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Engineering management

THE IMPACT OF PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS ON CONFLICT TENDENCY

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Abstract

The impact of different personality types on team conflict emergence has been subject of numerous management theorists′ and practitioners′ researches. Accordingly, in one study, managers have reported that about 20% of the time, they have spent resolving conflicts and coordinating duties and tasks and different personality types. The aim of this study is to examine which types of personalities are more prone to conflict situations and whether there is a difference in respondents′ attitudes related to socio-demographic parameters.

Keywords**:** *socio-demographic parameters, conflict, management, personality types, research.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Very high correlation between personality types and conflicts has been a research subject of many theorists and presents the base of this study as well. The aim of the paper is to indicate the relationship between personality types and conflicts, i.e. based on the given relations to point out which of the five great personality dimensions are most likely to get into the conflict situation. The authors of this study have used a HEXACO questionnaire (having used five basic personality types, although the study covers with six personality types), and obtained results showed in the study, applying the ANOVA method.

The first part of the paper presents theoretical personality and conflict concept, underlying subareas relevant for the research. It also includes basic data on HEXACO questionnaire.

The second part presents research process and methodology, research results, discussion of results and their explanation. Research methods help in solving problem presented in the introduction, but the discussion itself helps in getting concrete solutions, i.e. consequences related to the problem.

2. CONFLICT

Conflicts among people are inevitable. Actually, historians often observe the development of human society as a succession of conflicts and fights. The conflicts are mostly expressed in the business world. The most frequent conflicts are those between competing companies, but, there are also conflicts among people working in the same environment as a product of diversity of personalities.

The conflict means *disagreement between two or more group or team members, occurring as a result of sharing scarce resources, mutual tasks, having different goals, attitudes or perceptions.* [1]
To identify a situation as a conflict, there should be four elements: (1) *previous conditions for conflict emergence:* scare resources, wrong policy of a company, bad reward system, wrong perceptions; (2) *affective states of individuals and groups:* stress, tension, hostility, anxiety; (3) *cognitive states of individuals and groups:* beliefs, conscience, awareness that there is a conflict situation, endangering interests; (4) *conflict behaviour:* from passive resistance to aggression toward the other party.
Traditional attitude toward conflicts is negative, i.e. it is supposed that conflicts should be avoided. A contemporary attitude is that conflicts present natural and inevitable phenomenon in the society and working environment. Nowadays conflicts are accessed through the interaction perspective that not only accepts the conflict, but justifies its controlled and moderate stimulation in slack labour conditions and lack of creative solutions. [2] In other words, conflict is precondition to complete a work efficiently. It is essential to manage the conflicts and provide a level of conflicts guaranteeing labour productivity. Negative consequences are often emphasized in favour of positive ones. Different people provide different opportunities for conflict development. Avoiding conflicts at any cost is not recommendable as it is a good chance for them to find new ideas and solutions together. Leader of organizations, teams or groups should know how to recognize conflict and how to solve it efficiently so it can have positive consequences.
The term conflict usually refers to the conflict of interest (needs, motives, wishes, etc.) and conflict of values (insights, attitudes, ideology and similar). The basic assumption of conflicts is dissatisfaction of people due to the presence of a certain problem and demonstrated tension.

2.1. Sources of conflict

There are several sources that can cause conflicts. All sources of conflicts can be divided into two groups: *organizational and interpersonal.* [3]
Organizational sources of conflicts are specific for organizations and involve certain features of organizational structure and systems which create the favourable conditions for arising conflicts among employees. Some of the most significant organizational sources of conflicts are:

(1) *Limited resources.* Two or three employees should share limited resources. For example, marketing managers ask general manager to provide funds for a new product promotion while the production manager needs Financials for machinery repairing – it can lead to the conflict that is to be solved by the general manager.

(2) *Interpersonal relationships.* The conflict can emerge in case when a team member has great influence on his colleague′s work either by imposing his qualities or by his delays so the work cannot be done on time.

(3) *Mutually conflicting interests* refer to opposite of objectives of different organizational units that cannot be accomplished at the same time.

(4) *High differentiation of organizational units.* Highly expressed differences between groups within a company creates or stimulate conflict emergence. For example, production process requires larger series and standardized product, whereas commercial department requires small series and the product adapted to the customer.

(5) *Differences in criteria of performance evaluation and reward system.* When two or more organizational units are evaluated and rewarded according to different criteria, employees can feel to be in an inferior position, so it leads to the conflict.

(6) *Organizational ambiguities and shortcomings.* Lack of a clear division of labour or delegating authority form the basis for conflict.

Interpersonal differences mean differences between personal beliefs, interests, commitments or, even level of education. The most important interpersonal sources of conflicts are:

(1) *Wrong perceptions and attribution*. Conflicts arise here primarily because of the wrong image that an individual creates or obtains on intentions, interests or cause of the behavior of another member of society, community, a team or a group.

(2) *Poor communication*. Poor communication can cause a misunderstanding about attitudes or intentions from the message sender.

(3) *Lack of trust*. Lack of trust among team members causes the emergence of very intensive conflicts.

(4) *Personal characteristics and values.* When people get into conflict because they dislike a person, it is a matter of value system, although differences in personality types can also be the reason for conflict emergence.

2.2. Most common types of conflict

Considering types of conflicts, conflict can be classified in several ways. In our scientific research, we have taken into account general division of conflicts into *cognitive* and *affective conflicts.* [4]

Cognitive conflicts are productive, their consequences imply better results, greater commitment to work and better work performances. They are characteristic and very desirable in organizations, groups or teams, hence they should be stimulated as their result is better decision making and greater cohesiveness. The persons who enter into cognitive conflict are often those with strong opposing opinions, whereas cognitive conflict does not generate personal conflict. After cognitive conflict, the relationship between persons strengthens as their contribution is balanced.

Affective conflicts are those that lead to fights, block activities, they are dysfunctional and often cause communication breakdown. Consequences of affective conflicts are bad decisions, weak work performances, less commitment, etc. Affective conflicts are related to personality and they express hatred and envy. They can be very dramatic for individuals and for the community, group or team (weakening productivity, failure to perform tasks on time etc.).

The Table 1. shows basic differences between affective and cognitive conflicts from the business aspect.

Table 1: Cognitive and affective conflict in a team [4]

<table>
<tr><th>COGNITIVE CONFLICT</th><th>AFFECTIVE CONFLICT</th></tr>
<tr><td>Related matters</td><td>Personified differences</td></tr>
<tr><td>Discussions with no arguments</td><td>Prejudices cause provocation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Focused on goals</td><td>Wasting time on behaviour „winner-loser“</td></tr>
<tr><td>Harmless way of disagreement</td><td>Phenomenon of domination</td></tr>
<tr><td>Avoiding domination or personal exclusion</td><td rowspan="2">The main objectives are transformed into personal attacks</td></tr>
<tr><td>Open communication</td></tr>
</table>

2.3. The effects of conflicts

Despite the opinion that conflicts have positive effects on the team (group, organization) operation, implying that cognitive conflict may be followed by new ideas leading to work performance improvement or new product, conflict negative consequences are apparent as well.

Some of the conflict negative effects (referring to affective conflicts), often mentioned in literature, are: (1) *conflicts disrupt the normal functioning of organization,* as people spend all their time and energy to solve them instead to perform their tasks; (2) *conflicts underscore emotions instead of reason in making decision processes*, as they are taken too personally and cause emotional reactions; (3) *conflicts divert attention from joint to personal goals*, as some individuals considers conflict solution as their personal loss or avail and winning in conflict usually places above general interest; (4) *conflicts cause the stress, frustration and other negative consequences for employees.* [5]

Positive aspects of cognitive conflicts are the following: (1) *conflicts stimulate critical analysis*, as they require arguments against opposing opinion resulting in detecting the faults of a proposal; (2) *conflicts motivate people,* as many people want to reach the goal just because they are in conflict with someone else; (3) *conflicts are often cause of required changes*; (4) *conflicts purify the environment and eliminate the hidden misunderstandings*; (5) *conflicts stimulate internal cooperation between different organizations, teams and groups.* When a team is conflicted with another team, conflicts often can bring team members together and strengthen their cooperation.

3. PERSONALITY AND PERSONALIITY DIMENSIONS

Personality is one of the primary factors of individual behavior in an organization. Different people behave differently at work. Personality is often defined as a unique combination of personal characteristics characterized by the way one behaves and interacts with others. [6] Personality, also, involves integrated, consistent and relatively stable set of psychological characteristics of a person, determing their specific and consistent behavior. Personality is a unique combination of biologically given and acquired interactive properties. All personality definitions recognize the fact that unique profile or a combination of characteristics mark off a person from others in the environment. Additionally, all personality definitions indicate the fact that personality is formed and present in interaction with other people. Lifetime interactions form the personality and help us meet someone′s real nature.

3.1. Personality factors

One of the frequent question is: What are the most important factors forming the personality? The main discussion topics have been whether the greater impact on personality forming has heritage or environment. It is completely clear that heritage and environment are two basic personality factors. However, some authors add situational constraints as a corrective factor.

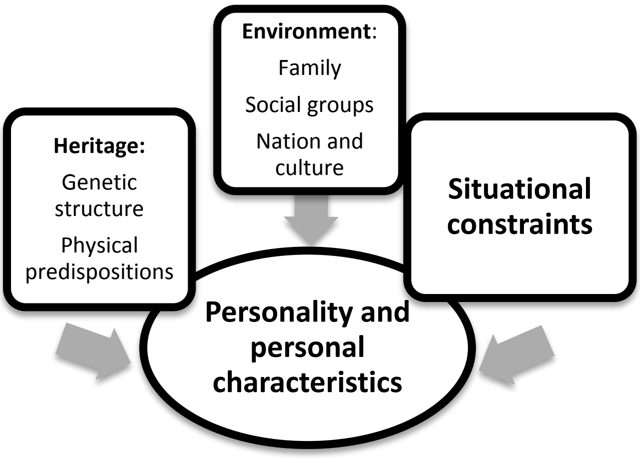

Figure 1. Personality factors [5]

The heritage consists of all impacts on personality that a man obtains at birth. They include different physical predispositions: physical constitution, gender and sexual orientation, temperament, energy level, biorhythm etc. But, genetic heritage is one of the significant factors influencing personality forming (an example is a research on twins having lived in separate families). Environment also comprises series of factors having the impact on personality. Firstly, impact of the family. It is the most important factor creating the personality (for example, children learn the model of parental behavior and they often unconsciously absorb characteristics and behaviour of their parents). Beside primary family, there is a great impact of extended family (grandfather, grandmother, uncle, aunt), school friend, etc. Other factors that have a great impact on personality forming include belonging to a specific social group, social class, profession... or to the nation and national culture. Situational constraints are not as important as heritage or environment, but they can influence personality development. They can rarely form specific personality trait if a person does not possess it, but they can potentiate the hidden feature the person had no idea to have had. That is the reason why we are sometimes surprised when a person behaves quite the opposite that we have used to.

