclosure and transparency have been selected as the most applicable, for reasons that will be explained in the following section. It is worth noting that the awareness raising and capacity building policy theme proposed by Steurer et al. [12] as a single policy theme has been split into two separate policy themes to serve the needs of SMEs. The rationale behind this modification is that awareness is a process that precedes CSR capacity building, and a process that may require lower levels of resources (human, financial, time), as compared to capacity building, that have to be committed, by both the regional authorities and the SMEs, in order to be implemented. This is a necessary distinction given the fact that studies related to the identification of SMEs' barriers towards CSR implementation have identified limited availability of financial resources and time as major barriers inhibiting the adoption and implementation of CSR activities [13]. Furthermore, the nascent state of CSR policy development and implementation in many regions and SMEs, suggests that CSR awareness-raising is a necessary prerequisite for developing at a later stage CSR capacity building programmes. Fostering disclosure and transparency is also very important policy theme for regional SMEs' CSR programmes [14] that regional authorities have been active in promoting disclosure and transparency through labelling and certification.

The policy instruments that should be considered by regional authorities to implement SME CSR policies should alleviate the barriers faced by SMEs in implementing their CSR actions, and should act as enablers of SME CSR actions. Barriers inhibiting the implementation of SME CSR actions include: limited technical know-how to design and implement CSR actions, limited financial resources to support CSR actions, limited managerial resources, high perceived cost and resources needed to implement CSR actions, low levels of CSR awareness, fear of bureaucracy, and difficulty to associate informal CSR actions with formal CSR efforts [13].

The following policy instruments can be used by regional public authorities to help enterprises to materialize their CSR actions [13]:

- Economic and financial instruments; e.g., taxes, tax credits, subsidies, awards.
- Informational instruments; e.g., campaigns, branding, training, conferences.
- Partnering instruments; e.g., networks, stakeholder dialogues, PPPs.
- Legal instruments; e.g., regulations, directives, public procurement etc.
- Hybrid instruments; e.g., combinations of the above e.g., subsidized training.

The third dimension of the proposed model refers to the types of CSR actions that can be implemented by SMEs. In general, CSR actions can be classified into four broad categories addressing issues related to:

- The workforce; e.g., employee development and training, diversity and equal opportunities, employee health and safety, compensation and working hours.
- The marketplace; e.g., business relations, value chains, innovation of product and services.
- The environment; e.g., energy and resource efficiency, conservation and protection of the environment
- The society; e.g., human rights, cultural traditions, cultural and social diversity.

The proposed three-dimensional model aligns/integrates public policy themes and instruments with CSR actions. The target of integration and alignment is to identify combinations of policy themes and instruments that have the greatest potential to increase the introduction of SME CSR actions. The identification of policy themes and instruments should consider the expressed needs and priorities of the SMEs, and the regional context (see Figure 1). The underlying idea is that this alignment/integration could help enterprises to implement CSR actions they need most, i.e., to the extent that the policy themes and instruments consider the needs of SMEs in terms of CSR, the SMEs will be able to meet these needs.

The regional context analysis provides the basis for identifying the most applicable combinations of CSR policy themes and instruments in order to lower the barriers and accelerate SME CSR enablers.

Figure 2 presents, in the form of a three-dimensional model, the relationship between CSR public policy themes, CSR public policy instruments, and SME CSR actions.

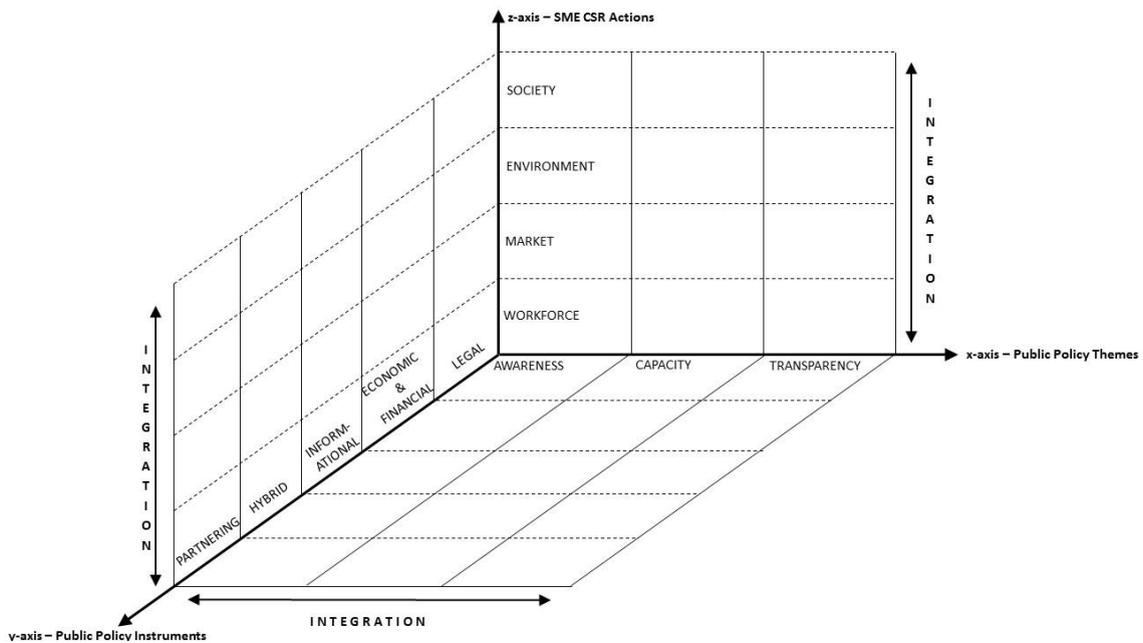


Figure 2. A three dimensional model for aligning CSR policies & instruments with SME CSR actions (Adapted from Mayer et al. [14]).

The X-axis of the three dimensional model represents CSR public policy themes, the Y-axis reflects the CSR public policy instruments that can be used to address the policy themes and the Z-axis identifies CSR actions undertaken by enterprises. The proposed model can be used to develop holistic and integrated regional public CSR support systems for SMEs.

2.4. The Research Questions

Based on the literature regarding the role of public authorities in promoting SME CSR and the above described conceptual framework, we elaborate on the research question “how well regional CSR policy themes and policy instruments are aligned with the CSR actions of the SMEs for which these policies are intended” and formulate the following more specific questions:

- (a) What is the perception of SMEs regarding CSR public policies in their region?
- (b) What CSR actions do SMEs need support for, in order to implement them? To what extent they get the support they need for these actions?
- (c) What CSR public policies are needed most by SMS in order to implement their actions and to what extent are these policies offered by the regional agencies and
- (d) What instruments -potentially used by public authorities to implement their CSR policies-do SMEs need and are these instruments effective?

3. Empirical Research

3.1. Regional Context

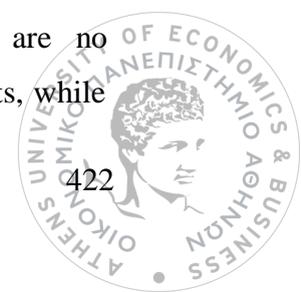
As mentioned above, the present study uses the above-described conceptual framework in order to investigate empirically the alignment of regional public CSR policies and instruments, with CSR actions of SMEs in the tourism sector in Crete Region in Greece. Therefore, it seems appropriate to describe the context within the empirical study takes place.

The island/region of Crete, according to 2014 census, comprises 756,392 inhabitants and is divided into four sub-regions, Chania, Heraklion, Lasithi and Rethymno. Tourism contributes 47.3% to the island's GDP, thus being of utmost importance in its development [33]. Crete is a traditional and very popular tourist destination, which combines sun, sea, history and cultural traditions and monuments. Its year-around temperate climate, its geography, which offers both mountainous and coastal recreational opportunities, along with its history and culture add to the strength of the tourist product that Crete offers to its visitors [34]. Despite these strengths, the focus of the Region of Crete on mass sea-sun-sand tourism [35] has put under strain the physical, economic, societal and human infrastructure of the island. Mass tourism in Crete as in other places [36] has resulted in overuse of natural resources and abuse of the environment, diminishing of the agricultural sector, low quality services, commercialization of the traditions and culture of the local society, and low paid and unskilled seasonal jobs [34]. Therefore, the rapidly developing mass tourism in Crete has attacked the natural, cultural and human resources that was based on and sustainability has emerged as a main issue [37]. An alternative model for tourism development is the sustainable/responsible tourism. This concept implies:

- Regional public strategic planning for balancing development with local economy, environment and society.
- Respective regional public policies and instruments and,
- Entrepreneurs' respective actions, in the region, that are guided and facilitated by these policies and measures and in this way they reinforce them.

Thus, the above factors create the virtuous loop of sustainability [38]; that said we call attention to the role of CSR public policies in promoting sustainable competitiveness as described in Figure 1 of this paper.

However, qualitative research has reported [37,39] that in Crete there are no strategically planned and implemented regional CSR public policies and instruments, while



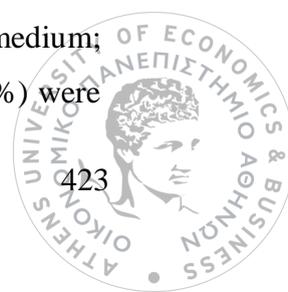
CSR actions from the entrepreneurs are not based on public policies and instruments; on the contrary, both regional public authorities and entrepreneurs showed mutual lack of trust. Entrepreneurs reported that tourism SMEs in Crete perform CSR actions in all categories, workforce (e.g., benefits such as extra health-care programmes, work-life programmes, etc.), environment (e.g., energy conservation, use of clean energy) market (e.g., use organic local products) and society (e.g., hire employees from the local community, offers and donations to the “social” groceries which supply food to the disadvantaged members of the local community) but without support from the regional authorities; they also claimed that “there is no information at all, entrepreneurs are being left alone and helpless” [37] (p. 168); information is what they need most while financial incentives (such as tax exemptions and subsidization) and partnering could prove helpful in order to be able to implement CSR activities in an integrated way rather than sporadically as they mostly do. On the other hand regional authorities reported that subsidized employee training and seminars on transparency and business ethics take place; however due to the financial crisis they are limited. The regional authorities considered as very important the “DO LOCAL” certificate/label that connects the local market with the tourism SMEs in Crete and informs the latter about the benefits for choosing local suppliers and local employees. For regional authorities, information as a public policy and partnering as an instrument are more than enough as “*it is important for the public authorities not to intervene in business activities with economic/financial and legal instrument*” [37] (p. 172).

Given the above context, the present study uses quantitative techniques to investigate empirically the alignment of public CSR policies and instruments, with CSR actions of SMEs in the tourism sector in Crete Region in Greece.

3.2. Research Methodology

3.2.1. Sample

The sample for the present study consisted of 104 enterprises with accommodation units located in the sub-regions of Heraklion and Lasithi, in Crete, Greece. It has to be noted that the region of Crete has in total about 1390 SMEs with accommodation units while the two sub-regions of Lasithi and Heraklion have in total about 540 of them; their size ranges from micro (about 51%) to small (about 23%) to medium (about 26%) (Source: Hotel Chamber of Greece, 2016). The sample for the present study was a convenience sample; 200 SMEs were contacted and 104 responded; the size of the enterprises ranged from micro to medium; in particular 46 (43.8%) were micro enterprises with 9 employees or less, 34 (32.4%) were



small enterprises with 10–49 employees, while 25 (23.8%) were medium enterprises with 50–250 employees. The majority of the participating enterprises, that is 93 out of 104, performed CSR actions.

3.2.2. Research Instrument

Participants were asked to complete closed-end questions encompassing the four research questions described above; all questions used a Likert-type scale, where the value 1 indicates the lowest value of the scale, and 6 the highest value [14].

(A) Research question: What is the overall perception of SMEs regarding CSR public policies? To explore the first research question, participants were asked general questions regarding CSR in their region; in particular they were asked about the level of awareness, the available information and the support needed in the region regarding CSR (Table 1).

(B) Research question: What CSR actions do SMEs need support for, in order to implement them? To what extent do they get the support they need for these actions? To explore this research question participants were asked the questions described in Table 2.

(C) Research question: How much support do SMEs need regarding CSR public policies and to what extent do they get this support from regional authorities? To answer this research question, participants were asked the questions described in Table 3.

(D) Research question: How necessary are the public policy instruments for the SMEs order to implement their CSR actions and how effective these instruments are? This research question was addressed by the questions described in Table 4.

Table 1. The overall perception of SMEs regarding CSR public policies.

What is the awareness level regarding CSR in the region?	1 = none	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
What is the level of available information regarding CSR in the region?	1 = none	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
What is the overall support level from regional public authorities regarding CSR?	1 = none	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
What should be the level of support to them from regional public authorities regarding CSR?	1 = none	2	3	4	5	6 = very high

Table 2. Support needed and support offered for CSR actions.

How Much Support Do You Need from Regional Public Authorities in Order to Implement the Following CSR Actions?						
Actions for the Workforce	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Actions for the Market	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Actions for the Environment	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Actions for the Society	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
How Much Support Is Offered by Regional Public Authorities in Order to Implement These Actions?						
Actions for the Workforce	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Actions for the Market	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Actions for the Environment	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Actions for the Society	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high

Table 3. Support needed and support offered for CSR public policies.

How Much Support Do You Need Regarding the Following Public CSR Policies?						
Awareness raising	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Capacity building	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Fostering transparency	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
How Much Support Is Offered by Regional Public Authorities Regarding These Policies?						
Awareness raising	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Capacity building	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high
Fostering transparency	1 = not at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very high

Table 4. Necessity and Effectiveness of Policy Instruments.

How Necessary Are the Following Public Policy Instruments for Your Company in order to Implement Your CSR Actions?						
Informational instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Economic/financial instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Partnering instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Legal instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Hybrid instruments/combination of instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
How Effective Are These Instruments?						
Economic/financial instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Partnering instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Legal instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary
Hybrid instruments/combination of instruments	1 = not necessary at all	2	3	4	5	6 = very necessary

3.3. Analysis and Findings

The data were analyzed using SPSS 24.0 [40] descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA to different groups of observations on same attributes and paired samples tests to compare the same group of observations on different attributes.

A. Regarding the first research question, the findings show that tourism SMEs in Crete think that the CSR awareness level is low and so is the information and support level available in their region; consequently they think that the regional public authorities should support SMEs regarding CSR issues at a moderate level (mean = 3.86) (Table 5).

Table 5. SMEs perceptions on CSR issues: Descriptive statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Awareness level, available	96	2.97	1.041
Information level, available	96	2.86	1.148
Support level, available	96	2.47	1.085
Support level-should be	105	3.86	1.023

These findings underline the nascent state of CSR activities in this region. Furthermore, it is observed that the existing awareness and information levels are both relatively low and at about the same level. This indicates consistency among the answers concerning these two questions as naturally low information levels imply low awareness level as well.

We have also compared the three size-groups of our sample; there was no significant difference regarding the level of the perceived level of support they received and the level of public authorities' support they would like to have. Nonetheless, micro-companies think that there is significantly less awareness as compared to medium-size companies and significantly less information as compared to small and medium size companies (Table 6).

B. Regarding the second research question, the findings show that tourism SMEs in Crete need support at a rather high level to implement CSR actions (Table 7); paired comparisons of means showed that there is no significant difference in the level of needed support among the four categories of actions, i.e., workforce, market, environment and society; SMEs need high level of support for all relevant CSR actions they implement.

Table 6. SMEs perceptions on CSR issues: Multiple comparisons (ANOVA).

Dependent Variable	(I) Size	(J) Size	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Awareness level available	<10	10–49	–0.489	0.236	0.122
		50–250	–0.784 *	0.264	0.011
	10–49	50–250	–0.295	0.284	0.906
Information level available	<10	10–49	–0.733 *	0.258	0.017
		50–250	–0.771 *	0.290	0.027
	10–49	50–250	–0.038	0.312	1.000

Note. * The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 7. CSR actions, support needed: Descriptive statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Workforce-Support needed	105	4.79	1.207
Market-Support needed	104	4.66	1.377
Environment-Support needed	104	4.94	1.197
Society-Support needed	105	4.80	1.390

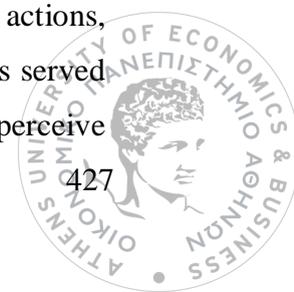
The findings of this question suggest that the surveyed SMEs may have not identified, as part of their involvement in CSR activities, categories of CSR actions that may be more effective in relation to their context and needs. This finding suggests that the low CSR awareness and information levels (see question A) imply limited know-how, and lack of the necessary skills to identify CSR areas that may be integrated into their broader strategy to increase their competitiveness.

Regarding the level of support offered by the regional agencies, it was found that the perception of the SMEs is that the regional authorities offer low levels of support for all four categories (Table 8).

Table 8. CSR actions, support offered: Descriptive statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Workforce-Support offered	105	2.50	1.401
Market-Support offered	105	2.80	1.528
Environment-Support offered	104	2.53	1.343
Society-Support offered	105	2.68	1.464

Comparing the perceived support offered by regional public authorities (Table 8), among the various categories of actions, we notice that (albeit low) it is significantly higher for CSR actions related to market as compared to workforce and environment related actions (Table 9). The higher perceived level of support offered in relation to market oriented CSR actions, such as using local certified high quality/organic agricultural products for the meals served in their enterprises (DO LOCAL certificate), suggest that the regional authorities perceive



their CSR role as one that is to help SMEs to develop their market potential and hence to contribute to the improvement of their competitiveness. The DO LOCAL certificate besides enforcing the local economy and the economic performance of the SMEs can result in additional environmental benefits, since the use of local products reduces the need for long distance transportation and consequently reduces the carbon footprint associated with the transportation of the required products.

Table 9. CSR actions, support offered: Paired samples test.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	SE Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Workforce-Support offered vs. Market-Support offered	-0.330	1.124	0.111	-2.982	102	0.004
Pair 2	Workforce-Support offered vs. Environment-Support offered	-0.058	1.065	0.105	-0.555	102	0.580
Pair 3	Workforce-Support offered vs. Society-Support offered	-0.175	1.061	0.105	-1.671	102	0.098
Pair 4	Market-Support offered vs. Environment-Support offered	0.272	1.190	0.117	2.319	102	0.022
Pair 5	Market-Support offered vs. Society-Support offered	0.155	1.144	0.113	1.378	102	0.171
Pair 6	Environment-Support offered vs. Society-Support offered	-0.117	1.069	0.105	-1.106	102	0.271

The lower perceived support for work-force related actions as compared to market may be due to the perception that work-force related CSR actions are mostly related to internal SME decisions; therefore, regional authorities may have a greater role to initiate policies related to market.

Comparing the support offered for all four categories with the support needed (Table 10) we notice that in all cases there is a gap between them and that for all categories of CSR actions the support offered is significantly lower than the support needed. The finding indicating that the SMEs indiscriminately perceive a gap between support needed to implement CSR actions and support offered for all CSR actions can be attributed to (i) the lack of knowledge regarding the development of an integrated CSR strategy, and/or (ii) the lack of resources needed to implement CSR actions. The lack of knowledge (already manifested in their low awareness and information levels about CSR-see Table 5) does not allow SMEs to prioritize the implementation of CSR actions that fit to their context and strategy, hence the expression of the same level of expected support. On the other hand the lack of resources for implementing CSR actions, (a major barrier for SMEs for implementing CSR actions) may force them to express the same level of expected support in order to ensure any type of external financial support that can be made available to them. The later argument

is also supported by the high ranking of economic instruments, when SMEs are asked to rate the perceived necessity of different types of policy instrumentation instruments (see Table 17). However, it should be noted that the largest gap between the mean values of support needed vs. support offered was found for the environment related CSR actions (see Table 10). This result suggests that public authorities in prioritizing their support to SME CSR should place more emphasis in closing this gap by offering support to SMEs for environment related CSR actions.

Table 10. CSR actions, support needed vs. support offered: Paired samples test.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	SE Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Workforce-Support offered vs. Workforce-Support needed	-2.333	1.748	0.173	-13.480	101	0.000
Pair 2	Market-Support offered vs. Market-Support needed	-1.882	1.889	0.187	-10.061	101	0.000
Pair 3	Environment-Support offered vs. Environment-Support needed	-2.441	1.789	0.177	-13.784	101	0.000
Pair 4	Society-Support offered vs. Society-Support needed	-2.176	2.041	0.202	-10.769	101	0.000

C. Regarding our third research question “How much support do SMEs need from regional CSR public policies and to what extent they get this support from regional authorities?” The findings suggest the SMEs in tourism sector in Crete need rather high level of support from regional public authorities across all three public policies, (Table 11) that is, to raise awareness for CSR among SMEs and stakeholders, which perceive it as low anyway, especially the micro-companies (Tables 5 and 6) build relevant capacities and foster disclosure and transparency of economic, social and environmental issues of their business activities.

Table 11. Regional public policies, support needed: Descriptive statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Awareness raising-Support needed	102	4.68	1.321
Capacity building-Support needed	103	4.72	1.175
Fostering Transparency-Support needed	104	4.77	1.151

Further analysis using paired samples tests showed that Tourism SMEs in Crete need all three public policies at the same-high-level, that is, none of these was needed at significantly higher level than the other two.

Regarding the support offered by the regional public authorities to SMEs for these three policies, we notice that the level of support is rather low (Table 12).

Table 12. Regional public policies, support offered: Descriptive Statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Awareness-Support offered	102	2.43	1.425
Capacity-Support offered	103	2.49	1.468
Transparency-Support offered	103	2.64	1.558

The support offered to SMEs in order to foster disclosure and transparency to their business activities is significantly higher as compared to raising awareness and building capacities regarding CSR (Table 13). This finding suggests that it may be a gap between the current state of CSR maturity in the region (nascent/low) and the emphasis of regional public CSR policies. Given the fact that the involvement of SMEs in disclosure and transparency activities may require more resources and know how, and naturally in need to increase their awareness and capacity levels, (learn to “crawl before run”), it looks like the regional authority (based on their perceived role) place a higher level of emphasis related to policies related to fostering transparency.

Table 13. Regional public policies, support offered: Paired samples test.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Awareness-Support offered vs. Capacity-Support offered	-0.041	0.691	0.070	-0.588	96	0.558
Pair 2 Awareness-Support offered vs. Transparency-Support offered	-0.268	0.995	0.101	-2.653	96	0.009
Pair 3 Capacity-Support offered vs. Transparency-Support offered	-0.227	0.930	0.094	-2.402	96	0.018

In any case though, the support offered by regional authorities is significantly lower than the support needed by tourism SMEs in Crete across all three public policies (Table 14).

Table 14. Regional public policies, support needed vs. support offered: Paired samples test.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	SE Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Awareness-Support offered vs. Awareness-Support needed	-2.361	1.659	0.168	-14.011	96	0.000
Pair 2	Capacity-Support offered vs. Capacity-Support needed	-2.392	1.637	0.166	-14.394	96	0.000
Pair 3	Transparency-Support offered vs. Transparency-Support needed	-2.268	1.771	0.180	-12.614	96	0.000

D. The final research question has to do with the necessity and the effectiveness of instruments that regional public authorities use in order to implement their public policies that eventually will help SMEs to implement their own CSR actions. Tables 15 and 16 show that the instruments that regional public authorities use to implement their public policies are perceived as highly necessary (Table 15) and highly effective (Table 16) by tourism SMEs in Crete.

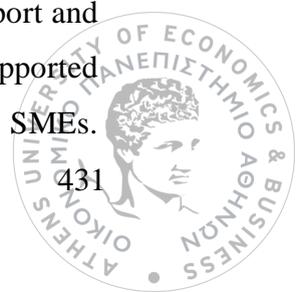
Table 15. Instruments, Necessity: Descriptive statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Informational Necessity	103	4.99	1.089
Economic Necessity	103	5.33	1.106
Partnering Necessity	103	5.00	1.268
Hybrid Necessity	100	4.95	1.132
Legal Necessity	101	4.69	1.294

Table 16. Instruments, effectiveness: Descriptive statistics.

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Informational Effectiveness	102	4.79	1.229
Economic Effectiveness	103	4.98	1.343
Partnering Effectiveness	102	4.66	1.346
Hybrid Effectiveness	99	4.71	1.288
Legal Effectiveness	98	4.36	1.423

Comparing the necessity SMEs assign to each of the public policy instruments, we found that Economic instruments were significantly more necessary than all other instruments in order regional public authorities to implement their CSR policies (Table 17). This finding is in complete agreement with previous studies related to SME CSR adoption (discussed in [13]) which have identified the lack of financial resources as a major barrier for the adoption and implementation of CSR actions by SMEs and the recognition that financial support and incentives is perceived by SMEs as a major enabler of CSR actions; this widely supported result is of paramount importance for the case of the economic crises struck Greek SMEs.



However, as previous research has reported [37] regional authorities in Crete do not consider economic instruments as necessary for SMEs to implement CSR actions.

Comparing the effectiveness SMEs assign to each of the public policy instruments, we found that economic instruments are perceived as significantly more effective than partnering, hybrid and legal instruments, while legal instruments are perceived as significantly less effective than all other instruments (Table 18).

Table 17. Instruments, Necessity: Paired samples Test.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	SE Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Informational Necessity vs. Economic Necessity	-0.323	1.041	0.106	-3.039	95	0.003
Pair 2	Informational Necessity vs. Partnering Necessity	-0.010	1.061	0.108	-0.096	95	0.924
Pair 3	Informational Necessity vs. Hybrid Necessity	0.052	0.977	0.100	0.522	95	0.603
Pair 4	Informational Necessity vs. Legal Necessity	0.104	1.593	0.163	0.641	95	0.523
Pair 5	Economic Necessity vs. Partnering Necessity	0.313	1.292	0.132	2.370	95	0.020
Pair 6	Economic Necessity vs. Hybrid Necessity	0.375	1.154	0.118	3.184	95	0.002
Pair 7	Economic Necessity vs. Legal Necessity	0.667	1.359	0.139	4.808	95	0.000
Pair 8	Partnering Necessity vs. Hybrid Necessity	0.063	0.971	0.099	0.630	95	0.530
Pair 9	Partnering Necessity vs. Legal Necessity	0.354	1.314	0.134	2.641	95	0.010
Pair 10	Hybrid Necessity vs. Legal Necessity	0.292	1.360	0.139	2.101	95	0.038

Table 18. Instruments, Effectiveness: Paired samples Test.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	SE Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Informational Effectiveness vs. Economic Effectiveness	-0.172	1.194	0.124	-1.389	92	0.168
Pair 2	Informational Effectiveness vs. Partnering Effectiveness	0.118	1.051	0.109	1.085	92	0.281
Pair 3	Informational Effectiveness vs. Hybrid Effectiveness	0.065	1.159	0.120	0.537	92	0.593
Pair 4	Informational Effectiveness vs. Legal Effectiveness	0.441	1.492	0.155	2.849	92	0.005
Pair 5	Economic Effectiveness vs. Partnering Effectiveness	0.290	1.138	0.118	2.460	92	0.016
Pair 6	Economic Effectiveness vs. Hybrid Effectiveness	0.237	1.077	0.112	2.117	92	0.037
Pair 7	Economic Effectiveness vs. Legal Effectiveness	0.613	1.269	0.132	4.659	92	0.000
Pair 8	Partnering Effectiveness vs. Hybrid Effectiveness	-0.054	0.982	0.102	-0.528	92	0.599
Pair 9	Partnering Effectiveness vs. Legal Effectiveness	0.323	1.295	0.134	2.402	92	0.018
Pair 10	Hybrid Effectiveness vs. Legal Effectiveness	0.376	1.503	0.156	2.415	92	0.018

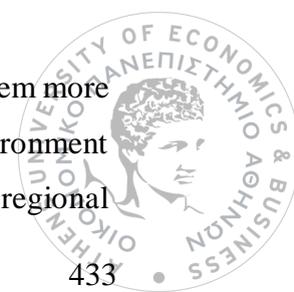
Finally, it should be mentioned that all ANOVA tests that compared all the above variables between different-size companies did not render significant results. That is, the size of the company is not a factor that differentiates the findings regarding all four research questions.

4. Discussion, Conclusions and Recommendations

In this paper, we have investigated how well public SME CSR policies and instruments used by regional authorities can contribute to the development and implementation of CSR actions by the SMEs located in their region. To answer this research question we have introduced a conceptual framework that can help regional authorities to align their CSR policy themes and the associated policy implementation instruments with SMEs' CSR needs. The proposed framework is based on the literature supported premises that properly designed and implemented CSR actions can improve SMEs' competitiveness, and that SMEs' CSR-based competitiveness has the potential to contribute to the sustainable competitiveness of a region. The proposed framework was used to empirically investigate the alignment and integration of public regional CSR policies and instruments with SMEs' CSR needs.

The empirical research suggests that the state of CSR maturity in the study region is low in terms of the perceived support provided by the regional authorities to SMEs and the level of CSR awareness of the surveyed SMEs. This finding is intuitively appealing as the CSR maturity level and involvement of public authorities in Greece is rather low. Suffice to note, that national CSR strategy of Greece is still under development. As a consequence of the low presence of CSR policies in the Crete region, the surveyed SMEs reported that they need support for implementing CSR actions related to all major CSR categories, i.e., workforce, market, environment, society. This expressed need for support is underpinned by the expressed low level of CSR awareness and CSR related information levels, a fact that is not conducive in assisting SMEs to rationalize their CSR actions and integrate them into their overall competitiveness improvement plans. It is worth noting that the difficulty of SMEs to articulate CSR activities integrated into their competitiveness 'strategy' is an endemic issue, as most of the SMEs CSR actions are not of strategic nature [41–43], and therefore are not seeing through the competitiveness improvement lens. The results related to the type of support the SMEs perceived that is offered to them through the policies of the regional authorities suggest that there is a gap between the level of support they require and the level of support offered.

Based on the perception of the surveyed SMEs the regional authorities offered them more support (albeit low) for market oriented CSR as compared to workforce and environment related activities. This finding may be indicative of the perceived CSR role of the regional



authorities in the process of supporting regional competitiveness. In other words, regional authorities may place more emphasis to their role as facilitators of the market relationships and may perceive the development of these relationships as a driver of competitiveness.

Regarding the public policy themes that SMEs perceive that are needed to support their CSR actions it was found that the surveyed SMEs expressed the same preference for all possible policy themes, i.e., awareness raising, capacity building, fostering transparency. However, (albeit low), their perceived support from policies aiming to foster transparency was higher as compared to increase awareness and capacity building. This finding provides an indication of potential consistency between the types of CSR actions that are perceived by SMEs that are supported more by the regional authorities, i.e., market related, and the policy theme offered, i.e., foster transparency. However, a gap also can be detected as in order for this policy theme (foster transparency) to be implemented higher levels of CSR awareness raising and information provision should be also offered.

Finally, regarding the desirable policy instruments used and their perceived effectiveness, surveyed SMEs recognized that economic instruments are both highly desirable and effective and as such they maintain that should be used by the regional authorities. It is also worth noting that SMEs ranked legal instruments lower than any other policy instrument in terms of their necessity and effectiveness. This result may be grounded on the perception that the use of legal instruments may imply more bureaucracy and administrative burden for introducing CSR actions. It is worth noting, that fear of bureaucracy [44] and administrative burden [45] have been identified as barriers to CSR adoption and implementation.

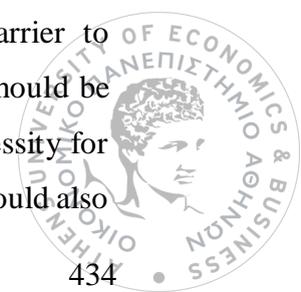
4.1. Recommendations to the Regional Authorities and SMEs

The results of our investigation may provide the following recommendations to the regional authorities and tourism SMEs in Crete:

- Tourism SMEs in the region should become more aware and knowledgeable about CSR in order to be able to rationalize their choices of CSR actions.
- Awareness raising and capacity building is of utmost importance for the tourism SMEs in Crete.

These two policy themes should complement the current policy theme of fostering transparency.

- The scarcity of economic resources faced by SMEs acts as a major barrier to CSR adoption and implementation. Therefore, the use of economic instruments should be considered by the regional authorities. Although SMEs have expressed a high necessity for financial support for CSR implementation, the final choice of regional authorities should also



consider the competing needs for financial resources for other policy domains, and the scarcity of resources available to regional authorities.

- There seems to be a good alignment between CSR policy objectives and policy themes used by the regional authorities (market conditions vs. transparency). However, the development of a more integrated strategy for SME CSR calls for a close cooperation between regional authorities, organizations representing the SMEs, NGOs, and the SMEs themselves.

- In developing their more integrated CSR strategy, Public Authorities should place more emphasis in supporting environment related CSR actions in order to close the largest perceived gap between SME CSR needs and SME CSR support offered.

The empirical findings of this research are subject to the caveat that they are indicative, and as such they do not provide the basis for generalization across SMEs of other industrial sectors and geographical locations. Nevertheless, they can shed light and can contribute to the ongoing debate regarding the alignment of regional CSR policies and SME CSR support needs.

4.2. Recommendations for Further Research

A more comprehensive study is suggested regarding the role that regional authorities could play in promoting CSR among tourism SMEs within the framework of sustainable competitiveness. This study may involve more regions sharing the same importance and presence of tourism SMEs in their area. Furthermore, the relationship of regional SME CSR policies with the national CSR strategy should be investigated to identify potential synergies and complementarities. In line with the dynamic nature of the proposed conceptual framework (see Figure 1), it may be useful to perform a longitudinal study to investigate the effect of the feedback existing between regional sustainable competitiveness and regional CSR policies.

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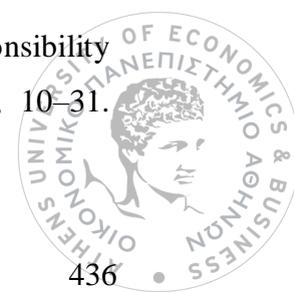
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Conflicts of Interest: The author declares no conflicts of interest.



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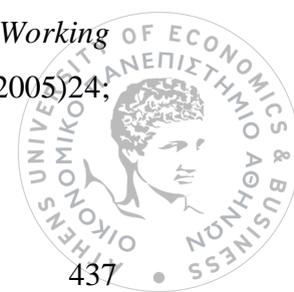
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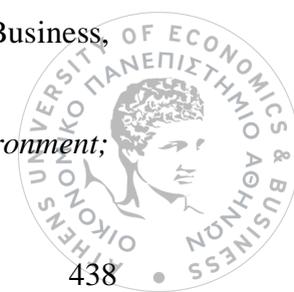
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2. USE OF OFFICIAL STATISTICS AND COMPILATION OF PERFORMANCE INDICES AS A TOOL OF ECONOMIC POLICY: THE CASE OF GREEK MANUFACTURING SECTOR

J. Chalkias ¹

Abstract

The objective of this paper is to demonstrate the usefulness of economic indicators in formulating economic policy. There are situations where the compilation of economic performance indices leads to more useful results than the use of complex econometric models. In particular, the aim of this paper is not the estimation of dynamic models, but monitoring through appropriate indicators the evolution of performance and competitiveness of Greek industry during the last twenty years in order to investigate the causes of the manufacturing industry decline.

The Greek industry achieved its best performance in the 1970s when it participated in GDP with approximately 20% and around 400,000 employees or 12% of all employees. Today, the participation percentage of manufacturing in GDP has been reduced to 5.4% with 168,000 jobs or 4.5% of total employment. In order to investigate the causes of the manufacturing industry decline, appropriate indicators were constructed which examine the evolution of performance and competitiveness of Greek industry during the last twenty years. By competitiveness we mean measurable factors, i.e. labour costs per unit of product and labour productivity in manufacturing

Keywords

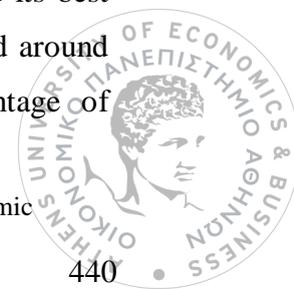
Manufacturing, indices, investments, exports, competitiveness,

Introduction

The sectoral analysis of the Greek economy both at static (input - output tables) and dynamic level (estimating macroeconomic models) is one of the main concerns of economists. Thus, many sectoral studies have been attempted in the past concerning the analysis of economic fundamentals such as consumption, investments, employment, etc.

This study seeks to fill a gap present in literature in examining the performance of Greek manufacturing in conjunction with the main determining factors thereof, such as competitiveness, investments and labour productivity. The Greek industry achieved its best performance in the 1970s when it participated in GDP with approximately 20% and around 400,000 employees or 12% of all employees. Today, the participation percentage of

¹ An earlier version of this paper appeared in Greek Economic Outlook, Centre of Planning and Economic Research, Issue 32, February 2017.



manufacturing in GDP has been reduced to 5.4% with 168,000 jobs or 4.5% of total employment..

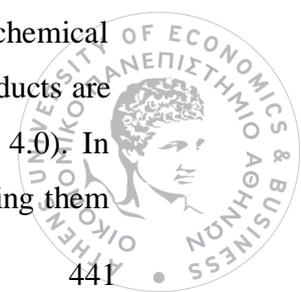
The aim of this paper is not the estimation of dynamic models, but monitoring through appropriate indicators the evolution of performance and competitiveness of Greek industry during the last twenty years in order to investigate the causes of the manufacturing industry decline. Besides, the estimation of such econometric relationships between different variables is now of secondary importance, since the first step is the construction of single sets, which is the subject matter of the study.

More specifically, based on the updated data of the Hellenic Statistical Authority (ELSTAT) covering the period 1995 - 2013, the evolution of manufacturing economic fundamentals (investments, value added, employment, etc.), the export performance and evolution of competitiveness are analysed. By competitiveness we mean measurable factors, i.e. labour costs per unit of product and labour productivity in manufacturing.