3.2. Personality dimensions

The most significant classification of personality characteristics or traits is defined through five big personality dimensions (Big Five Model): [5]

Table 2: Big five personality dimensions [5]

Stable, self-confident, efficient, calm, safe, relaxed	Adaptability	Nervous, suspicious, worried, insecure, confused
Social, energetic, dramatic, talkative, active, self-confident	Sociability (openness)	Shy, aloof, reserved, quiet, closed
Tidy, responsible, thorough, organized, ambitious	Conscientiousness	Impulsive, carefree, irresponsible, careless, ineffective
Warm, tactic, careful, cooperative, tolerant,	Agreeableness (pleasantness)	Independent, cold, impolite, indecent, unpleasant

trustworthy, attentive, caring		
Imaginative, curious, original, intelligent, reasonable, creative	Intellectual openness	Boring, unimaginative, conventional

Extraversion - introversions (sociability or openness) – is a degree to which one is sociable, i.e. pleasant in relationships with others. Extravert or sociable people are communicative and friendly toward others. Introvert or unsociable people are less prone to get into social interactions and less enjoy in establishing new relationships. Extravert people are more satisfied with their jobs and more easily get into contacts with their colleagues, than introvert ones. The jobs that are more convenient for them are sales and public relations.

Agreeableness or pleasantness. This is a personality dimension is extreme; there are cooperativity, warmth and trust on one side, whereas coldness and distrust, on the other. This trait shows a tendency to agree with others and to keep good relationships. They are usually people showing great care for others, collegial and decent. They are great team members and right choice for jobs dealing with interpersonal relations. On the other, side, unpleasantless is related to distrust and non-collegiality, and good choice for completing unpleasant tasks such as payment.

Conscientiousness. This dimension, partly refers to reliability and confidentiality, and partly to unreliability and distrust. It shows the level to which an individual can be caring and persistent. Those persons have a high level of organizational skills, they are tidy and self-disciplined. On the other hand, persons with low level of conscientiousness mostly have no feeling for activity direction and self-control. They are impulsive, carefree and often inefficient in the organization.

Emotional stability, adaptability or neuroticism. There is the emotional stability, security and calmness, and on the other side, nervousness, insecurity and depression. People who are emotionally stable are calm, relaxed and feel safe. They are often very efficient at work. Persons who have low emotional stability are nervous, distrustful, insecure and often confused. Those with high level of neuroticism are very critical toward their results and themselves. Their criticism usually forces them to perfectionism, and they have a very important role in a group as their task is to criticize each proposed alternative.

Openness. Characteristics of this personality dimension are the following: creativity, originality, creativity, curiosity and risk appetite. There are also quite the opposite traits: tightness, unimaginativity, conservatism and risk aversion. People with such characteristics are appropriate for jobs requiring innovations, permanent changes with high risk level.

3.3. Personality types and suitable jobs

Personality description and dimensions show that people differ a lot, but there are no personality characteristics or dimensions "better" or "worse" than others. People are just different. Nevertheless, it is not quite the same what characterized people in a company., According to Holland′s theory, although they are all legitimate human traits it is necessary to harmonize the features with the type of work the man performs. Not all people are equally suitable for all positions in the organization. Matching personal characteristics with job requirements will not only increase employee′s productivity, but will also increase his job satisfaction. In accordance with this concept, we can differ six main personality types suitable for specific jobs. [5]

Table 3: Personality types and suitable jobs [5]

Personality type	Personal traits	Suitable job
Realistic: values physical activities requiring strength, skillfulness and coordination.	Stabile, persistent, shy, practical	Plant line-worker, farmer, mechanic
Investigative: values intellectual activities including thinking, understanding and investigation.	Analytical, original, curious, independent	Economist, journalist, mathematician
Social: prefers helping others to improve themselves.	Friendly, sociable, empathic	Social worker, teacher
Conventional: respect order, rules, precise activities	Efficient, practical, non-flexible	Accountant, manager, service officer
Enterprising: skillful in verbal activities, in persuading people and obtaining power.	Self-confident, ambitious, dominant	Lawyer, entrepreneur, real estate agent
Artistic: likes unsystematic and creative activities.	Creative, emotional, impractical	Painter, musician, writer, decorator

4. HEXACO QUESTIONNAIRE

Each of big five personality types is based on HEXACO questionnaire. Beside them, HEXACO model defines the sixth personality dimension, the one which operationalizes the model - *honesty*, or *modesty*. As in the previous paragraphs we have already dealt with *segment big five personality types*, now we have to get an insight into the HEXACO acronym, representing the given dimensions: [7]

H – Honesty, humility,
E – Emotionality,
X – Extraversion,
A – Agreeableness,
C – Conscientiousness, and
O – Openness.

HEXACO basic structural model was developed as a highly used theoretical and research paradigm related to personality traits. As the *sixth personality factor*, was additionally incorporated, it indicates traits such: honesty, sincerity, sense of fair - play, loyalty and modesty, whereas the opposite side of the dimension includes traits as giddiness, Jesuitry, greediness, slyness etc. The content of dimension *honesty* is supposed to be the factor participating in generating moral relevant behavior.
Based on the given facts, development of HEXACO questionnaire, including questions that define specific personality dimensions, has facilitated scientific research processes and enabled detailed access to better understanding personality concept and other related fields.

5. RESEARCH

5. 1. Research methodology

Considering the high independence of the basic dimensions of personality conflicts themselves, a group of authors has come up with the idea to have an insight into the basic indicators of the given dependences in order to get conclusions summarized in the final discussion. *The main objective of the research* is tendency to indicate the mutual relation between personality types and conflicts, i.e. to find out which of the five personality types are most likely to get into the conflict situations.
The research was conducted from the beginning of January till the end of April, 2016, in Bor Municipality. The study includes 100 participants of different age, gender, divided into relevant age groups with the aim to get realistic results of the observed problem.
The questionnaire consisted of two parts (HEXACO questionnaire and questionnaire for analyzing personal attitude on conflict management), included two questions related to respondent demographic characteristics. HEXACO questionnaire for testing personality dimensions was adjusted to research needs, taking into account that only *five big personality dimensions* were tested as the sixth one was not taken into account. The second part of the questionnaire tested personal attitude on conflict management, created by professor Janićijević.
Likert five-point scale was used for questionnaire estimation, indicating 1 as „completely disagree”, 2 as „disagree“, 3 as „no opinion“, 4 as „agree“ and 5 as „completely agree“.

5. 1. 1. Demographic characteristics of respondents

As we have already mentioned, research included 100 respondents, whereas all questionnaires were correctly answered, and basic demographic data on respondents are given in Table 5.

Table 4: Demographic structure of respondents

Demographic characteristic		Number of respondents
Gender	Male	22
	Female	78
Age	Younger than 18	8
	19-23	52
	24-35	22
	Over than 35	18

5. 2. Results of research

5. 2. 1. Descriptive statistics results

For data processing, we have used descriptive statistics, including *arithmetic mean, variance, standard deviation and frequency* [8]. It consists of (statistic) procedures for reducing raw data to forms easier for manipulating and more efficient analyzing. Descriptive statistical results for a group of questions related to conflicts are given in the following table.

Table 5: Descriptive statistics results

Questions	Grade					Middle value	Standard deviation	Variance
	1	2	3	4	5			
Q1	3	11	15	47	24	3,78	1,0306	1,062
Q2	2	15	18	38	27	3,73	1,30811	1,169
Q3	0	5	23	52	20	3,87	0,7869	0,619
Q4	1	7	20	51	21	3,05	1,4240	2,028
Q5	2	7	25	45	21	3,84	0,8729	0,762
Q6	2	7	25	45	21	3,76	0,9333	0,871
Q7	4	28	22	35	11	3,21	1,0944	1,198
Q8	7	34	19	23	17	3,09	1,2398	1,537
Q9	1	9	27	41	22	3,74	0,9387	0,881
Q10	2	8	16	50	24	3,86	0,9430	0,889
Q11	7	26	21	34	12	3,18	1,1580	1,341
Q12	7	27	24	26	16	3,17	1,1981	1,435
Q13	4	10	22	43	21	3,67	1,0450	1,092
Q14	8	38	17	22	15	2,98	1,2389	1,535
Q15	5	12	24	42	17	3,54	1,0676	1,140

Descriptive statistical results show that the greatest number of respondents, 72 of them, answered Q3 question “I do and I do accept concessions to reach a compromise” with “agree” or “completely agree”. One of the very interesting data obtained by descriptive statistic is, also, the answer to Q4 question “I prefer to keep my opinion to myself than to compromise others” where as 72 to respondent answer with “agree” or “completely agree”. The most interesting is the answer to Q10 question „I always try to solve conflicts satisfactory for both parties “whereas 74 respondents chose answer under 4 or 5 at Likert scale.

5. 2. 2. One-way ANOVA test

ANOVA presents an extension of independent test. It is used when researchers are interested in the fact whether arithmetic means of more of two independent groups differ mutually (Ho, 2006). The conditions that herein should be fulfilled are the following: (1) there should be only one independent variable; (2) independent variable should have more than two values; (3) there should be only one dependent variable..

Considering the ANOVA test, there are also the following premises: (1) all basic sets (population) from which samples have been taken have regular pattern; (2) homogeneity of variances; (3) observations are mutually independent.

Hence, the ANOVA test application may help in getting information on differences in respondent answers related to their demographic (gender, age, education level, working experience etc.) as well as if the difference is statistically significant. Accordingly, a group of authors having conducted this research, tested the impacts of each of the characteristics in relation to questionnaire responds and determined statistical significance. [9]

Taking into consideration *respondent gender* there is statistically significant difference at personality dimension <u>*emotionality*</u>, where statements have been graded higher by females confirming results from previous researches and emphasized their emotional personality side.

Table 6: Statistical values of answers related to repondents′ gender

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotionality	male	22	3,0373	,74814
	female	78	3,5038	,70795
	Total	100	3,4012	,73910
Extraversion	male	22	3,4627	,47340
	female	78	3,5255	,68774
	Total	100	3,5117	,64506
Conscientiousness	male	22	3,2891	,53834
	female	78	3,4895	,51092
	Total	100	3,4454	,52102
Agreeableness	male	22	3,1823	,71464
	female	78	3,2541	,67351
	Total	100	3,2383	,67974
Openness	male	22	3,2132	,54798
	female	78	3,4040	,53060
	Total	100	3,3620	,53756

Considering the *respondents age,* there is statistically significant difference related to personality dimension *extroversion*, whereas the youngest respondents, included into category „younger than 18 " estimated themselves as very extrovert persons.

Table 7: Statistical values of answers related to repondents′ age

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotionality	younger 18	8	3,1050	,80225
	19-23	52	3,4063	,66665
	24-35	22	3,3932	,85537
	over 35	18	3,5278	,78788
	Total	100	3,4012	,73910
Extraversion	younger 18	8	3,8525	,60585
	19-23	52	3,2919	,57404
	24-35	22	3,6445	,55494
	over 35	18	3,8328	,75408
	Total	100	3,5117	,64506
Conscientiousness	younger 18	8	3,4363	,56971
	19-23	52	3,4588	,48718
	24-35	22	3,3114	,58312
	over 35	18	3,5744	,52315
	Total	100	3,4454	,52102
Agreeableness	younger 18	8	3,1050	,59824
	19-23	52	3,2402	,70288
	24-35	22	3,1591	,73858
	over 35	18	3,3889	,58896
	Total	100	3,2383	,67974
Openness	younger 18	8	3,1887	,50104
	19-23	52	3,3594	,47183
	24-35	22	3,3032	,58812
	over 35	18	3,5183	,66321
	Total	100	3,3620	,53756

5. 3. Discussion

Research conducted by the authors of this paper, having included 100 respondents of different age, has shown that initial premises, related to personality types and conflicts interdependence, are completely grounded.

Analyzing respondents′ answers confirming their attitudes and behavior in different conflict situations, obtained from 15 statements, it can be concluded that the greatest number of respondents is ready to get into conflict with other persons in order to consolidate their position, integrity, defend personal attitudes as well as to find solution convenient for both parties. Most respondents have declared that, although they are ready to get into conflict, they tend to find an appropriate compromised solution through it, taking into account advice and proposals of other persons. Nevertheless, by detailed analysis of data, it can be concluded that the majority of respondents tend to compromise, but not to conformity, i.e. they do not adapt themselves to demands of people with different attitudes and beliefs without having personal benefits.

The study has disproved traditional attitude toward conflicts, basically negative, that implies that conflict should be avoided and confirmed contemporary one that conflict is inevitable and can be the source of possible new solution for existing problem. It is specifically confirmed by Q14 statement: „I think it is not worth wasting energy and time on disputes and different opinions“, on which 46% of respondents answered that they “disagree” or “completely disagree”.

Conflict also implies relation „winner – loser“, and 42% of respondents have declared they try to win in the conflict and prove correctness of their opinion, even in case it means achieving a compromising solution. Reaching desirable goals in conflict situations is often more important than keeping good relationships with colleagues, also implying readiness to certain losses.

Analyzing questionnaire results related to personality dimensions and connecting given dimensions with conflicts, it has been noticed that there is a significant difference at dimension *emotionality*, related to gender, where statements have been graded higher by females confirming results from previous researches and emphasized their emotional personality side. On the other side, considering the *respondents' age,* there is a statistically significant difference related to personality dimension *extroversion*, whereas the youngest respondents, included into category „younger than 18“ estimated themselves as very extrovert persons.

Comparing five basic personality types with conflicts, a number of respondents who have been classified as extrovert, according to their answers, are more likely to get into conflict situations, confirming that initial premises of the authors match the results of previous researches.

6. CONCLUSION

The research conducted from January to May, presented in this study, has mostly proven initial hypothesis and results from previous researches on interdependence between personality characteristics and conflicts. Previous discussion clearly indicates the impact of personal characteristics on their tendency to conflicts, which is more emphasized at extrovert persons, versus introverted personalities, who avoid conflict situations. The results of the research are representative, but there is a possibility of slight deviations, considering that there is a great number of questions, or lack of clarity in the formulation of statements. Also, surveying process has been interrupted after completing 100 questionnaires, and the possibility of obtaining greater and more representative sample, that could have contributed in obtaining more relevant data, has been ignored. This work contributes studying in the field of conflicts and personality dimensions, obtaining results that can be used in further research purposes and more detailed studies.

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THE IMPORTANCE OF REGULAR ASSESSMENT IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION OF HUNGARY

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Abstract

In the last 25 years, the Hungarian higher education went through an enormous change. In the process the trend of education has changed from an elite training to the so called “mass production” of people with bachelor degree.
Every corporation demands some kind of degree from their applicants, because of this most of the young adults study in higher education. While in the nineties students tended to have intrinsic motivation, nowadays they only have external motivation. Previous researches among the students of Keleti Faculty of Business and Management at Óbuda University showed that more than half of the them don’t know what they want to achieve in their life or after their graduation.
Unfortunately, most of them don’t know how to deal with their “freedom” and have to learn the hole curriculum at the end of the semester. The purpose of this research is to prove how the frequency of assessment – changing from two a semester to a weekly regularity - influences those “wandering” students’ performance based on data gathered over the years among hundreds of students.

Keywords: *Higher education, Continuous assessment*

1. INTRODUCTION

In line with the CEDEFOP [1] report knowledge is to determine the future wealth and wellbeing of societies. Public education, including higher education has a strategic role in the development and economic growth of the countries [2]. The educational system is responsible for transferring and developing competencies, which are very important on the labour market [3], [4]. Post-secondary education is promoted all over the world. Consequently, the number of students in higher education and those on the labour market with higher educational degree is ever growing, although in the recent two years this growth has slowed down in Hungary. Unfortunately, the increase of the educational niveau of the population has not been accompanied by a drastic increase in employment rate [5]. Furthermore, the relative unemployment of those with higher education has even worsened in the 21st Century [6]. The possible explanation of this contradiction is that the skills and competences offered by those with higher than secondary education do not match with the demand of the prospective employers [7]. Another probable justification might lie in the ever decreasing level of knowledge of those with tertiary education. On the basis of the Hungarian Statistical Office’s data the number of those completing their tertiary education on schedule decreases year by year, even though, as presented above, the number of new students enrolled is still increasing [8]. Accordingly, the increase in quantity is accompanied by a decrease in quality of students in higher education. The number of students enrolled in some kind of higher educational institution between 1990 and 2010 has been around 915 thousand, but only 65% of them (approximately 595 thousand) managed to graduate between 1993 and 2013.

The main question is, are the students in higher education lacking such competencies that those enrolled had in tertiary education in the previous decades. Previous research showed [9] that in tertiary education only a small percentage of students really sees the point of studying. Around 60% of them only knows that they want to be in a higher educational institution, but when asked about what the reason behind their decision is, they do not know the answer. Another 20% enrolled, because some kind of external force, such as their parents or employers, forced them to enroll. A few students, only 5% of all of them wish to build and utilise social connections and networks, and only 15% of them is really willing to study and develop their skills. Another research [10] showed that only 30% of female and 34% of male students are dedicated, or eager to be involved in something other than studying, within the bounds of their HEI. Therefore, the majority of the students in higher education in is not motivated enough to gather new skills and competencies, but they wish to prolong their carefree life style, like before.

According to this, higher educational institutions should reconsider their approach on education and performance measurement and create a system that matches the characteristics of the new generation of students [11].

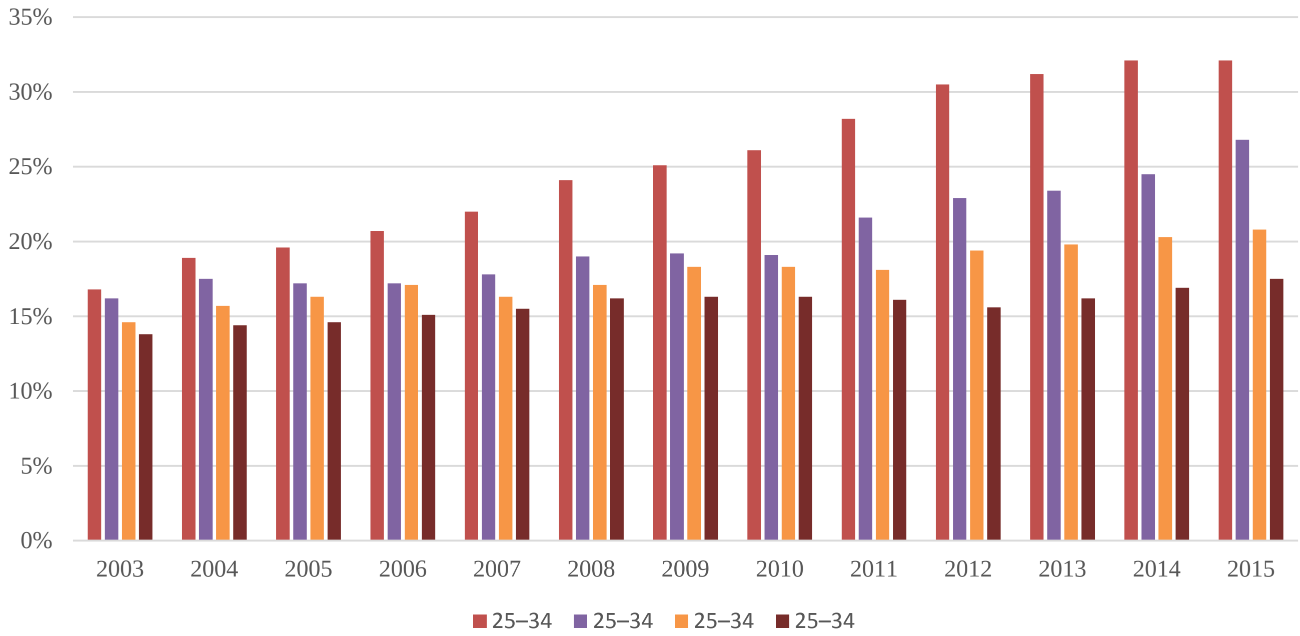

Figure 1. The ratio of those with higher than secondary education within various age groups (Source: KSH, 2016)

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

To understand the students' behavior, we have to carefully look into what motivates them every day to attend their courses, and whether they are motivated at all?

Students’ motivation is especially important during the university years because this phase also represents the last formal education many students receive before competing for work. During these years spent in higher education their sole purpose would be to develop their abilities and match them with specific needs of the labour market. For this reason, education and along these lines motivation of students during these years is of particular importance [12].

A lot of people get enough satisfaction from their work and take great pride in it. However, it seems students in higher education just do not seem to be motivated at school. Most of them simply see it as a nuisance and only study to survive and not to drop out of university. The reason behind such behaviour is motivation, or in this case the lack of it [13].