The Export Research Centre (KEEM) has published in the past similar studies on measuring the competitiveness of Greek manufacturing products, first for the entire industry and later for individual sectors [1], [2]. The main cause for the delay of the analysis at sectoral level was the lack of sectoral data with regard to employment, wages, etc. These data, although collected by the then National Statistical Service of Greece (ESYE), showed a lag in the time of their publication. However, thanks to the concerted efforts of ESYE and the Foundation for Economic and Industrial Research (IOBE), these data, after digitisation and proper processing, were formed in complete single sets covering the period 1961 - 1992 with all fundamentals both for the entire industry and the basic, at two-digit level, industrial sectors, thus enabling a first sectoral approach [3].

This study refers only to the large industry enterprises (average annual employment over 10 people) and is based on the revised data of the Hellenic Statistical Authority (ELSTAT) [6]. In particular, during the period 1995 - 2007, the manufacturing activity is broken down into 23 sectors according to the European System of National Accounts (NACE Revision 1.1), and for the period 2008 - 2013 into 24 sectors according to the newest Community Classification, (NACE Revision 2).

The lack of sectoral studies on the export performance of the Greek industry is also due to another important reason. The lack of matching between the classifications systems of foreign trade and industrial activity. More specifically, in foreign trade the products are classified by either their use (food, raw materials, etc.) or the raw material they are made of (chemical products, manufactured goods classified mainly by raw material, etc.). Thus, the products are recorded based on the Standard International Trade Classification (SITC, Version 4.0). In contrast, in industry the products are classified based on the industrial sector producing them

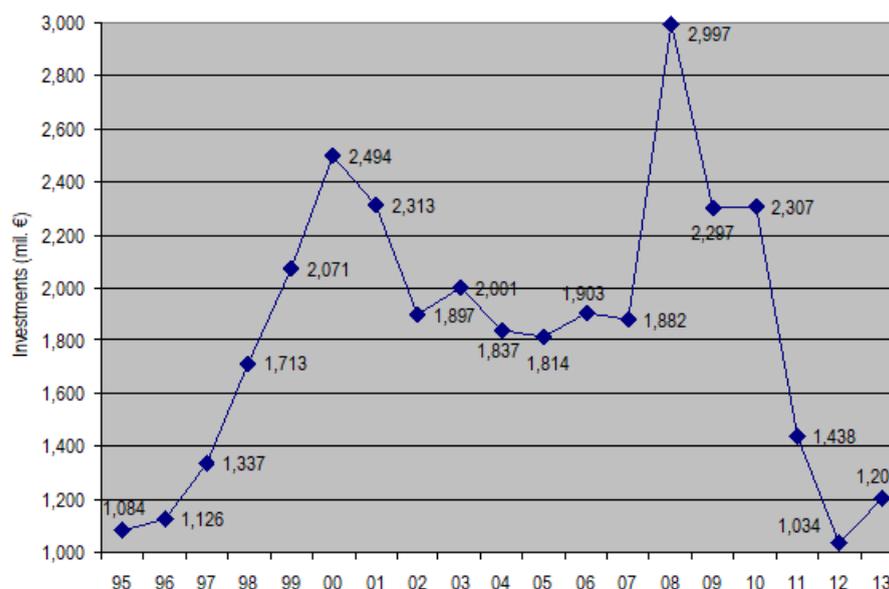


(outputs). It is therefore immediately understood how difficult it is to match the five-digit codes of the Standard International Trade Classification (SITC) system and the three-digit codes of the classification system of industrial sectors (NACE), which is partly covered by the Eurostat publications [7].

Fundamentals of Manufacturing

Investments made by industrial enterprises are a basic prerequisite for creating the industrial base of a country and expanding it through the establishment of large production units. Figure 1 shows the total gross investments made by the large industry enterprises (average annual employment 10 people or more) in the period 1995 - 2013. The period 1995 - 2000 is characterized by high growth rates of investment in almost all industrial sectors, followed by a down trend in the next five years up to 2005 and a small recovery in 2006 and 2007. The spectacular increase in investments in 2008 is due to investments in the sectors of Oil & Coal and Chemical & Pharmaceutical Products. The investments of both these sectors almost increased fivefold in 2008 and represent 41.5% of total investments. The consecutive decline in manufacturing investments begins as from 2008 as a result of the country's economic crisis. Based on the currently available data, from 2008 up to 2013 investments decreased by -60%.

Figure 1: Total Investments in Manufacturing (€ million)

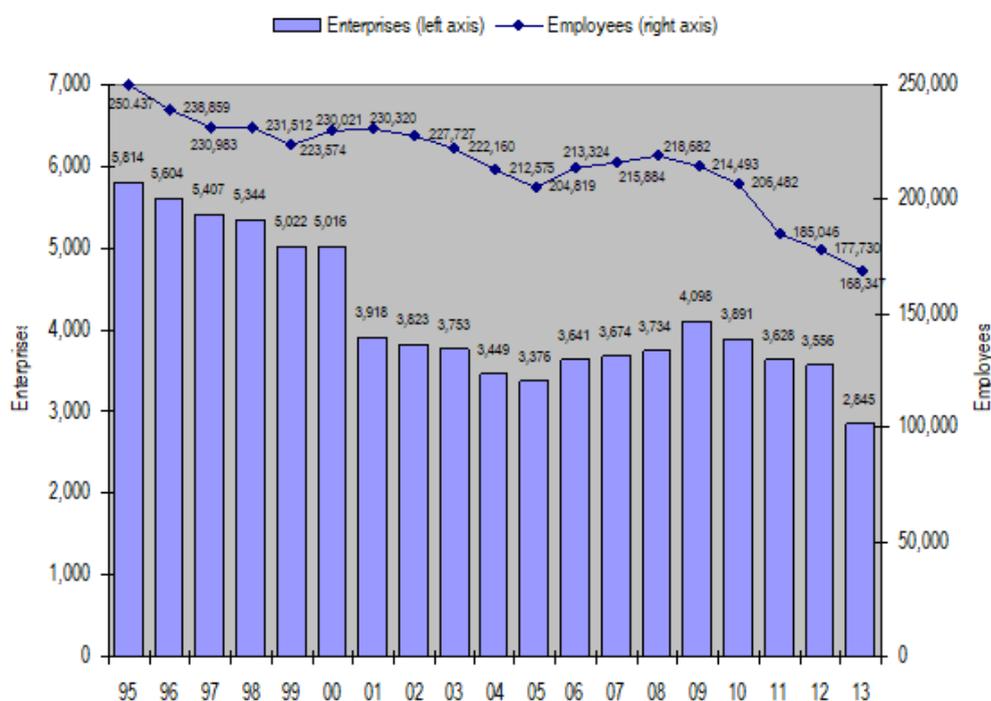


Investments come mainly from large industrial enterprises and pertain to new technologies and automatism so they do not necessarily mean establishing new enterprises or new jobs. Diagram 2 is revealing about the evolution of the number of manufacturing enterprises in the period 1995 - 2013. Since the mid-90s, a consecutive decrease in the number of industrial enterprises is noted and continues until 2005 with a loss of 2,438 manufacturing units. A four-year period,

2005 - 2009, follows with an upward trend in the establishment of new enterprises as a result of the incentives established at that time for companies (reduction of corporate taxes, creating tax-free reserves, etc.). The favourable climate led to the establishment of new manufacturing units and from 3,376 in 2005 they rose to 4,098 in 2009. The economic crisis that followed in conjunction with the political uncertainty and tax increases led to the cessation of operations for a significant number of enterprises, which fell to 2,845 in 2013.

The evolution of the number of employees in manufacturing presents a similar picture. Cumulatively over the period 1995 - 2013 the jobs in manufacturing decreased by 81,653 people or by -32.7%. The only period when a slight increase in the number of employees is noted is the period 2005 - 2009 during which the number of new enterprises also increases.

Figure 2: Number of Enterprises (over 10 people) and Number of Employees in Manufacturing

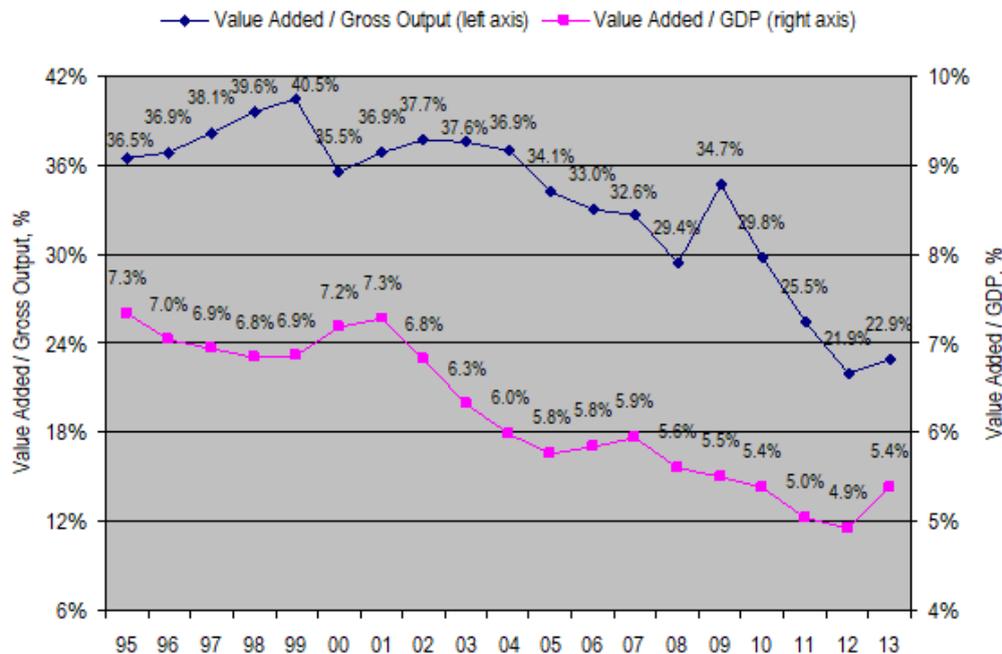


Finally, with regard to the gross manufacturing output, there is a high growth rate in the period 1995 - 2008. Specifically, the gross output increased in total by 146.3% with an average annual growth rate of +6.9%. The picture is similar for the evolution of the value added of manufacturing with a cumulative increase of 98.5% and an average annual growth rate of +5.4%. After 2009 the picture changes. The gross output in 2009 decreases significantly by -18.4% and then changes in a positive but low growth rate (+1.6%). In contrast, the value added of manufacturing shrinks drastically with a cumulative decrease of -28.4% in the period 2008 - 2013, i.e. an average growth rate of -7.7%. The main reason for the decrease of value added in the period 2008 - 2013 is the collapse of investments mentioned above, resulting in the

replacement of inputs (intermediate consumption) by domestic sources with inputs from abroad.

The result of these developments is the decrease in recent years of both the gross output consisted by the value added and the contribution of the manufacturing sector in the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Figure 3 is revealing about the evolution of these two indices.

Figure 3: Participation of Manufacturing Output Value Added (%)



In the period 1995 - 2004 the value added was approximately 36% - 40% of the gross manufacturing output. Since 2005, this percentage constantly decreases and fell to 22% and 23% in 2012 2013, respectively. The evolution of manufacturing participation in the GDP presents a similar picture. Over the period 1995 - 2001, the percentage of GDP coming from the manufacturing sector was about 7%. Since 2002, the participation percentage constantly decreases and fell to 4.9% and 5.4% in 2012 and 2013, respectively.

Efficiency Indices of Manufacturing

The key index for measuring the manufacturing sector efficiency is the industrial production index. Figure 4 illustrates the evolution of the industrial production index and the Gross Domestic Product (GDP - volume index) over the period 1995 - 2015 (provisional data). The shortfall of the industrial production growth rate compared to the growth rate of GDP is apparent.

In particular, during the pre-economic crisis period, 1995 - 2007, the average annual growth rate of GDP was +4.0% and of the industrial production index just +0.6%. Since 2008, the year that the first recession by -0.4% occurred, up to 2013, the average annual growth rate of GDP



was -5.5% and of the industrial production -6.3%. Thus, cumulatively over the period 2008 - 2013, GDP shrank by -26.4% and industrial production by -30.3%. Finally, in the years 2014 and 2015, GDP changed by +0.8% and -0.2% and industrial production index by +1.8% and +1.9%, respectively. It follows from the above that, unlike GDP which over the period considered 1995 - 2015 increased by +17.6%, industrial production declined by -19.5%.

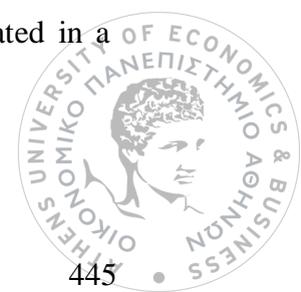
What are the causes of the decline in industrial production? What had such a negative impact on manufacturing which for years is characterized by lack of investments, decrease in the number of manufacturing units, production shrinkage, leading to deindustrialisation of the country? The answer is simple: The loss of competitiveness of the manufacturing sector.

The term “competitiveness” includes qualitative and quantitative characteristics. Qualitative characteristics are, for example, product quality, timely delivery, constant presence in the international market, etc. The quantitative aspect of competitiveness, which is examined in this study, pertains to two measurable factors that, according to international practice, are the most important ones, i.e. labour cost per product unit and labour productivity in manufacturing. These two indices measure the enterprise’s competitiveness both in absolute terms, i.e. whether the enterprise improves, and in relative terms, i.e. whether the enterprise improves its competitiveness faster than its competitors.

The main factors of competitiveness must be sought in the internal costs of enterprises and this is measured, to a satisfactory extent, by labour costs per unit of output. Besides, in modern industry the main cost factors are approximately the same worldwide (oil, raw materials, production methods, machinery, etc.), resulting in the labour costs being the main differentiation factor of production costs and has prevailed as the main measurement index of manufacturing competitiveness.

The labour cost index per unit of output (or unit labour cost index - ULCI) arises from the relationship $(\text{total labour costs}) / (\text{production volume})$. With regard to competitor countries, the comparison of labour costs was limited to the European Union (EU). In order to facilitate comparison between the change in unit labour costs of Greek manufacturing and the change in unit labour costs in the EU countries, a relative index has been constructed, which represents the quotient obtained by dividing the unit labour cost index of Greek manufacturing by the respective index of competitor countries. Thus, increase in the relative index means that unit labour cost in the Greek manufacturing increases more than the unit cost in the manufacturing of our competitors and therefore the competitiveness of Greek manufacturing products decreases and vice versa. This relative index of unit labour costs has been calculated in a common currency (ECU) for the period before euro.

Figure 4: Unit Labour Costs Indices in Manufacturing (1995 = 100)



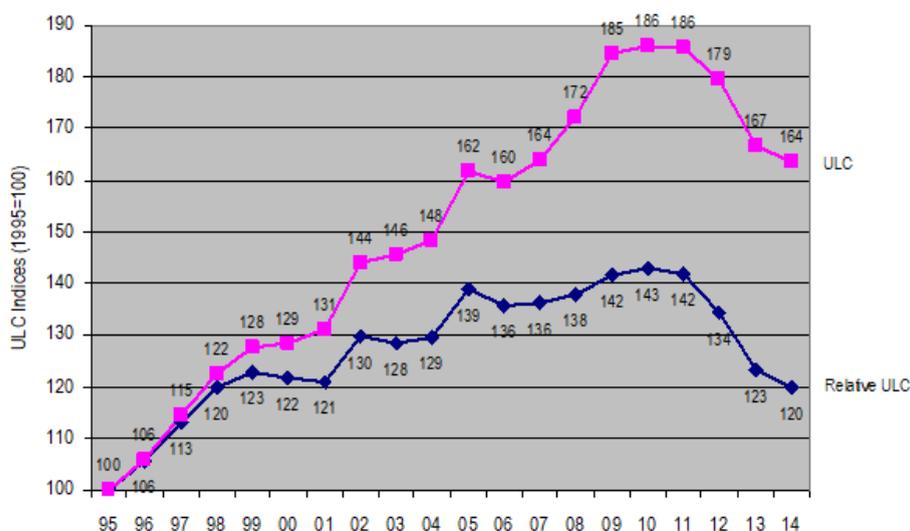


Figure 4 is revealing about the erosion suffered by the competitiveness of the Greek manufacturing sector during the period 1995 - 2011. The Unit Labour Cost Index (ULCI) increased cumulatively by 86% with an average annual growth rate of +3.9%, when the respective ULC index in the EU countries increased at an average annual rate of 1.9%. The result was the Greek products to become cumulatively, in relative terms, by 43% more expensive than the products of our competitors. It is worth noting that, based on a previous study of the Exports Research Centre, the EU countries represent about two-thirds of the total competition faced by Greek products in international markets [4], [5].

The decrease in wages and salaries imposed by the creditors with the adjustment programmes led to decrease of ULC and improvement of the Relative ULCI in the years 2011 - 2013, resulting in offsetting about 50% of the loss of competitiveness of Greek products.

Main reasons for the increase in unit labour costs, and therefore the erosion of competitiveness, are the significant increase of wages and salaries and the disproportionately small, in relation to the first, increase in production volume in manufacturing. In other words, the increase in unit labour costs is the result of two opposing varying sizes: the labour compensation and its productivity.

The labour cost index per unit of output (or unit labour cost index - ULCI) is estimated according to the following formula:

$$ULCI = (\text{Number of employees index}) \times (\text{Compensation index}) / \text{Production volume index}$$

The numerator expresses the total wage costs and the denominator the production volume. This results in an index that measures labour costs per one unit of output over time.

Also, the index of labour productivity equals:

$$\text{Productivity Index} = \text{Production volume index} / \text{Number of employees index}$$



It follows from the above that: The more the labour costs per unit of output decrease, the more the enterprise's competitiveness increases and vice versa. Also, the more the production volume per employee increases, the more productivity increases and vice versa.

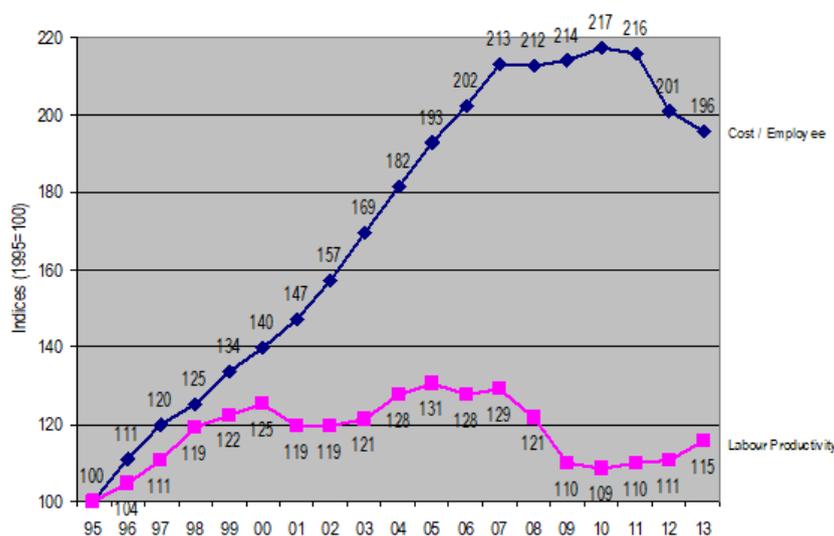
An alternative way of measuring the Unit Labour Costs arises from the above relationships:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ULCI} &= \text{Compensation index} / (\text{Production volume index} / \text{Number of employees index}) \\ &= \text{Compensation index} / \text{Productivity Index} \end{aligned}$$

In other words, the Unit Labour Costs Index equals the Labour Compensation index divided by the Labour Productivity Index. This means that if productivity increases more than labour costs, then ULCI decreases and hence competitiveness improves and vice versa.

Figure 5 illustrates the evolution of the average annual costs per employee as well as the productivity index of Greek manufacturing. Now it becomes clear why the unit labour costs increased excessively. The average annual costs per employee in the period 1995 - 2010 increased by 117% while productivity improved only by 9%. All scientific institutions of the country (KEPE, BoG, IOBE, PSE, etc.) already since 2000, when our country's entry in the Euro zone was routed, warned the social partners (SEB, GSEE, etc.) that joining the single currency deprived our country of the possibilities of national monetary policy by which, through the devaluations of the national currency, could, as in the past, offset the loss of competitiveness caused by the increase of wages and salaries. The constant erosion of competitiveness resulted in the shrinkage of several manufacturing sectors, especially those characterized as labour-intensive sectors (textiles, furniture and other manufacturing activities, clothing, footwear & travel goods).

Figure 5: Average Annual Costs and Labour Productivity Indices in Manufacturing (1995 = 100)

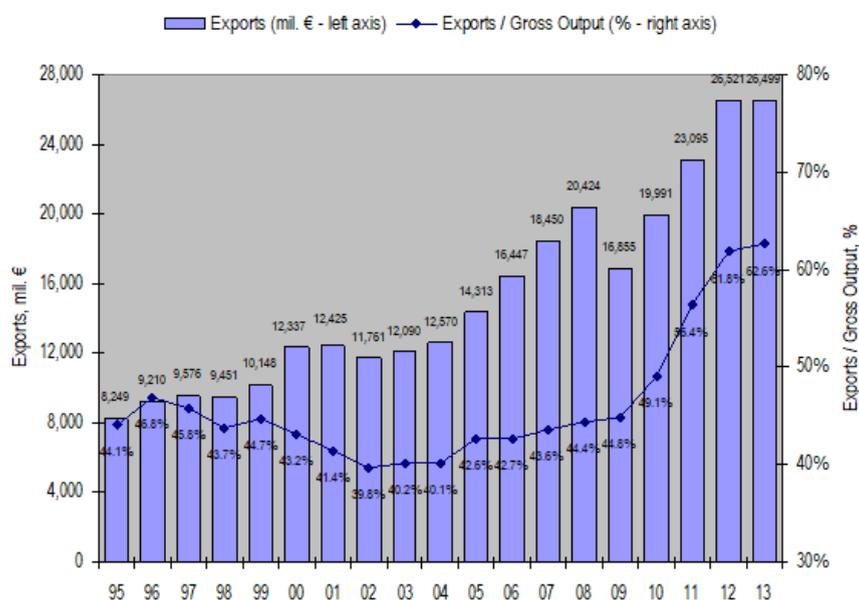


The Export Performance of Manufacturing

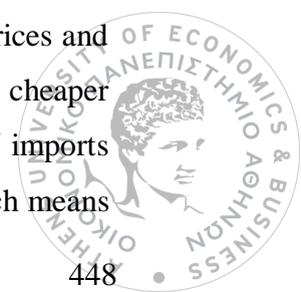
In developing economies, exports are the main driver of industry growth, since through the applied economies of scale they improve their competitiveness leading to further increase of production and expansion of exports. The Greek manufacturing followed this rule and the openness of industry began from the early years of the country's industrialization. In particular, in recent years that our country is plagued by the economic crisis and domestic consumption continuously shrinks, exports became the only solution for the survival of manufacturing enterprises. Diagram 9 is revealing about how much the openness of Greek manufacturing has increased during the years of crisis.

Extroversion is expressed by the ratio (exports) / (gross output). During the pre-crisis period, exports represented about 40% - 43% of the gross output with a simultaneous increase or stability of industrial production. However, during the years of crisis, when the industrial production index continuously decreases with an average annual rate of -6.3%, exports increase and the extroversion index (exports/production) increased from 43.6% in 2007 to 62.6% in 2013.

Figure 6: Extroversion of Greek Manufacturing (1995 - 2013)



At the same time, the Greek manufacturing in an effort to increase its export performance reduced its presence in the domestic market. The main reason was the low prices that prevailed in the Greek market due to crisis and reduced demand. In other words, manufacturing enterprises turned to foreign markets in which they offered their products at better prices and with better payment terms. Thus, the domestically produced goods were replaced by cheaper imported products and this is apparent from the terms of trade (exports price index / imports price index). The terms of trade improved in the period 2009 - 2015 by +28.2%, which means



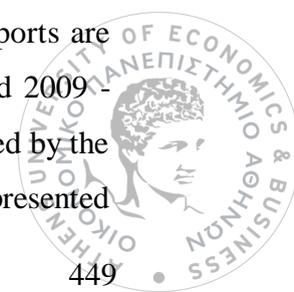
that during this period the export enterprises achieved abroad higher prices by 28.2% compared to the prices they would achieve in Greece (this happened to a large extent in the food & beverage sector, [5]).

Conclusions

Over the last 20 years Greek manufacturing has been characterized by stagnation and, subsequently, a drastic decrease. In particular, during the pre-crisis period, 1995-2007, the average annual growth rate of the industrial production index was only +0.6%, and from 2008, the year that the first recession occurred, up to 2013, the average annual growth rate of the industrial production index was -6.3%. Thus, cumulatively over the period 2008-2013, industrial production shrank by -30.3%, and increased only in 2014 and 2015 by +1.8% and +1.9%, respectively. The result of the manufacturing sector's shrinkage is a drastic decrease in investments, the number of manufacturing enterprises and the number of employees.

The value added of manufacturing output was also significantly decreased, resulting in the decrease of manufacturing participation in GDP. During the period 1995 - 2001, the percentage of GDP coming from the manufacturing sector was above 7%. Since 2002, the participation percentage constantly decreases and reached 4.9% and 5.4% in the years 2012 and 2013, respectively.

The main cause of the manufacturing sector shrinkage is the erosion of competitiveness based on the unit labour cost index. The Unit Labour Cost Index (ULCI) increased cumulatively in the period 1995 - 2011 by 86%, with an average annual growth rate of +3.9%, when the respective ULC index in the EU countries increased at an average annual rate of 1.9%. The result was the Greek products to become cumulatively, in relative terms, by 43% more expensive than the products of our competitors. Main reasons for the increase in unit labour costs are the significant increase of wages and salaries and the disproportionately small, in relation to the first, increase in production volume in manufacturing. In other words, the increase in unit labour cost is the result of two opposing varying sizes: the labour compensation and its productivity. Suffice it to say that in the period 1995 - 2010 the average annual labour costs increased by +117% and productivity only by +9%. Exports are the only solution for the survival of manufacturing enterprises and in particular for the time when our country is plagued by the economic crisis and the internal consumption are constantly shrinking. After continuous growth in exports during the period 1995 - 2008 with an average annual growth rate of +6.4%, a decrease by -17.5% follows in 2009 due to the international crisis. Since then, exports are changing in a positive rate, recording a cumulative increase of +57.2% in the period 2009 - 2013. The significant improvement in the manufacturing sector extroversion is revealed by the increase of the exports / gross output index. During the pre-crisis period, exports represented



about 40% - 43% of the gross output (with industrial production approximately unchanged). However, during the years of crisis, when the industrial production index continuously decreases, exports increase and the extroversion index (exports / production) increased from 43.6% in 2007 to 62.6% in 2013. In other words, the survival of manufacturing sector depends almost exclusively on exports.

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3. PERSONAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT THROUGH THE USE OF QUALITY TOOLS: THE USE OF PARETO, DEMING CYCLE AND CAUSE AND EFFECT DIAGRAM (FISHBONE) IN A UNIVERSITY CLASS ENVIRONMENT

K. Nteliou, M. Rafailidou

ABSTRACT

This paper presents the importance of personal quality and its application through specific quality tools. Quality should start on a personal level in order to become part of the core culture of an organization. Individuals need to practice quality tools at personal level in order not only to cope with the competitive business environment, but also to solve issues in their personal life. Under this scope, five quality tools and the modified version of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award criteria for Performance Excellence are presented, showing the importance of using such frameworks on a personal basis. The use of personal quality checklist, personal TQM matrix and Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award are presented through the literature review as useful tools for personal quality management. Apart from these personal quality frameworks, other researchers explored some well-known quality tools such as Pareto, the Deming Cycle and the cause and effect diagram (Fishbone). Their application is analyzed and discussed in a university class environment.

Keywords

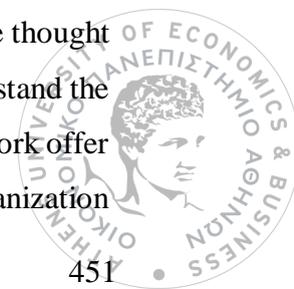
Quality, personal quality, total quality management, quality tools and models

INTRODUCTION

Although there is no common definition of quality, several aspects are widely accepted as being vital for a successful quality program such as customer satisfaction, continuous improvement and employee involvement. Quality as practiced by the individuals is the foundation on which Total Quality Management (TQM) is built (Roberts & Sergesketter, 1993).

Two factors deal with the individuals that make up organizations: employees and top management. Although quality programs can't be successful without the support of the top management on one hand, on the other hand, TQM cannot exist without all the people in an organization understanding and practicing the principles of quality at a personal level (Sergesketter, 2004).

The concept of personal quality as promoted by Roberts & Sergesketter (1993) may be thought of as a tool for personal empowerment which helps employees and managers to understand the complexity of a process, in order to improve it. Quality improvement tools and framework offer tools through which important learning takes place. What is considered vital for an organization



is to enhance an individual's capability to relate his events and actions to the organization's goals and targets (Kim, 1998). Personal Quality tools in a business environment can facilitate this process.

Based on the experience of having students required to work on quality improvement projects on a personal basis, this paper presents some insights that have been reported by students' experience.

Over the last ten years or so, Dr Nteliou has taught several courses in quality management and has been asking students to pick a quality management tool and apply it in their life. Based on the application of the tool, students are required to develop a report that included their reflections after use.

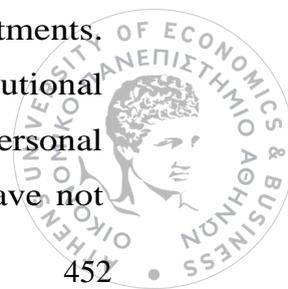
THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Quality

Quality as a notion has significantly changed throughout the years. It started as an inspection tool for improving a product's compliance to specifications and it evolved to total organization quality. It now includes all organizational functions and is best understood as principles and methods to improve the performance of organizations in achieving their objectives taking into consideration all stakeholder categories around an organization.

The Quality Management System (QMS) of an Organization is a set of interrelated processes designed to operate, to produce products or present services required to meet stakeholders' desires (Tigani, 2011). Having a successful Quality Management System, requires all parties to work together and head united in one direction. Quality requires commitment at the top of an organization while organizations are made up of individual employees having an important role in the improvement of quality (Wong, Tjosvold & Zhang, 2005).

For example, during the period that Motorola underwent a period of rededication towards quality in 1980 trying to identify the factors of competitiveness, Bob Galvin, the CEO of Motorola found the key to the problem. He declared: "I think I've identified the key to being competitive. We've got to be competitive one person at a time. Quality used to be a corporate way of life; now it has also become a personal one". He also states "We have operated very substantially under the rubric of quality control. Our institutions, our companies have had quality departments. And the old truth was that quality is a company, a department, and an institutional responsibility. The new truth is radically different. Quality is a very personal obligation. If you can't talk about quality in the first person then you have not



moved to the level of involvement of quality that is absolutely essential. You must be a believer that quality is a very personal responsibility” (Roberts & Sergesketter, 1993).

Personal Quality

TQM is based on the participation of all members of an organization in improving processes, products, services, and the culture in which they work. The quality of person is one key factor which defines the success of an organization. Employees who embrace quality as a personal value, often go beyond what they are asked or normally expected to do in order to reach a difficult goal or provide extraordinary service to a customer (Evans & Lindsay, 2005). So to ensure good quality work and performance, management needs to keep their workers happy and satisfied. Total quality management (TQM) plays a vital role in personal management.

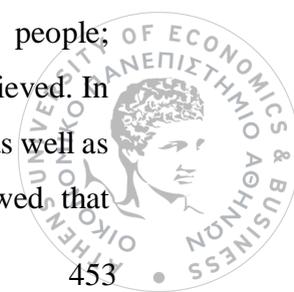
According to Moccia (2008), personal values and quality can play an important role in the implementation of TQM programs, being the stimulators of workers’ motivation. His paper represented the first attempt to integrate into TQM theory the quality values of people called upon to implement TQM programs (Moccia, 2008)

The concept of “personal quality” has been promoted by Harry V. Roberts, professor emeritus at the University of Chicago’s Graduate School of Business, and Bernard F. Sergesketter, vice president of the Central Region of AT&T. Roberts and Sergesketter developed the idea of a personal quality checklist to keep track of personal shortcomings, or defects, in personal work processes. The exact definition of the term “personal quality” is related to the continuous effort for personal empowerment through the systematic identification of all the necessary methods of action that actively improve a person’s concept of quality.

Galvin (1992) made it very clear that one key to implementing a strong quality improvement process in any organization is personal quality. This is especially true for the top management of an organization.

People must be promoted internally to perform their job with quality (AlShalabi, 2012). Personal quality covers all aspects of living experienced by individuals, meaning it encompasses functional status, access to resources and opportunities. Moreover, it covers both the material satisfaction of vital needs as well as aspects of life such as family, work, social life, personal development, self-realization and a balanced eco-system (Alshalabi, 2012).

A focus on personal quality must be emphasized within a company before the beginning of any quality initiative in the workplace. The theory is that focus must begin with the people; otherwise, it is unlikely that successful results with any long lasting effect will be achieved. In addition, resources and recommendations for effective recruitment of top candidates, as well as employee development are also provided (Martin, 2008). Jambekar (1995) showed that



Personal quality improvement offers a risk and embarrassment- free experiential framework for individuals to learn not only the basics of quality management but also system thinking. He also argued (Jambekar, 2005) that the concept of personal quality may be viewed as personal empowerment. By doing improvement in some aspects of personal quality, and then by making a connection to a larger organization by reflecting upon one's experience, we can gain best understanding of the concepts of organizational quality.

Also, Alyahyawi (2011) recognized criteria of personal quality performance for departmental heads: positive personal characteristics, human relationships, effective communication and exceeding work performance, and he argued that criteria of selection and assignment of departmental heads should be revised so as to include personal quality fields.

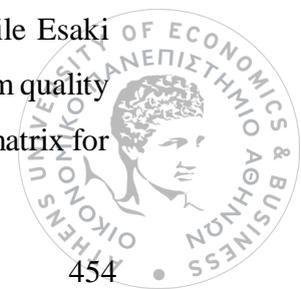
As noted by Drucker (1999), history's great achievers, e.g. Napoleon, daVinci, Mozart, always managed themselves. According to Drucker most of us will have to learn to manage and develop ourselves. We will have to place ourselves where we can make the greatest contribution. And we will have to stay mentally alert and engaged during a 50-year working life, which means knowing how and when to change the work we do (Drucker, 1999). As Roberts and Sergesketter (1993) affirm, we need to apply the same quality principles and practices that we use in business to our personal lives through the creation of a Personal Quality Program.

Quality Tools

TQM is much more than a number of critical factors; it also includes other components, such as tools and techniques for quality improvement (Hellsten & Klefsjö, 2000). In fact, techniques and tools are vital to support and develop the quality improvement process (Bunney & Dale, 1997, Stephens, 1997).

Ishikawa (1985) and McConnell (1989) have identified a list of seven TQM tools: flow charts, cause and effect diagrams, Pareto charts, histograms, run charts and graphs, X bar and R control charts and scatter diagrams. They are also called the seven "basic" or "old" tools. After that, new tools have also been developed for various purposes but the basis for every work is related to the 7QC tools (Tague, 2005). These tools are also fundamental to Kaizen and Juan's approach to quality improvement (Osanna, Durakbasa & Afjehi-Sadat, 2004)

Also, Imai (1986), Dean and Evans (1994), Goetsch and Davis (1997), Dale (1999), and Evans and Lindsay (1999) have offered a list of tools and techniques for quality improvement. For their part, Dale and McQuater (1998) have identified the tools and techniques most widely used by firms. Roberts & Sergesketter (1993) initiated the personal quality check list while Esaki (2016) developed a new general framework for TQM based on the framework of system quality requirements and evaluation defined in ISO/IEC 25040 and 25041 as well as a TQM matrix for



assessing the management quality of an organization. Based on the concept of this TQM matrix, he suggested a personal TQM matrix (2016).

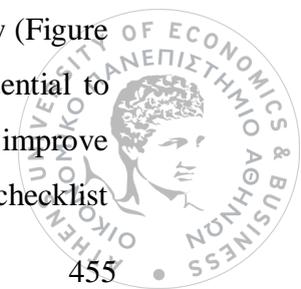
Tari and Sabater (2004) selected firms carrying out their activity in the Alicante area (eastern Spain) with ISO certification to carry out a research over the efficiency of quality tools. The results indicate that TQM tools and techniques are, alongside critical factors, another important component of TQM, which emphasizes their importance for the improvement of TQM levels and results. Below are presented some basic quality tools which have been tested by researchers and have been proved useful on personal basis.

a. Personal Quality Check list

A personal quality checklist is a tool based on Benjamin Franklin's list of 13 virtues: Temperance, Silence, Order, Resolution, Frugality, Industry, Sincerity, Justice, Moderation, Cleanliness, Tranquility, Venerability, and Humility (Staley, 1998). The concept was initiated by Roberts and Sergesketter (1993) through their book "Quality is Personal" where they make the argument that personal quality checklists - by which employees monitor waste reducers and value adding activities in their immediate work environment - can significantly increase individual understanding of the general concepts and implementation of TQM. Moreover, they present specific steps to developing and implementing a Personal Quality Improvement program which are: Identifying the items you want to improve, establishing standards for improvement and measuring your performance against those standards and tracking your performance on a personal quality checklist.

The personal quality checklist can be developed to improve professional activities of individuals. Each item on the checklist has a desired result, a way to measure each type of defect, and a time frame. Both work and personal defect categories can be listed (Karam, 2014). Roberts & Sergesketter (1993) offer several illustrations used by executives and students. Once a checklist is drawn up, the data collection check sheet is designed to gather data daily. By repeatedly asking why a certain defect is occurring, an individual has the opportunity to get at the root cause. Drawing on two years of research at AT&T, the authors demonstrate how these systematic self-appraisals lead to improvement in personal job effectiveness, and help employees better serve internal and external customers. Monitoring performance improvement with checklists, they show, is an important contribution in the successful transformation of an organization into a Total Quality Management company.

An example of a personal checklist on improvement office practice is presented below (Figure 1) As previously said first we identify some area of improvement that has the potential to enhance productivity, reduce waste, improve health, acquire a desired set of habits to improve management and leadership skills, etc. The next step is to draw up a personal quality checklist



to keep track of individual shortcomings, or defects, which are readily identifiable with the area of improvement. The defects should reflect personal habits or actions that are preventing one from achieving the targeted personal quality goals.