It is a well-known fact that almost nothing can be learned unless students are motivated on a consistent basis [14]. In order for teachers to be able to create a drive for learning they must be well trained, to be capable of monitoring the whole educational process and dedicated enough to be responsive to their students [15]. The notion of motivation has been studied by management theorists and social psychologists for ages, in an attempt to identify successful approaches to management. Motivation is a theoretical construction representing the reason for individual needs, desires and actions. In line with this, a motive is what makes an individual to act in a certain way, or at least develop an inclination for that specific behaviour [16]. Motivation theories can be classified in a number of ways, like Natural vs. Rational; Content based vs. Process based; or Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic.

Douglas McGregor’s (1960) theory of X and Y type employees is a content based approach that incorporates both natural and rational, intrinsic and extrinsic motives. This theory introduces two different way of workforce motivation used in an organizational setting. According to McGregor, when employees like their work and job, and are willing to take responsibility their leaders do not necessarily supervise their subordinates for effective performance. Therefore, such (Y type) employees’ leaders should grant them independence, higher responsibility for work and opportunities for self-actualisation. In this kind of system, created for Y type subordinates, when provided with enough resources, trust and the right organizational circumstances employees will strive to work well, and their interests will be the same as the organization’s.

This kind of approach is what most higher educational institutions are using currently [17]. Typical university teaching structure incorporates lectures and seminars, where students are introduced to both theoretical and practical knowledge. In order to support students’ work (in this case their study), universities should provide optimal conditions, such as classrooms, beamers and computers, libraries, labs, study halls. In return, students are responsible for their performance and knowledge acquisition. Although this would be expected, as it seems, this system does not function properly. This might be because of the false assumptions about the students’ behaviour and motivation. To keep on using the introduced terminology of McGregor, there is a high possibility that students in higher education are not type Y.

Those who dislike or are not satisfied with their work and hence are inherently lazy, are different from those Y type people. McGregor labelled them as X types, thus to be productive, they require objectives, they have to rely on the threat of punishment to increase their inclination towards collaboration.

In line with this, the Hungarian students should be regarded as X type people, when they are at a higher educational institution officially to increase their knowledge and develop their skills. They perceive their student status as a necessity, something they have to bear with, in order to receive some extrinsic motivation, like pocket-money from parents, or an appointment to a higher position in case of employees. “In this case there should be something (or someone) in the organization, for example in a HEI, that makes them to do

their job, study and prepare for the lectures. However, this external motivation that is necessary for X type people are not prevalent in most HEI." [11]
The management style, likewise the teaching style of university teachers, are heavily influenced by the beliefs and assumptions about what motivates those they have to lead or teach: teachers think that if students detest studying, they will tend toward an authoritarian style of teaching with normal lectures and tight control. On the other hand, if they assume their students like to study for their own sake and take pride in it, then they will tend to adopt a more participative approach with conversations and joint projects [18]. All in all, a major change is needed in the organization's processes if they want to increase the niveau and effectiveness of their study programs when the number of X type students enrolled is increasing. Therefore, the aim of this treatise is to identify the group of students who attend higher educational institutions and can be referred to as X types, and provide a solution for their lack of motivation for studying.

3. THE FIRST ROUND OF THE RESEARCH

"Different aspects have to be taken into consideration while creating different analysis, which can be described by grouping of different data and information received from the connection to them." [19] In order to be able to determine, whether the majority of the students really belongs to the X type of people, a 7 years long experiment has been introduced to test the reaction of participating students on continuous assessment.
A subject, called "Vállalatgazdaságtan" (Business Economics) has been involved in this test, where usually more than 50% of the students failed to get a grade at the end of the semester. This subject was assessed in two rounds. First, students could be rewarded with a signature, based on their performance during the semester. Then those with a signature might sign up for and take the final exam (or retake it not more than twice in a given semester).
In the first two years of the test period, students have been assessed only twice during the semester, which is 14 weeks long. Firstly at midterm and a second test at the end of the term. These assessments were the basis of acquirable signature. Students had to reach more than 60% in the combined score of the two tests, if that was achieved they could get the signature. Under such circumstances only 34% of the students could pass the subject with at least a pass in 2009 and 2010. Out of 207 students, only 97 managed to get the signature, but even from them 28 failed to graduate from the course. (For further details see Table. 1.)
In the third year, in order to decrease the number of those failing the subject, weakly written test have been introduced as the first step of continuous assessment. Students had to reach 60% on average (not on each of the tests) to deserve the signature. With this change, the ratio of those who did not manage to get a signature dropped by 5%, and in the following year with another 17%. In addition to this the number of those who did not manage to get a grade, despite (on the basis of the 14 weekly and 2 larger tests) deserving a signature fell to 1 in each year (third to fifth year). At this point, a conscious decision has been made to keep on with the weekly assessment of the students from this subject. However, after the fourth year, in order to reduce the burden of the continuous assessment has put on the teachers the written test have been substituted with online tests [20], where students immediately after their test could get a feed-back on their current level of knowledge. The main point in informing them in an instant, was to make them work harder for the coming test through making them realise, if their previous performance was not enough to reach the 60% of the tests' average at the end of the semester.
The online testing system's help has been proved to be successful so far, the ratio of students getting signature could further be increased. More than 70% of the students were

able to meet the 60% requirement and the only 11 of the 226 them failed to get a grade in the last three years. This is a 13% increase even compared to the results of the weekly paper-based tests on the average. Although, the last year's results were worse than the previous few years' in terms of failure on the semester's final test. The summary of the results is presented below, in table 1.

Table 1: Results of testing

	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
	2 tests per semester		Paper-based continuous assessment		Online continuous assessment		
Number of students	115	92	83	65	53	63	110
Could get signature	56	41	43	45	39	48	85
Could not get signature	59	51	40	20	14	15	25
Failing grade (1)	23	5	1	0	1	2	8
Sufficient (2)	8	5	14	10	12	25	38
Moderate (3)	10	18	11	14	16	12	21
Good (4)	8	7	12	16	12	5	11
Excellent (5)	10	5	8	5	1	7	7
Not failing students	36	35	45	45	41	49	77
Ratio of students did not fail (%)	31%	38%	54%	69%	77%	78%	70%
Ratio of students getting signature (%)	49%	45%	52%	69%	74%	76%	77%

To sum the results up, as it is clearly visible from above, the continuous assessment managed by the online system's direct feed-back possibly increased the efficiency of the continuous assessment further.

The meaning of this is, when students facing a system operating on McGregor's X type's assumptions, their performance is far better than in a system, where evaluation of performance is not continuous and they should study regularly and develop their skills for their own sake. It is an important question, whether this data collected from only one subject is enough to measure the students' real performance, and is it a solid proof that students are being X type of people rather than Y types. Whether they are aware of the fact of their X type behaviour or not, it is up to further investigation, as well as with this mentality they provoke corresponding behaviour from their teachers. This paper also describes this matter from another perspective, which might be the possible reason behind this passive attitude of the students'.

4. THE SECOND ROUND OF THE RESEARCH

The previous research showed an interesting result. Between 2013 and 2014 the number of students passing the subject did not increase significantly and was stagnant. In the last year, as it was stated above, the ration even decreased. Therefore, it was time for a different type of investigation that inspected the students' motives in studying. This research has been initiated in February 2015 among students of Business Economics, and continued in March 2016 including students from a subject called Organisational Behaviour in Practice. The research is not accurate regarding the ratio of students which subject they were attending, because it has not been asked in the questionnaire. The response rate was high due to the questionnaire has been filled during the seminars, it was over 90% (N=256). 34% of students were male (N=87) and 66% were female (N=169). Their age distribution of participants of the research is displayed on Figure 2.

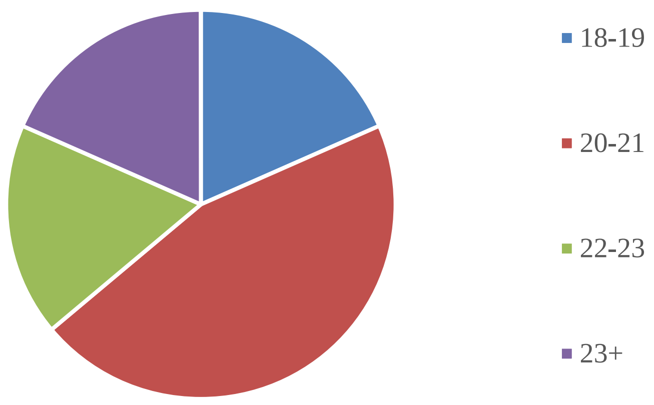

Figure 2. Age distribution of respondents

According to their motivation it was surprising to see that the first reason for them for being at the university – from rating family, workplace expectation; wanting to know more; networking purpose; and still not know what to do – was networking as the most important. Unfortunately, more than 30% (N=83) of the students answered that it is true or partly true that they do not know what they wanted from life and they were attending university without any goal. (For further details see Figure 3.)