Detect category	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thu.	Fri.	Sat.	Sun.	Total
Late for meeting or appointment								
Searched for something misplaced or lost, over 20 min.								
Failure to respond to letter or phone call in 24 hours								
Failure to discard incoming junk by end of day								
Lack of clarity in setting requirements and deadlines								
Total								

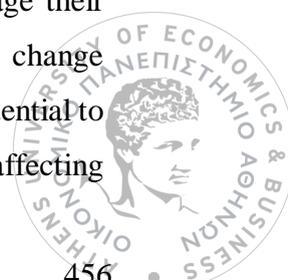
Figure 1: An example of a personal checklist (to improve the office practice)

According to Sergesketter (2004) setting standards for personal or organization quality improvement is not difficult, but alone, it cannot make a desired change. Sergesketter emphasized on the point that employees should find a way to measure against those standards, which is the only way to feel the change on the personal and professional level. He suggested a simplified form as it presented below (Sergesketter, 2004).

Professional improvement	Month: July																															Total	Base line		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31				
On time for meetings							✓																											2	1
Phone: next day response													✓																					1	2
E-mail: within two day response																						✓	✓											2	6
Call client daily																																			
Relevant reading material																																			
Personal improvement	Month: July																															Total	Base line		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31				
Weight (190 pounds)					✓	✓						✓	✓					✓	✓	✓														7	10
Sugar intake			✓	✓				✓		✓					✓	✓																		6	9
Exercise (three times a week)																																			
No unpleasantness							✓					✓																				✓	4	5	
Resolution																																			2
	✓ Missed opportunities																																		

Figure 2: Simplified checklist

Karam (2014) studied the attitude of the administrative middle managers in Lebanon toward the importance and implications of personal quality through the use of personal checklists to facilitate TQM validated self-management techniques as a cost- and time-effective means to enhance employees' psychological well-being and capacity to adapt efficiently and harmoniously to the challenges inherent in organizational life. He also noted that training on the personal quality level helps individuals revise their interpretive styles and manage their mental and emotional responses to stress. This as an action can facilitate major change implementation processes in organizations. In addition, such interventions have the potential to produce long-term improvements in employee health, performance and productivity, affecting the overall quality at the workplace (Barrios-Choplin, 1999).



b. Personal TQM Matrix

Esaki presented the concept of a TQM matrix (2016) based on the principle of quality control and the structure of problem management. Based on the assumptions proposed in his study Esaki developed a new general framework for TQM based on the framework of system quality requirements and evaluation defined in ISO/IEC 25040 and 25041 as well as a TQM matrix for assessing the management quality of an organization. However, based on the definition of a system, a person with a specific purpose is regarded as a kind of system and small element of an organization, and the impact of an environment on a person should also be taken into account when using TQM. In 2016 he also proposed the concept of personal TQM by applying new TQM's general concept to the management of personal life. This concept of personal activity is undertaken using a specially defined TQM matrix and three-dimensional unification value models of product and process. Based on the concept of TQM matrix suggested by Esaki (2016) personal TQM matrix can be explained as shown in Figure 3, which includes four target domains of process quality management.

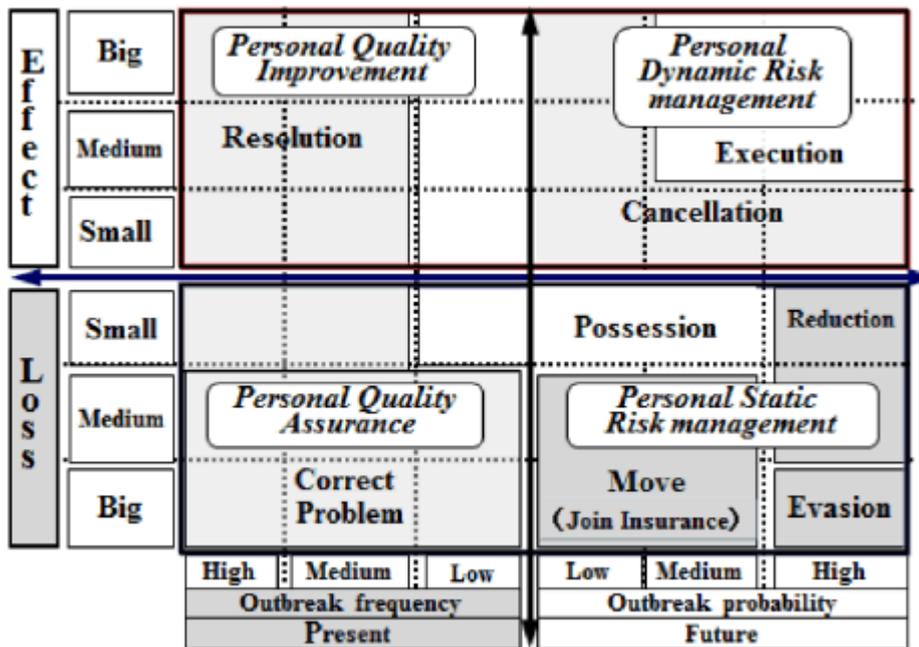


Figure 3: Personal TQM matrix (Esaki, 2013)

A person's problem is defined by the scale of damage and the outbreak frequency of damage at present. Thus, personal problems should be corrected as soon as possible after detection. On the other hand, an issue of personal life is defined by the scale of expected good value and an outbreak probability of expected good value at present. In contrast, static risk of personal management is defined by the scale of prospective damage and the prospective outbreak probability of damage in the future. Static risk management of personal management, such as possession, move, reduction, and evasion, should be performed by considering the results of

risk analysis based on the concept of TQM matrix. Dynamic risk of personal management is defined by the scale of expected good value or damage and the expected outbreak probability in the future. Therefore, dynamic risk management of personal management, such as an investment or a project, should be performed considering risk. Also, dynamic risk management should be performed by considering the priorities, necessities, effectiveness, and limited input resources.

The framework of personal TQM is defined by considering the relevant target management domains of products and process. Based on the new general framework for TQM (ISO/IEC15288, 2015), the framework of personal TQM can be explained by Figure 4.

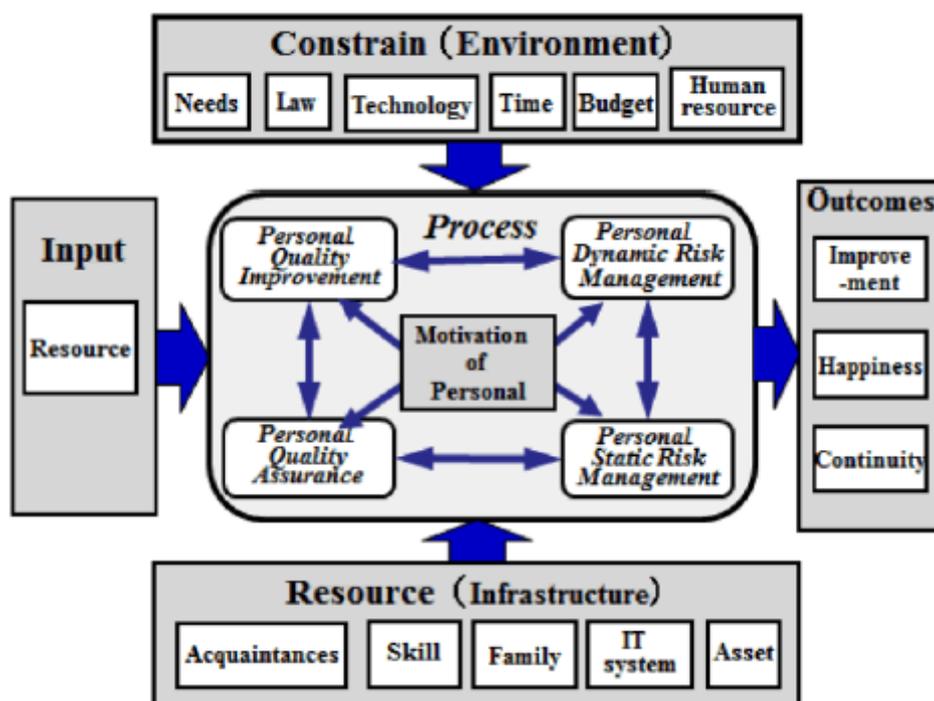
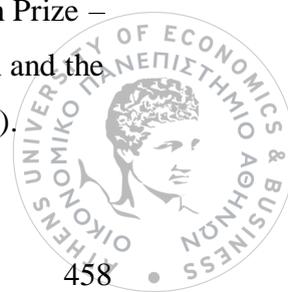


Figure 4: Personal TQM framework (Esaki, 2016)

Esaki (2016) presented a scheme for the total quality management of personal life. This study has contributed the concept of basic quality control, three-dimensional unification value models of product and process, personal TQM matrix, and the concept of personal TQM for quality management of personal life. He also presented and verified the scope and concrete target entities of total quality management of personal life through personal TQM.

c. Baldrige Award Framework /EFQM Excellence Framework

The popularity of quality awards as improvement models is growing. The most prestigious quality awards by chronological order include: the Deming prize (Deming Application Prize – DAP) in Japan, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) in the USA and the European Quality Award (EQA) for European companies (Nteliou & Tsarouzas, 2018).



A modified version of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award Criteria for Performance Excellence is a framework that can be used relatively for individual self-assessment of a person personal quality and planning for future success. (Vokurka, 2001)

The core values and concepts that are the basis for the Baldrige Award are integrated into a framework of seven categories that comprise the Baldrige Award Criteria for Performance Excellence. The framework connects and integrates the categories into a systems perspective as shown in Figure 5 (NIST, 1999):

The leadership category examines how the organization's leaders address values and performance expectations, as well as how the focus on all stakeholders' categories is developed and maintained. The strategic planning category examines the organization's strategy development process, including how your organization develops strategic objectives, action plans, and related human resource plans. The customer and market focus category examines how the organization determines requirements, expectations, and preferences of customers and markets but also how satisfaction of this stakeholder category is achieved.

The information and analysis category examines how the organization's performance measurement system operates and analyzes performance data and information.

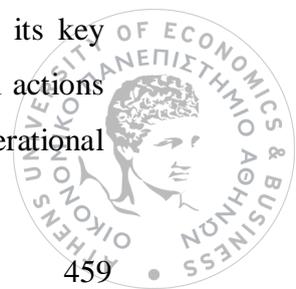
The human resource focus category examines how the organization enables employees to develop and utilize their full potential, aligned with the organization's objectives. There is also focus on the organization's efforts to build and maintain a work environment and an employee support climate conducive to performance excellence.

The process management category examines the key aspects of the organization's process management.

The business results category examines how the organization's performance and improvement in key business areas - customer satisfaction, product and service performance, financial and marketplace performance, human resource results, supplier and partner results, benchmarks related to competitors and operational performance.

The leadership triad is represented by leadership (Category 1), strategic planning (Category 2), and customer and market focus (Category 3). These categories are placed together to emphasize the importance of a leadership focus on strategy and customers. Senior leaders must set organizational direction and seek future opportunities for the organization. If the leadership is not focused on customers, the organization as a whole will lack that focus.

The results group is represented by human resource focus (Category 5), process management (Category 6), and business results (Category 7). An organization's employees and its key processes accomplish the work of the organization that yields its business results. All actions point toward the business results which include customer, financial and operational performance results but also human resource results and public responsibility.



The horizontal arrow in the center of the framework represents a critical linkage to organizational success - the link of the leadership triad to the results triad. Furthermore, the arrow indicates the central relationship between leadership and business results. Leadership must keep its eyes on business results and must learn from them to drive improvement. Critical to the effective management of the organization and to a fact-based system for improving company performance and competitiveness is information and analysis (Category 4). Information and analysis serve as a foundation for the performance management system (NIST, 2000).

Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award framework

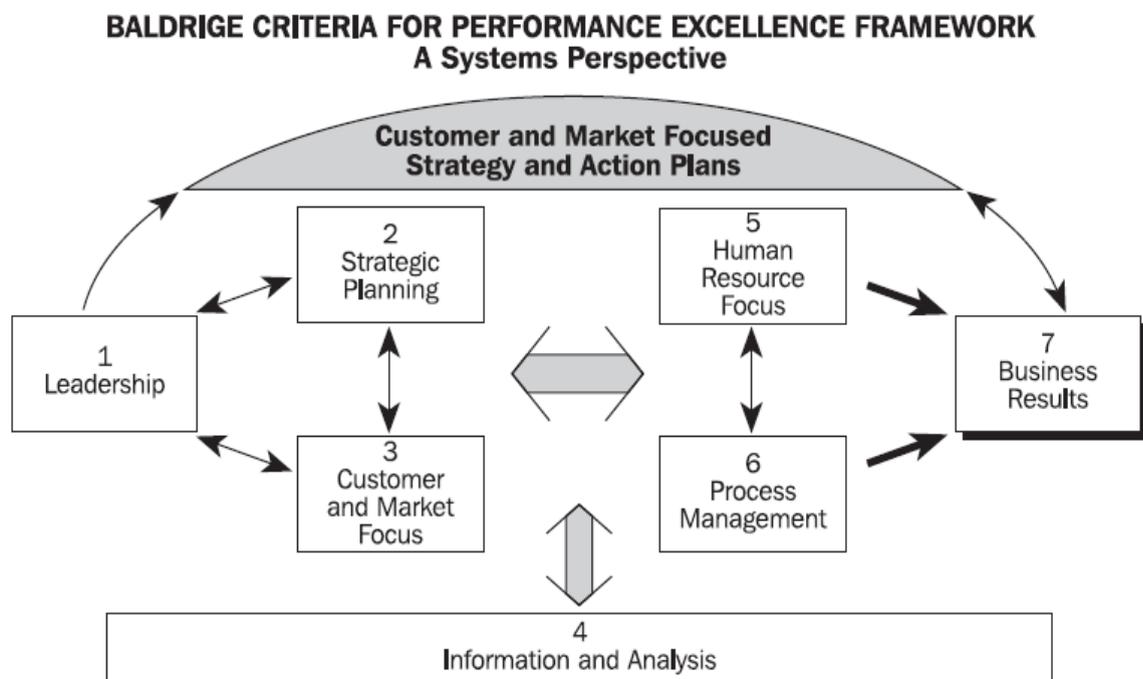
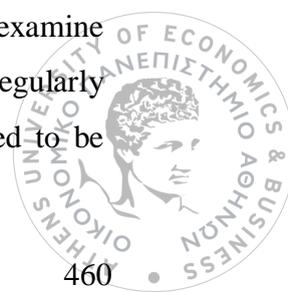


Figure 5: Baldrige Award Criteria for Performance Excellence (NIST, 1999)

Each of the major categories of the Baldrige criteria can be correlated to individuals. As many organizations perform periodic self- assessments against the Baldrige criteria, individuals can also periodically assess their own processes and performance against these modified criteria. The self-assessments can be used as the basis for revised strategic plans for continuous improvement (Vokurka, 2001).

The leadership category examines how an individual addresses values and performance expectations as well as his/her responsibilities to the public. An individual needs to examine his/her personal leadership by assessing how directions are set and performance is regularly reviewed. Personal responsibilities to the public and support of the community need to be examined.



The strategic planning category examines an individual's strategy development process including the setting of strategic objectives, action plans, how plans are deployed, and performance is tracked. The strategic direction of an individual needs to be used in determining and more fully developing his/ her competitive posture. A strategic planning process should lead to an action plan for excellence. Measures need to be developed that project future performance excellence.

The customer and market focus category examines how an individual determines the requirements, expectations, and preferences of his/her customers and how he/she builds relationships with customers and determines their satisfaction. The needs and expectations of customers need to be correlated to current capabilities and then used to develop new opportunities. The determination of customer satisfaction needs to be defined to be able to measure the fulfillment of customer requirements.

The information and analysis category examines an individual's performance measurement system and how he/she can analyze performance data and information. An individual should examine the use of an effective measurement system for aligning priorities and driving performance improvement.

The human resource focus category examines how an individual develops and utilizes his/her full potential, aligned with his/her personal objectives. An individual should examine how he/she encourages him/herself and associates to help achieve performance and learning objectives. An assessment needs to be made as to how education and training key processes change in his/her life and partnering interactions.

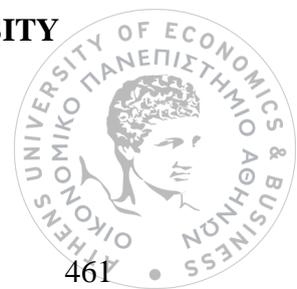
The business results category examines an individual's performance and improvement in key business areas and relative to competitors. An individual needs to monitor and document key operational performance results that significantly contribute to key individual goals, customer satisfaction, operational effectiveness, and financial performance.

In the same way that this framework works as a personal self-assessment tool the other two quality awards meaning Deming's Prize and the European Quality Award can be used respectively. The compositions of their criteria form the basis of assessment and self-assessment of organizations; they are based on the principles of TQM and are quite similar (Spiridonov & Chikurov, 2013).

METHODOLOGY: APPLICATION OF QUALITY TOOLS IN A UNIVERSITY CLASS

Research Questions

The Project's keys issues were expressed through two basic research questions:



- Do students have a positive attitude toward the importance and implications of personal quality?
- Do they agree with the use of quality tools such as Pareto/ the Deming cycle / the cause and effect diagram to facilitate the implementation of their personal quality?

For the purpose of these questions the application of specific quality tools followed in the form of project assignment in class. Students had the possibility to choose one quality tool between Pareto, Cause and Effect diagram and the Deming Cycle to describe a personal improvement experience. After the assignment was completed, the lecturer shared lessons learned during class.

Description of Quality Tools

a. Pareto

Pareto's Principle was first introduced by Vilfredo Pareto, an economist of the 19th century. Pareto noticed that every year 20% of the pea pods in his garden produced approximately 80% of the peas. This observation caused him to think about uneven distribution. He observed that people in his society seemed to divide naturally into what he called the “vital few,” the top 20% in terms of money and influence, and the “trivial many,” the bottom 80%. He also discovered that 80% of the land in Italy was owned by just 20% of the population. He investigated different industries and found that 80% of production typically came from just 20% of the companies. The 80/20 principle has historically been most popular in business management situations. For example businesses often found that roughly 20% of their customers brought in 80% of their sales. The 80/20 Principle became a popular management tool that was used widely to increase efficiency and effectiveness within many industries. It was not a surprise that the 80/20 Rule became also a helpful tool of time and life management.

The 80/20 Principle states that 80% of the output or results will come from 20% of the input or action.

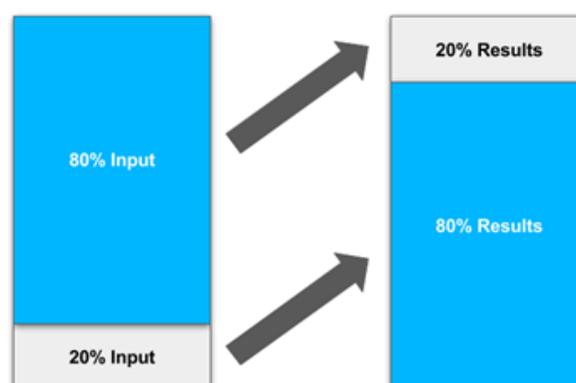


Figure 6: The Pareto Principle

b. Deming (Shewhart) Cycle

This cycle was designed by Walter Shewhart and popularized by Edwards Deming in the 50's when he travelled to Japan to help rebuild their industry after World War II. It soon turned famous, and became the structure of many quality methodologies like Lean, Six Sigma and ISO 9001.

The Plan-Do-Check-Act (PDCA) is a four-step model, an integral part of process management as the cycle represents one complete step of improvement. The ISO 9001 quality management standard specifies use of the PDCA model for managing processes and creating process oriented thinking. It is used to carry out a change or to realize an improved, envisioned situation. It emphasizes and demonstrates that improvement programs must start with careful planning, must result in effective action, and must move on again to careful planning in a continuous cycle.

The PDCA cycle is more than just a tool; it is a concept of continuous improvement processes (Fig. 7) embedded in the organization's culture. The most important aspect of PDCA lies in the "act" stage after the completion of a project when the cycle starts again for the further improvement (Sokovic, Pavletic & Pipan, 2010). When process improvement starts with careful planning, it results in corrective and preventive actions supported by appropriate quality assurance tools which lead to true process improvement (Scholtes, 2003). It is a strategy used to achieve breakthrough improvements in safety, quality, morale, delivery cost, and other critical business objectives. The completion of one cycle continues with the beginning of the next and so the Deming's quality cycle is never-ending.

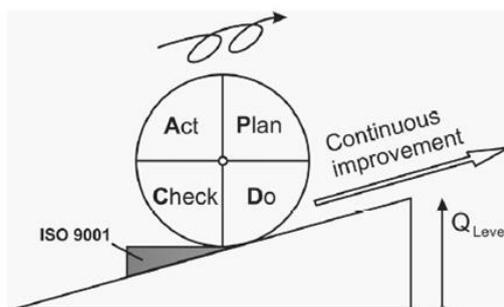
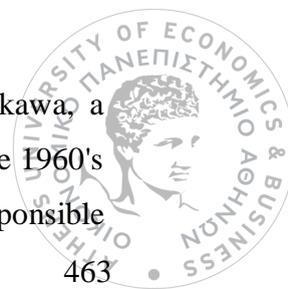


Figure 7: PDCA cycle in a continuous improvement process

By means of stages: The methodology begins with planning for the change (Plan Phase), then carrying out the change (Do Phase), then analyzing the results and identifying what has been learned (Check Phase), and finally taking action based on what has been learned (Act Phase).

c. Fishbone (Cause and Effect Diagram)

The Fishbone (also known as Ishikawa Diagram) is a tool created by Kaoru Ishikawa, a Japanese quality control statistician, the man who pioneered the use of this chart in the 1960's (Juran, 1999). Dr. Kaoru Ishikawa directed the works of Deming and he was also responsible



in recommending the individuals who would qualify for the Deming Award. Because of the function of the Fishbone diagram, it may be referred to as a cause-and-effect diagram (Watson, 2004). This Cause and Effect diagram shows systematic relationship between a result or a symptom or an effect and its possible causes. It is an effective tool to systematically generate ideas about causes for problems and to present these in a structured form. The problem or effect is displayed at the head or mouth of the fish. Possible contributing causes are listed on the smaller “bones” under various cause categories. A fishbone diagram can be helpful in identifying possible causes for a problem that might not otherwise be considered by directing the team to look at the categories and think of alternative causes.

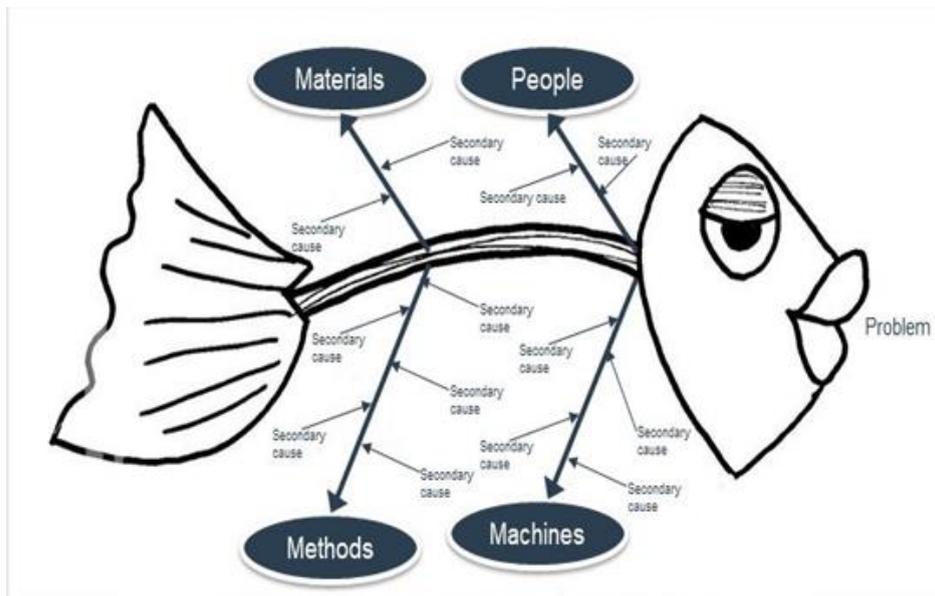


Figure 8: Fishbone (www.toolshero.com)

Ishikawa initially detected four basic cause categories which were people, machines, materials and methods. The categories are presented below:

- People as a category includes anyone involved in the process. The category concern all causes created by human actions meaning actions related to issues such as communication, understanding of people’s assignments, employees sufficient involvement, experience and relevant training etc.
- Machines include equipment, computers, tools, and anything required to accomplish the job. This cause is related to the functioning of machines, tools, installations and computers. It is also related to whether there is correct use of equipment and machines, safety, conformance to specific requirements, reliability etc.
- Materials include raw materials, parts, pens, paper, etc. used to produce the final product. This category of causes is all about the materials used meaning the Quality and quantity of raw materials and consumables. Issues related to resistance of materials used, their external issues and their period of duration etc.

- Methods refer to the process performed and the specific requirements, such as policies, procedures, rules, regulations and laws. This category investigates whether possible causes can be found in the work method; are the work processes adequate; how the cooperative arrangements are organized, how employees and departments communicate with each other, etc.

Ishikawa diagram application areas are continuously expanding as it is a root cause analysis and problem solving tool that can be used in any sector. For example, nowadays the method is also being applied in the medical field (Wong, 2011).

As sectors can differ tremendously from one another, it is possible to extend or change the root cause categories. That is to say, specialized work in the fields of Quality Management and Quality Engineering show different patterns of Ishikawa diagrams. One very used pattern adds for example as key cause categories the measurements and the environment. Measurements are related to data generated from the process that are used to evaluate its quality while environment refers to the conditions, such as location, time, temperature, and culture in which the process operates.

The structure provided by the diagram helps team members think in a very systematic way. It mostly includes team members who have personal knowledge of the processes and systems involved in the problem or event to be investigated.

Application of Quality Tools in class

a. Pareto

As part of their assignment students who chose the application of Pareto tool were asked 1) to give an example of the Pareto principle and then 2) to write down ways and actions of improvement based on the realization of the Pareto Principle they described in section 1. Some provided examples of the Pareto principle by the tutor were the following:

20% of the customers are responsible for the 80% of the profit earned by a company

20% of the most reported software bugs cause 80% of software crashes

20% of the complaints received come from 80% of the customers but it is also the other way round:

20% of customers make 80% of the complaints

20% of the richest people in the world have 80% of world's income

20% of patients account for 80% of healthcare spending

20% of the employees create 80% of the company's value.

80% of problems originate by 20% of projects



20% of my working team completed 80% of the work

80% of customers only use 20% of software features

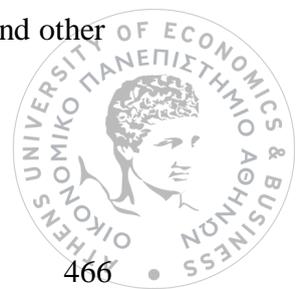
Students were practically asked what they could make today based on the 80/20 principle to improve themselves in different aspects. The guidelines from the tutor were the following: Use the Pareto as a lens to view aspects of your everyday tasks. Each of the tasks you may describe may take the same amount of time to accomplish. But one or two of those tasks contribute more value compared to others. If for example you have a list of ten items to do, it is very probable that two of those items will turn out to be worth as much or more than the other eight items put together.

Based on these assignment guidelines students presented the following personal examples:

- 80% of my clothes is worn 20% of the time
- My 80% of the time I eat 20% of food
- 20% of the emails I receive account for 80% of the important conversations
- 80% of my distractions come from 20% of sources
- 20% of my life's experiences provide 80% of my happiness
- 80% of my grocery bill comes from 20% of the items
- 80% of my income goes to 20% of things in your budget
- The 20% of the websites i visit deliver 80% the value
- 80% of the pleasure comes from 20% of the TV shows you watch
- 20% of my tasks bring me 80% of the results in a specific business goal
- 20% of my tasks give me 80% of the pleasure in my job
- 20% of the sources I read provide 80% of the value

And then based on the request of the teacher about the actions needed students described the actions taken. Examples of these are presented below:

- I like 20% of the shows I watch. Based on the fact that 80% is not good enough for me I quitted them and tried to find more of the ones I liked
- I have to focus on 20% of the goals that will achieve 80% of the results I want to have. In order to achieve this I have compare the resources needed – time, money, energy, etc. – to the potential benefits
- The 20% of my habits create 80% of satisfaction in my life. I have realized that this rule is valid for the identification of two factors: meditation and exercising. These two factors bring the 80% of satisfaction in my life.
- 20% of my files use up 80% of the space so in order to correct this I have to find other ways of storage or delete the unwanted big files which I do not need and use

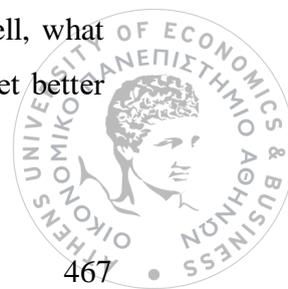


- I use 20% of applications (in both computer and phone) 80% of the time and in the same way I use 20% of the gadgets 80% of the time. What is needed is to sell gadgets which are not needed and delete the unwanted applications.
- I used 20% of my wardrobe 80% of the time. I donated most of it, which simplified the choosing process since I have fewer options every morning
- I read 20% of the blogs and newsletter that I subscribed to. I decided to delete the remaining 80% and switched to a “Just in Time” consumption of information deleting 90% of all the newsletters, RSS Feeds and blogs I read.
- A few of my hobbies (television shows and video games) accounted for 80% of my time, but only brought me 20% of my fulfillment so I turned to sports.
- 20% of my friends provide 80% of support and enjoyment. Had to think and assess which friends brought me joy and I enjoyed spending time with them.
- 20% of the foods consumed lead to 80% of weight gain so I had to write down which are these food addictions causing the problem. My list included fast food, chips, chocolate, alcoholic drinks etc. So I chose one the one I couldn’t do without and switched to all the rest to healthier alternatives.

In his research into the productivity habits of high achievers, Kevin Kruse interviewed hundreds of self-made millionaires, straight-A students and even Olympic athletes. For them, handling every task that gets thrown their way—or even every task that they would like to handle—is impossible. The use of Pareto can help them determine what is of vital importance (Kruse, 2016). In the same way the use of Pareto by university students helped them reconsider what is important to them and what needs to be discarded and radically changed in their life framework.

b. Deming (Shewhart) Cycle

The tutor asked the students who chose to analyze a task based on the PDCA cycle to think about the final outcome they want to achieve or the problem they wish to deal with. Students in this phase need to decide which improvement they need to follow. Then they need to set measurable and attainable goals, and a strong why that empowers them emotionally. So in “Do” phase they will have to implement the plan and with doing so the plan meets reality. In this phase they start with a new behavior and/or stop an old behavior. The next step is to check the results and do the analysis of where the change leads them. The check step is not about auditing, but about reflecting. That’s why also the third phase instead of check swaps many times with study. Students should convert data into information, so they can draw final conclusions and insights and act accordingly. In the check phase they analyze which things went well, what didn’t go as planned and expected, and what could have been done differently to get better results.



The last step in the PDCA cycle is acting based on the conclusions they got from using the cycle. If the change brought the wanted results students should consider persevering. If the change didn't work as expected and had negative effects, they have two choices. They can either go back to their old behavior (restore) or they can pivot to something completely new. The cycle never ends and it follows the process of continuous improvement. The very important part for students comes to the act phase as simultaneously they will enter the new PDCA cycle and already plan a new improvement and experiment.

So to conclude referring to the actual questions of each phase:

- Plan is about what and why
- Do is about performing an experiment and testing
- Check is about analysis, reflection and introspection
- Act is about implementation and corrective action

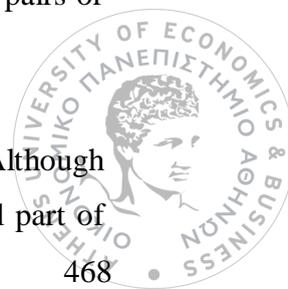
The typical projects described over the PDCA cycle by students are presented below:

Improving grade or study habits
Losing weight
Better time management
Improving writing skills
Improving communication skills
Improving health through exercise
Investing in future career

An example of project analyzed included the goal of passing a specific number of exams. The PDCA was developed by the student as follows:

- Plan: Doing well in this class will make a difference in my grade point average for this year and for my upcoming college application. The material makes more sense to me when I plan this with other students. So forming a study group will facilitate the effort.
- Do: I will get my group together systematically in a quiet place that will allow the study group to focus on studying. I will invite idea exchanges among all members of my study group.
- Study: After exam grades are available, we will all get together to check in on everyone's test performance.
- Act: If results of my study approach suggest I would be better off meeting in pairs or smaller groups, I will make the adjustment before the next exam or project.

Deming believed in the value of making things better with constant effort over time. Although the PDCA model focuses on business and industry, quality commitment is a natural part of



people's personal lives. The application of PDCA cycle in a class of students proved it can definitely be applied on a personal basis and second it can address important concerns, problems and issues which have important and repeated effects on students.

d. Fishbone (Cause and Effect Diagram)

The tutor while analyzing the method of creating fishbone gave the following instructions:

This application of quality tool can be done in any possible issue. Students can choose to depict fishbone diagrams concerning any problem related to their personal life. It all should start with a large piece of paper on which the fishbone will be drawn. The steps are the following:

1. The problem, in which the analysis is to be performed, is written at the top of the paper.
2. Each participant mentions any possible cause for the problem and states in which category the problem belongs. All the listed causes are included in the Fishbone Diagram.
3. This process is continued until no more possible causes are mentioned.
4. The Fishbone Diagram is critically studied so each student will see whether the possible causes have been entered in the right category and/or whether certain causes are related or derived from other causes.

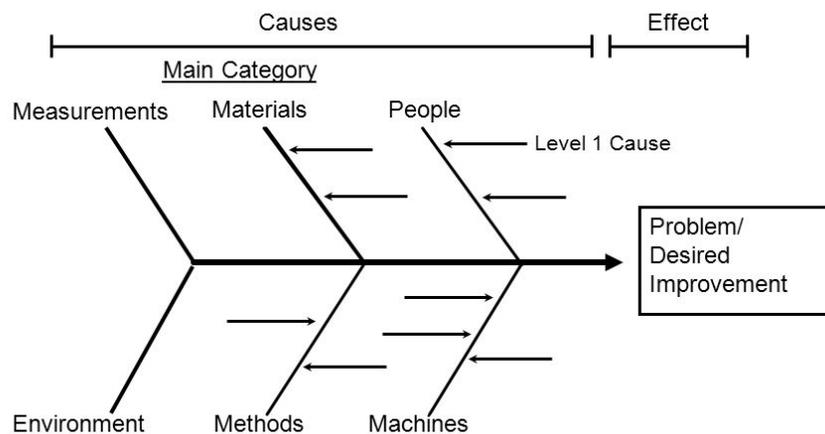


Figure 9: Fishbone Diagram (analytical form)

Based on these guidelines different cause and effect diagrams were produced concerning various issues ranging from how to achieve a healthy life till resigning from work. There were also more simple cause and effect diagrams like drinking bad coffee or receiving bad academic records. Here two cause and effect diagrams related to getting late to work and losing an important deadline are presented in the exact way were presented by students.

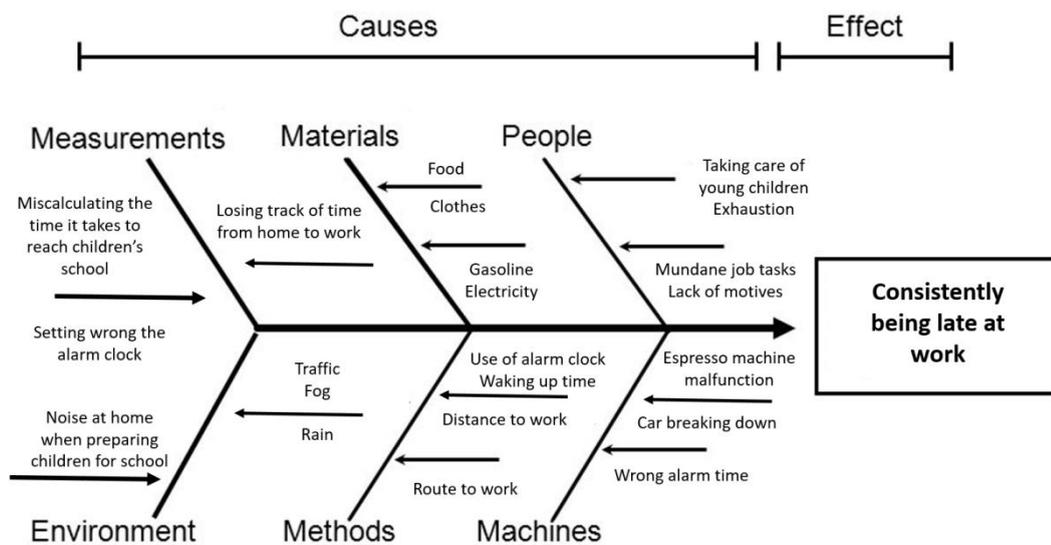


Figure 10: First example of implementing the Fishbone Diagram

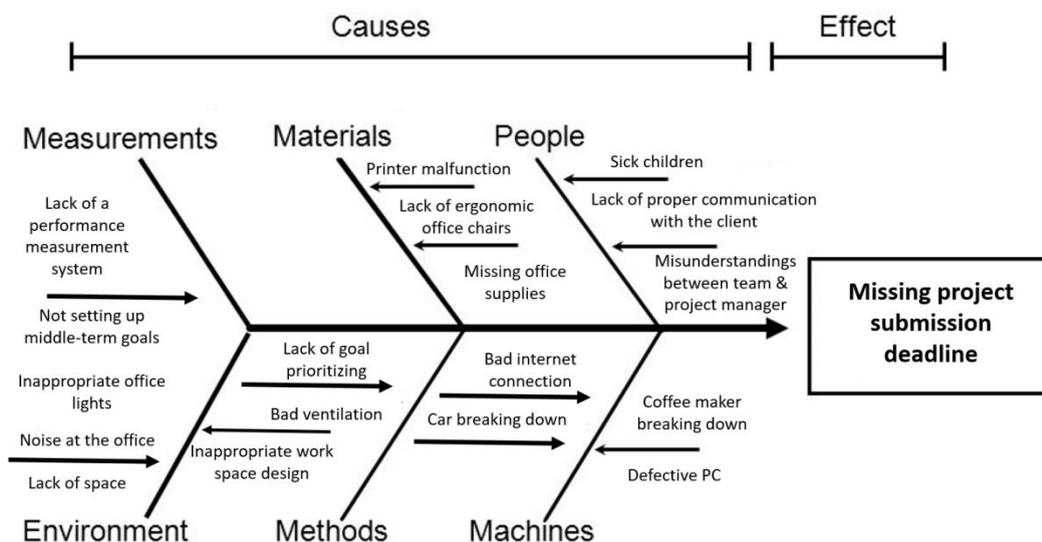
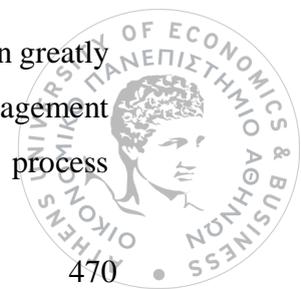


Figure 11: Second example of implementing the Fishbone Diagram

Based on the participants' experience some of the benefits of constructing a Fishbone diagram are that it helps to determine the root causes of a problem or quality characteristic using a structured approach, it encourages group participation and utilizes group knowledge of the process and identifies areas where data should be collected for further study (Basic Tools for Process Improvement, 2009).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The paper shows that quality management tools have complementary strengths that can greatly enhance the ability to improve performance through learning perspectives. Quality management tools and concepts are particularly useful working in the operational domain of process management and improvement.