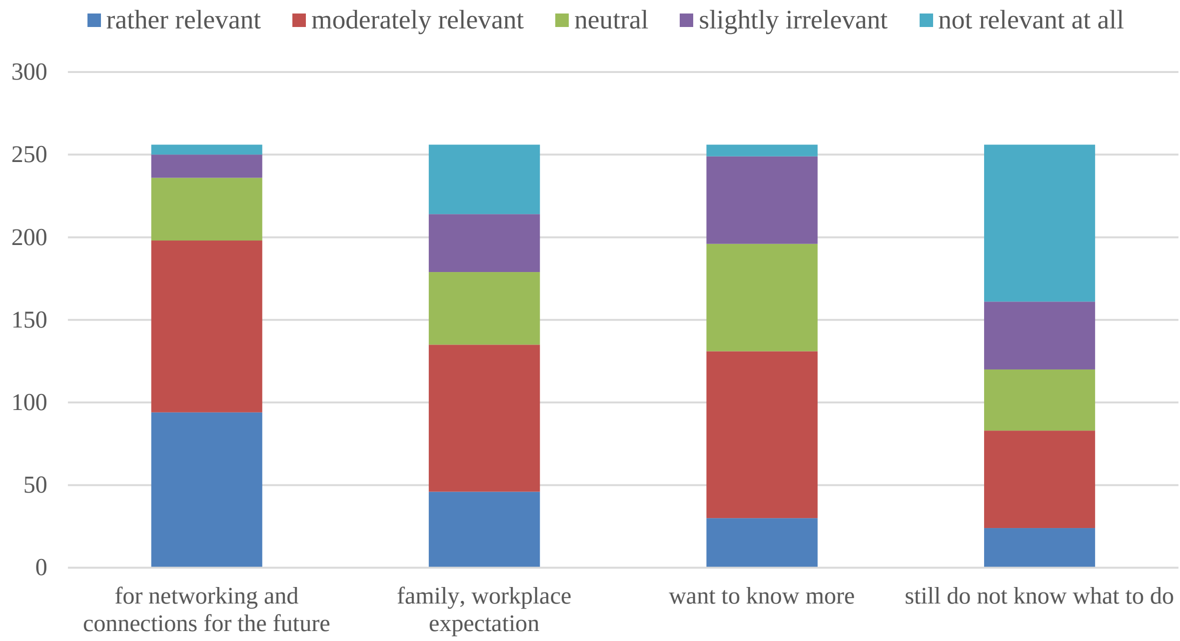

Figure 3. Motives of students for attending HEI

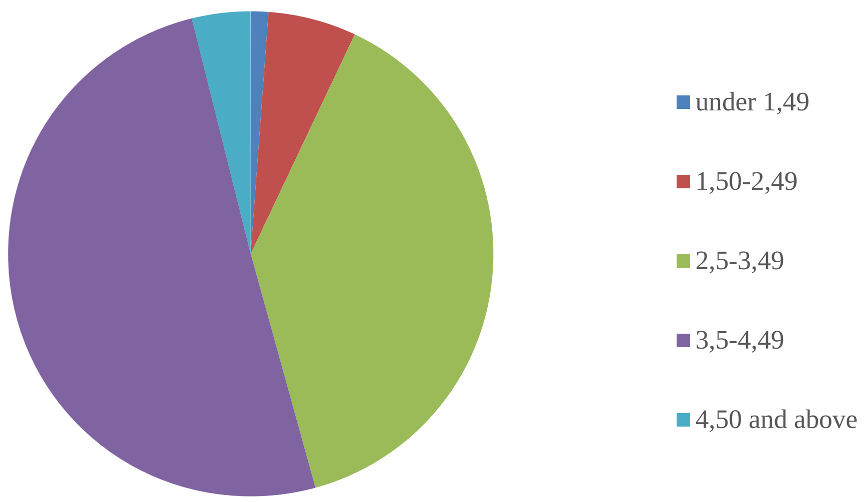

Figure 4. Cumulative average of respondents

Their average (cumulative average calculated from every grade of every semester prior to the one the research has been made) was in accordance with their (lack of) interest, it was 3,5. Slightly more than 45% of the students' had an average worse than 3,5. Fortunately, there were around 4% (N=10) who were above 4,5, meaning that they took their studies seriously. For additional details, see Figure 4.

Unfortunately, if we look at their scientific and social activities, the picture is more disappointing. Only 8 of them has been involved in one or more scientific research in the university, and 20 of them in any kind of social task, such as advocacy or representation. However, in line with their motivation displayed on Figure 3, a relative big portion (42%) of them planned to be in a research, and a smaller one (9%) in student advocacy or representation in the future.

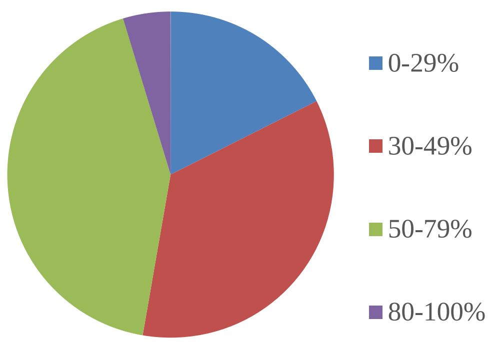

Figure 5. The respondents' performance on the first 4 tests

The students were also very diverse when it came to their performance on the weekly tests based on the first 4 weeks' data in both semester (Figure 5). More than half of them could not perform above 50%, which is the minimum level for the signature on the first 4 tests. What is more, a significant number of students in the research (17,5%) did not manage to

perform on their test above 29%, to be precise it was 45 students. The reason for this unfortunate fact might be found in the confession of the students attending these subjects, on whether they were continuously studying for the weekly tests. 41% (N=106) of them did answer honestly – owing to the anonym nature of the research – that he/she did not prepare for the tests on a weekly basis.
In order to test, whether the students are able and willing to reflect on their studying habits, there was a question that asked, what would be their performance without the weekly assessment. Interestingly, 40% of the students realised that the continuous assessment helped them in improving their level of knowledge and their performance (Figure 6). In addition to this, if only the first years is taken into consideration, this ratio was at 50%.

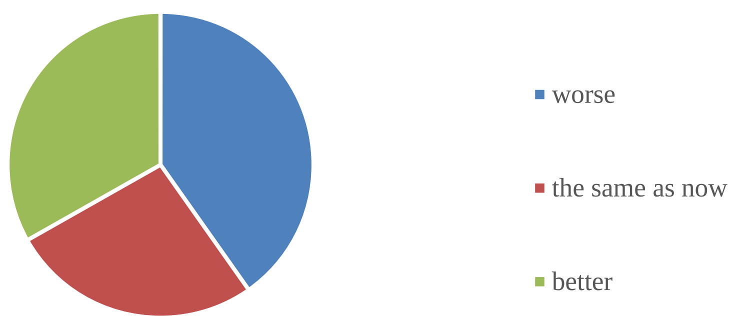

Figure 6. Respondents' opinion of their potential performance without continuous assessment

The same conclusion can be drawn, if we regard their opinion on how many tests and assessments there should be in a semester in the two subjects for the best result. The majority of them preferred the weekly tests (47%), and surprisingly the second most favoured answer, which was that they should write 4 tests in a semester, was also picked by quite many people.

5. CONCLUSION

As it is well illustrated by the previous two researches introduced shortly in this article, students are rather X type people. Most of them do not possess intrinsic motivation for studying, and requires the external motivation. The majority does not even know why they attend higher education, or they only do it because of some kind of expectation of their family or employer. Their performance is better, when assessed continuously.
Interestingly, they are able to view themselves as students without interests and motivations, moreover, they are aware of the fact that without continuous assessment they would perform more poorly, or even fail, because of failed preparation for classes. This means, even those who possess characteristics of the Y type are happy, when being forced to study more frequently and do not ask for more responsibility in relation to their studies. Naturally, there are exceptions.
Present paper highlights the fact that although higher education is aimed at self-motivated, young adults and not underage youngsters, the prevalence of an outer force is unfortunately necessary in higher educational institutions. That is why, the system and the methodology of teaching and appraisal has to be modified, in order to meet the demands of the new generation of students.

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THE STAKEHOLDER APPROACH IN CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

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Abstract

The Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) theory consists not only of theories, but also a large number of approaches, which are often disputed, complex and uncertain. According to Garriga and Melé CSR theories and related approaches are classified in four groups: (1) instrumental theories, in which the corporation is seen as instrument for wealth generation and its social activities are only a method to achieve economic results; (2) political theories, which cover the power of corporations in society and the good use of this power in the political field; (3) integrative theories, in which the organization is focused on the fulfillment of social demands; and (4) ethical theories, based on ethical responsibilities of corporations to society [1]. Presently, CSR approach has emerged from focusing on the shareholders to stakeholders due to the acknowledgement of the crucial roles of stakeholders in every organization. Stakeholder management and CSR is always connected. Stakeholder theory involves critical stakeholders such as employees, suppliers, customers, media, local communities, NGOs, could be the source of new ideas and opportunities [2]. This article's goal is to examine first the different views to the CSR concepts, to identify the core elements of CSR and also it will explore the development of the stakeholder approach in CSR.

Keywords: *corporate social responsibility, stakeholders, human resources*

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past decades, the interest in the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) within both the academic and practitioner discourses has been rapidly increasing. Much of the early literature aimed to specify the concept and the various components of CSR, as it emerged in the second half of the 20th century [3]. CSR was developed to become a strategic objective for many organizations. Corporate social responsibility is an integral component of corporate governance, particularly when there is a conflict between the social goal of benefiting society and the corporate goal of maximizing profits. The existence and persistence of such a conflict require corporations to establish CSR policies and programs to ensure that their boards of directors and senior executives set an appropriate tone at the top, taking social interests seriously [4]. CSR is a phenomenon that emerged first in developed countries, originally in the U.S., partly in response to the challenges of the depression, the domestic economic hardship during World War II, and the postwar recovery period [5]. A socially responsible company can achieve several benefits, among which: reduced operating costs, enhance of corporate image and reputation, and increased customer loyalty and sales [6].

2. CSR CONCEPTS AND THEORIES (CSR THROUGH TIME)

The roots of CSR can be traced back to Ancient Mesopotamia around 1700 BC, where King Hammurabi introduced a code in which builders, innkeepers or farmers were put to death if their negligence caused the deaths of others, or major inconvenience to local citizens [7]. In Ancient Rome senators grumbled about the failure of businesses to contribute sufficient taxes to fund their military campaigns, while in 1622 disgruntled shareholders in the Dutch East India Company started issuing pamphlets complaining about management secrecy and “self-enrichment”.

Furthermore, in 1981 Eberstadt claims in his study that phenomena of social responsibility were already presented in the ancient Greece [33], while today's corporate responsibility movement is an attempt to restore a 2 000 year old tradition of businesses being connected to the community [8].

In the 18th Adam Smith presented for the first time the classical economic model. The model suggested that the needs and the interests of the public would best be met if the individuals act in self-interest manner. Driven by their own self-interests, the individuals would produce and deliver goods and services which would earn them profit, but also meet the needs of the others. According to Brown (2005), the companies in order to keep their employees satisfied, because of the negative effects that the lack of food, housing and health care had on the labour force efficiency, they started to invest in housing, health care and nourishment [9]. Moving forward the worker villages of the industrial revolution, company medical facilities and the subsidized works canteen come into sight. That action of social philanthropy by the companies can be considered as the prototype of the modern day CSR.

The contemporary CSR originated back to the beginning of the 20th century and is based upon two principles claims Sims (2003). The first, the principle of charity, is based on religious tradition and suggests that those who are well financially should give to those with difficulties. The second one, the principle of stewardship, says that the organizations have an obligation to serve the society and satisfy the public's needs since their wealth and the power that they have springs through their activities within the society [10]. This second principle had an impact on affected how companies were faced by governments, press and other groups and led to the conduction of new more socially responsible laws.

The turn of the businesses to the society and the development of a more societal thinking led the organizations to increase their responsibility and consideration for both social and environmental wellbeing. This response to environmental and social matters by the corporations is what it is known today as Corporate Social Responsibility [8].

2.1. CSR DEFINITIONS

Corporate Social Responsibility has gained its attention and popularity since the last decade. There are many CSR debates arise which shaped by trends and fundamental changes of the political, social, and economic spheres of life.

The first academically accepted definition of CSR can be found in the book "Social Responsibilities of the Businessman", written by Howard Bowen in 1953. Bowen defines CSR as "an obligation to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action that are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society" [8]. Since Bowen there has been a change in terminology from the social responsibility of business to CSR. Moreover, the CSR theories nowadays consist a wide number of concepts, approaches and terminologies.