The learning from participation in this type of experience depends upon the commitment of the participants. This project helped in getting a first view of the importance and implications of personal quality in general and the use of quality tools on a personal basis in particular. Participants after receiving adequate knowledge on the use of quality tools such as Pareto Principle, the Deming Cycle and the fishbone they could understand that the essence of using quality tools is clearly one: systematic improvement. So the whole experience offered students guidance in the area of personal quality improvement. One key lesson most participants took with them was that the implementation of any quality tool application requires skills, will and commitment.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

It is obvious that quality is personal, and according to many researchers, it is the basis of Total Quality Management at the workplace. However, the researcher found there is a lack of exploratory research with respect to the use of quality tools on a personal basis.

As mentioned in the above section, and after conducting the application of the TQM tools in a university class, there should be more descriptive surveys to be conducted, with interviewees from all sectors and fields to analyze and study in depth the personal quality topic and its importance and implications on the quality at the workplace, and the need for the use of quality tools on a personal basis. In addition, in order to better understand deeply the importance and benefit of the use of those tools, extensive study can be made in one particular industry, for example Higher Education related to all University Stakeholders.

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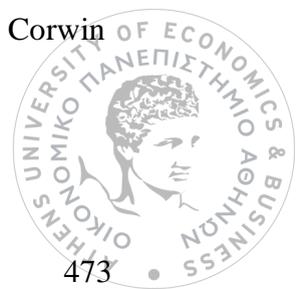
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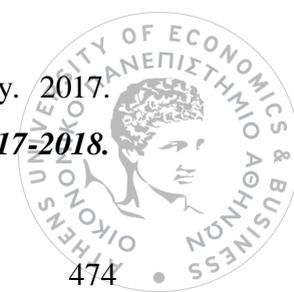
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4. ENTREPRENEURSHIP BEYOND BUSINESS: THE POTENTIAL OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP THEORY INSIGHTS IN UNDERSTANDING INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS PHENOMENA

R. Pedi, K. Sarri

Abstract

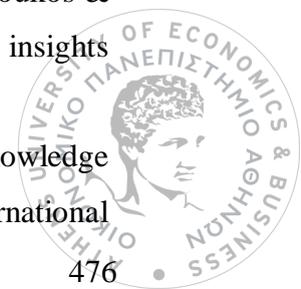
The aim of this paper is to explore the potential of Entrepreneurial Behaviour in the discipline of International Relations. Following recent research efforts in the Entrepreneurship discipline which call for extending the impact of entrepreneurship research beyond the domain of business and others in the International Relations field that support a further engagement with Entrepreneurship scholarship we propose that there is a specific pattern of state behaviour that can be conceptualized as entrepreneurial behaviour. To support our argument we show how entrepreneurship insights can help us enhance our understanding of the small but smart state behaviour. Our approach contributes to the interdisciplinary research on Entrepreneurship and International Relations, opens new opportunities for research and provides policy-makers with a new line of thinking about change.

Keywords: *Entrepreneurship; International Relations; Small States; Small but Smart State*

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship has gained considerable legitimacy as an academic discipline of its own during the last decades (Lumpkin, 2011), while nowadays it is a major trend intellectually, socially and in the economy (Pozen, 2008). Prominent academics from the entrepreneurship field have encouraged the engagement of entrepreneurship with other disciplines (Lumpkin, 2011; Sarasvathy and Venkataramanan, 2011). Political scientists have also drawn on entrepreneurship premises, and literature on political entrepreneurship is burgeoning (Aflaki et al. 2015). To this background Miles (2015:134) argues that “FPA [Foreign Policy Analysis] and political entrepreneurship scholars have, in many ways, been addressing similar research puzzles...associated with policy change and continuity, but have simply been using different language (or keys) to open them.” Indeed International Relations scholars have used the concept of the entrepreneur in order to explain the actions of innovative leaders or changes in international affairs (Checkel, 1993; Moravcsik, 1999; Carter and Scott, 2010; Blavoukos & Bourantonis, 2012; Miles, 2015). Yet, scholarship that engages with entrepreneurship insights remains sporadic and scattered in the International Relations discipline.

The aim of this paper is to explore whether Miles (2015) is right and therefore knowledge gained in the entrepreneurship field can be shared and be useful in the field of International



Relations. We argue that there is a special type of state behaviour that can be conceptualized as entrepreneurial pattern of behaviour and we suggest that International Relations researchers have a lot to gain from a further engagement with entrepreneurship scholarship, as its main constitutive elements, namely opportunity, change, innovation, value creation, have been hardly explored in the discipline of International Relations.

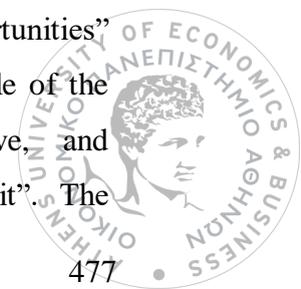
In order to support our argument we present a new line of thinking about the “small but smart state” idea, based on entrepreneurship insights. Our novel and interdisciplinary approach enhances our understanding of small state capacities and is useful, in both theoretical and policy-making terms, for exploring how states with limited resources manage to survive and accomplish their goals in an anarchical and competitive international system.

In what follows, first we briefly discuss the main approaches to entrepreneurship and entrepreneur concepts, delineate their key elements. We then present the arguments for extending entrepreneurship from its business roots and its use to other disciplines followed by a brief look at the ways entrepreneurship insights have been employed by International Relations scholars and we present a new line of thinking about the specific kind of state behaviour that can be conceived as entrepreneurial behaviour. Finally, we show how this perspective is able to enhance our understanding of the “small but smart state” in the context of the international relations discipline. We suggest that incorporating entrepreneurship knowledge into International Relations discipline can provide a new perspective for thinking about Entrepreneurship in both academic and policy making terms and also new opportunities for interdisciplinary research.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK & ANALYSIS

Entrepreneurship in Business and Beyond

The theory of entrepreneurship focuses on the heterogeneity of beliefs about the value of resources (Alvarez and Busenitz, 2001: 756) and it is usually associated with the creation of a new business organization or the growth of an existing one. Entrepreneurship –the entrepreneurial function- can be conceptualized as the discovery of opportunities and the subsequent creation of new economic activity, often via the creation of a new organization (Reynolds, 2005). Due to the fact that there is no market for “opportunities”, the entrepreneur must exploit them, meaning that he or she must develop his or her capabilities to obtain resources, as well as organize and exploit opportunities. Entrepreneurship is “a process by which individuals –either on their own or within organizations- pursue opportunities” (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990:23). Entrepreneurship is often discussed under the title of the entrepreneurial factor, the entrepreneurial function, entrepreneurial initiative, and entrepreneurial behaviour and is even referred to as the entrepreneurial “spirit”. The

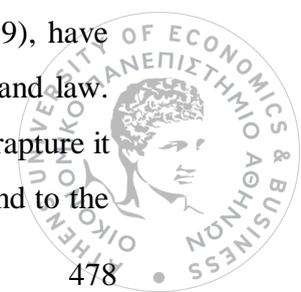


entrepreneurial factor is understood to be a new factor in production that is different to the classic ideas of earth, work and capital, which must be explained via remuneration through income for the entrepreneur along with the shortage of people with entrepreneurial capabilities. Its consideration as an entrepreneurial function refers to the discovery and exploitation of opportunities or to the creation of enterprise. Entrepreneurial behaviour is seen as behaviour that manages to combine innovation, risk-taking and proactiveness (Miller, 1983). In other words, it combines the classic theories of Schumpeter's innovative entrepreneur (1934, 1942), the risk-taking entrepreneur that occupies a position of uncertainty as proposed by Knight (1921), and the entrepreneur with initiative and imagination who creates new opportunities (Sarri et. al, 2012). Reference to entrepreneurial initiative underlines the reasons for correctly anticipating market imperfections or the capacity to innovate in order to create a "new combination". Entrepreneurial initiative covers the concepts of creation, risk-taking, renewal or innovation inside or outside an existing organization. Lastly, the entrepreneurial spirit emphasizes exploration, search and innovation, as opposed to the exploitation of business opportunities pertaining to managers (Cuervo Á. et al, 2007). All this may explain why entrepreneurship is described in different ways.

However, in general, as a field of study it suffers from a common among the Social Sciences malaise, namely that there is not a consensus among the entrepreneurship scholars on one and only definition of the concepts of entrepreneurship and the entrepreneur; different scholars have approached the entrepreneur from different and various perspectives (Sarri et. al, 2012), which can also be in conflict with each other (Westhead et al., 2011).

If we synthesize the different approaches and views we can get the main constitutive elements of entrepreneurship that we usually come across in the literature and which are: scarce resources, opportunity recognition/creation/exploitation, taking risk, uncertainty, change effectuation, creativity, innovation, and value creation (Sarri and Trihopoulou, 2018; Westhead et al., 2011). Moreover, scholars have also underlined the role that, among others, autonomy, proactiveness, responsiveness and adaptiveness to challenges posed by the environment and competition play in the entrepreneurial orientation (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996).

Although the vast majority of entrepreneurship literature focuses on business, there has also been a proliferation of the use of the entrepreneur concept in other social sciences, mainly in the American academic world (Pozen 2008). Indeed, concepts like those of the social entrepreneur (Martin and Osberg, 2007), the norm entrepreneur (Finnemore and Sikkink, 1998), the political entrepreneur (Aflaki et. al, 2015), the moral entrepreneur (Posner, 1999), have become popular among scholars in disciplines, such as sociology, political science and law. Although, all the above concepts are based on the notion of the entrepreneur, they enrapture it in different ways that do not match with each other and they do not always correspond to the



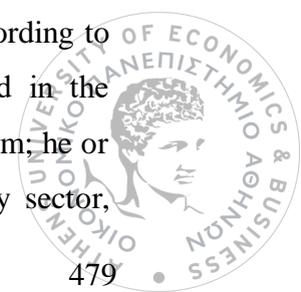
mainstream entrepreneurship literature; yet, what all have in common is that they depict the entrepreneur as change agent.

More recently, prominent figures in the field of entrepreneurship have suggested that we should treat it as something more than a "sub-discipline of economics or management" (Sarasvathy and Venkataraman, 2011: 114) and seek to find how it informs life (Lumpkin, 2011). For Sarasvathy and Venkataraman (2011:125), there is a "distinct method of human problem solving that we can categorize as entrepreneurial." According to them entrepreneurship as a "phenomenon may hide a generalized method capable of changing the way we live, work and play, and transforming the courses of the careers we build, the shapes of the communities we live in, and the evolution of the socio-political and economic systems we are part of." (p.115). Lumpkin (2011:5) argues that a critical question entrepreneurship scholars have to ask is "how entrepreneurial knowledge can contribute to understanding goal accomplishment and human achievement generally... What is the role of opportunity identification and creation, innovativeness and competitiveness, risk-taking, and autonomy in human accomplishment, in the purposeful enactment of all types of personal and organizational goals?" In other words he seeks to find "what the impact of acting entrepreneurially has on outcomes outside of business" (p.7). Interestingly enough, both these works do not refer on the burgeoning literature on entrepreneurship in other scientific disciplines.

Therefore, although entrepreneurship insights and terminology have been broadly used in areas of inquiry beyond business there is not a systematic research agenda on entrepreneurship in these areas; the different efforts have little in common with each other and they are rarely in dialogue with the classic scholarship on entrepreneurship. There is not a sense of an interdisciplinary research community investigating entrepreneurship. However, what can be conceived as a common ground among the various approaches to the entrepreneur is an emphasis on opportunity, creativity, innovation, change and accomplishment. In this sense and given the weaknesses of such an approach the concept of the entrepreneur can help various endeavors to explore change and accomplishment in many different disciplines beyond business.

Entrepreneurship in Politics and International Relations

Petridou, et. al (2015) whose work focuses on entrepreneurship in politics have managed to capture the essence of these approaches in their definition of political entrepreneurship. Despite the great diversity in the approaches to the concept of the entrepreneur, according to them (2015:1-2) "[A] political entrepreneur is a special kind of actor, embedded in the sociopolitical fabric, who is alert to the emergence of opportunities and acts upon them; he or she amasses coalitions for the purpose of effecting change in a substantive policy sector,



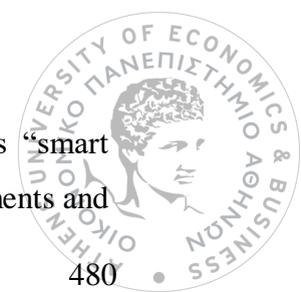
political rules or in the provision of public goods.” They associate “[E]ntrepreneurial action in the polis, much like in market entrepreneurship ” with creativity, innovation and profit, which in the context of the polis is political profit. The crucial question then, in the context of this paper, is how this line of thinking fits with research in International Relations.

Although economic theory has had a great impact on shaping thinking in the International Relations discipline, i.e. in the case of Waltz (1979) and his seminal work *Theory of International Politics*, the use of entrepreneurship insights and of the concept of the entrepreneur is limited and sporadic. There are only a few efforts that engage with entrepreneurship, beyond the concept of the “norm entrepreneur” (Finnemore and Sikkink, 1998; Ingebritsen, 2002); however, each of them holds a different perspective and scope (Frohlich and Oppenheimer, 1972; Checkel, 1993; Moravcsik, 1999; Carter and Scott, 2010; Blavoukos Bourantonis, 2012; Miles, 2015). For most of them the entrepreneurs are individual leaders or practitioners who follow innovative approaches, transform public's beliefs inside or outside their countries, break with past behaviour or perceptions, provide public goods. Thus, they investigate the ways political entrepreneurs at the domestic level influence policy change in the foreign policy domain.

These approaches make an effective use of the concept of the political entrepreneur, in order to understand change in the foreign policy of a state, yet we are interested in seeing whether there is more in the entrepreneurship field from which research in International Relations can be benefited. Observing that when studies employ the concept of the entrepreneur, it is rare to analyse choices at the state level, we look at this level of analysis and we seek to find what is the explanatory power of entrepreneurship insights for understanding states accomplishment in the international system. Our approach is based on the similarities of the issues that both International Relations and Entrepreneurship Scholars have tried to address, and which are the main concerns of both states and entrepreneurs in the area of business, on what Miles (2015:134) refers as common among FPA and political entrepreneurship puzzles. Miles does not name them explicitly. So in our understanding these are: the issue of survival, the fact that both states and entrepreneurs act as maximizers, both are concerned with cooperation and competition, with absolute and relative gains, both face structural constraints and they have to handle the difficulties of uncertainty and anarchy, of the lack of information and in many cases of the existence of scarce resources. Our focus is on the small states that accomplish their goals in the international system and are known as “small but smart” states.

Small State Smartness and Entrepreneurship

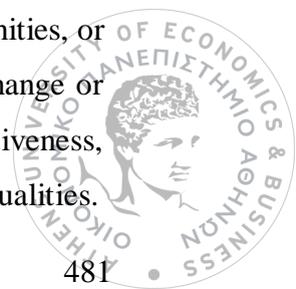
Smartness in International Relations literature is usually associated with Nye's “smart power” concept (Nye, 2008), which involves a mixture of hard and soft power instruments and



means that are used appropriately with regard to the respective context. However, small state scholars have taken a different approach; the use of hard power has been out of question for the field, with few exceptions, while the term soft power has been sporadically employed (Chong, 2009; 2010). Among Small State scholars, smartness means different things to different people. Joenniemi (1998), who introduced the smartness aspect in the field, underlines small states' ability to adapt, be influential and not having any of great powers' liabilities. Yet, his account of smartness is brief and mainly suggestive. Joenniemi makes an interesting point that became almost a cliché in the Small State field, but he does not provide any further analysis of it. Later, most of small state studies that focus on smartness make an implicit or explicit association between smartness and influence. Some of them highlight the steps of a “small but smart” state strategy (Arter, 2000; Grøn and Wivel, 2011). Others offer more general views such as that of Wivel (2010) who notes the importance of an environment that encourages innovation and of a strategy that adds value, as preconditions for success. Moreover, most of the studies that refer to smartness focus on the EU context. Only Joenniemi (1998), and Kouskouvelis (2015) put smartness in a broader perspective of bilateral relations, while Tarp and Hansen (2013) explore the smart ways in which Small States act within the United Nations. Thus, the “small but smart” state remains an important, popular but obscured concept. Its meaning is fluid and dependent upon the context of the analysis. Hence, its usefulness is diminished, as its use cannot capture the strategy of an influence maximizing small state at its entirety. Therefore, there is a need for further conceptualization of this strategy.

The “small but smart” state concept has been used by small state scholars, in order to identify the small state that maximizes its influence accomplishes its goals, that “punches above its weight” (Pedi, 2016). A small state usually “punches above its weight” through acting as a mediator, an honest broker, a policy or norm entrepreneur, an expert. Yet, to further unpack the “smartness” concept, we should ask how small states act in general terms, beyond their specific strategies and roles; in other words, to look for the elements that underpin all those strategies and roles.

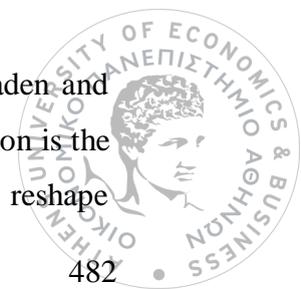
Smartness in the context of small state studies refers to an effective use of means to the attainment of a specific end, which is none other than the maximization of influence. Of course, influence is not an abstract end in itself; “small but smart” states want to enhance their position in the system and safeguard their specific interests. Based on an extensive literature review Pedi (2016) suggests that if a small state wishes to maximize its influence, to be a “small but smart” state, it should make an effective use of its limited power resources, act upon opportunities, or create them, and cooperate with others in order to serve its interests, bring about change or changes and create value for itself and for others. In this context, creativity, innovativeness, flexibility, adaptability, proactiveness, expertise and a good reputation are necessary qualities.



To this background, our proposal is that the notion of the entrepreneur as it has extended from its business roots can prove itself a useful concept for the study of the international relations of small states. Therefore the main constitutive elements of the entrepreneur are not different from those of the political entrepreneur, namely: opportunity, change, creativity, innovation and value creation (Pedi and Sarri, 2019). Moreover, scholars have also underlined the role that, among others, autonomy, proactiveness, responsiveness and adaptiveness to challenges posed by the environment and competition play in the entrepreneurial orientation (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). These traits are also prerequisites for the "small but smart" state strategy, as it was noted above. Furthermore, looking through the lens of the market entrepreneurship enables us to incorporate into our analysis competition and asymmetry of resources. In this context, Casson (1982:23) has defined the entrepreneur as "someone who specializes in taking judgmental decisions about the coordination of scarce resources.". Also, the theory of entrepreneurship focuses on the heterogeneity of beliefs about the value of resources (Alvarez and Busenitz, 2001: 756). Hence, this is another point that the entrepreneur concept shares with that of the "small but smart" state; optimum exploitation of limited resources. In other words, "smartness" becomes a synonym for the entrepreneurial strategy in the small state studies context.

Such an approach holds a series of advantages. It can help us systematize our findings and put some order in research on the "small but smart" state strategy, which seems to be growing in a haphazard and fragmented manner. In this context, it should be underlined that, in contrast with what Miles (2015) claims, the language of entrepreneurship is used extensively by small state scholars. We have already highlighted the central terms that the two fields share in my analysis. In addition, we would add Arter's (2000:691) view that small states are smart in the "sense of being enterprising" and that they are also marketing their ideas. Also, Browning (2006:679) argues that what matters nowadays is not so much the relative size of a state but "whether a state is innovative and active." In addition, Cooper and Shaw (2009:2) note that "[W]hat Small States lack in structural clout they can make up through creative agency." Furthermore, Rickli (2008) suggests that small states wishing to play a role in the post-Cold War security architecture should exploit relevant niches. These are only a few examples which show that small state scholars have captured the essence of the entrepreneurial action; yet they have lacked the framework that would allow them to describe, explain and test it in a systematic way.

Thus, by exploiting knowledge gained in the entrepreneurship field we can broaden and deepen our understanding of the successful small state strategy. Influence maximization is the outcome of entrepreneurial action, through which Small States seize opportunities to reshape



their environment, respond to systemic changes by adapting their policies, create something of value and serve their interests. Therefore, by looking at Small States which manage to enact changes in their regional or even in the international system level through the lens of the research on entrepreneurship we can comprehend the decisions, the actions and the motivation of the "small but smart" state as a self-interested state. In this context there are plenty of stories that can be retold; to name but a couple we would mention the change in the security policies of the Nordic States after the end of the Cold War and their contribution to the European Security architecture or the more recent cooperation between Cyprus, Greece and Israel in the Eastern Mediterranean.

III. CONCLUSION

Inspired by recent research on the entrepreneurship and political science fields which calls for a broader use of the entrepreneurial knowledge in human affairs with regard to the purposeful enactment of goals and the further engagement between entrepreneurship and International Relations as research disciplines we explored the value of using entrepreneurship theory insights to understand international relations phenomena. Based on the similarities between the "small but smart" state strategy and the concept of the entrepreneurial behaviour we propose that there exists an entrepreneurial pattern of behaviour in international relations. By demystifying the influence maximizing small state strategy we can make it available to even more Small States that wish to maximize their influence, as it becomes clear that it is not the privilege of some enlightened states, but the outcome of employing a certain problem solving method, namely entrepreneurial action. Thus, the concept of the entrepreneur contributes to a more comprehensive and thorough understanding of the "small but smart" state strategy.

The integration of insights from the entrepreneurship research field into the International Relations discipline provides us with new possibilities for research on opportunity, change, value creation, that have been hardly explored before in the context of the International Relations discipline. Furthermore, it is worth exploring not only what accounts for an entrepreneurial strategy in the International Relations context, but also whether it is related with the existence of entrepreneurial action in other social, economic or political domains at the domestic level and in what ways.

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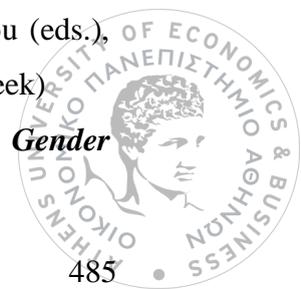
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5. IN US WE TRUST? FIELDS, NETWORKS, AND THE TRANSLATION OF CONTEXT INTO ORGANIZATIONS – THE CASE OF BANKING CAREERS IN AUSTRIA

Schneidhofer, T.M.; Hofbauer, J.; Mayrhofer, W. and Meyer, M.

Abstract

Organizations are embedded in various layers of context which influence organizational structures and processes and, in turn, are influenced by them. One interesting example of analysing these mutual dependencies is careers in organizations. Assuming that career fields that cut across organizations contain rules and regulations channelling career moves, the paper focuses on how career fields influence/get translated into organizations via social capital mechanisms, arguing that social networks are one core element in these translation processes. The paper uses the work of Pierre Bourdieu as conceptual background and the career field of banking in Austria as empirical illustration. It contributes to organizational theory and research in a threefold way: It (1) adds to the growing research on the usefulness of a Bourdieuan perspective to understand organizational phenomena; (2) develops the notion of career field; and (3) throws some light on the role of social networks in the relation between social fields and organizations by using a qualitative methodology.

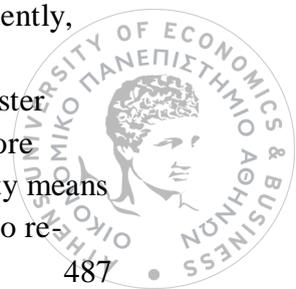
Keywords

Career; HRM; habitus; field; banking

Introduction

Organizations are embedded in various layers of context which influence organizational structures and processes and, in turn, are influenced by them. This truism of organizational research becomes more interesting when looking at various facets of this relation and the heavily varying degree of dependency and mutual influence. In some cases, the contextual dependency of organizations is strong: for instance, a supplier fully integrated in the production chain of a manufacturer. In other cases, organizations exert considerable influence on their environment or create large parts of it, as it is the case in globally operating companies that have significant effects on the local environment, e.g. in small nation states. Perhaps one of the most interesting examples of analysing these mutual dependencies is careers in organizations, an important element of human resource management (HRM). They are always contextualized and anchored in a specific social space (Collin, 2006), but they also shape the organizations, corporate cultures, and power relations within which they emerge.

There is considerable evidence that careers in organizations are increasingly influenced by factors outside the organization (Lawrence, Hall, & Arthur, 2015; Latzke, Kattenbach, Schneidhofer, Schramm, & Mayrhofer, 2016). First, there is the debate about employability replacing the more traditional long-term relationship between individuals and organizations (for an overview see Baruch, Szücs, & Gunz, 2014). Organizations seem to be less able and willing to offer long-term career perspectives, making careers more insecure. Consequently, increasing pressure is put on individuals to develop their ‘employability’, i.e. acquire marketable competencies. Frequent change of the employing organization is said to foster ‘employability’, since individuals expand their professional experience and acquire more diverse competencies when having worked with diverse employers. Such transferability means decreasing dependency on a single employer. On the other hand, it forces individuals to re-



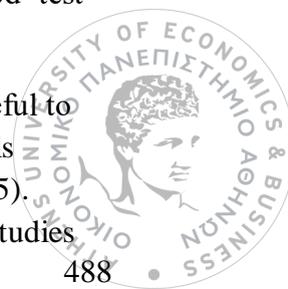
orientate themselves towards new instances of evaluation of their resources beyond the scope of the organization. Second, 'boundaryless careers' (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) seem to emerge that cut across organizational, professional and spatial boundaries. These careers often take place within, or in close relationship with, organizations, but are influenced only to a limited extent by organizations themselves. Third, communities of practice (Mutch, 2003) play an important part. Professions such as academics, medical doctors, or bankers develop their own standards about awarding recognition and regulating moves in the professional hierarchy. Fourth, externally generated rules are a core part of organizational decision-making. Organizations face increasing pressure to legitimize recruitment or promotion decisions in the light of non-discriminatory legal regulations or government subsidies linked to specific promotion and hiring practices.

Overall, rules and regulations outside the organization seem to heavily influence careers in organizations (for the nexus of context and career success see, e.g. Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Thanos, & Nikolopoulos, 2012). In return, careers co-generate organizational structures and processes. If one accepts that careers in organizations are strongly influenced by factors outside the organization and that they craft organizations in a co-evolutionary way, this raises the issue how contextual factors contribute to organizational dynamics.

This is the point of departure for this paper. Assuming that career fields that cut across organizations contain rules and regulations that channel career moves in these fields, the paper focuses on how the rules and regulations in career fields, i.e. externally generated rules, are translated into organizations. It argues that social networks are one core element in these translation processes, operating at the interface between career fields and organization. They communicate the rules of the career field to their members, e.g. by passing on information about available career paths and their prerequisites. Network members eventually refer to career-field rules when pursuing their own career.

The paper uses the work of Bourdieu as conceptual background and the career field of banking in Austria as empirical illustration. Bourdieu's conceptual frame rests on a multi-level approach linking individual and contextual factors increasingly used in career research (e.g., Lindh & Dahlin, 2000; Chudzikowski & Mayrhofer, 2011; Schneidhofer, Latzke, & Mayrhofer, 2015). Banking as a career field has been chosen for illustration because it is a typical example of the interplay of organizational and career field factors influencing organizational careers and the significance of career field-related rules and regulations for careers in organizations. Banking in Austria is dominated by a small number of crucial organizational players that know each other very well, which leads to a dense set of mutual relationships, dependencies and rules of reciprocity. Likewise, a significant amount of transparency about actors as well as rules and regulations in the field exists. However, there is no mechanistic use of these rules and regulations for decisions about careers in organizations. Due to the tightly knit set of relationships, actors apply them with reference to their relationships, their sympathies, existing debts and surpluses in reciprocal relationships and by considering the professional as well as private spheres. All this seems to provide a good 'test bed' for the purpose of this paper.

The paper makes three core contributions. First, it shows that Bourdieu's oeuvre is useful to understand organizational phenomena. Consequently, it indicates that his thinking tools deserve to be more than a 'ghostly apparition' in organizational theory (Townley, 2015). Second, it develops the concept of career fields. In contrast to most of organizational studies,



dealing with the intersection of organizations and their context through focusing on institutional, or organizational fields (e.g. Lounsbury, 2002; Delmestri, 2009; Ferguson, Groenewegen, Moser, Borgatti, & Mohr, 2017), the paper argues that social fields that cut across organizations, professions, and occupations provide interesting insights to the co-evolutionary dynamics of organizations and their environment. Third, it uses qualitative methodology to shed light on the interrelations between social fields, organizations and networks.

Conceptual background

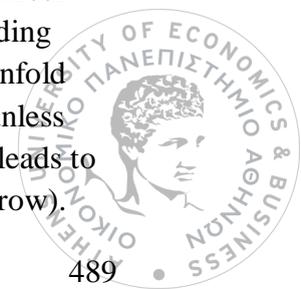
Fields of career

Labour is an invention of modernity (e.g. Conrad, Macamo, & Zimmermann, 2000). During the 19th century, social status became increasingly defined by labour, i.e. individuals were to earn their social status through education and/or work. As a consequence, qualification, skill and performance became more important than social origin. Moreover, the “pattern of a career actor’s positions and condition within a work related bounded social and geographic space over their life to date” (Gunz & Mayrhofer, 2018: 71), i.e. an individual’s professional ‘career’, became an important criterion for status assignment (Kohli, 1985; Castel, 2002).

Bourdieu’s concept of social field as a contested terrain, a network of relations of force, captures the dimension of struggle around the distribution of status (Bourdieu, 1985). Furthermore, it accounts for the fact that status is a relational category and rests upon the recognition by actors who are equally engaged in those struggles (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992). The most important asset in this respect is the distribution of resources or ‘capitals’, as well as in the classification of these capitals within a certain field. ‘Capital confers a power over the field, over the materialized or embodied instruments of production or reproduction whose distribution constitutes the very structure of the field, and over the regularities and the rules which define the ordinary functioning of the field, and thereby over the profits engendered in it’ (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992: 101). It is important to notice that capital is not restricted to economic capital only, but also encompasses other guises such as social capital, i.e. contacts which may be used for the establishment of strategic alliances in the game; or cultural capital, i.e. skills, or knowledge (Bourdieu, 1986).

The relative value of capital changes in the course of social games (such as careers), as it is influenced by situational factors, including the tightness of competition. Another set of influencing factors are changing external parameters of the game, such as the emergence of potential players with new types of stakes due to changes in the field’s environment, e.g. the educational system or the demands of the job market.

Against this background, career fields have been characterised as a social space within which individual members of the work force make their moves (Iellatchitch, Mayrhofer, & Meyer, 2003). Actors are equipped with a specific portfolio of economic, social and/or cultural capital which is valued as symbolic capital in the field, i.e. ‘career capital’ in a career field. Career capital allows its owners to maintain or improve their positions in the given and unfolding network of work-related positions. Given that careers themselves are not a field, but unfold within a field, core zones rather than entrances to career fields are mostly contested (unless e.g. economic development causes a significant rise in unemployment, or automation leads to restrictive recruitment policies of organizations and entrance paths to career fields narrow).



The rules of the field – in the short run more or less stable – assign a varying degree of appropriateness to different forms of habitus, i.e. dispositions to act and believe (Lahire, 2003). By doing this, they also influence the likelihood of individuals with a specific habitus reaching specific positions in the field. However, a moderate deviation – ‘an optimum misfit’ – can even be regarded as an advantage. As long as there is some basic compatibility with core rules of the field, deviations in some ‘minor areas’ can be interpreted as signs of ‘fresh wind’, ‘independence’ or ‘uniqueness’.

Concluding, career success is reflected in the rules of evaluation and recognition of capitals as career capitals and of a career habitus as ‘fitting’. There is an interconnectedness of capital and habitus, as e.g. actors who are granted access to social capital through titles and bourgeois social origin are encouraged to develop certain (elite) ambitions. Conversely, not getting access to career opportunities may result in deliberate resignation (whether you regard this attitude in terms of ‘sour grapes’, or not).

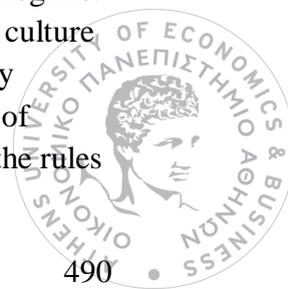
Organizations and field of career

Organizations and the field of career interact in manifold ways. Both organizations and the career field can be regarded as social fields which contribute to each other in establishing specific structures and rules (Emirbayer & Johnson, 2008). Organizations can also be perceived as corporative actors (Coleman, 1986) that also take part in the game of careers, for instance by providing their members with specific symbolic capital which will be converted into career capital. Different organizations are very differently recognized and valued in the field of career: being a middle manager in bank X can be valued more than occupying a CEO position in bank Y.

In addition to the traditional sorts of capital identified by Bourdieu, bureaucratic capital and informational capital (Bourdieu, 2005) are tied to hierarchical position and specific knowledge within an organization. The amount and the structure of this ‘organizational capital’ are linked to one’s position and power within the organization. An actor’s organizational capitals allow the access to supplementary resources and thus to power in order to enhance one’s position within the field of career. This happens both through the possibility to recognize career capital and the increase in capital one is able to invest within the field of career. The organizational capital acquired is more or less transferable to another organization. Its transferability, i.e. its degree of universality within the field of career, is an important aspect of its value.

Organizations may also influence the rules of the field of career. For example, specific public organizations, prestigious universities, big companies or pressure groups exert a significant influence on the rules of the career field. Therefore, they contribute to the evolution of the field, e.g. by recognizing and thus legitimating particular competences or modifying labor legislation.

Organizations, and especially corporations, are characterized by their formal constitution, their membership, their generation of member-independent interest and their particular rule regime. Though their rule regime, organizations may produce, or at least influence, patterns of culture and behaviour. Membership in an organization triggers socialization processes possibly affecting the habitus by developing a specific habitus (Vaughan, 2002). The influence of organizations on the field of career has two main facets: on the one hand, influencing the rules



of the field to further their own (economic) interest; on the other hand, the influence on the habitus of individual actors and thus their behaviour within the field.

The organizational field is field is dominantly composed by organizations, but also includes individual actors without formal organizational affiliation. By contrast, the field of career is dominantly composed of individuals. Yet, it also includes organizations as actors which may develop rules, in particularly about the recognition of career capital, which become relatively independent from the individuals in charge of their application. Nevertheless, distinguishing between individual and organizational impact can become difficult when looking at specific individuals closely tied to specific organizations – as can be seen, for example, in the case of Bill Gates or Oprah Winfrey.

Social networks, social capital and career capital

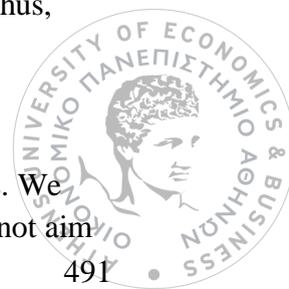
We argue that social networks operate at the interface between career fields and organization, translating career field rules for their members, who play career games according to those rules. Network relations are manifestations of social capital and a core element of career capital. However, they generate a particular kind of social capital. Constituted by relations of reciprocity and trust, they can reach far beyond group ties. Networks consist of social connections which actors eventually use to enhance their positions within the field of career (Bourdieu, 1983). Besides, networks themselves operate as arenas or media of social recognition among their members. Relations of reciprocity emerge in order to secure processes of symbolic translation of career capital. Symbolic value of membership in networks depends on the amount of symbolic capital attributed to the entire network, thus, network members establish rules and rhythms of give-and-take (Bourdieu, 1977). Concerning the specification of gifts-in-return as well as rhythm, i.e. the time lags between give and take, the dimension of trust comes in. Unlike rational choice-theoretical approaches, Bourdieu's actors are driven by their habitus rather than by a conscious calculus towards reciprocity.

Regarding the relationship between career field and organization, social networks act as hinges where translation procedures reveal their characteristics. With respect to this interface, social networks appear Janus-faced: First, network membership constitutes social capital which changes into career capital according to the rules of career fields, thus advancing actors' careers and bringing them in better positions. Second, network relations beyond organizational boundaries link organizations with career fields and introduce external rules into the field of organizations.

Habitus plays a major role for the constitution of network ties. In order to establish and maintain relations of reciprocity and trust, actors rely on the social judgments and expectations towards one another which they gained throughout socialization. Habitus is selective and enforces ties among actors of the same kind in various respects: e.g. social origin, education, professional experience, personality traits, etc. Social similarity enhances trust. It allows to leave the rules of reciprocity implicit (to the most part). Furthermore, they mediate two levels or dimensions of recognition, objective and inter-subjective relations of recognition. Thus, networks enforce field rules as they select members that fit in.