Carroll (2004) argues that "the social responsibility of businesses encompasses the economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary (philanthropic) expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time" [11]. Buhmann (2006) simply defines CSR as "doing more than what is required by law" [12]. Johnson, Scholes and Whittington define CSR as "the ways in which an organization exceeds its minimum obligations to stakeholders specified through regulation" [13].

The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) defines CSR as "the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as the local community and society at large" [14]. A commonly accepted illustration of CSR is Carroll's (1979) four component model (Figure 1).

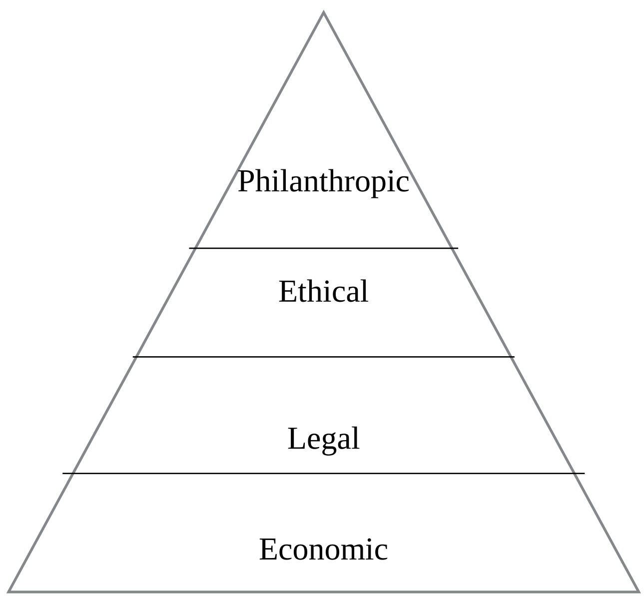

Figure 1. Carroll's pyramid of CSR [15]

Carroll suggests that the social responsibility of an organization can be deconstructed into four components: economic, legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities. The four components could be depicted as a pyramid. The pyramid starts with economic responsibility as a foundation; the component Economic Responsibilities are the first and foremost responsibility of business. As the basic economic unit in society, a business is responsible to provide goods or services and make profit to create wealth. At the same time, rules and regulations are set for the business to operate within certain limits. Meeting these rules constitutes the legal responsibilities of the business. Besides the ethical norms embodied in the first two categories, there are additional ethical actions which are not included in the law but expected by society. The importance of ethical responsibilities has been well noticed, although it is always an issue to judge what is and is not ethical. It is reasonable to say that the ethical responsibilities are the expectations above legal requirements that society has of business. Discretionary/philanthropic responsibilities are even vaguer than ethical responsibilities. Society leaves these to the judgment and choice of business. To fulfill these responsibilities, the social role of business is voluntary. The decision to assume them is not required by law and is also above and beyond the sense of ethics. It is only led by the business‘s desire to be involved in this role and contribute to society [15].

Part of the CSR definition is to whom is a business responsibly. According to Marrewijk (2003), this approach can take three forms to elicit the information. The shareholder approach is referred to as the classical view of CSR [16]. The sole responsibility of a business is to make profit and create wealth. The shareholders of the business should be the focal point. The business should be concerned with CSR to the extent and only to the extent that it creates value for the owner. In this approach, only the economic dimension is considered [1]. The stakeholder approach indicates that a business is not only responsible to its owners but also has obligations to various stakeholders, such as employees, customers, business partners, government and non-governmental organizations [8, 17]. The social approach is a broader view on CSR. It suggests that a business is a part of the society and responsible to the society as a whole. It should serve to meet the needs of society constructively [16].

To conclude, it can be clearly seen that the base line of the above definitions is the volunteering obligation that the organizations must have over their employees and their families, the environment and the general public which sometimes may go further with their legal requirements.

3. CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY THEORIES: MAPPING THE TERRITORY

After defining CSR, a business may conduct a series of CSR related activities to meet that definition. The way a business performs CSR is also subject to its understanding of how CSR should be implemented. Similar to CSR definition, implementation of CSR includes a great proliferation of theories, approaches and terminologies. The various theories of CSR could be classified in four groups for better understanding: instrumental theories, political theories, integrative theories and ethical theories [1]. Based on these theories, CSR is perceived as a consequence of how the relationship between business and society is understood. Different understandings may lead to different approaches to CSR.

3.1. Instrumental theories

Instrumental theories, in which the corporation is seen only as an instrument of wealth creation, and its social activities as a tool to achieve economic results. Friedman (1970) asserts that increasing profit is the only social responsibility of business. In a free society, business has only one responsibility, to increase its profits as long as it stays in open and free competition [18]. This group of theories includes:

- Maximization of shareholder value as the supreme criterion for evaluating specific corporate social activities. Maximizing shareholder value takes shareholder value maximization as the supreme criterion for corporate decision-making. A decision should be made if it results in an increase of shareholder value, as long as it is within the limitation of laws, while any social demand should be rejected if it only imposes a cost on the company [1]. As mentioned before, this does not exclude taking into account the interests of stakeholders. The term "enlightened value maximization ‘specifies the idea that the company could maximize shareholder value in the long-term by taking care of the interests of the stakeholders.
- Strategies for achieving competitive advantages. This group of theories includes three approaches:
    - Social investments in a competitive context. The supporters of this approach argue that investing in philanthropic activities may be a way to improve the context of competitive advantage for a firm and usually creates greater social value than individual donors or governments can.
    - Natural resource-based view of the firm and dynamic capabilities. This approach maintains that the ability of a firm to perform better than its competitors depends on the unique interplay of human, organizational, and physical resources over time and on the organizational and strategic routines by which managers acquire, modify, integrate, and recombine those resources to generate new value-creating strategies.
    - Strategies from the bottom of the economic pyramid, which some authors suggest should be seen as an opportunity to innovate rather than as a problem. A specific means of tackling the issue is disruptive innovation - products or services that do not have the same capabilities and qualities as those being used by customers in the mainstream markets and thus can be introduced only for new or less demanding applications among non-traditional customers, with low-cost production and adapted to local needs.
- Cause related marketing, aimed principally at boosting company revenues and sales or enhancing customer relationships by associating the brand with the ethical or social responsibility dimension.

3.2. Political theories

This group of theories focuses on the interactions and connections between business and society. It also concerns the power and position of the business in the society. Among the most important, Garriga and Melé mention [1]:

- Corporate constitutionalism, built on the idea that business is a social institution and must use power responsibly, subject to “the social power equation” (“The social responsibilities of business owners arise from the amount of social power that they have”) and “the iron law of responsibility” (“Whoever does not use his social power responsibly will lose it.”).
- Integrative social contract theory, derived from Locke's philosophical thought[1], considers that social responsibilities come from the consent, at two levels: a theoretical macrosocial contract appealing to all rational contractors, and a real microsocial contract by members of numerous localized communities.
- Corporate citizenship, a revived concept with three different meanings: a limited view, comprising corporate philanthropy, social investment, and certain acknowledged responsibilities to the local community; a view equivalent to CSR; and an extended view of corporations entering the arena of citizenship at the point where governments fail to protect citizens, even in a global context. In spite of important differences within this group of theories, the authors point out the convergence on some points: a strong sense of business responsibility to the local community; partnerships; and consideration for the environment. As companies become global, the concern for the local community has gradually become a global concern.

3.3. Integrative theories

Integrative theories demonstrate that business depends on society in a broad sense. Social demands are considered to be the way in which society communicates with the business. Thus, a company should listen to the society and integrate social demands in its corporate management [1]. This group of theories comprises:

- Issues management, defined as the processes by which the corporation identifies, evaluates, and responds to social and political issues that may impact significantly upon it. It emphasizes the decision-making process of a company responding to social issues. Issue management is the process by which the corporation identifies and responds to the social issues which may have a significant impact upon it. It could help the organization adapt to social changes through early identification of the threats and opportunities.
- The principle of public responsibility, whose theoreticians consider that appropriate managerial behavior is found within the relevant public policy, which includes the broad pattern of social direction reflected in public opinion, emerging issues, formal legal requirements, and enforcement or implementation practices. The scope of a corporation‘s responsibility is analyzed as the primary involvement and secondary involvement. Primary involvement is the economic responsibility of the corporation, such as establishing its facilities, procuring suppliers and carrying out its producing functions. Secondary involvement is as the consequence of the

[1] *Locke believed that human nature is characterized by reason and tolerance. Like Hobbes, Locke believed that human nature allowed people to be selfish. This is apparent with the introduction of currency. In a natural state all people were equal and independent, and everyone had a natural right to defend his “Life, health, Liberty, or Possessions”. Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/John_Locke, retrieved 25 January, 2017.*

primary involvement. For example, selecting and engaging employees is a primary involvement.

- Stakeholder management, an approach oriented toward people who affect or are affected by corporate policies and practices. Its advantage is the company's increased sensitiveness to its environment, but also stakeholders' better understanding of the dilemmas the organization faces. The most efficient strategy of managing stakeholders is to make efforts dealing with issues affecting multiple stakeholders simultaneously. The central goal of this approach is to accomplish the maximum cooperation between the stakeholder group and the corporation. Stakeholder management concerns integrating groups of people with a stake in the corporation into decision-making processes [1].
- Corporate social performance (CSP), a set of theories that includes a search for social legitimacy, with processes for giving appropriate responses. In Carroll‘s (1979) model, it has three elements [15]: a definition of CSR, the issues which the corporation is responsible for and the way of responding to those issues.

3.4. Ethical theories

Ethical theories are based on the ethical responsibilities of corporations to society. They are based on principles that express the right thing to do or the necessity to achieve a good society. As the main approaches, Garriga and Melé distinguish the following [1]:

- Normative stakeholder theory, which considers fiduciary duties toward all stakeholders of the firm suppliers, customers, employees, stockholders, and the local community. Its application requires reference to any moral theory (Kantian, Utilitarianism, theories of justice, etc.).
- Universal rights, based on human rights, labor rights, and respect for the environment.
- Sustainable development, aimed at achieving human development, while taking into account both present and future generations. To evaluate its own sustainability, the business should adopt a “triple bottom line”, which would include not only economic, but also social and environmental aspects of performance.
- The common good approach, which maintains that business must contribute to the common good, because it is a part of society. The corporation has many means to achieve this: by creating wealth and providing goods and services efficiently and fairly, while at the same time respecting the dignity and the inalienable and fundamental rights of the individual. It may also contribute to social wellbeing and a harmonious way of living together in just, peaceful and friendly conditions, now and in the future.