Methodology

Our empirical analysis illustrates the translation of career field rules into organizations. We analyse individual actors that make use of networks and networking practices. We do not aim



to provide a comprehensive analysis of the banking career field in Austria, but rather a clarification of the translation of career field rules into organizations. Specifically, we look at the creation, maintenance and use of social capital. We use this empirical study illustratively to highlight some key aspects of the conceptual dynamics mentioned above.

Sampling is based on the identification of people who have information about the respective process (Hornby & Symon, 1994: 169) and was done in a two-step procedure. First, we asked two top managers of the Austrian banking industry (focus persons, X_n ($n=1,2$)) to reconstruct their career history and to evaluate the relevance of networking for their subjective career. Regarding the latter, we asked them to give us three significant contact persons (Y_{n_xn1} , Y_{n_xn2} , Y_{n_xn3}) that played a significant role in their career. Based on this, we investigated the relationship between them and the respective focus person in a circular manner. Second, we interviewed the significant contact persons.

Overall, this led to eight narrative interviews with managers in the Austrian banking sector. The interviews with the focus persons were conducted using a guideline containing questions...

1. ...on the social background and career of the respondent, the significance of contacts during their career and their meaning at significant or critical stages in the career;
2. ...exploring the personal network of key nodes (focus persons) X_n ($n=1,2$);
3. ...about the relationships with Y_{m_xn} ($m=1, 2, 3$) and their own contributions to those relationships, e.g. why they considered inputs to the relationships with Y_{m_xn} ($m=1, 2, 3$) such as loyalty or experience as meaningful.

Interviews with the significant contact persons Y_{m_xn} ($m=1, 2, 3$) also explored the social background, career, contacts (see 1) and their relationships to X_n .

By researching the mutual perceptions of X_n ($n=1, 2$) and Y_{m_xn} ($m=1, 2, 3$) on their relationship, we were able to gain a relational perspective on the contacts and networks.

After reading the transcripts we coded each of them, and re-read the first interviews according to the results of the subsequent interviews. Eventually, themes emerged from these categories, and they were reconstructed with the help of Bourdieu's major theoretical pillars (field, habitus, capital). In this way we achieved an extensional generalization, meaning that the results do not only refer to the individuals we have interviewed, but also to the group the individuals may be attached to (Kaplan, 1973).

Findings

Facts, figures and history

The Austrian landscape for banking consists of seven types of banks, i.e. joint stock banks and private banks; savings banks; state mortgage banks; credit cooperatives; building and loan associations; special purpose banks; and member-state credit institutions. As of 2017, the banking sector employed 73,712 persons. Compared to 1995 (76,257), this is a considerable decrease in numbers. The total assets amount of balance sheet of all banks in Austria in 2017 was 948,9b euros, and the operating profit equated 6,6b (ÖNB, 2019). The market is dominated by five major players:

- Bank Austria-Creditanstalt (BA-CA), the largest bank and currently owned by the Italian UniCredit Group,



- Erste Bank, the largest Austrian owned bank (main shareholder: Erste foundation)
- Raiffeisen Central Bank (RZB), which is also Austrian property (cooperatives and regional banks), and, trailing somewhat behind,
- BAWAG/PSK, the former trade-union bank, now owned by US-located Cerberus Funds, and the
- Österreichische Volksbanken AG (ÖVAG).

They rank among the top 250 banks worldwide in terms of core capital and total assets. The heads of the major banks play an important public role, they are well connected, and they are a part of a tight-knit network of core actors heavily influencing political and economic decisions. Likewise, individuals at the second and third hierarchical level also know each other across organizational boundaries.

Career field rules and habitus

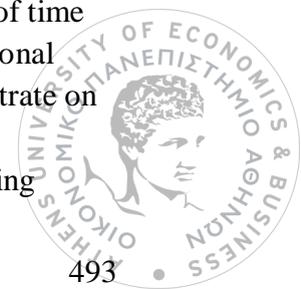
Career Field rules

The creation, maintenance and use of social capital in the Austrian banking career field follows clearly discernible and widely agreed rules, understood as patterns of conduct and rules for playing the game. How far these rules really structure the field of banking careers is part of the permanent struggle within the field, i.e. there is a competition of different rules and networks. This is expressed by one of respondents:

'...because we live in a very political world and since I know the bank very well, I also know very well the way it works. You have to look for proximity to K. (Bank CEO), you have to flatter and connect to certain persons... But I do not have this kind of aspirations. And maybe you meet some people who just appreciate people who don't go that way' (X₂, male).

Our respondents widely share a basic assumption about the crucial importance of contacts. Contacts are a source of relevant information for designing career practices, a safety net and they are personally meaningful, i.e. contribute to identity formation. Significantly, none of our interviewees had to undergo official recruiting processes, since the interview's favorable outcome was practically guaranteed. High performance at work over time and the appearance of a high commitment should suffice to make oneself known to decision-makers. Through family networks, contacts make sure that familial obligations do not interfere substantially with work. Specifically for women, investments in caretaking networks are an issue of 'survival' in the field, too.

Given the importance of contacts, it is hardly surprising that establishing as well as sustaining relevant social contacts is not left to individual efforts and sometimes coincidental circumstances, but governed by specific rules. Among these rules, one may first distinguish those concerning the establishment of contacts, i.e. rules for the accumulation of social capital. Acquaintances turn into strong ties under conditions of similarity of (professional) habitus, since the access to the network is managed by reputation, mutual trust and reliance. While our respondents are generally reluctant towards 'strategic networking', they deliberately and willingly take efforts to sustain relationships either in terms of extensive or focused networking. Respondents practising extensive networking invest significant amounts of time and energy in socializing, spreading contacts irrespective of the fact that their professional relevance remains open. Focused networking, in contrast, means an attempt to concentrate on significant ties, thus controlling investments in social relationships. According to our evidence, this is due both to satisfaction with the current network status and a decreasing



fascination with socializing. Another, strongly gender-specific reason for concentrating on significant ties is a lack of time due to caretaking responsibilities.

A second kind of rule is about sustaining contacts, i.e. preserving and making use of social capital. Whatever the nature of the network and the style of networking, the notion of reciprocity appears to be central for the relationships we found. Even though our respondents evoke some connections as close ties within their network, i.e. people whom they trust and with whom they established friendship, they are reluctant to ask for support. Nevertheless, they seem to share a notion of mutual support 'just in case'. Though it remains to be seen whether support will actually be granted when needed, network members feel quite 'secure' and 'relaxed' regarding job and career, as was expressed by some of our respondents:

'It is an important backing and a security net I always have with me. I know, I could say it is too much, I can't go on this way any longer at any point... without being a big problem for my future' (Y1_x2, female)

'I would always have the opportunity to ask for help and obtain it for sure' (Y1_x2, female)

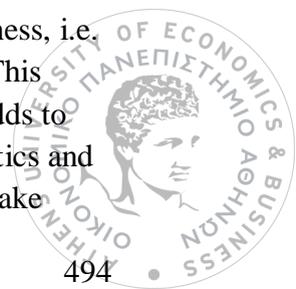
The idea of reciprocity within a network is related to the problem of establishing and continuously re-establishing the right balance within relationships. One interviewee perceived her unplanned pregnancy at an earlier stage of her career as a crack in the unwritten pact of reciprocity with the organisation.

'... I come back and I am pregnant, that was of course a disaster for me...since it was not planned at all; I thought I've just started working there, they took so many efforts for me to come here and now I fail' (Y1_x1, female)

At that time she had just been granted considerable support by her superiors. Though she was not blamed by anybody, she felt uncomfortable because of having received more than she could give. Her feeling of discomfort recalls the picture of a biased relationship between creditor and debtor, where the latter is not able to pay back in time. Relationships with other network members must not be debited too heavily in order to preserve the delicate balance between giving and receiving.

Similarly to the issue of entering the network mentioned above respondents invest in networking by showing outstanding performance. Even though they may not explicitly relate performance to networking, they seem to have a clear sense of the fact that through high performance they will approach fellow managers with a similar work ethos and profile. To prove oneself as a high performing manager justifies trust invested by other network members. Thus, calling for support would mean confessing a weakness – which implies a risk for one's reputation, i.e. a loss of symbolic capital.

Despite the differences of networking styles, the strong rejection by all respondents regarding strategic or 'careerist' networking practices hint at a common 'code of conduct'. Networking is associated with a kind of unwritten and implicit etiquette, saying that (immediate, obvious) personal benefits are to be avoided. Though our respondents are aware of the use of networking for making a career, they rather recognise networking for the sake of business, i.e. for their personal performance as well as that of the department and/or the company. This reservation concerning personal benefits, especially regarding further career moves, adds to the legitimisation of networking practices which basically rely on personal characteristics and efforts. Personal benefits through his/her network cannot be expressed openly, as to make



personal benefits the main incentive for networking would mean to exploit contacts and weaken or endanger the entire system of relations. By stigmatising such behaviour our interviewees implicitly (and most likely largely unconsciously) seem to opt for an alternative strategy, i.e. a code of loyalty and trustworthiness in order to sustain the network to which they owe their status and resources. Thus, they pursue a strategy which is personally beneficial in the end, though not in the first place, nor at first sight.

Habitus in the banking career field

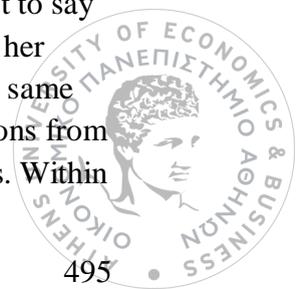
Banking career field rules also relate to career habitus. They emphasize what kind of habitus is regarded as appropriate, success-enhancing and a minimum requirement in order to have access to the game. Regarding general characteristics, a pattern of positive belief in oneself, linked with being authentic and being in control of one's own life and, as far as possible, one's environment, emerges. In terms of skill and competency-related predispositions, an interest in understanding complex relationships at the macro-level, a combined interest in 'facts and figures', as well as 'people' and good analytical-mathematical skills are prominent.

Openness represents an important element of respective habitus. The ability to communicate well in all kinds of situations, also with very high-ranking members of the organisation, is highly valued. At the same time, presenting oneself to others is characterised by a certain modesty in appearance and style – listen rather than talk, talk only if it is better than being silent. Nevertheless, this does not downgrade a strong sense of one's own importance. In all this, self-presentation is a controlled matter. Being aware of others' expectations and acting accordingly is important.

'... you always need to know in advance what others expect of you, set up your feelers in all directions and constantly watch around, what you can take from others and how you encounter others' (Y_{1_X1}, female)

Fast decision making and reducing complexity in decision situations is highly valued. This also implies being resolute, sometimes even brushing others off. However, this by no means includes an authoritarian or 'loner' type of decision making. On the contrary, having confidence in others, giving them the stage, and including them in decision making is frequently reported by interviewees. In terms of ambition, all of the interviewees are at the high end of the spectrum. Against the backdrop of a strong work-orientation, they are hard-working, industrious and constantly available, working long hours. While interviewees report an overt, clear career goal orientation and a high pressure to perform coming from oneself, they avoid giving the impression of being overambitious.

Here Bourdieu's notion of habitus is particularly useful, as it embraces the notion of incorporated skills that are applied in a strategic, but not necessarily conscious way. The interviewees present their propositions as a natural state of affair, and (more importantly) as the result of rational choice. Although a horizon for action remains, the similarity of the stories hint to the fact that the logic of the career field is embodied and guiding behaviour more strongly rather than emerging from a strategy with strategic intent. However, social background plays a less important role for accessing contacts than assumed. This is not to say that it does not play any role at all. For example, one respondent named a person from her network as a particularly strong tie relating to the similarity of values developed in the same social milieu. Nevertheless, our evidence also points towards strong ties between persons from middle class and upper middle-class backgrounds with persons from low status groups. Within



the chosen framework, we interpret this as the importance of similarities in habitus rather than social background per se.

'... and I was always aware ... that family is most important ... plus a similar religious background ... and basic values in life ... an intimate contact to nature ... having more or less grown up in the country, no matter whether under rich or poor conditions ... and diligence at work' (Y_{1_X2}, female)

Translation of career field rules into the organization: the role of social networks

We suppose that social networks play a double role in this context: first as an arena for the recognition of career capital, which is valued both by career fields and organizations; second as a transmission link between career fields and organizations, thus translating career field rules into the structures of the organizational field. We will turn to these two roles subsequently.

Capital provision function of networks

Compared with the translation function, the capital provision function of networks is more evident. As organizations increasingly rely on externally valued capitals, e.g. career capital as a field-specific combination and symbolization of basic capital equipment of individuals, membership in trans-organizational networks is specifically valued within organizations, too.

First, as shown with K's attempt to bring E into a top-position in a retailing company, networks help to bring loyal and trustful actors either into one's own organization or – even better – into very relevant other organizations, e.g. key customers. Second, social capital makes it easier for Austrian bankers to take more risk in internal power games. Networks provide members with alternatives and support:

'I think of too many people around me, friends of my family, where ... I guess it goes without saying that – my brother in law, for instance, who has a really good position in another bank (...) – and only the knowledge of him most likely, if I wanted, getting me a job in this bank, or a perfect recommendation to anywhere else, makes me happier and more secure here – knowing that there is nothing at stake.' (Y_{1_X2}, female)

Externally acquired social capital also serves as an effective means to strengthen one's position in internal conflicts. Actors use the safety net and the existence of job alternatives for offensively promoting their preferences in organizations and influencing decision processes. But network membership sometimes demands risky behaviour, as relations across organizational borders are preferred to loyalty within the organization:

'In case of doubt I rather trust more people, speaking with them strictly confidentially, informing them about certain issues, despite the danger of holes and treason.' (X₂, male)

Third, as a consequence, social capital facilitates inter-organizational mobility of actors. Networks enable actors to more easily move between organizations, and enlarge their career capital by job changes. In this respect, networks have a multiplying effect. Consequently, actors without any (or with weak) network integration are severely handicapped in the fierce competition for success in an organization, and across organizations.

Translation function of networks

Social networks have an influence on the translation (rates) of career capital into organizational capital, and thus provide a basis for success in organizations. They may even



undermine career field rules by bringing actors into dominant positions in organizations with, e.g., a lack of relevant cultural capital:

'... and then there was a further talk with K (Bank CEO) who told me that in this company (sic: furniture retailing) they look for a CFO, I talked with the head-hunter, and they were willing to take me, but then I said no, as I am not playing the controller, I have no idea about retailing, I did realize that it would have been too risky for me, I did not want to get caught on slippery ground – though the position was very attractive.' (X₂, male)

On the one hand, this example shows the manifold functions of networks. The network provides sources of power for K, an actor already in a dominant position. Bringing E into a favorable position elsewhere enhances his loyalty. This also shows, following Bourdieu (1976), how the obviously trustful relationship between K and E is also a matter of symbolic violence, legitimising and naturalizing the current structure of the field. The strategy of the dominant actor is to mobilize her trust capital in order to legitimise her authority. To be sure, this particular form of symbolic capital also supposes a trustful attitude of the dominant actor. Social capital potentially increases by bringing one actor of K's network into a powerful position elsewhere, in this case in an organization which is also an important client of the bank.

On the other hand, this example reveals that career field rules cannot be undermined that easily. E resists accepting the offer and rejects this attractive position. The risk E detected in this offer lay in the contradiction with rules about a certain level of qualification for a position, in order to minimize the danger of failing and thus losing precious career capital. The logic of accumulation specific to the field of career would have been endangered by accepting the position.

Organizational structures and rules regularly give ample scope for strategic behaviour of individual actors and networks. Networks are characterized by an integrated tendency to grow: The social capital available for network members will increase if other network members advance to more powerful and dominant positions. Due to the network members' tendency of establishing relationships, which increase their capitals, they control access to these networks or they adjust their network strategies in order to increase organizational and career capital simultaneously. These strategies are not intentional, but emanate from the career field. They are structured by the same procedures as the feelings of sympathy, competition, occupational interests, or social similarity. For the sake of their members, networks make use of the organizational scope by interpreting rules in a way that advances members – sometimes against the rules of the field.

Networks are also arenas for very specific exchanges of career capital. For instance, they introduce specific rules how to handle boundaries between work and private life come into organizations. Friends and network members are role models regarding the question how to deal with work-family conflicts or how to combine career and children – also exerting social control:

'... I really like her. Two or three years ago she got a child, but she is in the job again and we can perfectly talk about professional issues. Many of my other friends who got children and stayed at home with them and did not get back into the job, you cannot talk about anything with them but children, each single talk ends with their children.' (X₁, female)

This example also shows how networks may ‘avoid’ the gender aspect by requiring an alignment on a particular model, arguably a rather male one. In turn, this may have consequences for the way such an issue will be considered by the top management connected to the network.

Networks offer resources for the reproduction and increase of career capital for their members through the spread of information, know-how transfer concerning rules of conduct, sense of strategy, stakes, value etc. Thus social capital is converted into and valued by field-specific cultural capital. In this way, networks enforce existing (and often dominating) field rules as they select members who fit in.

Networks across organizational boundaries relate practices of members of different organizations. Thus, relations of recognition outside the bank can be more important than recognition by supervisors or others within the bank. Allegedly, these relationships appear to be based on feelings of trust, appreciation, even friendship – and not on the accumulation of career capital. All our interviewees distanced themselves from ‘careerist’ motives and stressed the importance of close relationships, even family-like bonds. This conceals the links between career field, networks and organization. Networks make use of the degrees of freedom left by organizational structures in order to bring their members in positions of domination, which simultaneously increases social capital, and thus career field positions of other members of the network. This reinforcing translation of career capitals into organizational capital and vice versa characterizes the function of networks between career fields and organizations. In this way, networks contribute to the reproduction of organizational structures, since having the ‘right habitus’ is a precondition for being selected within the network as well as within the field of career.

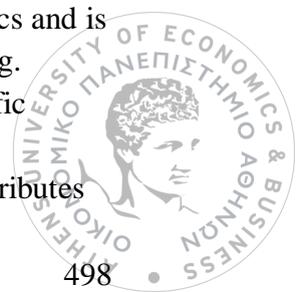
Discussion and Conclusions

This paper contributes to organizational and HRM theory and research in a threefold way: It (1) adds to the growing research on the usefulness of a Bourdieuan perspective to understand organizational phenomena; (2) it develops the concept of career fields.; and (3) sheds some light on the role of social networks in the relation between social fields and organizations by using a qualitative methodology.

Bourdieu and organization theory

Bourdieu’s concepts of the social field and capitals proved to be useful for the analysis of organization-environment relations. The application of the field concept on organizations both stresses their closedness in terms of autonomy of structures and rules, and their openness in terms of reliance on externally provides resources. Applied to the analysis of processes in organizations, a Bourdieuan perspective stresses the nature and the rules of the organizational game which define the capitals at stake and always leave enough open space for individual actors to – often unconsciously – apply their preferred strategies.

To understand organizations as specific social fields points towards these characteristics and is in perfect harmony with other perspectives more established in organization theory (e.g. Crozier & Friedberg, 1977). Additionally, organizations can be seen as actors in specific fields, too, e.g. in the field of Austrian banking. It was shown that comprehending organizations as corporative actors or as fields depends on the specific angle, and contributes to a more elaborated view on the interplay between organizations and the career field.



In explaining the interplay between environmental resources and organizational dynamics, a capitals and field approach acts as an intermediary between resource dependency-oriented open-systems approaches (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) and approaches which stress the autonomy and closedness of organizations (e.g. Luhmann, 1996): On the one hand organizations strongly rely on individual actors' capitals recognized by the field of career, on the other hand they autonomously evaluate these resources. There are various mechanisms which might explain the hinge between fields and organizations; amongst them networks are a rather complex one.

The notion of career fields

A career field perspective allows a 'cross-sectional' look on careers, emphasizing an arena within which careers unfold that does not solely rely on 'traditional' concepts like organization, profession or job. Instead, it focuses on the interplay between the individual actor and a set of practices that can cut across all 'visible phenomena' like professions, labor markets, or organizations. They produce, and are produced by, rules which are permanently negotiated, and contested. Organizations appear both as corporate actors within the field as well as a field themselves, which are influenced by networks on the one hand, and career fields on the other. The former acts as a hinge between the latter and organizations, providing organizations with relevant (social) capital and translating conversion rates of several guises of capital into organizational capital.

Consequently, careers as social games – which unfold as both a process and a result within a career field, influencing and influenced by networks, and organizations – appear as relational, multi-level construct emerging in the space between structure, and agency (for more detail, see Schneidhofer, Hofbauer, & Tatli, 2019 forthcoming). More importantly, they contribute to the contextual nature of organizations, for they are heavily influenced by factors outside the organization. Since they influence organizations in return, the latter craft organizations in a co-evolutionary way – and it is the context which influences organizational dynamics.

Networks and organizations

The role of social capital in general and social networks in particular has become a much-discussed topic over the past decade. Yet, relating social networks to dynamics in organizations has been a minority topic, often only implicitly addressed. Using the Bourdieuan framework to analyse the empirical data from the field of Austrian banking reveals a more complex process with two core functions of networks: capital accumulation, i.e. network membership constitutes and enhances social capital, and translation, i.e. networks translate field rules.

Regarding the former, there is an intrinsic tendency of social networks to accumulate their members' social capital, mainly through manoeuvring network members into more favourable positions in organizations. The strong tendency to foster members' advancement even against the resistance of organizational rules is an indicator for the superiority of network interest over organizational interest. This also affects the translation function. Networks never act as neutral interpreters but use the margins left by fields and organizations for increasing their members' social capital. In a way, they act as double actors between fields and networks, utilizing existing resources and opportunities for their members' sake.

Unlike fields or organizations, network rules are thus rather one-dimensional: they aim for growth by either bringing members into dominant positions or acquiring new members with a substantial fit of habitus. In this way, they are getting recognized in the game through influencing existing organizational power structures and relationships, and, ultimately, domination in organizations.

Closing remark

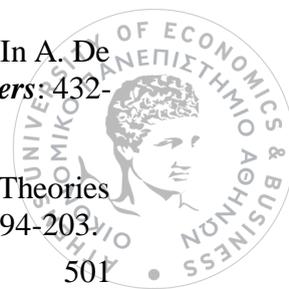
Managing careers is an important element of managing human resources and both potentially affect organizational performance. While various contextual configurations do have different effects (see, e.g. Papalexandris & Panayotopoulou, 2004; Apospori, Nikandrou, Brewster, & Papalexandris, 2008), context matters. Our study takes an in-depth look how factors beyond the organization have an influence on crucial aspects of HRM and career in order to better understand the mutual relationship. Still, of course, the usual dictum applies: more research is needed.

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6. CAN OLD DOGS PLAY NEW TRICKS IN FAMILY FIRMS?

E.Stavrou, E. Galanaki

Abstract

By combining the social exchange and stakeholder theories, we focus on employees older than 50 as a strategic resource in family firms. Specifically, we study the relationship between such employees and firm innovation and the potential moderating role of work-life balance practices. We find a negative relationship between the ratio of older workers and the level of firm innovation in both family and non-family firms. However, in family firms, the more work away from office is used, the stronger and positive the relationship between the level of firm innovation and the percentage of older employees is.

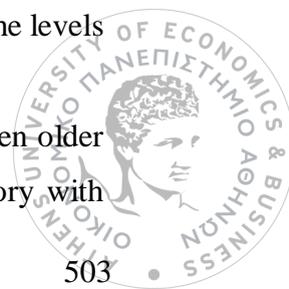
Keywords: innovation, older employees, work away from office, CRANET network

INTRODUCTION

The multifaceted interplay of age and various organizational performance outcomes has captured the attention of researchers. Due to the increase of the ageing population, many studies on ageing tend to explore the effects of negative stereotypes around older employees (Abrams et al., 2016). The literature has also focused on the relationship between age diversity among teams and their effectiveness (Wegge & Schmidt, 2009), and less so in innovation as a result (Frosch, 2011). The limited research on older workers and innovation has produced mixed results, with the majority of studies showing a negative relation between employees' age and innovation (see Frosch, 2011; Ng & Feldman, 2012). Yet, innovation is an aspect of organizational performance that has been associated with competitive advantage. Ever since Schumpeter's (1942) seminal work, business practitioners and academics alike have classified innovation as a 'central managerial concern' (Litz & Kleysen, 2001, p.336).

Within a family business context, studies on ageing have focused mainly on family members and succession planning (Cabrera-Suarez, Saa-Perez, & Garcia-Almeida, 2001; Crumpacker & Crumpacker, 2007). Even though considered important, the study of innovation in family firms has been ignored to a great extent (Craig & Moores, 2006). Litz and Kleysen (2001, p.337) identify a gap 'in research on innovation in one of humankind's most central social groups—the family—and, by extension, one of humankind's most enduring economic entities—the family enterprise.' In general, even though innovation is generally assumed to be lower in family firms than in non-family ones (see de Massis et.al., 2016), results on the levels of innovation in family firms are inconclusive.

Here we contribute to this line of research by studying the relationship between older employees and innovation in family firms and combining the social exchange theory with



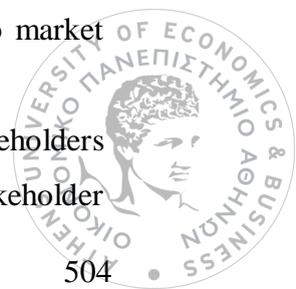
stakeholder perspectives. We hold that older workers, especially in family businesses have developed reciprocating relations with their employers, as a result of long-term social exchanges. Therefore, they reciprocate long-term exchanges with positive outcomes, one of which may be innovation. We also propose that when older employees are considered an important stakeholder, they will become a source of competitive advantage for the firms that employ them, contributing towards higher rates of innovation. By treating older employees as important stakeholders, firms strive to meet their older employees' needs. We will argue that one such need among older employees is for greater work-life balance through work away from office. Thus, higher innovation rates may be achieved because family firms offer these employees the flexible working arrangements that they wish to have at this stage in their lives.

THEORETICAL DEVELOPMENT AND HYPOTHESIS

Older employees and employees with longer tenure in a business have generally created more close exchange relationships and reciprocation obligations with their employer, as a result of their longer-term relationship. In this respect, Social Exchange Theory (SET), a theory that explains behaviour in organizations based on reciprocating expectations and relations, may be useful. This theory holds that "social exchange involves a series of interactions that generate obligations" (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 874) in diverse ways. The social relationship may be based on the exchange of different types of resources, such as concrete resources for intangible ones, which may shape the type of relationship that is created. Social exchange relationships develop over time through a series of mutual, though not necessarily simultaneous, exchanges that call for a pattern of reciprocal obligation for each party of the relationship (Blau, 1964).

At the same time, older employees may be viewed as important stakeholders to a firm. A central premise is that treating stakeholders well and caring about their needs helps a firm create value (Freeman, 1984) and in turn improves performance (Choi & Wang, 2009). In his original formulation of the stakeholder concept in the context of strategy, Freeman (1984) argued that a company's relationship with its stakeholders is crucial in understanding how it operates and how it draws value from these stakeholders. He also claimed that stakeholder relationships are the very basis of value added and strategic initiative. Along similar lines, Hillman et.al. (2001) note that by developing long-term relationships with stakeholders, including present and future employees, '...firms expand the set of value-creating exchanges with these groups beyond that which would be possible with interactions limited to market transactions' (p. 127).

Berman et al., (1999, p.488) propose that a firm's motivation to manage its stakeholders can be characterized as either strategic or intrinsic. According to the strategic stakeholder



orientation, management's concern for a stakeholder group is determined by the group's perceived ability to improve the firm's financial performance. According to the intrinsic stakeholder commitment model, a firm's concern is based on a moral commitment or obligation to treat stakeholders well (see also, Harrison et al., 2010). The first model is very similar to the resource-based view of the firm. In the second model, a moral commitment shapes the firm's strategy and ultimately influences its financial performance (Berman et al., 1999). The intrinsic stakeholder orientation model denotes that a firm's relationships with its stakeholders are based on '...normative, moral commitments rather than on a desire to use those stakeholders *solely* to maximize profits.' In other words, a firm's treatment of its stakeholders and its overall decision making are driven by a set of fundamental moral principles. In turn, the revenue, profitability and competitiveness benefits of stakeholder management result from a firm's 'genuine commitment to ethical principles' and its commitment to '...ethical relationships with stakeholders regardless of expected benefits' (Berman et al., 1999, p. 493-494).

The Case of Family Firms

Definitions of family firms abound, examining their distinct characteristics from different perspectives (Chua et al., 1999; Price, Stoica & Boncella, 2013), and demonstrating that family business research constitutes an emerging area of study (Benavides-Velasco et al., 2011). We adopt the position of Sharma et al. (1997, p.2), who define a family business as a 'business governed and/or managed on a sustainable, potentially cross-generational basis to shape and perhaps pursue the formal or implicit vision of the business held by members of the same family or a small number of families.' Miller et al. (2015) suggest that family businesses are interested in building a healthy organization that would sustain its success from generation to generation in the long-term. They place strong emphasis on stakeholder management, accessing financial capital and building human resources for the future even if the present financial results be compromised. Aronoff (2004) and Deniz and Suarez (2005) report that especially important are a family firm's reputation, quality, hard work, ethical business practices, customer and employee relations, philanthropy, and support for its community and employees.

In turn, we propose that family firms care greatly about their employees, particularly those who have been with them for many years. According to Aronoff (2004), family firms, while not denying the importance of the firm's successful financial performance, are typically motivated by and committed to a set of 'family values' represented by their business. To illustrate, Deniz and Suarez (2005) describe owner-managers as stewards committed to act on the basis of their principles rather than financial needs, towards the collective interests of the company's stakeholders. Moreover, Aronoff (2004) argued that successful family businesses often have a philosophy that includes stewardship of the family resources for the benefit of the

family, the employees, and the community at large and a wish to leave behind an enduring institution.

Along similar lines, Gallo (2004) explains that family firms fulfil their social responsibility towards employees and their communities to a large extent and value unity, commitment, industriousness, teamwork, and helping others. Finally, Stavrou and Swiercz (1998) have long since reported that family firms tend to exhibit a deep sense of personal responsibility towards their employees. These values do not suggest that owning families are not concerned with profits. In fact, Gallo (2004) notes that one of the major aims and duties of family businesses are, like their non-family counterparts, to create economic wealth. However, their values may be driven by unique concerns and interests, such as stability, capital preservation, reputation concerns and intentions to pass the business onto succeeding generations, which may not align with the interests of other investors (Anderson & Reeb, 2003, p. 1303).

Innovation and the Family Business

As in the case of a family business, definitions of innovation vary (Price et al., 2013; Litz & Kleysen, 2001; Kammerlander et.al., 2015). In a family business context, Litz and Kleysen (2001, p.341) define family firm innovation as ‘the intentional generation or introduction of novel processes and/or products resulting from the autonomous and interactive efforts of members of a family firm.’ Kammerlander et al., (2015) emphasize that even if no clear consensus exists regarding the definition of family firm innovation, innovation constitutes an essential pillar that determines the long-term success of such firms.

Interestingly, innovation researchers have largely ignored family-owned firms (Craig & Moores, 2006). Nevertheless, Rössl et.al. (2010) argue that the culture and unique characteristics of family firms make their innovation behaviour different from that of non-family firms. Some literature argues that family firms are less innovative than non-family firms due to their strong attachment to tradition and the past (De Massis et al., 2016). One of the dominant reasons why family firms are considered to be resistant to innovation is an excessive reliance on the firms’ past, their history as well as the founders’ decision-making approach (Zahra et.al., 2008). In the same vein, Allio (2004) and Carney (2005) argue that the close ties among family members along with capital restrictions act as barriers to innovation and contribute to a reluctance to take risks. Similarly, De Massis et.al. (2013) suggest that family firms that allow socio-emotional goals to take over may suppress innovation. Research also shows that one of the main barriers to family firm innovation is their allocating fewer resources to innovation (Chrisman & Patel, 2012).

Contrary to the above, other literature notes that a variety of factors may foster innovation in family firms. Specifically, it is argued that the family business environment provides an ideal setting for process innovation to flourish: sourcing the right caliber of employees and providing them with adequate training (Miller et al., 2015), encouraging employee participation (Upton et.al., 2001), empowerment (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004) and socialization (Dawson, 2012) all contribute towards a mentality of stewardship (Dibrell & Moeller, 2011; Zahra et al., 2008). This stewardship nurtures process innovation such as willingness to take risks, creativity, accepting errors and failures, cohesiveness (Das & Joshi, 2007) and a desire to embark on novel ideas and plans (Cassia et.al., 2012). Other factors considered to contribute to innovation in family firms are the adaptability of organizational structures (Zahra, et al., 2008), and the implementation of ‘strategic behavioral controls’ (Hsu & Chang, 2011). Eddleston, Kellermanns and Sarathy (2008) point out that the long-term orientation of family firms encourages innovation since innovation needs time to flourish. Finally, the commonly held strong and long-term bonds and loyalty between the family firm and its employees also contribute to an environment where innovation may be enhanced even more than in non-family firms (Miller et al., 2015).

Age and Innovation

According to Frosch (2011, p.415), most research on age and innovative performance has shown that innovative achievements follow a ‘curvilinear, inversely u-shaped functional form with age, with most inventions being produced by individuals between the ages of 35 and 50, depending on the domain.’ According to Schneider (2008), innovation peaks at a workforce mean age of around 40 and then decreases. Further, the capacity for improving existing products, otherwise called ‘incremental innovation,’ remains unchanged between 30 and 50 years of age and starts to decline after the age of 50 (Frosch, 2011, p. 423). Differently, Rietzschel, Zacher and Stroebe (2016, p.117) note that ‘increasing age might reflect increasing organizational experience, skills and power to initiate changes, all of which may promote creative behaviour.’

Nevertheless, no consensus exists on the nature of the relationship between innovation-related behaviour and age, with some studies reporting a positive relationship (e.g., Ards, van der Velde, & Maurer, 2010; Choi, 2004), others showing no relationship (e.g., Carmeli et.al., 2006; Zhou et.al., 2009) and others showing even a negative one (e.g., Ng & Feldman, 2012). Based on the above, evidence on the relationship between workforce age and innovative performance must be examined and interpreted with great caution. Frosch (2011) warns against drawing general conclusions from previous research about the age-dependence of innovative performance and cites the few longitudinal studies available hinting that older employees may

contribute more to innovation than cross-sectional studies reveal. Further to this, so far, no solid evidence exists to suggest that a youth-oriented strategic approach and human resource strategy (always) enhances innovation (Frosch, 2011, p.414). In this respect, Ng and Feldman (2013) cite ‘human capital’ theory to challenge negative stereotypes and propose the possibility that old age and innovation might not be negatively correlated.

Age and Work Away from office

Research on flexible work options, such as work away from the office, and elderly employees is scarce. With the exception of part-time work, evidence on older employees’ use of flexibility (e.g. temporary working, flextime, term-time working) is limited; currently, most older employees work on standard contracts and working patterns (Loretto et.al.2005). As Loretto et al. (2005) explain, a small minority have access to flexible working arrangements and when it comes to work away from office, older men work from home more regularly than women.

Working away from office can be very beneficial to older employees as it may counteract the effects of ageism and the negative bias against them. By working away from office, worker output is evaluated based on its merit rather than personal characteristics (Patrickson, 2002, p.707). In addition, it provides access to work for older workers, who may otherwise be excluded from the workplace (Baruch & Yuen, 2000). According to Patrickson (2002), the lower likelihood that older employees are to have younger children at home results in fewer interruptions and their long experience allows them to work without the need of supervision. Lastly, teleworking can contribute to older employees’ income and offers an alternative to retirement packages.

Based on the above, we hold that flexible working practices may be a valuable provision for older workers. Rietzschel et al. (2016) argue for the interplay between age, other individual characteristics (i.e., ability, motivation) and contextual elements (i.e., work environment) that affect creativity and innovation. These may act as moderators since the effects of one element have an influence on the other elements and the outcome (Robinson-Morrall et.al., 2013; Woodman et.al., 1993). We suggest that work away from office acts as a moderator in the relationship between older employees and rate of innovation in family firms. Given the preceding discussion, when the needs of older employees for work life balance are met, then they will be more likely to serve as a source of competitive advantage. Therefore, we propose that older employees will contribute towards increased rates of innovation, when they are also considered an important intrinsic stakeholder to the firm, having their work-life balance needs met through work away from office. According to Social Exchange Theory (SET), work away from office will be seen by older employees as a positive contribution of their employer, to which they reciprocate by innovative behaviour:

Further, using the intrinsic stakeholder theory and the distinction of family firms in how they pursue their strategy, we propose that the way in which family firms achieve competitive advantage is different to that of non-family firms. A strategy that family firms have been shown to adopt is to treat their employees as core intrinsic stakeholders more than non-family businesses do, which leads the employees themselves to feel more as core stakeholders. In other words, the social exchange between family firms and their employees as a long term binding relationship is stronger and creates more powerful reciprocating obligations. Therefore, the provision of workplace flexibility, a beneficial aspect of the job for older employees, creates a higher reciprocating obligation when the exchange happens in family firms:

METHODS

We utilized the 2014-6 data set of the Cranet survey, which is ‘the largest and most representative independent survey of HRM policies and practices in the world’ (Parry, Stavrou & Morley, 2011, p.2). We included a variety of countries in order to capture the diversity of national context around the globe (House et al, 2004). We use data from: Australia, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, China, Croatia, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Indonesia, Italy, Israel, Latvia, Lithuania, Netherlands, Norway, Philippines, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, USA. Since our data involved a nested structure, we used mixed model analysis of hierarchical linear modelling (HLM). First, we conducted HLM analysis with all firms - family and non-family ones. Given that the two groups of firms differed in their levels of innovation in a statistically significant manner, we subsequently split the file to test for the moderation effects of work away from office. The total sample size consisted of 4385 firms, from which 1451 were family owned/controlled.

Main Variables

We used a self-reported, perceptual measure of innovation. The question was ‘Compared to other organisations in your sector, how would you rate the performance of your organisation in relation to the Rate of Innovation’ and measured on a scale from 1=poor or at the low end of the industry, 2=below average, 3=average or equal to the competition, 4=better than average, 5=superior.

Independent Variable

We use ‘Proportion of employees 50 years old and above’ measured on a scale from 1=0%, 2=1-10%, 3=11-25%, 4=26-50%, 5=51-75%, 6=76-100%.

Moderator

We use ‘Work Away from Office’ encompassing both work from home and tele-work, measured on a scale from 0 = not used, 1 = 1-5% of the workforce, 2 = 6-10% of the workforce, 3 = 11-15% of the workforce, 4 = 16-20% of the workforce, 5=21-50% of the workforce to 6 = > 50% of the workforce.

Controls

We control for various factors that, according to extant research, could potentially influence findings (Astrachan, 2010; Dyer, 2003). First, we control for *Markets* as the local versus global orientation of a firm (global/international = 0 and local/national = 1). We also control for *Industry* by separating industry into products, services and other. Furthermore, we control for *Focus on older employees’* training (yes=1, no=0) in order to ensure that results are not influenced by a firm’s focus on developing older employees. Finally, we control for *Change in total number of employees* over the past three years to take into account firm downsizing as well as hiring activity.

RESULTS

First, we conducted correlations and descriptive statistics. As shown on Table 1, the rate of innovation is significantly related with the type of organization. It is also positively related with working away from office and negatively to the proportion of employees over 50 years old. Further, working away from office is less common in family- owned and service sector firms, as well as in firms that employ a large proportion of older employees. Finally, in organizations with a higher proportion of older employees there is a higher focus on older employees’ careers, whereas organizations that have diminished in size, the proportion of older employees is lower.

Table 1. Correlations and Descriptive Statistics

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Family business (1=yes, 0=no)	1							
2. Rate of innovation	-0.04**	1						
3. Industry	-0.07***	-0.02	1					
4. Markets	0.03	-0.09***	0.22***	1				
5. Focus on older employee careers (1=yes, 0=no)	0.01	0.01	-0.02	0.01	1			



6. Change in total number of employees	0.07***	0.13***	0.02	-0.01	-0.00	1		
7. Work away from office	-0.11***	0.07***	0.04**	-0.02	0.06***	0.02	1	
8. Prob. Older employees	-0.01	-0.07***	-0.02	-0.02	0.04**	-0.16***	0.02	1

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.

Subsequently, we performed HLM analysis on all firms in order to establish if family business status related statistically to rate of innovation. As shown on Table 2, family business status is negatively linked with rate of innovation. Furthermore, the rate of innovation is negatively related to the proportion of older employees.

Table 2. HLM for all Firms between Rate of Innovation, Proportion of older Employees and Work Away from Office

Variables	B		SE
Intercept	3.0	***	0.09
	1		
Industry (Products vs other)	0.0		0.05
	6		
Industry (Services vs other)	0.0		0.04
	7		
Markets (1=local, 0=multicounty)	-	***	0.04
	0.1		
	6		
Focus on Older Employee careers (1=yes, 0=no)	0.0		0.05
	5		
Change in total number of employees	0.1	***	0.01
	1		
Family Business (1=yes, 0=no)	-	*	0.04
	0.0		
	9		
Work Away from Office	0.0	***	0.02
	7		



Prob. Older Employees	-	***	0.02	
	0.0			
	7			
<hr/>				
Model fit				
σ_e^2			0.92	***
σ^2 (country)			0.09	***
-2 Log Likelihood			8448.59	

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001.

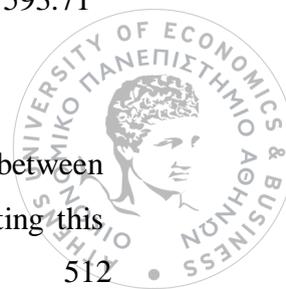
Given the above results, we separated our sample by family business status in order to explore the rest of our hypotheses. Therefore, we conducted HLM analyses for family firms (Table 3a) and for non-family firms (Table 3b), separately.

Table 3a. HLM for Family-Firms between Rate of Innovation, Proportion of older Employees and Work Away from Office

Variables	B		SE	
Intercept	3.01	***	0.16	
Industry (Products vs. other)	0.30	**	0.11	
Industry (Services vs. other)	0.17		0.11	
Markets (1=local, 0=multicountry)	-		0.09	
	0.12			
Focus on Older Employee careers (1=yes, 0=no)	0.07		0.11	
Change in total number of employees	0.12	***	0.03	
Work Away from Office	-		0.05	
	0.07			
Prob. Older Employees	-	*	0.04	
	0.11			
Prob. older employees x work away from office	0.09	*	0.04	
<hr/>				
Model fit				
σ_e^2			0.92	***
σ^2 (country)			0.01	
-2 Log Likelihood			1593.71	

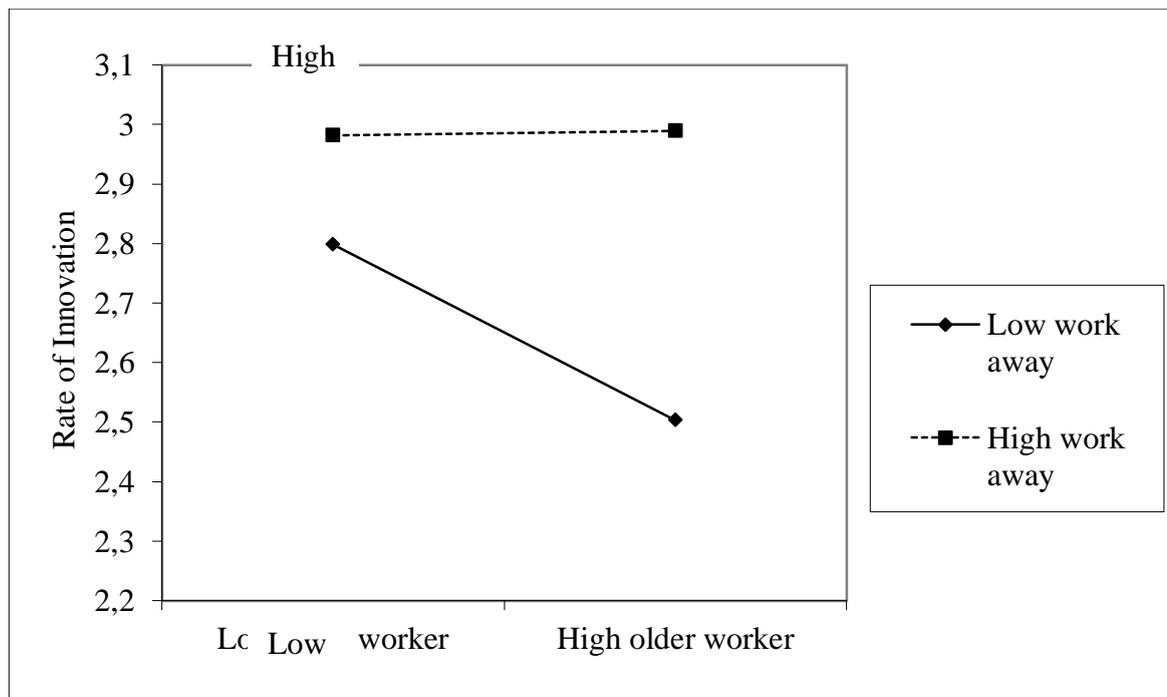
* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001

As shown in Table 3a, among family firms a statistically significant interaction exists between proportion of employees older than 50 years old and work away from office. Plotting this



significant interaction, Figure 1 shows that in the cases where work away from office is higher, the relationship between rate of innovation in family firms and employees older than 50 years old is no longer negative but rather positive.

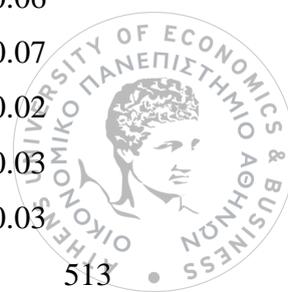
Figure 1. The Effect of Work Away from Office on the Relationship between Rate of Innovation and Older Employees in Family Firms.



As shown among non-family firms (Table 3b), while the proportion of employees older than 50 remains negatively related to the rate of innovation, the interaction terms between employees older than 50 and work away from the office is not significant.

Table 3b. HLM for *non*-Family-Firms between Rate of Innovation, Proportion of older Employees and Work Away from Office

Variables	B		SE
Intercept	3.17	***	0.11
Industry (Products vs. other)	0.04		0.07
Industry (Services vs. other)	0.13		0.06
Markets (1=local, 0=multicounty)	-0.17	**	0.06
Focus on Older Employee careers (1=yes, 0=no)	-0.08		0.07
Change in total number of employees	0.09	***	0.02
Work Away from Office	0.06	*	0.03
Prob. Older Employees	-0.12	***	0.03



Prob. older employees x work away from office	0.02	0.03
Model fit		
σ_e^2		0.80
σ^2 (country)		0.02
-2 Log Likelihood		3096.15

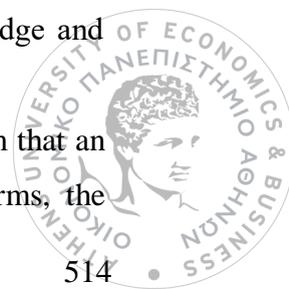
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

DISCUSSION

In this paper, we aim to advance family business research by exploring the relationship between employee age and innovation in family firms. Conceptually, we combine a social exchange theory approach with an intrinsic stakeholder theory perspective to offer a framework within which we can explore the role of older employees as important internal intrinsic stakeholders who have created long-term exchange relationships with their employers. We propose that when older employees are treated as important intrinsic stakeholders, specifically when they are offered work-life balance options that meet their needs, they are more likely to contribute to higher rates of innovation, as a result of a reciprocating obligation to the other part of the exchange (employer). Further, we propose that this effect will hold only in family businesses, because in family businesses the intrinsic stakeholder role will be more embedded in how both the employer treats employees and how employees perceive themselves.

Empirically, we first explore the direct relation between rate of innovation and the type of business (family or not) and we find that this relationship is lower for family firms. Then we explore the relationship between older employees and rate of innovation. We find that this relationship is negative as well. Subsequently, we introduce work away from office as a moderator to the relationship between the percentage of older employees and the rate of innovation. We see that, once we introduce work away from office in our model, the relationship between rate of innovation and older employees becomes positive but only in family firms. Notably, when we compare the results obtained for family firms against those from non-family firms, we find that the moderation was not statistically significant in the latter group. Overall, our results lend support to our proposition that work away from office positively moderates the negative relation between proportion of older employees and innovation in family firms. Working away from office is seen as a positive aspect of their job by older employees in those firms. In turn, older employees demonstrate their potential to contribute to a family firm's pursuit of higher innovation by leveraging the accumulated knowledge and experience that they possess.

Furthermore, this relation appears to exist solely in family-run firms, where we claim that an intrinsic stakeholder role is more amply adopted by employees. In non-family firms, the



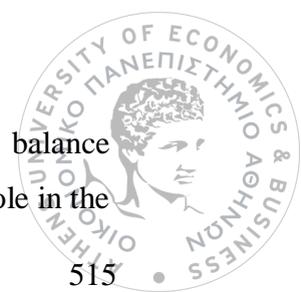
moderation effect of working away from office is non-significant, guiding us to believe that a differing signaling effect is developed when the provision of the positively- perceived provision of working flexibility to older workers is realized in a family firm as opposed to a non-family firm. In family firms, the social exchange that is created (provision of work flexibility, which is exchanged for innovation) is stronger as it is linked with the firm's intrinsic commitment to its stakeholders (Berman et al., 1999). What is more, in family firms, the long-term relationship developed between management and employees is possibly stronger and more stable as management is done by the same people, i.e. family members. In professionally managed firms, management may be operated by different people across time, therefore the exchange relationship established may not be as strong.

By adding 'work away from office' as a moderator, our findings cast doubt on some of the results reported in the literature showing a negative relationship between older employees and a family firm's rate of innovation (Allio, 2004; Carney, 2005; De Massis et al., 2016; Zahra et al., 2008). It seems that the relationship between older employees and innovation is not a simple one. It needed to be explored in more nuanced ways than already done. In relation to family firms, it may need to be explored in light of Miller et al.'s (2015) argument that often strong bonds and loyalty exist between long-time employees and family members. As a result, family firms may enjoy a significant competitive advantage over non-family firms, which contributes to an environment where innovation may be enhanced.

Since the moderator of 'work away from office' has changed the relationship from negative to positive in family firms, it should be noted that only a small portion of older employees actually have access to arrangements such as work away from the office (Loretto et al., 2005) and only a small portion has utilized work away from office in our study. Despite the small uptake, moderation results were significant. It seems that certain flexible work arrangements, specifically work away from office, may be particularly relevant to older employees. Through work away from office, performance is based on the merit of their work (Patrickson, 2002), which may counteract negative bias pertaining to age and provide older employees with fewer interruptions during work, less need for supervision, and a longer work horizon (Baruch & Yuen, 2000). Given the need to utilize older employees more in the years to come, as a result of an ageing workforce (Levy & Macdonald, 2016), our study offers a good starting point for both researchers and managers to pay closer attention to the antecedents as well as the effects of such a workforce in the business environment and society at large.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future research

In this paper, we only tested for work away from office. A host of other work-life balance practices and flexible work options may be utilized in future studies to explore their role in the



relationship between older employees and a firm's rate of innovation. Work-life balance practices may also be explored directly with the percent of older employees or as moderators to the relationship between older employees and other distal firm outcomes (i.e. profitability, productivity). Future research may also review the experiences and contributions of older employees in family businesses of different structures or different industries. Further to this, future scholars may investigate this phenomenon in local vs multinational family firms, operating in growing, static or declining markets. Another pillar worth examining is the presence of a powerful HR function in the family business, and how it may contribute to the utilization of older employees as a strategic resource and an important stakeholder.

A major challenge would be to review the innovative results in family businesses employing multiple generations within their workforce and maintaining age diversity. Worthwhile of investigation are also various contextual factors that promote the quality of older workers (such as job training and more opportunities for continuous learning) that may strengthen the relationships between age and innovation (Fenwick, 2012). Further comparisons could also be made between older family and non-family members and how their role as a strategic resource and their contribution to innovation varies.

In terms of methodology, as stated by Hair and Sarstedt (2014) the opportunity for novel methods of quantitative research exists, as they have not been widely used in the areas of family business research. As stated by De Massis, Frattini and Lichtenthaler (2012), family firms possess unique characteristics such as complex relationships and interactions. Further to this, it would be ideal to proceed with longitudinal designs in order to capture the possible changes that may unfold in the course of time among family firm employees. In family firms there is continuity and high retention of employees while tradition matters; all these factors provide both the motivation and rationale for pursuing longitudinal research.

Furthermore, the study is cross sectional and as Benavides-Velasco, Quintana-García, & Guzmán-Parra (2011) explain, the field of family business studies is heavily dominated by cross-sectional research designs, and only 11.4% of articles come from longitudinal studies. Also, innovation is a perceptual, self-assessed measure, where a key informant from each organization, the head of HR, provides his/her input. In addition, we also need to consider the issue of common method variance (Meier & O'Toole Jr., 2013), even though the risk of such bias may be reduced as HR managers are likely to have access to the necessary data to support their responses, both in terms of the percentage of older employees and the rate of innovation. Last but not least, one may need to consider culture when studying age since cultures differ in the way they perceive and approach age (Deal et al., 2010).

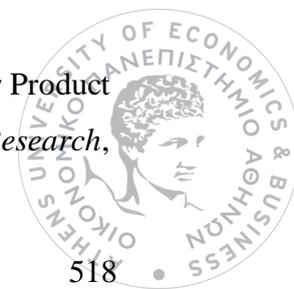
CONCLUSION

Overall, in this article, we enrich both the theory base and the research on family business. We argue that when employees older than 50 years old are viewed as important intrinsic stakeholders in family firms, having their needs for work-life balance being met, then they may serve as sources of competitive advantage towards higher rates of innovation. Undoubtedly, there is substantial scope for further research on older age, how it matters and when it matters in family businesses in terms of innovation and beyond.

Older employees as victims of negative stereotyping may underperform because others perceive them as less creative and more resistant to change. However, contrary to age stereotypes, older employees, by developing greater knowledge through multiple years of work experience, may be more talented than their younger colleagues in bringing about innovation in organizations (Ng & Feldman, 2013), and that could also apply in family firms. Older employees, when targeted strategically have several advantages and skills that may bring a dynamic perspective into a falsely conceived 'self-sufficient' family business tied upon its history and past. To help older employees 'blossom' and use their knowledge and expertise to come up with innovative ideas and approaches, family (and non-family) firms may need to embrace them as strategically precious members and cater for their work-life balance needs. In turn, older employees will reciprocate.

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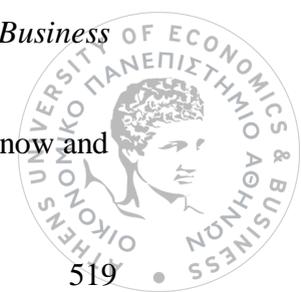
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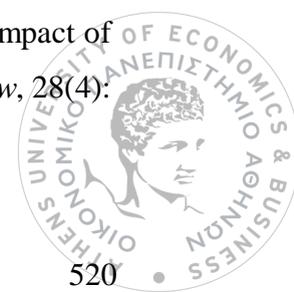
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7. WE ARE IN THIS TOGETHER – OR AREN'T WE? THE INTERPLAY OF INTRA-ORGANIZATIONAL COALITIONS AND THEIR IMPACT ON ORGANIZATIONAL RESPONSES TO PERFORMANCE DISCREPANCIES

S. Vourloumis, V. Papadakis

Abstract

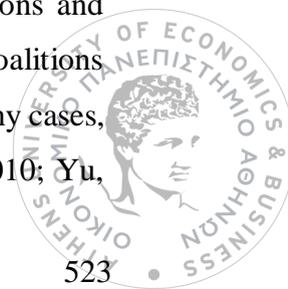
Coalitions are informal groups that are formed and operating within the boundaries of organizations. Organizational scholarship has extensively documented and discussed the presence of coalitions in organizations. However, our understanding of their role and effects on intra-organizational affairs and organizational outcomes remains incomplete. To address these shortcomings, in this paper we develop a theoretical framework for better understanding the role of coalitions and the dynamics unfolding between and within them. In particular, we develop theory and propositions regarding the formation, actions and interactions of coalitions, as well as their impact on key organizational processes. Building on the conception of organizations as encompassing political coalitions, we argue that internal coalitions with distinct (and occasionally competing) interests and preferences are reaching compromises around goals, strategies and practices in order for the focal organization to operate and compete smoothly. We illustrate how discrepancies among the realized performance of the organization and aspiration levels trigger various dynamics between and within coalitions, which in turn impact the responses to these discrepancies. Our paper provides a more nuanced understanding of internal coalitions, as well as salient insights into their role and implications for organizational decision-making processes and outcomes. In that way, the paper extends the existing knowledge, and highlights paths for future research.

Keywords

coalitions, organizational decision-making, politics, performance feedback, conflict

INTRODUCTION

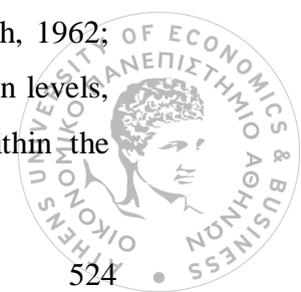
Coalitions can be understood as informal social groups formed and operating within the boundaries of organizations (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Bacharach & Lawler, 1980; Stevenson, Pearce & Porter, 1985). As informal structures, they emerge without official sanctioning from the organization and its formal rules, structures and procedures (Murnighan, 1978). Instead, coalitions are usually formed around a set of goals and preferences shared among their members, and these goals and preferences are dictating and conditioning their actions and interactions (Cyert & March, 1963; Thompson, 1967). The goals and preferences of coalitions may be aligned to those of the organization (Unsworth, Yeo & Beck, 2014), but in many cases, they may deviate from the latter, and even contradict them (Zbaracki & Bergen, 2010; Yu, 2013).



Being essential components of the social fabric of organizations, coalitions (and other informal groups) have for long been salient for organizational and management scholarship. A considerable amount of research work, theoretical and empirical, has been produced putting intra-organizational coalitions at the epicentre of analysis, and examining them through different angles and perspectives. The work of Selznick (1943) on ‘cliques’, the conception of the firm as a political coalition introduced by March (1962) and the ‘dominant coalition’ concept developed by Cyert and March (1963), the ‘upper echelons’ of Hambrick and Mason (1984), the network-based approach of studying informal groups advanced by Brass and colleagues (Brass, 1984, 1985; Brass & Burkhardt, 1993) and the research stream on subgroups formed around demographic, functional and cognitive fault-lines (Lau & Murnighan, 1998, 2005; Meyer et al., 2014), are some notable examples from this sizeable body of research. The aforementioned scholars, and many more, have sought to understand coalitions and to answer important questions regarding them: Why, and under which conditions, are they developed within organizations? Through which processes are they formed? How do they engage in collective action – and which courses of action they are more likely to pursue? How do they affect intra-organizational affairs and organizational outcomes? Despite significant contributions made, our understanding of these issues remains incomplete (Munyon et al., 2014). The literature developed on coalitions is rather fragmented, a consensus around definitions and conceptualizations has not been shaped yet and attempts at integrating alternative perspectives have been limited.

In this paper, we develop a framework for better grasping the complex role of coalitions in organizational settings and their potential effects. We propose a novel conceptualization of coalitions, leveraging insights from socio-psychological and socio-political accounts of coalition formation and behaviour (Gamson, 1961; Murnighan, 1978; Mannix, 1993; Van Beest et al., 2005; Diermeier et al., 2008), as well as from the literature on organizational politics (Vigoda, 2000; Chang, Rosen & Levy, 2009). Our conceptualization seeks to accommodate dynamic aspects of coalitions that are salient for understanding their role and presence, including their formation processes, the dynamics unfolding between and within them and their influence on organizational decision-making processes (Cyert & March, 1963; Pfeffer, 1992; Ocasio, 1994; Kaplan, 2008; Munyon et al., 2014; Greve & Zhang, 2017).

In addition, we argue that competing coalitions formed and operating within the same organizational environment are likely to enter a negotiated compromise around goals, strategies and practices in order for the organization to operate and compete smoothly (March, 1962; Pache & Santos, 2010; Yu, 2013). Discrepancies between performance and aspiration levels, however, are likely to trigger various socio-political dynamics between and within the



coalitions, leading to a realignment of goals, preferences and priorities and potentially to the emergence of a new compromise between coalitions.

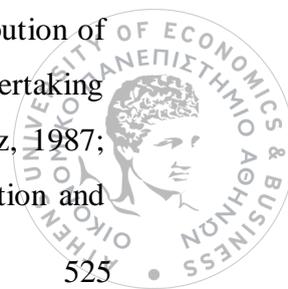
Furthermore, we argue that coalitional dynamics are likely to be reflected in the decision processes around which particular course of action should the organization pursue as a response to performance-related discrepancies. In particular, the relative standing of coalitions will condition the preferences and agendas of coalitions in the subsequent negotiation/bargaining and decision-making processes.

In that way, our paper contributes by integrating and extending existing knowledge around coalitions in organizations, by providing insights in their impact on intra-organizational affairs and organizational outcomes, and by highlighting possible paths for future research that would shed further light on these issues.

COALITIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Synthesizing definitions and conceptualizations developed by different authors (Cyert & March, 1963; Bacharach & Lawler, 1980; Stevenson et al., 1985; Cobb, 1991; Munyon et al., 2014), intra-organizational coalitions can be understood as purposeful groups of individuals that are developed independently of the formal structure of the organization and that do not have a formal structure. The formation of coalitions usually results from the failure of formal structures and procedures to manage internal and external contingencies (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977; Stevenson et al., 1985; Pfeffer, 1992; Mannix, 1993): power inequities, compensation inequities, lack of opportunities for career advancement, loose linkage of compensation to performance, unclear or unfeasible performance expectations etc. (Jehn & Bendersky, 2003; Munyon et al., 2014). Consequently, individuals with preferences and goals that are not aligned to those of the organization (Gamson, 1961) are likely to form a coalition (Selznick, 1948; Stigler, 1974; Mokken, 1979) and engage in collective action in order to influence key internal processes and advance their goals and interests (Bacharach & Lawler, 1980; Bazerman et al., 2000; Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006).

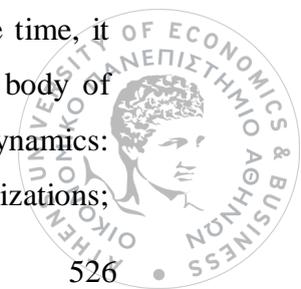
The size of coalitions should permit member awareness (i.e. each member to be aware of other members), and to enable social interactions (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993; Epley, Caruso & Bazerman, 2006; Van Beest et al., 2008). Interactions among members of a coalition can be critical for a number of reasons. Through interactions, individuals can acknowledge that their preferences and interests are actually aligned (Stevenson et al., 1985; Polzer, Mannix & Neale, 1998). Having acknowledge that, individuals can engage in bargaining for the distribution of roles and (expected) rewards, which is a necessary condition for effectively undertaking collective action (Komorita & Chertkoff, 1973; Komorita & Kravitz, 1981; Kravitz, 1987; Cobb, 1991). Through social interactions, coalition members can exchange information and



develop shared understandings and perceptions, which can further facilitate collective action and minimize social loafing and free-riding problems (Karau & Williams, 1997; Meyer, Schermuly & Kauffeld, 2016). In some cases, social interactions among coalition members can also contribute to the formation of a collective identity (Polletta & Jasper, 2001; Thomas, Mavor & McGarty, 2012) that can aid them in addressing collective action problem and that can keep their interests and preferences aligned (Thomas, McGarty & Mavor, 2016).

Coalitions are different from other informal groups because they are purposeful: the underlying reason behind their formation is to influence a certain outcome – be it the individual position of each member, the decisions made at the organizational level or the advancement of a certain agenda (Mechanic, 1962; Krackhardt, 1990; Van Beest & Van Dijk, 2007). When members of a coalition stop acting and interacting around a common purpose, the group can no longer be considered a coalition (Stevenson et al., 1985). In most related studies (especially from the disciplines of social psychology and political science), the maximization of rewards or payoffs is considered to be the primary driver of coalition formation (Gamson, 1961; Konishi & Ray, 2003). Organizational scholarship, on the hand, has relaxed the restrictive assumptions of reward maximization on coalition formation (Cobb, 1991; Pearce, 1995; Jehn & Bezrukova, 2010). Coalitions are thus likely to be formed for advancing the interests of their members, for influencing key decision-making processes (Dahl, 1957; Mintzberg, 1984; Papadakis et al., 1998), to advance a particular agenda (Munyon et al. 2014), but also to protect the status quo or protest against it (Snow et al., 1986) and to initiate or impede change (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Battilana & Casciaro, 2012). The goals a coalition seeks to advance need to be external to it, as collective action is directed towards other actors or processes (Pearce, 1995) To serve one or multiple goals, coalitions employ different influence tactics (Lee et al., 2017), which may be sanctioned by the organization or not (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Influence tactics can be directed from the upper to the lower hierarchical levels (e.g. exercising formal authority, institutionalizing rules/practices, delegating decision-making authority), they can be directed from the lower to the higher hierarchical levels (e.g. collective mobilizations, issue-selling campaigns etc.) and they can be later and directed towards actors at the same level (e.g. negotiation and bargaining, framing etc.). As a result, a coalition can exercise influence in different ways, employing different strategies and tactics in different circumstances, according to situational and contextual demands (Fleming & Spicer, 2014).

This attempt at an integrative conceptualization offers a clear picture of how existing research has advanced understanding around intra-organizational coalitions. And at the same time, it allows for conceptual shortcomings to be identified and assessed. In this diverse body of research, there has been a lack of fine-grained theoretical explanations of coalitional dynamics: of how coalitions are formed, and of the rise, dominance and fall of them within organizations;



of the processes through which coalitions manage their power bases, and attempt to expand them; of how coalitions act and interact and how a certain coalition becomes the dominant one; and of how coalitions attempt to influence decision processes and organizational outcomes.

Dominant and Non-Dominant Coalitions

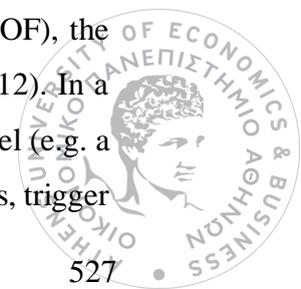
For analytical reasons, we assume there are two coalitions in the organization. The first is the *dominant coalition*, which concentrates the largest fraction of power and influence within the organization (Cyert & March, 1963; Gavetti et al., 2012) and has at its ranks key intra-organizational actors, such as the CEO and other top executives (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Ocasio 1994). The members of the dominant coalition have a common interest in the perpetuation of their collective power and influence over intra-organizational affairs, which translate into power and influence for themselves (Pfeffer 2013; Anderson & Brion, 2014).

The *non-dominant coalition* encompasses other individuals, with smaller collective status and power (e.g. minorities in the top management team or the Board of Directors, or ‘outsiders’). Different actors engage in collective action through the non-dominant coalition in order to enhance their status within the organization and to obtain more influence and control over key decisions. The non-dominant coalition seeks concessions and side-payment offered by the dominant coalition, in order for a compromise over organizational strategies and goals to be reached. However, its stability is vulnerable, since it cannot keep its members together without participating in the distribution of intra-organizational power. Otherwise, the non-dominant coalition’s members are likely to engage in free-riding behavior, or even defect and join the ranks of the ‘enemy’: the dominant coalition.

As the Behavioral Theory of the Firm proposes, important decisions within the organization are made through recurring processes of bargaining, learning and reaching compromises among coalitions. Each time a strategic decision is to be made, the dominant coalitions acts as agenda-setter, introducing a proposal to the decision making ‘arena’. The non-dominant coalition can either support the proposal, or oppose it (sometimes, even blocking the implementation of the decision after it has been made). Thus, the strategic decision-making process bears similarities to a veto-bargaining decision structure (Cameron & McCarty, 2004) which can be applied in a wide variety of actual decision processes (Krause, Withers, & Semadeni, 2017).

Performance Feedback and Relative Power of Coalitions

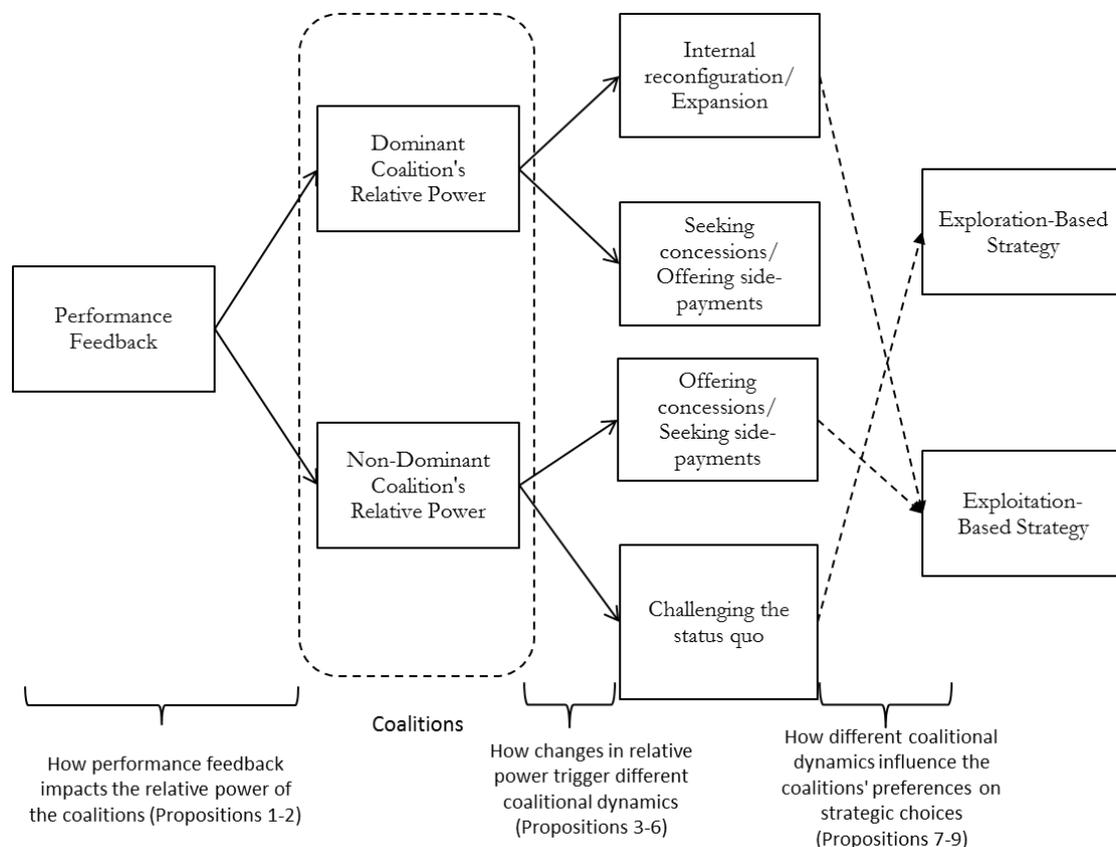
Within the literature inspired by the Behavioral Theory of the Firm (henceforth, BTOF), the notion of performance feedback occupies a central position (Greve 2003; Shinkle 2012). In a nutshell, realized performance is recurrently compared to a pre-existing aspiration level (e.g. a performance-related goal). Performance shortfalls, with comparison to aspiration levels, trigger



search for remedies and lead to the introduction of strategic and organizational changes, of greater or lesser magnitude.

The dominant coalition, having the largest fraction of power and influence, would have in interest in continuous positive performance feedbacks. Strong performance reinforces the status-quo, and permits the members of the dominant coalition to reap the fruits of their success, increasing their (individual and collective) status and influence. The non-dominant coalition, seeking side-payments in exchange for its concession on organizational goals and strategies, would also have in interest positive performance feedbacks. Figure 1 represents graphically the proposed model.

Figure 1: Coalitions, Performance Feedback and Decision-Making

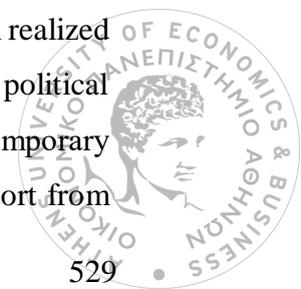


The BTOF suggests that compromises are essential for strategic decisions to be made. Compromises are reached through processes of bargaining – and occasionally of conflict – where the relative power of each coalition is reflected. While performance (with comparison to aspirations) is improving, the relative power of the dominant coalitions increases. And as the dominant coalition receives greater benefit from organizational success, it will be in its interest to offer side-payments to the non-dominant coalition in order to secure the latter's agreement. Therefore, positive performance increases the power of the dominant coalition (Desai, 2016), but also leaves the non-dominant coalition better-off.

However, when performance significantly exceeds aspiration levels, 'old' compromises and agreements are likely to break-up. The dominant coalition may prefer to exercise its power and influence, in order to reward its members or to expand, attracting new members from within the organization or from the external environment. This is in line with the 'success breeds power' argument (Pfeffer 2013) and with arguments on the persistence of elite political power found in the political economy literature (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2006, 2008; Wallis, 2011). On the other hand, the non-dominant coalition may also perceive improving performance as an opportunity to push for changes in strategies in governance that would alter (at least partially) the status quo, instead of simply offering its concession in exchange for side-payments. This can be the case of activist shareholders, which exercise 'voice' in order to advocate specific organizational and strategic changes (Goranova & Ryan, 2014). Thus, when performance is growing upwards, both coalitions would have an interest in abstaining from 'old' compromises, and seeking, through new processes of bargaining or struggling, for a new distribution of power.

Proposition 1: *Positive performance feedback, with respect to aspiration levels, increases the relative power of the dominant coalition. When performance significantly exceeds the aspiration levels, the relative power of the non-dominant coalition increases as well, leading occasionally to the 'break-up' of 'old' compromises.*

When performance falls short from aspiration levels, the power base of the dominant coalition erodes, criticism is more openly expressed and pressure for changes in strategies and governance is applied. The non-dominant coalition uses that opportunity for 'voicing' its concerns and for articulating its 'vision' for a new distribution of intra-organizational power that will help the firm restore its performance and dynamism (Greve & Mitsuhashi, 2007; Trahms, Ndofor & Sirmon, 2013). As a result, when performance moves downwards the relative power of the non-dominant coalition increases. However, if the (negative) difference between realized performance and aspiration levels is small, the dominant coalition may have a political opportunity itself to preserve its power and influence. It can frame the situation as a 'temporary crisis', present remedies and changes that have to be implemented and ask for support from



internal (managers, employees) and external (allies, capital markets) constituencies in order to ‘navigate’ through the crisis and restore performance in due course (McKinley, Latham & Brown, 2014; Huang et al., 2015). In that way, the relative power of the dominant coalition can be preserved or increases under specific circumstances.

Proposition 2: *Negative performance feedback, with respect to aspiration levels, increases the relative power of the non-dominant coalition. When performance falls short from the aspiration levels slightly (not significantly), the relative power of the dominant coalition can increase, exploiting the ‘crisis’ as an opportunity to restore its control and influence.*

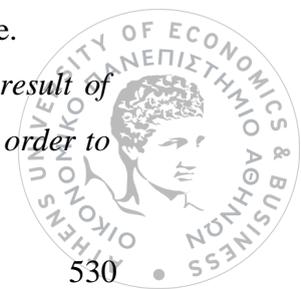
Relative Power of coalitions and Decision Making

As discussed, performance feedbacks change the relative power of the two competing coalitions, triggering different coalitional dynamics. These dynamics refer to processes of bargaining or conflict taking place *among* the coalitions, but also to processes taking place within the coalitions. According to the BTOF, the coalitions themselves are shaped on the basis of ‘political’ compromises among different actors, which have a common interest in engaging in collective action (Cyert & March, 1963; Gavetti et al., 2012). Thus, the members of each coalition have to be kept satisfied, in order to avoid free-riding or defection tendencies.