4. THE STAKEHOLDER APPROACH TO CSR

The stakeholders are a key factor for the success of the CSR practices. Without their engagement, knowledge, skills, talent, loyalty, the organization could not achieve its objectives. A characteristic of CSR is the idea that the business is accountable to the various stakeholders who can be identified and have a claim, either legally mentioned or

morally expected, on the business activities that affect them [19]. Nowadays, more and more authors put the stakeholder approach in the core of the CSR theories [20]. Homes and Watts (2000) see the engagement of the stakeholders as “the essence of CSR” [21].
More recently, CSR has become recognized as a growing area of strategic value creation for companies. Yet stakeholder engagement is often seen as secondary, even non-essential, to the CSR agenda.

4.1. Categorization of stakeholders

Commonly identified stakeholder groups include shareholders (or owners), employees, customers, suppliers, local community, competitors, interest groups (or sometimes civil society representatives, though slightly more inclusive in definition), government, the media, and society at large [22]. Some of these terms by themselves raise significant problems in relation to the value of organizational accountability to stakeholders, especially “society at large” and the notion of community.
Stakeholder theory emphasizes that beyond shareholders there are several agents that are interested in firms’ actions and decisions. The theory highlights the need for managers to be accountable to stakeholders. Stakeholders are individuals or groups which were either harmed by or benefits from the corporation; or whose rights have been violated or have to be respected by the corporation [23]. Firms have several stakeholders which compete for organizational resources; hence, the need for firms to identify strategies for managing stakeholders [24, 25]. The type of stakeholders proactively engaged and resources control strategy adopted impact firm’s corporate strategy. From a business-driven viewpoint, stakeholder theory interest covers three premises: that organizations have stakeholders which impact their activities; these interactions impact on specific stakeholders and the organization; and perceptions of major stakeholders impact the viability of organizational strategic options [26]. Firms, therefore, need to adopt suitable approaches to deal with primary stakeholders accordingly [27]. Firms are unlikely to fulfil responsibilities (economic and non-economic) of some primary stakeholders; hence, the need for stakeholders management.

4.2. Management of stakeholders

The obligation to serve all stakeholders’ interests is often referred to as stakeholder management. Since corporations deal with several stakeholders over time and simultaneously; it is unlikely that organizations would fulfil all their responsibilities towards each primary stakeholder or groups [23]. Hence, firms’ should identify strategies for managing stakeholders as there are several stakeholders competing for organizational resources [28]. Furthermore, the type of stakeholders engages, and resources control strategy adopted impact organization’s corporate strategy [29]. Stakeholder management facilitates consideration of individuals or groups within and outside the firm when allocating organizational resources. Stakeholder management promotes an effective allocation of resources among stakeholders to achieve a “win-win” outcome.

Although the practice of stakeholder management is long-established, its academic review started only at the end of 70s [1]. In a seminal paper, Freeman (1978) presented two basic concepts, which underpin stakeholder management. The first is that the central goal of the stakeholder management is to achieve maximum overall cooperation between all stakeholder groups and the objectives of the corporation. The second says that the most efficient stakeholder management policy involves efforts, which simultaneously deal with issues affecting multiple stakeholders. Stakeholder management tries to combine groups with a stake in the firm into managerial decision-making.

4.3. The relation between CSR and stakeholders

The relationship between CSR and business is traditionally examined through related concepts of Corporate Social Performance. The generally accepted definition of CSP itself suggests that top managers, i.e., those who make strategic choices and decisions for organizational development and prosperity, play "a critical role in the articulation of the organization's posture vis-a-vis its stakeholders and constituents" [30]. Thomas and Simerly found that "top managers are important internal determinants of a firm's CSP, and top management teams and CEOs are both important to social performance outcomes". They also suggested that a top manager's background could play a significant role in his or her sensitivity towards stakeholders' claims and any CSR issues the organization might be confronted with [30]. In other words, organizations are ultimately built by people, who are citizens themselves entitled to rights, duties and responsibilities [31]. If the extended enterprise is confronted with so many stakeholders towards whom it has so many responsibilities such boundlessness could render CSR meaningless. It may well be that the problem is not in the pertinence of CSR, but rather on the very personal, individual values and responsibilities of the people that make the social organizations [31]. CSR cannot exist if individuals do not possess enough maturity and competence to act responsibly. It is up to companies to train and for society to socialize the individuals towards the development of such necessary competencies [31].

5. CONCLUSION

Through this article, it became clear that the CSR field still needs a more commonly accepted definitions. Yet, it is possible to clarify some basic theories [1] which could be the framework for future research goals. This paper aimed to mark one of the most recognized theories of CSR and stakeholders in the academic literature. As mentioned above, both theories of CSR and stakeholders are related, thus there is a lack of research into a broader assessment of the relationships between business and society. It appears that human resources, as one of the main stakeholder groups, have a notable role in the implementation of CSR policies, which is a subject of a further research.

The stakeholder approach outlines a new capability for organizations to develop their CSR policy. Through managing the stakeholders and their engagement in the CSR managers could more easily develop, integrate and realize CSR policy with bigger influence. Stakeholder engagement is an opportunity for managers to carefully listen to the issues raised in the engagement, fully understand the viewpoints presented around the issues and then engage in dialogues and action. The CSR stakeholder engagement can vary, but its main purpose is to provide a framework for a dialogue in which devout stakeholders bring concerns forward to the organization with the plan of discussing coming to agreement in the form of a policy designed to address a particular issue.

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CROSS CULTURAL BUSINESS COMMUNICATION – SOCIOLOGICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS[2]

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Abstract

In the last decades, global economy set some new standards and became so significant that corporate interdependence became more important for successful business. Organizations are expanding around the world, which leads to increased sensitivity towards cultural differences. In order to gain success in the global marketplace, companies need to be culturally tolerant. Corporate analysts argue that the key to global business success depends on effective cross-cultural etiquette and global workforce diversity management [1]. This paper analyses the impact of sociological and psychological factors on cross cultural business communication.

Keywords: *marketing, cross cultural, business, communication*

1. INTRODUCTION

Today's business environment is rapidly changing and includes different and various geographic locations and cultures. The question that clearly indicates is how to communicate effectively with individuals who speak another language or who rely on different approaches to reach a common goal. In these terms, cross-cultural communication is very important. Culture has been defined as the main backstage where consumption behaviors are assumed and where certain products have acquired a particular symbolism [2, 3]. The term of ethnomarketing also appears and it can be defined as recognizing culture as the frame and the essence that drives contemporary businesses [3]. The main purpose of this study is to explore the cross-cultural nature of business communications from sociological and psychological aspects. The methodology of this study is based on theoretical analysis of the researches that are done in this field.

2. PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

Cross-cultural psychology can be defined as "the scientific study of human behavior and its transmission, taking into account the ways in which behaviors are shaped and influenced by social and cultural forces" [4]. That way, culture may be defined as "the

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shared way of life of a group of people." [4]. Berry [5] proposes that the goals of cross-cultural psychology are “to transport current hypotheses and conclusions about human behaviour to other cultural contexts in order to test their validity”, “to explore new cultural systems to discover psychological phenomens not available in the first culture”, and “to integrate psychological knowledge gained from these two activities, and to generate a more pan-human psychology that would be valid for all people”. The most used model in cross-cultural psychology is The Berry model of acculturation by John Widdup Berry, which is a bidimensional model constructed in a 2x2 matrix and is based on yes-no questions. This model categorizes attitudes of individuals toward contact with new cultures. Also, Berry [6] proposed two domains in the field of group relations – acculturation and ethnic relations (Figure 1). These factors, eventually, lead to outcomes that can range from conflict and stress to harmony and effectiveness [6].

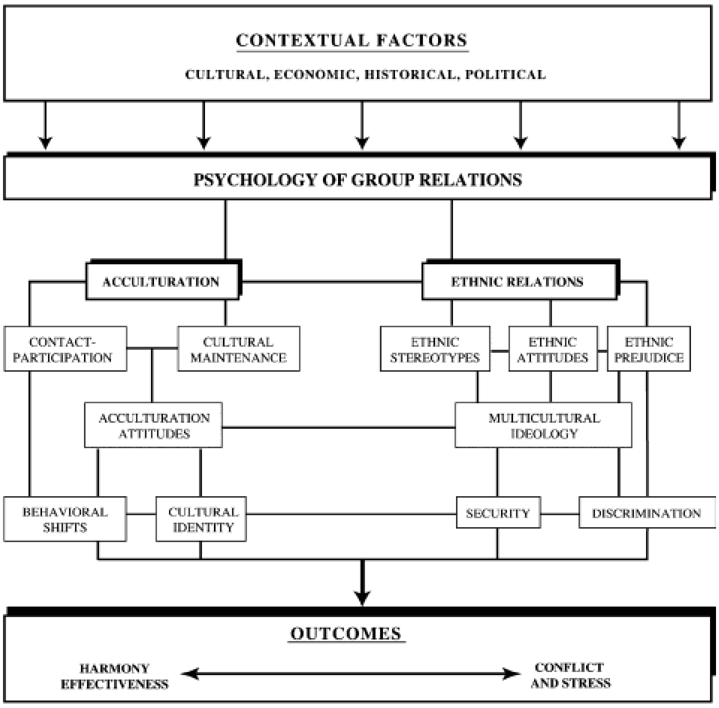

Figure 1. Psychology of group relations: contexts, processes and outcomes (Berry, 2005)

3. SOCIOLOGICAL ASPECTS

Now a days it is considered that marketing is a cultural framework. It is suggested that societies are subculturally determined and almost all countries consist of distinct subcultures [7]. That said, the interest in cross-cultural differences between countries and their ethnicities has become bigger. Culture is, here, assumed to guide the company’s success. Faced with the necessity mainly experienced by small and mediumsize organizations to incorporate culture in their process of conception, implementation and control of marketing activities, *ethnomarketing* has emerged as an alternative approach [3]. Ethnomarketing consists of four dimensions: ehnicity, ehnoconsumerism, cultural dimensions of markets and marketing-oriented organizational culture, and also has three main functions: to comprehend consumers, co conquer customers and conserve clients [3]. When discussed about cross-cultural communication, there’s a term that is often used for describing interpersonal relationships between culturally diverse people. *Intercultural sensitivity* is defined as a sensitivity to the importance of cultural differences and to the points of view of people in other cultures [8]. Intercultural sensitivity is important because, in order to achieve success, companies need to choose people who can adapt in a cross-cultural way [9]. Kealey and Ruben [10], found six main factors that determine intercultural competence and that most of the reasearches agreed on: empathy, respect, interest in local culture, flexibility, tolerance, and technical skill. Also, there were four factors that were found among people who are successful in an intercultural world: open-mindedness, sociability, positive self-image, and initiative. Most importantly, to be effective in another culture, people must be interested in other cultures, sensitive and willing to modify their behavior as an indication of respect for the people of other cultures [8]. DiMaggio [11], developed „cultural schemes“ that focus on the interaction of shared cognitive structures and factors such as material culture, mediamessages and conversation that activate shared structures – „cultural schemes“. One of the techniques for measurement of shared cultural schemes is Relational Class Analysis (RCA) that uses „relationality“ to quantify the extent in which two respondents follow a shared scheme. Relationality is defined as the „extent to which two individuals exhibit a similar pattern of association between measures of opinion on issues that constitute a particular social domain; it is interpreted as a measure of their shared understanding of the structure of that domain“ [12].