It has been mentioned that organizational goals and strategies are the subject of contestation, bargaining and struggles among the competing coalitions. Therefore, strategic decision making in the organization reflects the relative power bases of the coalitions, and their preferences are conditioned by their power bases as well. In formal models of dynamic collective decision making, developed within the political economy literature (Acemoglu, Egorov & Sonin, 2012), it is argued that current decisions affect the future distributions of political power. Considering that interests are at the basis of coalition formation, and that each of the two coalition has an interest in the perpetuation of its power, we assume that the decisions they are making at present reflect their preferences for the (intra-organizational) future, and specifically for the distribution of intra-organizational power.

The dominant coalition prefers a situation, at the present and at the future, where organizational performance is improving, and where its relative power is increasing respectively. As positive performance feedbacks are considered as a success not only for the organization as a whole, but also for the dominant coalition that drives all important choices, the dominant coalition will prefer to have its proposals (for strategic decisions) accepted. Thus, it is likely that it would offer side-payments to the non-dominant coalition, in order for reaching a compromise.

Proposition 3: *When the relative power of the dominant coalition increases, as a result of positive performance feedbacks, it will have an interest in offering side-payments in order to reach compromises.*



However, in the case of performance significantly exceeding aspiration levels, the dominant coalition may prefer to offer different rewards to its members, or to expand by attracting more members, from the interior or the exterior of the organization. In that case, it may temporarily prefer to offer less side-payments to the non-dominant coalition, using the resources for its internal reconfiguration instead (or expansion).

Proposition 4: *When the performance exceeds significantly aspiration levels, and the relative power of the dominant coalition is increasing, it may prefer to offer less side-payments to the non-dominant coalition and focus on its internal reconfiguration and expansion.*

The non-dominant coalition, respectively, prefers a situation where performance is improving, and it can extract more side-payments in exchange for its agreement over key decisions. It can use the side-payments to keep its members satisfied, and preserving its internal stability.

Proposition 5: *When the performance improves (in comparison to aspiration levels), the non-dominant coalition will have an interest in offering compromises in exchange for side-payments and favours.*

As discussed above, the relative power of the non-dominant coalitions increases significantly when performance differs significantly (positively or negatively) from aspiration levels. In these two cases, the non-dominant coalition will prefer to abstain from offering compromises, exploiting instead the opportunity for ‘voicing’ its concerns or criticism towards the status quo, for articulating its ‘vision’ for the organization and for pushing for far-reaching changes in strategies and governance. As these political opportunities come with a narrow ‘window’ (in terms of time), the non-dominant coalition to take advantage of them, even if the outcome of the processes of bargaining or conflict is uncertain.

Proposition 6: *When performance differs significantly from aspiration levels (positively or negatively) and its relative power increases, the non-dominant coalition may prefer to challenge the status quo, instead of offering concessions (in exchange for side-payments).*

Having established that performance feedback triggers changes in relative power of the competing coalition and different coalitional dynamics, how these are influence strategic decision making? To illustrate that, we use a well-known strategic choice made by organizations: between exploration and exploitation, as strategic orientations. The concepts of exploration and exploitation have their intellectual roots to the Carnegie School and to the BTOF (March 1991; Levinthal & March, 1993) and have been widely discussed and research in the literature. However, they have not been examined through the perspective of power and politics, despite their common intellectual foundations (Argote & Greve, 2007; Gavetti et al., 2012). In a nutshell, an exploration-based strategy would entail the search for new knowledge and the engagement in strategic actions that are riskier and more uncertain, but that may yield better outcomes in terms of performance. Respectively, an exploitation-based strategy would

make better and more efficient use of existing knowledge and is usually of lower risk and likely to yield better outcomes (primarily) in the short-to-medium term (Posen & Levinthal, 2012). Here, the two alternatives are presented as two qualitative different strategies (or strategic orientations), but can also be conceptualized as search strategies, technology strategies, innovation strategies etc.

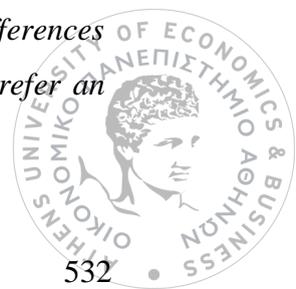
The dominant coalition, having an interest in improving performance as a means for perpetuating its own power base, will prefer the adoption of an exploitation-based strategy. Such a strategy, through refinements in the existing stocks of knowledge, emphasis on efficiency and incremental adaptations, is likely to produce outcomes (in terms of performance) in the short-term (Posen & Levinthal, 2012; Benner & Tushman, 2015). Performance improvements can, therefore, be utilized politically by the dominant coalition in order to preserve (and even expand) its power influence, appealing to internal and external constituencies and presenting the success as a result of its own decisions and actions.

Proposition 7: *With its relative power increasing, the dominant coalition will prefer an exploitation-based strategy as means for further positive feedbacks, and perpetuation of its power and influence.*

As performance improves, and with its relative power being low-to-medium, the non-dominant coalition will also prefer exploitation-based strategies. Such strategies can yield performance outcomes in the short term, and the non-dominant coalition on its turn can ask for more side-payments in exchange for its concessions to the proposals of the dominant coalition. This can be described as a situation of equilibrium, given that the two competing coalitions have both an interest for a specific strategy to be implemented, or strategic direction to be pursued. However, when performance differs significantly from the aspiration levels, either negatively or positively, and when the relative power of the non-dominant coalition increases, it will have less of an interest to support the status quo. As the dominant strategy paradigm (or ‘dominant logic’ as mentioned in the literature; Bettis & Prahalad, 1995; Pache & Santos, 2010) is destabilized, the non-dominant coalition will prefer to advocate for an exploration-based strategy. Such a strategy introduces novelty in the organization and matches with a political strategy of challenging the status quo, even if its outcomes are uncertain and tend to materialize in the medium-to-long term.

Proposition 8: *With its relative power in low to middle levels, the non-dominant coalition will prefer an exploitation-based strategy as means for extracting further side-payments and favors.*

Proposition 9: *With its relative power increasing, in cases of large performance differences from the aspiration levels (negative or positive), the non-dominant coalition will prefer an exploration-based strategy, as means for effectively challenging the status-quo.*



DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The motivation behind this paper is the lack of understanding on how coalitions operate within organizations and influence outcomes at different levels. Addressing calls for further development of the aforementioned concepts and arguments, we developed an updated conceptualization of intra-organizational coalitions, locating them at the upper-echelons of the organization, and a theory on how they act, interact and affect decision-making processes.

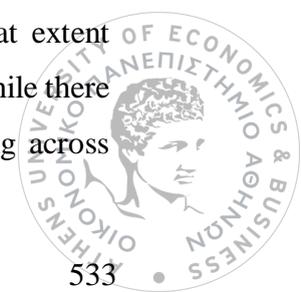
Through this paper, we aspire to contribute to the broader literature on power and politics in organizations, and extend the existing knowledge. First, we seek to re-establish the linkage between coalitional dynamics and heterogeneity in interests and preferences (of individuals, groups or coalitions). That linkage was at the core of earlier works in organization theory (March 1962; Cyert & March, 1963; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1974, 1977, 1978; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1974, 1977; Bacharach & Lawler, 1980), but was gradually abandoned in most recent works.

Our second contribution is the development of a more dynamic account of coalitions, looking into their interplay and the dynamics unfolding between (i.e. bargaining/ negotiation over goals, strategies and practices) and within them (i.e. allocate resources to members to preserve coalition stability). Dynamics such as the erosion of the power of the dominant coalition due to political contestation, the obsolescence of ‘old’ compromises and agreements between coalitions over time and the changing preferences of coalitions due to power differentials, are discussed in this paper.

Our third contribution regards introducing coalitional dynamics in a dynamic process model of performance feedback-induced strategic decision-making. In that way, we extend previous research on the political aspects of strategic decision-making (Eisenhardt & Bourgeois, 1988; Ocasio, 1994; Ocasio & Kim, 1999), while we also integrate two central elements of the BTOF (aspirations/performance feedback and coalitions) that have been developed independently in subsequent literature (Gavetti et al., 2012; Greve & Zhang, 2017). Thus, a more realistic account of how decisions are made by political actors with distinct preferences is provided.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The theoretical framework presented in this paper has certain limitations that illustrate potential paths for further theoretical refinement and empirical inquiry. For instance, it is rather ‘acontextual’ and ‘ahistorical’. Context and time/history are elements that need to be introduced in the narrative, in order to enrich it and to allow for empirical application in various organizational settings. It would also be interesting to investigate why and to what extent coalitional activity differs across organizations, sectors, countries and time-periods, while there is also need for further theoretical and empirical study of coalitions that are cutting across hierarchical levels.



There is also need to explore how our arguments on coalitional dynamics can apply when it comes to different types of organizational responses to performance feedback, with varying degrees of complexity, uncertainty and ambiguity, different time-horizons and different resource and performance implications. Mergers and acquisitions (Greve & Zhang, 2017), technology adoption (Kaplan 2008), make-or-buy decisions (Bidwell 2012), the allocation of resources to different departments (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977; Zbaracki & Bergen, 2010) and the prioritization of strategic initiatives generated at the middle-managerial levels (Burgelman, 1991, 2002) are examples of such potential organizational choices.

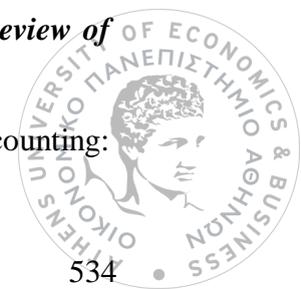
Finally, important insights can be generated through introducing an external perspective to the framework, linking intra-organizational coalitional dynamics to inter-organizational relationships. For instance, external resource-holders (e.g. institutional investors, funds, capital markets etc.), information intermediaries (e.g. security analysts, auditors, journalists etc.) and other stakeholders (e.g. the media, social movements, regulators etc.) can influence through their actions the balance of power between coalitions within the focal firm, as well as the political strategies and their implications at the organizational level.

CONCLUSIONS

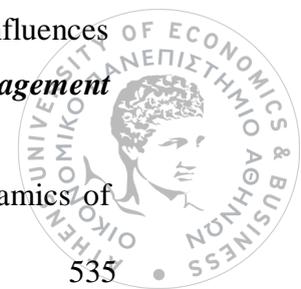
The purpose of our paper is twofold. First, to further develop the notion of coalitions as actors within organizations, and develop a more nuanced understanding of how they act and interact and of the various dynamics unfolding around them (within and between). Second, to explore the influence of coalitions in key organizational processes, such as strategic decision-making processes, and how power differentials are translated into distinct preferences and bargaining positions. In that way, the paper advances knowledge around power and politics in general, and on coalitions in particular, setting the stage for further theoretical development and empirical inquiry that would shed further light on these issues.

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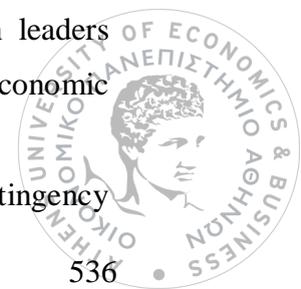
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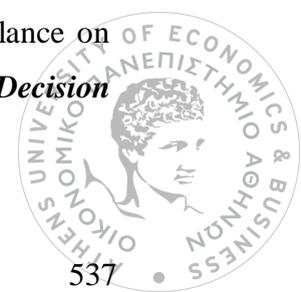
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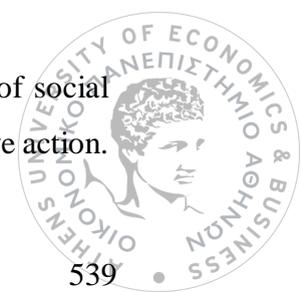
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8. ΠΕΝΤΕ ‘ΘΕΣΕΙΣ’ ΓΙΑ ΤΗ ΔΙΟΙΚΗΤΙΚΗ ΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΗ ΚΑΙ ΕΝΑ ΣΥΜΠΕΡΑΣΜΑ

Αντ. Μακρυδημήτρης

Σύνοψη

Η διοικητική τέχνη ή επιστήμη, παρά τη διάδοση και τη φήμη της στην κοινωνική εμπειρία, εξαιτίας ακριβώς της συμβολής της στην αποδοτικότητα των οικονομικών μονάδων (επιχειρήσεων) και στην αποτελεσματικότητα της πολιτικής διακυβέρνησης των κοινωνιών, είναι ταυτόχρονα «αδικημένη» από τη σκοπιά της συνειδητοποίησης των προϋποθέσεων για την άσκησή της.

Στο κείμενο εξετάζονται, κατά τρόπο συνοπτικό, ορισμένες από τις κυριότερες και πιο συνήθεις αβλεψίες που απαντούν σε επίδοξους ‘διοικητές’ ή ανώτερα στελέχη (για να μην πούμε και αναλυτές) της δημόσιας και επιχειρηματικής διοίκησης στη χώρα μας, όσο και αλλαχού.

Η αθροιστική ή σωρευτική επίγνωση αυτών των ελλειμμάτων, όσο και η συνειδητή προσπάθεια για την αντιμετώπισή τους, μπορεί να οδηγήσει στη διοικητική ευπραγία, αλλά και στην αποκατάσταση της διοικητικής επιστήμης στο πνευματικό βάθος που της αρμόζει.

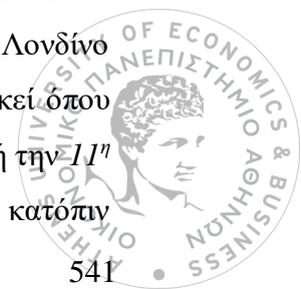
I.

Non nova sed nove

Ας μας επιτραπεί, καταρχάς, μια εισαγωγική διευκρίνιση. Ουδεμία προφανή σχέση έχουν οι σκέψεις που θα ακολουθήσουν με τις 95 *Θέσεις* που ανήρτησε ο Λούθηρος στα πρόθυρα του Ναού των Αγίων Πάντων στη Βυρτεμβέργη στα τέλη Οκτωβρίου 1517, ήτοι πριν από 500 χρόνια (503 για την ακρίβεια) εγκαινιάζοντας έτσι το μείζον εγχείρημα για τη Μεταρρύθμιση της δυτικής Εκκλησίας.

Όπως είναι γνωστό, στις ιστορικές εκείνες *Θέσεις* του ο Λούθηρος καυτηρίαζε με αυστηρότητα τα περιώνυμα ‘αφετήρια’ (ή συγχωροχάρτια) που δίδονταν στους πιστούς από την παπική Εκκλησία επί πληρωμή. Ο μεταρρυθμιστής θεολόγος κατήγγειλε αυτή τη σαθρή πρακτική, που προσέβαλλε βάνανυσα την αξιοπρέπεια του ανθρώπου και τον ηθικό και πνευματικό σκοπό της Χριστιανοσύνης.

Μια δεύτερη, εισαγωγική κι αυτή διευκρίνιση είναι ότι τα λεχθησόμενα εν συνεχεία επίσης ουδεμία έχουν άμεση σχέση με τις εξίσου γνωστές 11 *Θέσεις* του Μαρξ για τον *Φόιερμπαχ*, εκ των οποίων η τελευταία και πιο διάσημη είναι εκείνη που υποστήριξε ότι ‘οι φιλόσοφοι έχουν ερμηνεύσει τον κόσμο με τον έναν ή τον άλλον τρόπο· το ζήτημα είναι να τον αλλάξεις.’ Θυμούμαι, όχι δίχως κάποια συγκίνηση, ότι στα φοιτητικά μου χρόνια στο Λονδίνο πηγαίναμε που και που με φίλους στο κοιμητήριο του Highgate, όχι μακριά από εκεί όπου διέμενα, όπου είχε ταφεί ο σπουδαίος αναλυτής και επαναστάτης, παρατηρώντας αυτή την 11^η *Θέση* αναγεγραμμένη στο επιτάφιο μνημείο με τη μορφή του. Στις συζητήσεις μας κατοπι



μοχθούσαμε να συλλάβουμε το νόημα της εν λόγω ‘κατηγορικής προσταγής’, ως την αποκαλέσουμε έτσι με καντιανή ορολογία, περί της έμπρακτης, στοχαστικής μεν, τολμηρής δε, δράσης στο κοινωνικό πεδίο.

II.

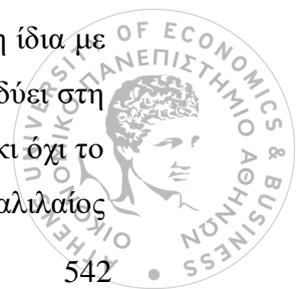
Αρκετά, όμως, με τα εισαγωγικά. Καιρός να εισέλθουμε στο κύριο μέρος της ανάλυσής μου, η οποία κατατίθεται *Bonae Gratiae* της καθηγητριάς κυρίας Νάνσυ Παπαλεξανδρή, εξετάζοντας συνοπτικά την πρώτη από τις πέντε προαναφερθείσες ‘θέσεις’:

α) *Ουδείς κλάδος των κοινωνικών επιστημών έχει υποστεί μεγαλύτερη προσβολή, ούτε έχει δεχθεί τέτοια περιφρόνηση όσο η επιστήμη και η τέχνη της διοίκησης· ώστε να νομίζει κανείς ότι μπορεί να την ασκήσει (επιτυχώς) δίχως την αναγκαία σπουδή, εμπειρία και προπαρασκευή.*

Κάτι ανάλογο ίσχυε παλιά για την ιατρική και τη φιλοσοφία· τώρα εξακολουθεί να ισχύει και να τηρείται, εν πολλοίς, για τη διοίκηση και την πολιτική, τη διακυβέρνηση και το διοικείν. Αλλά αν ο ερασιτεχνισμός (ή ‘τσαρλατανισμός’ επί το λαϊκότερον) στην ιατρική ή τη φιλοσοφία ασκείται επί ζημιά είτε του ίδιου του πράττοντος είτε των ασθενών του, η βλάβη στη διοίκηση και την πολιτική έχει ευρύτερη σημασία και γενικότερες επιπτώσεις.

Γιατί, όμως, συμβαίνει αυτό; Και πώς εξηγείται το φαινόμενο ότι πολλοί εξακολουθούν, ακόμα και σήμερα στις αρχές του 21^{ου} αιώνας, να θεωρούν εαυτούς κατάλληλους και αρμόδιους για τα θέματα της διοίκησης (ή και της πολιτικής) δίχως ειδική σπουδή και προπαρασκευή; Κι όμως κάτι τέτοιο δεν θα γινόταν, ευτυχώς, πλέον αποδεκτό για την ιατρική, τη ναυπηγική, την αρχιτεκτονική, τη χημεία, τη μηχανουργία, ούτε καν και για εκείνη την αγροτική καλλιέργεια ή ακόμα και για τη φιλοσοφία. Σε όλους αυτούς τους κλάδους και τις τέχνες, όπως και σε πολλούς άλλους τομείς του επιστητού, ο ερασιτεχνισμός και η ευκολία παραμερίζεται, αν δεν έχει εξοβελιστεί εντελώς. Όχι, όμως, στη διοίκηση (και την πολιτική)· εκεί όλοι ή πολλοί διεκδικούν εξίσου το τεκμήριο της αρμοδιότητας και της ικανότητας χειρισμού των προβλημάτων. Αρκεί, λέγεται, να είναι κανείς έξυπνος και πρόθυμος, να εμπιστεύεται την κρίση και τη σκέψη του, να έχει τα μάτια του ανοιχτά και όλα τ’ άλλα θα έρθουν μετά.

Είναι, όμως, έτσι; Ή μήπως απαντά εδώ το σύνδρομο της επιφανειακής γνώσης, που περιγράφει γλαφυρά στο έργο του *Αγία Ιωάννα* ο συγγραφέας George Bernard Shaw; Όταν είπαν κάποτε στην περίφημη Jeanne d’Arc, την Ιωάννα της Λωραίνης, για τη θεωρία του Κοπέρνικου, σύμφωνα με την οποία η γη είναι στρογγυλή και περιστρέφεται γύρω από τον ήλιο, εκείνη απάντησε περιφρονητικά με τη γνωστή της αυτοπεποίθηση – ‘Τι ανόητος! Δεν μπορούσε να χρησιμοποιήσει τα μάτια του για να δει τι συμβαίνει;’. Εφόσον εκείνη η ίδια με τα μάτια της έβλεπε κάθε πρωί τον ήλιο να εγείρεται στην ανατολή και το βράδυ να δύει στη δύση, δεν υπήρχε αμφιβολία ότι ο ήλιος περιστρέφεται γύρω από την ωραία μας γη, κι όχι το αντίστροφο, όπως υποστήριζαν κάποιοι αφελείς επιστήμονες (εν οίς ο Κοπέρνικος, ο Γαλιλαίος



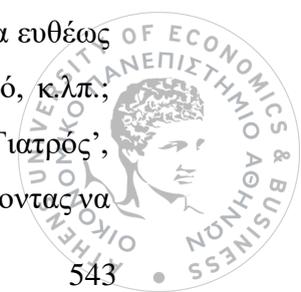
και άλλοι στοχαστές). Αυτός θα ήταν περίπου ο συλλογισμός της Ιωάννας της Λωραίνης, που έχει μάλιστα ανακηρυχθεί ‘αγία’ και εορτάζεται από την Καθολική Εκκλησία.

Εκπλήσσει, άραγε, ο ισχυρισμός ότι το φαινόμενο αυτό απαντά καμιά φορά και στα καθ’ ημάς σε κάποιους ή και πολλούς από αυτούς που ασχολούνται με τη διοίκηση (δημόσια και επιχειρηματική) σε υπεύθυνες μάλιστα θέσεις; Εμπιστευόμενοι τη δική τους οξεία, όπως νομίζουν, αντιληπτική ικανότητα και κρίση αναλαμβάνουν το έργο της διοίκησης με πάθος και προθυμία αντιστρόφως ανάλογη προς το επίπεδο της από μέρους τους συστηματικής προπαρασκευής και προετοιμασίας. Το αποτέλεσμα; Αφήνω τα συμπεράσματα στον αναγνώστη των σελίδων αυτών, αφού προηγουμένως αναφερθώ σε δύο περιστατικά από τη δική μου προσωπική πείρα, που είναι νομίζω αρκούντως διδακτικά.

Ήταν πριν από 30 περίπου χρόνια όταν, έχοντας επιστρέψει από τις μεταπτυχιακές σπουδές μου στο εξωτερικό, ανέλαβα τη θέση του Διευθυντού σε μια από τις δύο εκπαιδευτικές μονάδες του νεοσύστατου τότε Εθνικού Κέντρου Δημόσιας Διοίκησης. Συνομιλώνοντας κάποτε φιλικά με τον επικεφαλής Γενικό Γραμματέα μού εκμυστηρεύτηκε ότι η εργασία που είχε τότε αναλάβει, ήτοι αυτή του Γενικού Γραμματέα στο Κέντρο, ήταν η πιο ενδιαφέρουσα που είχε κάνει ποτέ στη ζωή του. Ποιος ο λόγος, τον ρώτησα. Δεν υπάρχει, απάντησε, πιο συναρπαστικό πράγμα από το να διοικείς ανθρώπους. Και πιστεύεις πως ασκείς αυτό το έργο καλά;, ρώτησα διακριτικά ερεθίζοντας, εντέχνως, τον προβληματισμό του. Κοίταξε να δεις, μου λέει, ως τώρα ασχολούμουν με άλλα πράγματα, αλλά μαθαίνω γρήγορα και τα αποτελέσματα είναι ορατά· δεν είναι; Επιφυλάχτηκα να απαντήσω προτού λάβω μια ακόμα πληροφορία. Ποια ήταν ως τώρα η εμπειρία σου;, τον ρώτησα, και ποιες οι σπουδές σου; Σπούδασα στο Πολυτεχνείο, απάντησε, είμαι πολιτικός μηχανικός ειδικευμένος στα υδραυλικά έργα. Αλλά τίποτα δεν είναι τόσο δελεαστικό όσο το έργο που κάνω τώρα στη δημόσια διοίκηση, συνέχισε ο καημένος εξομολογητικά. Α, κατάλαβα, απάντησα υπαινικτικά και μετά συνεχίσαμε για άλλα θέματα.

Δεν ξέρω εάν κατάλαβε τι εννοούσα. Περιστό να προσθέσω ότι μετά τη σύντομη θητεία του στη θέση αυτή εκείνος ο καλός άνθρωπος ούτε ασχολήθηκε ποτέ ξανά με τη δημόσια διοίκηση, ούτε άφησε κάποιο σπουδαίο έργο στον τομέα αυτόν, ούτε είναι γνωστό το όνομά του.

Το δεύτερο περιστατικό συνέβη λίγα χρόνια αργότερα στις αρχές της δεκαετίας του 1990 στο πλαίσιο μιας δημόσιας συζήτησης, ενός είδους ημερίδας στην οποία ελάμβανε μέρος και η ταπεινότητά μου μαζί με έναν πολιτικό, πρώην υπουργό, αρκετά επιφανή, που δεν βρίσκεται πλέον εν ζωή. Διαφωνώντας ευγενικά μεν αλλά ουσιαστικά επί ενός ζητήματος της τοπικής αυτοδιοίκησης και έχοντας απορήσει για κάποιο επιχειρήμά του, τον ρώτησα ευθέως – μα είναι δυνατόν, εσείς νομικός, να μην αντιλαμβάνεστε ότι αυτό δεν είναι ορθό, κ.λπ.; Εκείνος απάντησε ευθαρσώς, ‘δεν είμαι νομικός’. Τι είστε;, ρώτησα τότε εγώ. ‘Γιατρός’, αποκρίθηκε με κάποια υπερηφάνεια, νομίζω. Α, κατάλαβα, είπα εγώ τότε ξανά μη θέλοντας να



δώσω συνέχεια. Εκείνος δεν ξέρω αν κατάλαβε τότε το νόημα της δικής μου ηχηρής σιωπής. Δεν έπαψε, βέβαια, να με εκτιμά, αλλά θεωρούσε εαυτόν ειδικό και αρμόδιο και σε θέματα της διοικήσεως πέραν αυτών της ιατρικής. Κάτι που όμως εγώ δεν θα τολμούσα ποτέ να διεκδικήσω για τα δεύτερα· μου αρκούσαν τα πρώτα.

III.

Καιρός είναι, όμως, να περάσω στη δεύτερη από τις ‘θέσεις’, που έχουν εξαγγελθεί:

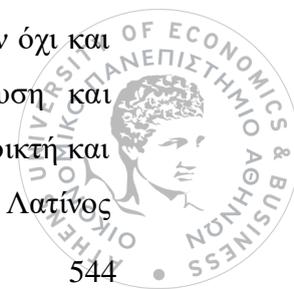
β) *Η γνώση της διοίκησης έρχεται, δυστυχώς, αργά· σαν το πουλί της σοφίας (τη γλαύκα), φτάνει μόλις πλησιάζει το βράδυ.*

Όσοι είναι κάπως εξοικειωμένοι με τη φιλοσοφία, θα θυμούνται την περίφημη μεταφορική εικόνα με την οποία ο Hegel περαίνει τον πρόλογό του στη *Φιλοσοφία του Δικαίου*, έργο που εξεδόθη στο Βερολίνο το σωτήριο έτος 1821, ακριβώς τη χρονιά που ξεκινούσε η μεγάλη επανάσταση για την απελευθέρωση του έθνους στον δικό μας, τον ελλαδικό χώρο. Στην αγγλική μετάφραση το κείμενο έχει ως εξής: “*The owl of Minerva begins its flight only with the onset of dusk*”. Και σε πρόχειρη απόδοση στα ελληνικά – ‘Η γλαύκα της Αθηνάς αρχίζει να πετά μόλις πέσει το σκοτάδι’.

Το νόημα αυτής της σιβυλλικής έκφρασης, εν είδει δελφικού χρησμού, είναι ότι, συνήθως, ‘δεν κατανοούμε πλήρως μια πράξη, παρά μόνο αφού αυτή έχει συντελεστεί’. Τουτέστιν, η προγνωστική μας δυνατότητα είναι μικρή και πεπερασμένη, ιδίως όταν δεν είναι ασκημένη. Επομένως, κατά κανόνα, η αληθινή γνώση και ερμηνεία τωνπραττομένων επέρχεται εκ των υστέρων, αφού αυτά έχουνπραχθεί και όχι πριν από αυτά. Για τούτο λέγεται ότι είμαστε μάλλον επι-μηθείς παρά προ-μηθείς – μαθαίνουμε αφού συμβεί κάτι και όχι πριν από αυτό. Έτσι, όσο κι αν θαυμάζουμε τον μυθικό ήρωα που έφερε το φως στους ανθρώπους, στην πραγματικότητα είμαστε τέκνα του αδελφού του, του Επιμηθέα, τον οποίο ο ποιητής Πίνδαρος χαρακτήριζε ως ‘οψίνος’, εν αντιθέσει προς τον προνοητικό μεγαλύτερο αδελφό του.

Ακόμα χειρότερο είναι, φυσικά, το ενδεχόμενο να μην μαθαίνουμε από τις πράξεις μας και μάλιστα από τα σφάλματά μας, να μην διδασκόμαστε από αυτά. Όσοι, όμως, δεν ανασκοπούν αυτό που συνέβη και δεν εξάγουν τα αναγκαία συμπεράσματα από τα λάθη τους, είναι καταδικασμένοι να τα επαναλάβουν στο μέλλον.

Είναι γνωστό πως η ζωή και η πρακτική της διοίκησης, δημόσιας ή ιδιωτικής, δεν είναι επιχείρημα, ούτε διεξάγεται υπό ελεγχόμενες συνθήκες στο εργαστήριο ή το *studiolum* του ερευνητή. Δεν είναι άμοιρη σφαλμάτων, αλλά υπόκειται σε αυτά. Είναι, όμως, τόσο αναγκαίο να βρithει από αυτά; Και η δράση να μην είναι, συχνά, παρά αποτέλεσμα τυφλής, αν όχι και φανατικής, βουλευσιαρχίας ή βολονταρισμού, δίχως περίσκεψη, επαρκή ανάλυση και αντικειμενική στάθμιση των δεδομένων; Είναι τούτο ανεκτό σε μια κατά τα άλλα ανοικτή και έλλογη κοινωνία, και για πόσο ακόμα καιρός; ‘*Errare humanum est*’, έλεγε ο σπουδαίος Λατίνος



φιλόσοφος και στοχαστής, ο Σενέκας· προσέθετε, όμως, υπαινικτικά, *'sed perseverare diabolicum'*.

Αλίμονο, θα γνωματεύσει ο ψυχρός παρατηρητής, ο άνθρωπος δεν διαθέτει άλλον τρόπο να μαθαίνει παρά μόνο μέσω της εμπειρίας του, από τα λάθη και τα σφάλματα στις επιλογές του, τις εικασίες και τις διαψεύσεις του. Τούτο, εξάλλου, δεν δίδασκε και ένας κορυφαίος καθηγητής και φιλόσοφος στο L.S.E. (ο Karl Popper); Ακολουθώντας κατά τούτο τον σπουδαίο κληρικό και διανοούμενο της Καθολικής Εκκλησίας, κατά την υστερο-μεσαιωνική περίοδο, Νικόλαο Κουζάνο, ο οποίος υποστήριζε στην *'περί αγνωσίας θεωρία'* (De Docta Ignorantia) του ότι όλη η γνώση μας δεν είναι παρά εικασίες περί του αληθούς (de coniecturis), που άλλοτε το προσεγγίζουν λίγο περισσότερο και άλλοτε απομακρύνονται από αυτό. Χρέος μας είναι, λοιπόν, ως συνειδητοποιημένων ανθρώπων να αποφεύγουμε κατά το δυνατόν το δεύτερο και να προσηλωνόμαστε όσο γίνεται στο πρώτο (την ατελή, έστω, προσέγγιση του αληθούς). Ο πυρήνας της σκέψης του Κουζάνου, όπως και άλλων μεσαιωνικών στοχαστών, δεν οφείλεται στην προσχώρησή τους σε κάποιας μορφής ολικό σκεπτικισμό, αλλά μάλλον στην παραδοχή ότι η απόλυτη ή πλήρης γνώση βρίσκεται μόνο πλησίον του θείου, κάτι που είναι απροσπέλαστο στον θνητό, που εκ των πραγμάτων περιορίζεται σε μια ατελή γνώση περί αυτού. Τούτο δεν τον εμποδίζει, όμως, κατά τη σχετική γνωστική θεολογία, να προσπαθεί αενάως να οργανωθεί η σκέψη και η πράξη του ανθρώπου *'καθ' ομοίωσιν'* του ιδεώδους της θεϊκής πληρότητας της γνώσης, ήτοι να την προσεγγίζει κατά το δυνατόν, αφαιρώντας καθ' οδόν προσκόμματα και επισφαλείς εικασίες.

Στο πνεύμα αυτό μπορεί να εκτιμηθεί δεόντως και η αναδιατύπωση στη νεώτερη εποχή της σισύφειας απόπειρας διεύρυνσης της γνώσης μέσω υποθέσεων, διαψεύσεων και νέων ορθότερων υποθέσεων και γνωμών. Έτσι, κατά την περίφημη εξίσωση περί της *'ορθοπραγίας'* του Popper, η προσπάθειά μας αναπτύσσεται πάντοτε κατά την ακολουθία *'Trial → Error → Error elimination → Trial, again'*. Τουτέστιν, αν μετά την προσπάθεια διαπιστωθεί κάποιο σφάλμα, ακολουθεί η αφαίρεση του σφάλματος και κατόπιν νέα προσπάθεια, δίχως όμως το σφάλμα που εντοπίστηκε.

Συμπεραίνεται, λοιπόν, από τη δεύτερη *'θέση'* στην ως άνω προβληματική ότι, αν το σφάλμα δεν μπορεί να αποκλειστεί εκ των προτέρων, πρέπει όμως να αποκλειστεί έστω εκ των υστέρων. Επομένως, επανάληψη των ίδιων σφαλμάτων είναι απαγορευτική. Κι όμως πόσο συχνά συμβαίνει αυτό, σχεδόν κατά τρόπο εμμονικό, στο διοικητικό πεδίο της χώρας μας, από τη μια ή την άλλη πλευρά του λόφου (στη δημόσια ή την επιχειρηματική διοίκηση), που μοιάζει έτσι να γίνεται συχνά κάτι σαν πεδίο άσκησης μαθητευόμενων μάγων!



IV.

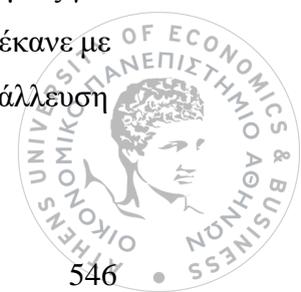
‘Δεν υπάρχει βασιλική οδός στη γεωμετρία’

Η καλύτερη εισαγωγή ή διευκρίνιση του νοήματος της τρίτης ‘θέσης’ περί της Διοικητικής Επιστήμης μπορεί να δοθεί με την αναφορά σε ένα περιστατικό από την ιστορία, που συνέβη πολλά χρόνια πριν. Κάποτε ο βασιλεύς της Αιγύπτου Πτολεμαίος Α΄, φιλομαθής των και εις εκ των επιγόνων του Μεγάλου Αλεξάνδρου, επισκέφθηκε τον σπουδαίο φιλόσοφο και μαθηματικό Ευκλείδη στο εργαστήριό του στην Αλεξάνδρεια. Εκεί εντυπωσιασμένος από την πολυπλοκότητα των γεωμετρικών σχημάτων, των αριθμητικών υποθέσεων, των αξιωμάτων και των παραδοχών (μέρη όλα αυτά των περίφημων *Στοιχείων*), ρώτησε τον φιλόσοφο εάν υπήρχε κάποιος σύντομος και απλός τρόπος, ώστε να μπορούσε να εξοικειωθεί κι εκείνος με αυτή την περίπλοκη και ενδιαφέρουσα επιστήμη. Τότε ο φιλόσοφος απάντησε με την ευθύτητα, την ειλικρίνεια και την ευγένεια που προσήκει στους αληθινούς στοχαστές: *Λυπούμαι, εξοχότατε, αλλά ‘δεν υπάρχει βασιλική οδός στη γεωμετρία’!* Δηλαδή, αν θέλεις να μάθεις στ’ αλήθεια αυτή την τέχνη και την επιστήμη, πρέπει να αφοσιωθείς σε τούτη, να δαπανήσεις χρόνο για τη σπουδή και τη μελέτη.

γ) Δεν υπάρχει απλή ούτε εύκολη μέθοδος για να μάθει κανείς να διοικεί καλά· και πάντως δεν αρκεί η κατοχή της εξουσίας ή της ιδιοκτησίας. Χρειάζεται ειδική σπουδή, άσκηση και εμπειρία.

Για να το πούμε με τη λατινική ορολογία και κατά τους όρους της μοναστικής παράδοσης, που οδήγησε σταδιακά στα σύγχρονα πανεπιστήμια, η γνώση ανελίσσεται κατά τα διαδοχικά στάδια της *lectio - meditatio - contemplatio* (ήτοι ανάγνωση, μελέτη και εμβάθυνση, θεώρηση και αναστοχασμός). Το ένα στάδιο πιο απαιτητικό από το άλλο, γι’ αυτό και το προηγούμενο εκτρέφει το επόμενο, ώστε δεν είναι δυνατόν να μεταβεί κανείς στο επόμενο, εάν δεν έχει ανεβεί και εξαντλήσει το προηγούμενο σκαλί.

Από τον βίο του Ευκλείδη αναφέρεται και ένα άλλο περιστατικό, το οποίο καλό είναι να θυμούνται και οι δικοί μας συνάδελφοι, οι διοικητικοί επιστήμονες. Κάποτε ένας μαθητής του, αφού αποστήθισε τα πρώτα θεωρήματα της γεωμετρίας, ζήτησε να μάθει τι κέρδος θα μπορούσε να αποκομίσει από τις γνώσεις αυτές. Τότε ο Ευκλείδης στράφηκε στον υπηρέτη του και του είπε – *‘δώσε του τρεις δεκάρες για να κερδίσει κάτι από αυτά που έμαθε’!* Κι όμως υπάρχουν πολλοί, ακόμα και σήμερα, ημιμαθείς και ψευδο-εμπειρογνώμονες της τέχνης και της επιστήμης της διοικήσεως, κάποιοι μάλιστα υπό το κάλυμμα διεθνών οργανισμών, που πληρώνονται αδρά από αδαείς ‘πελάτες’ στο δημόσιο ή τον ιδιωτικό τομέα της οικονομίας για τις πολύτιμες, υποτίθεται, συμβουλές και αναλύσεις τους! Ο Ευκλείδης ξέρουμε τι θα έκανε με αυτούς που προβαίνουν σε αυτό το είδος ‘επιστημονικής σιμωνιάς’ (εμπορική εκμετάλλευση της γνώσης ή της σκέψης) – και ο νοών νοείτω.



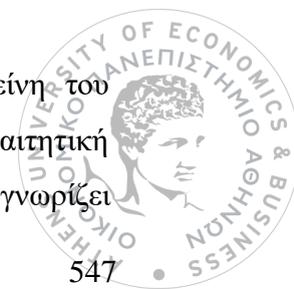
Κοντολογίς, και μεταφέροντας το ευκλείδειο επιχείρημα στα καθ' ημάς, δεν γίνεται κανείς ειδικός και αρμόδιος στα θέματα της διοικήσεως έτσι εύκολα και απλά με την ανάγνωση, λ.χ., εγχειριδίων του τύπου 'manager του ενός λεπτού'! Ή άλλης μορφής απλουστευτικές συνταγές ανάλογης σημασίας και αξίας. Κάθε τέχνη είναι δύσκολη και απαιτητική, ακόμα και η αμπελουργική, στην οποία επιδίδομαι επ' εσχάτοις στο χωριό μου με οικτρά αποτελέσματα, που προκαλούν τον οίκτο και τον γέλωτα των έμπειρων αγροτών, οι οποίοι απολαμβάνουν το θέαμα ενός έγκριτου μεν καθηγητού πλην αδόκιμου αμπελοκαλλιεργητού.

Η διαπίστωση αυτή γεννά το επόμενο ερώτημα – 'μα, καλά, πώς γίνεται κανείς ικανός και κατάλληλος περί τα διοικητικά; Ποιοι είναι εκείνοι που είναι ικανοί και κατάλληλοι να διοικούν; Πού βρίσκονται και πώς τους αναγνωρίζουμε;'. Η απάντηση μοιάζει να είναι σχετικά απλή και εύκολη επί της αρχής, μετά εγείρονται οι αμφιβολίες και οι προβληματισμοί.

Πράγματι, σε μια στοιχειωδώς ανοικτή και δημοκρατική κοινωνία όλοι οι πολίτες μπορούν, θεωρητικά, να γίνουν δημόσιοι ή και ιδιωτικοί υπάλληλοι, όπως και διοικητές ή 'managers' οργανισμών και υπηρεσιών του δημόσιου ή του επιχειρηματικού τομέα της οικονομίας. Όλοι; Ναι, βέβαια, αλλά υπό προϋποθέσεις. Όπως και όλες οι γυναίκες, όχι όμως οι άνδρες, μπορούν να γίνουν μητέρες, αλλά και εκεί απαντούν κάποιοι όροι και προϋποθέσεις. Ορισμένες από αυτές είναι, ενδεικτικά, να είναι σχετικά νέες στην ηλικία, να έχει προηγηθεί επιτυχής και εκούσια σύλληψη, προσεκτική κυοφορία, καλή διατροφή, ασφαλής τοκετός και λοχεία, απουσία σοβαρής ασθένειας, ψυχική ηρεμία, φιλικό περιβάλλον, κ.λπ. Κάτι ανάλογο ισχύει εν πολλοίς και για τη διοίκηση, που όχι τυχαία, θαρρώ, είναι και αυτή γένους θηλυκού και μοιάζει σε πολλά γνωρίσματα με μια τέχνη ή επιστήμη 'μαιευτική', όπως θα την αποκαλούσε ο Σωκράτης.

Ας το σκεφθούμε για λίγο – η μαία ή και ο μαιευτήρ, πλέον, δεν γεννούν οι ίδιοι, αλλά η νεαρή και υγιής γυναίκα, την οποία συνδράμουν, βοηθούν και επικουρούν να συλλάβει, να κυοφορήσει και να γεννήσει επιτυχώς. Αν ο διοικητής ή ο manager είναι κάτι σαν την μαία ή τον μαιευτήρα, όπως θα πίστευε εκθύμως ο Σωκράτης για τη φιλοσοφία, τότε το ζητούμενο είναι η διαμόρφωση των συνθηκών εκείνων που είναι οι πλέον κατάλληλες προκειμένου να επιτευχθούν σκοποί και στόχοι συλλογικής σημασίας με τη συνεργασία και τη συνδρομή διαφόρων ανθρώπων με ποικίλλουσες δεξιότητες, ικανότητες και αξίες. Ο κλασικότερος ορισμός της διοίκησης (management) είναι ακριβώς αυτός – 'η επίτευξη στόχων με τη συνεργασία διαφορετικών ανθρώπων' ("getting things done through others"). Υπό την έννοια, λοιπόν, αυτή, 'η διοίκηση είναι τέχνη ή επιστήμη μαιευτική'.

Ένα ανάλογο και συναφές παράδειγμα ή μεταφορική ιδέα θα ήταν εκείνη του προπονητή αθλητών ή του διευθυντή ορχήστρας. Και ξέρουμε πόσο δύσκολη και απαιτητική είναι η εν λόγω τέχνη ή επιστήμη, την οποία δεν διανοείται κανείς να ασκήσει, αν δεν γνωρίζει



καλά και σε βάθος το αντίστοιχο άθλημα ή δεν διαθέτει τη μουσική εξοικείωση, παιδεία και εμπειρία. Μολονότι ο αρχιμουσικός δεν παίζει κανένα όργανο στην ορχήστρα, είναι πάντως εμβριθής γνώστης της μουσικής τέχνης και της παρτιτούρας του έργου του συνθέτη. Πάντως, αυτός ‘ο άνθρωπος με τη μπαγκέτα στο χέρι’ δεν είναι κάποιος άσχετος που καμώνεται τον ειδικό και τον επαΐοντα, όπως ατυχώς τόσο συχνά συμβαίνει στον στίβο της διοικήσεως, δημοσίας ή ιδιωτικής, στη χώρα μας (δεν είμαι μάλιστα βέβαιος πού απαντά περισσότερο το φαινόμενο, στη μια ή στην άλλη πλευρά του λόφου).

Ξέρω πως δεν είναι εδώ τώρα η κατάλληλη στιγμή για να προχωρήσω περισσότερο επ’ αυτού. Αρκετά ταλαιπωρούνται οι φοιτητές και οι φοιτήτριές μου στο πανεπιστήμιο με τα ζητήματα αυτά· δεν χρειάζεται να εξαντλήσω κι εσάς, ούτε ο χρόνος το επιτρέπει. Καιρός είναι, λοιπόν, να περάσω στην τέταρτη και προτελευταία ‘θέση’ στον συλλογισμό μου.

V.

Τι διδάσκει η διοικητική επιστήμη

Μπορεί η αρχή της ‘απροσδιοριστίας’ (indeterminism) να διέπει γενικά τα ανθρώπινα, κατά την κρατούσα στην εποχή μας άποψη, αλλά κάποιες βασικές παραδοχές θα πρέπει εντούτοις να εκληφθούν ως στοιχειωδώς ‘σταθερές’, έστω και πάνω στην ‘κινούμενη άμμο’ της πραγματικότητας, όπως συνήθως την εκλαμβάνουμε. Μερικές από αυτές είναι οι ακόλουθες στο πεδίο της διοικητικής επιστήμης, οι οποίες όμως, όχι σπανίως παρορώνται και δεν τυγχάνουν της δέουσας προσοχής από μέρους εκείνων που ασκούν διοικητικά καθήκοντα και επιφορτίζονται με ανάλογες ευθύνες:

δ) *Ας μην κοιτάζουμε μόνο τα άμεσα ή βραχυπρόθεσμα αποτελέσματα, αλλά και τα μακροπρόθεσμα·*

Ας μην ενδιαφερόμαστε για τις θετικές συνέπειες μόνο για μια ομάδα (ή συντεχνία), αλλά και για άλλες, δυνητικά όλες.

Στην πραγματικότητα, αν προσέξουμε καλύτερα, θα διαπιστώσουμε πως πρόκειται για τέσσερις μάλλον αλληλένδετες αρχές ή κανόνες περί το διοικητικώς πράττειν. Εάν μάλιστα τις εκθέσουμε εν είδει λεξικογραφικής κατάταξης, θα έχουν την ακόλουθη περίπου μορφή:

- (i) *Καθώς μεριμνούμε για τα άμεσα αποτελέσματα μιας ενέργειας,*
- (ii) *Διερευνούμε, συνάμα, όσο γίνεται πιο προσεκτικά και τις μακροπρόθεσμες συνέπειες και επιπτώσεις – θετικές ή όχι,*
- (iii) *Χωρίς να εστιάζουμε στις θετικές συνέπειες για μια μόνο ομάδα (λ.χ. αυτή που μας στηρίζει) αδιαφορώντας για τις άλλες,*

- (iv) *Αλλά αναζητούμε τις συνέπειες για όλες, δυνητικά, τις ομάδες, ιδίως δε στη δημόσια διοίκηση όπου προέχει το δημόσιο συμφέρον.*

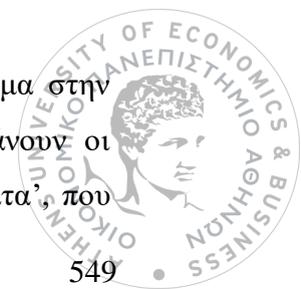
Μια βασική ιδέα διατρέχει αυτές τις αρχές ή τους κανόνες, που είναι απολύτως απαραίτητοι για τη διοικητική ευρυθμία. Η σκέψη αυτή έχει να κάνει με το δάσος, τα δέντρα και τη φωτιά – αν κοιτάζω να σώσω μόνο τα δικά μου τα δέντρα, ενώ το δάσος ολόκληρο καίγεται, τελικά μάλλον δεν θα καταφέρω τίποτα ή ελάχιστα πράγματα. Το ζήτημα είναι το δάσος να μην πάρει φωτιά, το πλοίο να μην βουλιάξει, κ.λπ. Μπορεί να κλυδωνίζεται, αλλά να μη βυθίζεται – *fluctuat non mergitur*, όπως θα έλεγαν οι αείποτε φίλοι μας, οι Λατίνοι.

Για να καταστήσω ακόμα πιο σαφές το επιχείρημα, θα προσφύγω σ' ένα παράδειγμα πολύ γνωστό από τη δική μας πολιτικο-διοικητική εμπειρία. Αν προσλαμβάνουμε ή προωθούμε τους δικούς μας (συγγενείς, φίλους ή οπαδούς) σε θέσεις ευθύνης στο Δημόσιο, το άμεσο αποτέλεσμα μοιάζει να είναι θετικό ή ευεργετικό για εκείνους και για εμάς· η δική τους ικανοποίηση μεταφράζεται σε δική μας στήριξη και αποδοχή. Το ζήτημα, ωστόσο, είναι τι γίνεται με τις ευρύτερες συνέπειες και για άλλες ομάδες του πληθυσμού. Ικανοποιώντας κατά τρόπο ευνοιοκρατικό κάποιους, μήπως δυσαρεστούμε πολύ περισσότερους;

Ο μέγιστος θεωρητικός της Κοινωνιολογίας και της Θεωρίας των Οργανώσεων στον 20^ο αιώνα, ο Max Weber, επέμενε ότι πρέπει να μελετούμε, όσο γίνεται πιο ενδελεχώς, κατά τον σχεδιασμό ορισμένης ενέργειας όχι μόνο τις εμπρόθετες, αλλά και τις απρόθετες συνέπειες των επιλογών μας, μάλιστα αυτές με αρνητικά ενδεχομένως αποτελέσματα. Οι λεγόμενες απρόβλεπτες συνέπειες ('unanticipated consequences'), αν έχουν θετικά αποτελέσματα, κατά τύχη, τούτο έστω γίνεται ανεκτό (από ηθικής σκοπιάς το θετικό αποτέλεσμα θα πρέπει να έχει προέλθει συνειδητά και εμπροθέτως, όχι τυχαία). Το ζήτημα είναι αν αυτές, εκτός του ότι είναι απρόθετες και απρόβλεπτες, συνοδεύονται και από αρνητικά αποτελέσματα. Τότε τι γίνεται; Και πώς μπορεί να αποφευχθεί αυτό;

Βέβαια, το μέλλον είναι άγνωστο στον άνθρωπο και ποτέ δεν μπορεί να το προβλέψει επακριβώς. Οι θεοί μόνο έχουν τούτο το προνόμιο, ενώ οι θνητοί περιορίζονται, συνήθως, στην ανάμνηση των παρελθόντων. Οι εχέφρονες, ωστόσο, άνθρωποι ασκούν την κρίση και τη διορατικότητά τους για την ισχνή, έστω, διαίσθηση των επερχομένων. Όπως το έλεγε πολύ ωραία σ' ένα επίγραμμα του ο Φιλόστρατος, «*θεοί μιν γαρ μελλόντων, άνθρωποι δε γιγνομένων, σοφοί δε προσιώντων αισθάνονται*». Αυτοί οι τελευταίοι, διευκρινίζει εύστοχα στο ομώνυμο ποίημά του ο Καβάφης, *δαισθάνονται, σκύβουν προσεκτικά και αντιλαμβάνονται «τη μυστική βοή των πλησιαζόντων γεγονότων»*.

Προκειμένου να αντιμετωπιστεί, κατά το δυνατόν, το προγνωστικό έλλειμμα στην ανθρώπινη δράση και να εμπλουτιστεί η ποιότητα των αποφάσεων που λαμβάνουν οι άνθρωποι, αξίζει να λαμβάνει κανείς υπόψη του δύο από τα πολύ γνωστά 'αξιώματα', που



απαντούν στον χώρο της εφαρμοσμένης διοικητικής επιστήμης· γνωστά μεν, αλλά συχνά αμελούμενα και παρορώμενα.

Το πρώτο εξ αυτών έλκει την καταγωγή του από την κλασική ελληνική αρχαιότητα και είναι γνωστό ως ‘αριστοτελικό αξίωμα περί της ευπραγίας’: «*Πρώτον μεν εάν ειδώς, έπειτ’ εάν προαιρούμενος, και προαιρούμενος δι’ αυτά, το δε τρίτον εάν και βεβαίως και αμετακινήτως έχων πράττη*» (Ηθικά Νικομάχεια, 1105 a 31-33). Πράγματι, η ποιότητα μιας ενέργειας και μιας απόφασης στη δημόσια ή την ιδιωτική σφαίρα της ζωής ερείδεται σε τρεις βασικές και αλληλένδετες συνιστώσες ή προϋποθέσεις – τη γνώση, τη βούληση και την εφαρμογή.

Δεν ενεργούμε, συνεπώς, ορθά αν προηγουμένως δεν μελετήσουμε και αναλύσουμε ενδελεχώς το υπό αντιμετώπιση πρόβλημα με τέτοιον τρόπο ώστε τίποτα να μην μείνει έξω από τη σφαίρα της εξέτασης, της γνώσης του θέματος και της σπουδής. Αφού εξαντληθεί το στάδιο αυτό της μελέτης, τότε καλούμαστε να σχηματίσουμε την αναγκαία βούληση ή προαίρεση για τη συγκεκριμένη και προκρινόμενη επιλογή, μετά από εξέταση των εναλλακτικών λύσεων ή τρόπων δράσης, που έχουμε στη διάθεσή μας. Και αφού μετά τη γνώση, σχηματίσουμε και την αναγκαία βούληση, τότε και μόνο τότε ακολουθεί το τρίτο και πιο ορατό στάδιο ή σκέλος της απόφασης, ήτοι η έμπρακτη εκτέλεση και εφαρμογή με αλεξάνδρεια ταχύτητα, ενεργητικότητα και σθένος.

Το αριστοτελικό υπόδειγμα περί της διοικητικής ευπραγίας διευκρινίζεται έτι περαιτέρω από το πιο σύγχρονο διάγραμμα για την πορεία ή τα στάδια της διαδικασίας λήψεως των αποφάσεων (decision making), που υπαγορεύει τα ίδια περίπου στοιχεία, αλλά με πιο αναλυτικό τρόπο. Αρύεται δε την έμπνευσή του από τη θεωρία των αποφάσεων του νομπελίστα Herbert A. Simon και τη συστημική προσέγγιση, αλλά και από την πλούσια νομολογιακή εμπειρία του Συμβουλίου της Επικρατείας:

Δόμηση προβλήματος → **Εναλλακτικές επιλογές** → **Σκοποθεσία** → **Εφαρμογή** → **Αξιολόγηση**

Παρέλκει να υπογραμμιστεί ότι η μεθοδολογία αυτή είναι απολύτως αναγκαία συνθήκη (sine qua non) για μια στοιχειωδώς έλλογη και αποδεκτή απόφαση δημόσιας πολιτικής σε μια δημοκρατική κοινωνία. Τηρείται, όμως, στην πράξη; Τούτο μπορεί να διαπιστωθεί από έναν παρατηρητή οιουδήποτε νόμου ψηφίζεται στη Βουλή και εξετάσει στο σκεπτικό ή στην αιτιολογική του έκθεση σε ποιον βαθμό ακολουθήθηκαν αυτά τα στάδια κατά την προετοιμασία, την εκτέλεση και την αξιολόγησή του. Είναι, ωστόσο, πολύ πιθανό ότι η πραγματογνωμοσύνη αυτή μπορεί να απογοητεύσει τον παρατηρητή και να προξενήσει φρίκη ή αποτροπιασμό για την προχειρότητα και την έλλειψη μεθοδικότητας με την οποία λαμβάνονται πολύ συχνά οι αποφάσεις στη δημόσια μάλιστα σφαίρα. Πώς το λέει ποιητικότερα ο Ελύτης στο 6^ο *Ανάγνωσμα*, το επιλεγόμενον και *Προφητικόν* από το *Άξιον Εστί*; «*Λείψανα παλιών άστρων και γωνιές αραχνιασμένες τ’ ουρανού σαρώνοντας η καταϊγίδα που θα γεννήσει*

ο νους του ανθρώπου. Και των αρχαίων κυβερνητών τα έργα πληρώνοντας η χτίσις, θα φρίζει. Ταραχή θα πέσει στον Άδη, και το σανίδωμα θα υποχωρήσει από την πίεση τη μεγάλη του ήλιου».

VI.

Στο σημείο αυτό δεν παρέλκει, πιθανόν, μια παρατήρηση, πριν από την πέμπτη και τελευταία 'θέση' της επιχειρηματολογίας.

Έστω, λοιπόν, ότι υιοθέτησε κάποιος και ακολούθησε στο μέτρο του δυνατού την ως άνω μεθοδολογία για μια εύλογη διαδικασία λήψης απόφασης στη διοίκηση (δημόσια ή επιχειρηματική) και, παρά τις προσπάθειες και τις προληπτικές εγγυήσεις, τα αποτελέσματα και οι επιπτώσεις δεν επιβεβαιώνουν τις αγαθές προθέσεις, αλλά τις διαψεύδουν· τι μπορεί και πρέπει τότε να συμβεί; Εδώ εγείρεται το ηθικό αξίωμα της ευθύνης και της λογικής της υπευθυνότητας, για το οποίο επέμενε πολύ έως το τέλος της ζωής του ο Max Weber. Ο δημόσιος, ιδίως, λειτουργός, τόνιζε, οφείλει να αναλαμβάνει πάντοτε την ευθύνη για τα αποτελέσματα και τις συνέπειες των πράξεων ή των παραλείψεών του, ακόμα και αν ήταν απρόθετες ή απρόβλεπτες, ιδίως δε εάν ήταν αρνητικές. Ευθύνη σημαίνει υπευθυνότητα, δηλαδή καθίσταται ο ίδιος υπαίτιος ή υπόλογος γι' αυτές χωρίς να μετακυλύει το βάρος σε άλλους. Διαφορετικά χάνει το κύρος και την ακτινοβολία του αξιώματός του.

Η ανάληψη της ευθύνης και η λογική της υπευθυνότητας δεν εξαντλείται όμως απλά και γρήγορα σε μια δημόσια τελετουργία εικονικής παραδοχής, ομολογίας σφάλματος και αβλεψίας - με συγχωρείτε, έκανα λάθος, είχα όμως αγαθές προθέσεις, άρα συνεχίζω κανονικά, κ.λπ.. Αν συμβεί αυτό, η υπευθυνότητα εξαερώνεται και μετατρέπεται σε μια συμβολική κίνηση εξιλέωσης, που συσκοτίζει παρά διαυγάζει τα πράγματα. Για να το πούμε με τα λόγια του Λούθηρου στην 27^η και 28^η από τις περιώνυμες *Θέσεις* του, αν νομίζει κάποιος ότι με την παραδοχή του σφάλματός του 'εξαγοράζει' τη συγχώρηση γι' αυτό, τότε τέτοιου είδους ομολογίες δεν κάνουν τίποτα άλλο παρά να παραπλανούν έτι περαιτέρω τους ήδη πεπλανημένους. Για να προσθέσει στην 33^η *Θέση* του, ότι 'οι άνθρωποι πρέπει να είναι πολύ επιφυλακτικοί σε τέτοιου είδους ομολογίες'.

Και τι πρέπει να γίνει; Η απάντηση είναι πολύ απλή, όσο και δύσκολη, στην πραγμάτωσή της. Το σφάλμα οδηγεί σε παραίτηση, τίποτα λιγότερο. Παραίτηση, απομάκρυνση, ιδιώτευση. Δεν νοείται κάποιος που έσφαλε, έστω και χωρίς πρόθεση, να συνεχίζει να ασκεί τα καθήκοντά του σαν να μην έχει συμβεί τίποτα το μεμπτό. Είναι σαν ένας χειρουργός που λόγω δικής του αμέλειας ή αβλεψίας, άνευ προθέσεως, βεβαίως, απέτυχε η εγχείρηση και απεβίωσε ο ασθενής, να μπαίνει την άλλη μέρα ξανά στο χειρουργείο, ή ο πιλότος στο πιλοτήριο, κ.λπ.

Τα μεγαλύτερα σφάλματα στους ανθρώπους δεν γίνονται από πρόθεση, αλλά από αμέλεια και αβλεψία – per incuriam, όπως έλεγαν οι Λατίνοι. Τούτο διδάσκει και η αρχαία



ελληνική τραγωδία (ας σκεφθούμε τον δυστυχή Οιδίποδα). Αλλά η αμέλεια και η αβλεψία δεν είναι κάτι το ανάλαφρο και γοητευτικό, που εύκολα και συγκαταβατικά παραβλέπεται και συγχωρείται. Αντιθέτως, η ηθική της ευθύνης και της υπευθυνότητας υπαγορεύει αναποδράστως την απομάκρυνση του υπευθύνου· και υπεύθυνος είναι αυτός που έχει την ύπατη αρμοδιότητα και το δικαίωμα της εντολής ή της αποτροπής. Ακόμα και αν ενήργησε δίχως πρόθεση· γιατί αν είχε πρόθεση, τότε πρέπει να πάει φυλακή. 'Η πραγματική μετάνοια', θα πει ο Λούθηρος στην 40^η Θέση του, 'αναζητά και αγαπά την τιμωρία', δεν την μετατοπίζει αλλού. Διαφορετικά, παίζουμε θέατρο και μάλιστα σκιών κατάλληλο για μικρά και ανίδια παιδιά. Ή δεν παίρνουμε τη λογική και την ηθική της ευθύνης και της υπευθυνότητας στα σοβαρά, όπως αρμόζει σε τίμιους και ελεύθερους ανθρώπους.

Τούτη η σκέψη μας οδηγεί κατευθείαν στην πέμπτη και τελευταία από τις 'θέσεις' που ήθελα να εκθέσω σήμερα ενώπιόν σας.

VI.

Φιλοσοφική στροφή

ε) Αν η διοίκηση δεν έχει στοχαστικό και ηθικό περιεχόμενο, δεν θα απέχει πολύ από τη βαρβαρότητα, τον κονισμό και τη λογική της ισχύος - όχι την ισχύ της λογικής.

Δεν είναι λίγοι εκείνοι, χωρίς όμως να είναι πολλοί, ούτε εκφράζουν την κρατούσα άποψη στον κλάδο, που ισχυρίζονται και προσπαθούν να αποδείξουν κάτι που μοιάζει αδύνατο ή αδιανόητο – ότι, δηλαδή, η τέχνη και η επιστήμη της διοίκησης είναι, εν τέλει, τμήμα και οργανικό στοιχείο της εφηρμοσμένης φιλοσοφίας. Όχι απλά της νομικής ή της πολιτικής επιστήμης, των οικονομικών, της ψυχολογίας ή της κοινωνιολογίας· αυτά έχουν ήδη αποδειχθεί. Υποστηρίζουν, αντιθέτως, ότι η διοίκηση ως επιστήμη (και όχι ως 'επιστημονισμός') είναι μέρος και στοιχείο της φιλοσοφίας, ήτοι της πιο σύνθετης και απαιτητικής, αλλά και της πιο πολύτιμης στον άνθρωπο διάστασης του πνεύματος και της ηθικής του συγκρότησης.

Δεν το κάνουν αυτό, όσοι εξ εκείνων είναι Έλληνες, γιατί απευθύνονται σε Έλληνες, ήτοι σε ανθρώπους που χειρίζονται και κατανοούν σε βάθος την ελληνική γλώσσα· δηλαδή μια γλώσσα που προσφέρεται κατεξοχήν για τη φιλοσοφία. Είναι γνωστό ότι ήδη ο Κικέρων τον 1^ο αιώνα π.Χ., ενώ διαπίστωνε την υπεροχή των Λατίνων σε ζητήματα πειθαρχίας και οργάνωσης του δημοσίου χώρου (της *res publica*, όπως την αποκαλούσε), του δικαίου και της έννομης τάξης, αναγνώριζε συνάμα ανεπιφυλάκτως την ανωτερότητα των Ελλήνων ως προς τη φιλοσοφία.

Δεν είναι όμως η ευχέρεια στα ελληνικά που ωθεί τις αναλύσεις προς μια 'φιλοσοφική' κατεύθυνση ή στροφή στη διοικητική επιστήμη. Ο κύριος λόγος είναι η οδυνηρή διαπίστωση μιας έκπτωσης του ηθικο-στοχαστικού στοιχείου στην πράξη της διοίκησης στον δημόσιο,

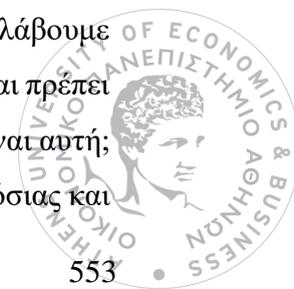


αλλά και τον ιδιωτικό ή επιχειρηματικό τομέα της οικονομίας. Υφέρπει και επεκτείνεται ολοένα και περισσότερο ένα είδος ρηχού πρακτικισμού, ένας αφιλοσόφητος ‘επιστημονισμός’, που απομακρύνει τις αναλύσεις από τα ουσιώδη διακυβεύματα· συνάμα μια εργαλειακή αντίληψη για τα πράγματα και τους ανθρώπους, που οδηγεί σε μια αποξένωση (ή ‘αλλοτρίωση’, κατά την εγελιανή ορολογία) και υποδούλωση του ανθρώπινου πνεύματος σε αλυσίδες και δεσμά που ο άνθρωπος κατασκεύασε για τη διευκόλυνσή του, αλλά κινδυνεύει να πνιγεί από αυτά. Σε τέτοιες στιγμές ο Λόγος μετατρέπεται και εκφυλίζεται σε μια λογιστική, που απομακρύνεται από την ευρύτητα και την ανωτερότητα του πνεύματος δείχνοντας τα όρια και τα στοχαστικά ελλείμματα του ‘εργαλειακού λογισμικού’ (*debilitas rationis*).

Πρόκειται, εντούτοις, για μια παράδοξη αντιστροφή, που εμφανίζεται αρκετά συχνά στην ιστορία. Ο άνθρωπος κατασκευάζει κάποια όπλα, μέσα ή εργαλεία για να τον υπηρετούν, αλλά μετά από λίγο μετατρέπεται ο ίδιος σε υπηρέτη των όπλων, των μέσων και των εργαλείων του. Αν όμως αυτό αφεθεί να συνεχιστεί, τότε δεν αργεί η στιγμή που ο άνθρωπος έχοντας καταστεί και εκπέσει από αφέντης σε υπηρέτη των όπλων του, δεν αρκείται πια σε αυτό, αλλά τα στρέφει κατά του ίδιου του εαυτού του – ή άλλων συνανθρώπων του. Σε τούτο το ανίερο έργο μπορεί να ‘βοηθήσει’ πολύ η διοικητική επιστήμη ή μάλλον τεχνολογία, υπό την πιο πεζή, ρηχή και αφιλοσόφητη εκδοχή της (η μεθοδικότητα και η οργανωτική συνέπεια με την οποία διοικούνταν τα στρατόπεδα συγκεντρώσεως και εξοντώνονταν οι Εβραίοι στο καθεστώς της ναζιστικής Γερμανίας αποτελεί μια χαρακτηριστική μαρτυρία). Ίσως δεν πρέπει να λησμονείται, εν προκειμένω, ότι ο όρος ‘management’, που είναι κατά το ήμισυ ελληνικής προελεύσεως (εκ του ‘manus’, λατινιστί χείρ, και ‘άγω’), σε κατά λέξη απόδοση δεν σημαίνει παρά ‘χειραγωγή’! Ας μην λατρεύουν, λοιπόν, κάποιοι απερίσκεπτα αυτή την επίγεια θεότητα (‘management’), της οποίας δεν κατανοούν καν την ακριβή σημασία και τις προεκτάσεις της επικυριαρχίας της.

Αυτά τα ενδεχόμενα είχε ήδη διαβλέψει πριν από 100 ακριβώς χρόνια ο Max Weber. Περαιίνοντας ο κορυφαίος στοχαστής την ομιλία του στους φοιτητές του πανεπιστημίου του Μονάχου, δύο μόλις χρόνια προτού αποβιώσει (1920), ‘δεν βλέπω’, τους έλεγε, ‘μιαν άνοιξη να έρχεται μπροστά μας, αλλά έναν σκοτεινό και παγερό χειμώνα’ – *“Not a summer’s bloom lies ahead of us, but rather a polar night of icy darkness and hardness, no matter which group may triumph externally now”*. Ξέρουμε τι ακολούθησε στην πατρίδα του ελάχιστα χρόνια αργότερα – η λαίλαπα του ναζισμού και του φασισμού, που αιματοκύλησε την Ευρώπη για μεγάλο διάστημα.

Μπορούμε, άραγε, να αντισταθούμε στον κίνδυνο αυτόν και να προλάβουμε επερχόμενα δεινά; Μία μόνο λύση υπάρχει, ένα είναι το ‘φάρμακο’ ή το ακεσώδουνο και πρέπει να λάβουμε τάχιστα την αναγκαία δΟΣΟΛΟΓΙΑ, προτού να είναι πια πολύ αργά. Ποια είναι αυτή; Η ενίσχυση της ηθικο-φιλοσοφικής συγκρότησης των λειτουργών της διοίκησης, δημόσιας και



επιχειρηματικής· η ανανέωση και αναζωογόνηση του στοχαστικού και πνευματικού τους κεφαλαίου, ώστε η τριβή με την καθημερινότητα να μην απορροφήσει εντελώς και αδρανοποιήσει πλήρως την ηθική τους ακεραιότητα, την ανιδιοτέλεια και την πίστη στην ευγένεια του λειτουργήματός τους. Φθάνουμε, έτσι, από αυτή την οδό, στο τελική παρατήρηση.

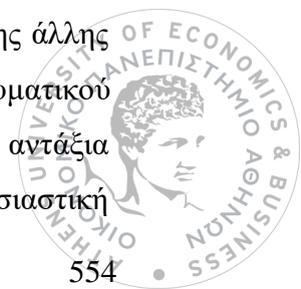
VII.

Συμπέρασμα

Το περιστατικό είναι γνωστό· αρκεί να κοιτάξει κανείς την περικοπή από το ευαγγελικό κείμενο. Ο Ιησούς με τους μαθητές του επισκέπτονται ένα βράδυ μια μικρή πολιτεία («*κώμην τινά*»)· βγαίνει μια γυναίκα (η Μάρθα) να τους υποδεχτεί και να τους φιλοξενήσει στο σπίτι της. Εκεί αρχίζει να κάνει ετοιμασίες και τις σχετικές εργασίες. Η αδελφή της όμως η Μαρία, αντί να την βοηθήσει, κάθεται και ακούει τα λόγια του Χριστού – «*παρακαθήσασα παρά τους πόδας του Ιησού ήκουε τον λόγον αυτού*». Οπότε όλες οι δουλειές έπεσαν στην πλάτη της Μάρθας, η οποία και «*περιεσπάτο περί πολλήν διακονίαν*». Κάποια στιγμή κι ενώ η Μαρία δεν κάνει τίποτα για να τη συνδράμει, αποφασίζει η ίδια η Μάρθα να απευθυνθεί στον υψηλό επισκέπτη και να διαμαρτυρηθεί. «*Κύριε*», του λέει, «*ου μέλει σοι ότι η αδελφή μου μόνην με κατέλιπε διακονείν; Επέ ουν αυτή ίνα μοι συναντιλάβηται*»· να έρθει, δηλαδή, και να με βοηθήσει. Τότε ο Χριστός, προς μεγάλη της προφανώς έκπληξη, αποκρίνεται με την περίφημη ρήση περί ‘κυριοπραγίας’ – «*Μάρθα, Μάρθα, μεριμνάς και τυρβάζη περί πολλά· ενός δ’ εστι χρεία*» (Λουκ. X, 41).

Ποιο είναι όμως αυτό το ένα, το βασικό και το κύριο, “*il commune e proprio*”, όπως θα το αποκαλούσε στους *Ελεύθερους Πολιορκημένους* ο Διονύσιος Σολωμός; Την απάντηση δίνει ο ίδιος ο Χριστός στο αμέσως επόμενο χωρίο του ιερού κειμένου – ‘Εσύ μπορεί να κάνεις δουλειές του σπιτιού’, της λέει, η «*Μαρία δε την αγαθήν μερίδα εξελέξατο, ήτις ουκ αφαιρεθήσεται απ’ αυτής*». Και στο ερώτημα ποια είναι η ‘αγαθή μερίδα’, η απάντηση είναι προφανής – η στοχαστική ή πνευματική ζωή! Η Μαρία μπορεί να απέφυγε τις δουλειές του σπιτιού, δεν απέφυγε όμως τη σπουδαία δουλειά να ακούσει προσεκτικά τα λόγια του Ιησού, να τα αφομοιώσει και να τα κάνει πράξη μετά. Διάλεξε, δηλαδή, τη στοχαστική, την πνευματική στάση ζωής, και αυτό είναι το μήνυμα της αναφοράς.

Στην απορία, εν κατακλείδι, πώς μεταφράζονται και διερμηνεύονται όλα αυτά στα καθ’ ημάς, εδώ και τώρα, *hic et nunc*, στο δύσβατο τοπίο της διοίκησης, δημόσιας και επιχειρηματικής, στην Ελλάδα, η απάντηση είναι απλή όσο και δυσεφάρμοστη: τα προβλήματα δεν αντιμετωπίζονται ‘δογματικά’ με την υιοθέτηση και την εφαρμογή της μιας ή της άλλης απλουστευτικής, συνήθως, και εκλαϊκευτικής συνταγής ρηχού θεωρητικού ή πνευματικού περιεχομένου και προσανατολισμού. Αντιθέτως, η διοίκηση ως τέχνη και επιστήμη αντάξια του ονόματός της μας καλεί και μας προκαλεί για μια διαφορετική, πιο μεστή και ουσιαστική



άσκηση κριτικής ανάλυσης και συσσώρευσης εμπειρίας σε μια σύνθεση πρωτότυπη και δημιουργική - σαν αυτή που σκιαγραφεί ο Πλάτων στον *Πολιτικό* του: μια τέχνη υφαντική, πάντα *συνυφαίνουσα ορθότατα*.

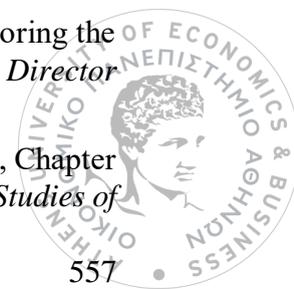
Αν τούτα φαίνονται καινοφανή και απροσδόκητα, ας θυμηθούμε ότι τις τελευταίες αράδες του ως άνω πλατωνικού διαλόγου ο Ξένος (στοχαστής, *persona imaginata*) ενημερώνει φιλικά τον νεαρό συνομιλητή του (που φέρει το όνομα Σωκράτης, αλλά δεν έχει σχέση με τον φιλόσοφο) –‘το ξέρω πως αυτά που λέω δεν είναι συνηθισμένα, άκουσέ τα όμως με προσοχή και ίσως ωφεληθείς κι εσύ κάπως από αυτά στο μέλλον’.

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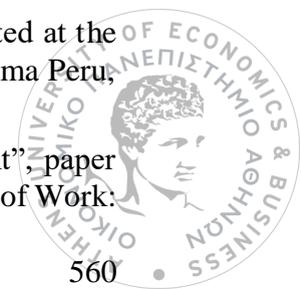
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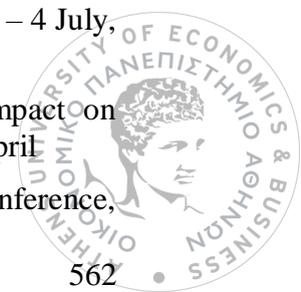
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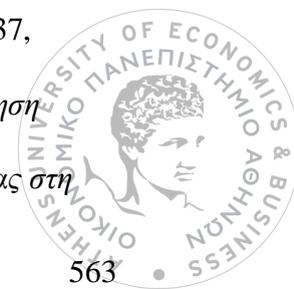
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