4. CONCLUSION

The major reasons for business failure that are identified in this field are the lack of intercultural competences, problems regarding cultural sensitivity and assets to building trust. Intercultural competences and communications are very valued in international business. This paper has shown that sociological and psychological factors in cross-cultural communication are interrelated. An examination of the literature shows that recent studies do not address the relationship between these factors, but most of them focus on comparative studies between different countries or issues of communication in companies. Integration of communication, cross-cultural psychology and sociology will give us insight into the important relations between communication, psychology, sociology and the contribution of culture to all of them. Psychology and sociology can help people to have better skills to work within different cultures, to explore and understand how and why differences exist and to promote understanding, because it is „the first step to developing harmonious intercultural relations“ [13]. Based on this, we can set some parameters that can provide business success: tolerance, understanding, empathy, respect, interest in other cultures, flexibilitity, open-mindedness, sociability and cross-culture adaptation or intercultural sensitivity.

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ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOR- DEFINITION, DETERMINANTS AND EFFECTS

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Abstract

In this paper, it is considered the phenomenon of organizational citizenship behavior from the time when the concept appeared in the literature until now, its definition and changing nature. Also, it is analyzed the relation between OCB and other related concepts, its connection with organizational culture, attitudes, values, etc. Through analyzing concept essence, it is explained the possibility to manage this kind of a behavior and especially leader`s role as motivation factor to engage in OCB. Analyze is based on sixteen scientific articles related to the organizational citizenship behavior. The OCB concept is relatively new in the literature so it needs to be further examined because there is possibility to develop it.

Keywords: *Organizational citizenship behavior, in-role and extra-role, employees*

1. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is one of the most important question for employers in the last decade. Now, when the world progress is substantial and global market is saturated with product and services of high quality, possibility for achieving competitive advantage lies in the human resources. Many authors have tried to define what motivates people. Human factor has been neglected for many years as unimportant. Individuals were moved aside to make place for technology and its development. But as we know, if there are no people, technology would be just a bunch of iron.

Organizational behavior as a discipline is trying to explain human behavior, reasons for different types of behavior, its advantages and disadvantages. As a behavioral discipline, organizational behavior is dealing with phenomena`s that effects on individual, team and group work in organizations among which is motivation. Today we can find many motivation theories in the literature. All of them are trying to connect human behavior with work results. The goal is to increase organizational effectiveness and efficiency using the most important production factor which is human factor. Organizational culture in certain way defines employee`s behavior, attitudes and values. Creating adequate organization culture where success, team work, creativity, loyalty, communication and other values are important is a half way to the organization success. Each employee should be interested in achieving organizational goals because it helps in achieving personal goals which results in overall satisfaction.

One interesting topic that emerged in the literature more than two decades ago is about employee`s motivation to engage in task performance. It implies not only to the basic task requirements but also to the other non-formal task requirements. Many authors do not agree on general opinion about job requirements. They say that job requirements are not only the one that are formally written but also include other non-written requirements. It’s personal choice of employees whether they want to engage in additional, non-formal requirements. In the literature exists formal definition of this phenomenon as Organizational Citizenship Behavior or shortly OCB.

2. DEFINITION OF OCB

In the last century authors were investigating organizational behavior of employees hoping to explain reasons for specific behavior and relation with organizational performance. In 1966 Katz and Kahn noticed the difference between employees who put more effort than others in doing work. This effort was defined as „helping colleagues with the work, protection of the organization interests, giving advices, promotion of the organization…” [1]. From that research one interesting topic was mentioned which is in the literature now known as organizational citizenship behavior. The concept organizational citizenship behavior has its origins from the Chester Bernard’s concept of the “willingness to cooperate“ and Daniel Katz`s distinction between dependable role performance and „innovative and spontaneous behaviors“ [2]. The combination of these two concepts is citizenship behavior of employees.

The first author who put these two concepts together and defined the concept of organizational citizenship behavior is Organ in 1988. By his definition “OCB`s have been defined as behaviors that an employee voluntarily engages in that promote the effectiveness of the organization but are not explicitly rewarded by the organization.” [3]. According to this definition it can be concluded that citizenship behavior is not defined by any formal organization regulation and that it is not related to any kind of a formal reward. Employees engage in citizenship behavior only because they want to, it is not a question of obligation. Definition of OCB offered by Polat considers OCB as „The informal behaviors which are displayed by workmen in organizations” [4].

OCB relates to the effort which one employee use to do extra things in organization`s interest. Helping coworkers to complete job or provide support during work performance is good thing from superior point of view because time for doing more important work assignments is longer. By Bateman and Organ there are two reasons for this kind of behavior. First, it is considered by social exchange theory that people want to return the favor if they are satisfied with job conditions so they behave the best they can. And the second one is the fact that more satisfied people tend to fulfill OCB [1].

Organ`s definition of the OCB is strict according to Werner who says that citizenship behavior should be rewarded, it should be considered as a way of compensation for employee who want to improve organization efficiency and effectiveness [5]. Organization culture is one of the most important thing in organization when we talk about OCB, it has the power to influence on employees and motivate them to be helpful for other employees and work in teams. Active participation of employees in organization development and improvement is seen as OCB.

By Podsakoff there are four main categories of OCB antecedents and those are employee characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviors [2]. When we talk about employee characteristics we should emphasize its compound of few elements like satisfaction, commitment, fairness and leader supportiveness. In addition, it can be added agreeableness, conscientiousness and positive affectivity. Task characteristics are strongly connected with all types of citizenship behavior. All aspects of leadership behavior have strong connection with OCB having on mind that leaders are those who have the biggest influence on employee's behavior. When leaders evaluate employees work performance as good than employees want to engage in OCB another reason for that is common opinion of most employees that OCB is considered to be a part of formal work.

3. OCB AS IN-ROLE OR EXTRA-ROLE BEHAVIOR

The way individuals describe work demands is crucial for citizenship behavior. It determines level of engagement in extra-role activities or OCB. Role expectation can be defined as an individual view on what is necessary for having a successful role performance [6]. Or it is individual opinion about things that are important for doing work successfully. Activities and attitudes are two main parts of role expectation. Every employee in organization knows what is important for doing work and what are the main aspects or activities, processes and knowledge that make his/her role in organization complete. If organizational citizenship behavior is included in formal job description than OCB cannot be seen as a extra-role function. On the other hand, Kwants et al were investigating culture's influence on the perception of OCB as in-role or extra-role and it was concluded that individuals who endorse reward for application see OCB as in-role [3].

Dierdorff, Rubin and Bachrach conducted a study on 198 full-time employees, enrolled in a graduate school of business at a large private Midwestern university. They defined work role as a combination of task context and social context [6]. Task context is about task requirements and activities. Social context is about work relationships and social atmosphere. In their research, social context covers interdependence and social support and task context covers autonomy and ambiguity. Results showed that role expectations relate to citizenships, social and task context. Role expectation is fully connected with citizenship and social support. The research revealed the fact that employees would engage more in OCB if they work in a social supportive environment where helping others is appreciated. Social support relates to the fact that individuals feel secure in this kind of environment and are more likely to engage in OCB. Managers can pass training course for providing social supportive environment so they can influence on employees to perform tasks the best they can according to OCB. Autonomy context has a significant relation with citizenship. As higher level of autonomy is, individuals are more motivated to do their best and to improve work performance. They have freedom to modify and make changes in activities and processes related to work tasks and based on that they try to do it the best they can. When individuals can influence and adjust their tasks so the results are better than they engage in doing those tasks with more motivation and attention, showing high level of organizational citizenship behavior. And ambiguity at work has negative effect on OCB because individuals do not know what expected role of the work context is, they have unclear role expectation and do not engage in OCB. Dierdorff, Rubin and Bachrach were first to investigate influence of ambiguity on citizenship performance. For interdependence it can be said that highly interdependent individuals have more motives to interact with each other and manage work tasks together and it is considered that those individuals use in practice OCB more than usual but the results of the study didn`t show positive correlation between these two. While on the other side, nature of highly independent work tasks is not based on social interaction with other individuals and then we have low level of OCB [6].

Werner mentioned in his work that some authors define difference between in- role and OCB as a difference between task performance and contextual performance meaning that task performance is connected with in-role behavior and contextual performance is connected with effort that each employee provide during his work which is not formal part of the required work and it can be OCB [5]. Werner refers to these two categories as task performance and citizenship performance.

Dierdorff, Rubin and Bachrach showed two most important differences between existing researches and their own, first one is the fact that previous researches in this domain were about role expectation in general. Dierdorff, Rubin and Bachrach broaden this topic to role requirements and role perception. And second important difference is inclusion of context in research.

A lot of researches were conducted to explore antecedents of OCB only few of them really demonstrate connection between OCB and organizational effectiveness. There is a problem for employees to define what their job requirement is, most of them mix in-role and extra-role behavior. If in-role or OCB have positive effects with no big difference among them on organizational effectiveness it is not important the difference between these two but if the consequences (antecedents) are important than it is important to understand the difference between them [2].

4. DIMENSIONS OF OCB

Podsakoff defined 30 different types of organizational citizenship behavior which he arranged into seven different groups by the following order: helping behavior, sportsmanship, organizational loyalty, organizational compliance, individual initiative, civic virtue and self-development [2]. Helping behavior is type of OCB where individual help others with their work or perform actions to prevent possible problems. Sportsmanship is defined as behavior which includes not only sacrificing for the sake of team, but also motivating others during hard periods or problems. Also, it includes not having problems with rejection of personal ideas by team. Organizational loyalty is seen as protecting the interests of the company as being loyal to it but not many author have confirmed organizational loyalty as a type of OCB. Organizational compliance is compliance with the organizational rules and procedures in total. Individual initiative is extra-role activity, it includes involving in task related behavior but it is not clear whether it is OCB type or just in-role behavior so many authors do not include it in OCB type. Civic virtue represents identifying individual to a organization as a whole and protecting organization interest in every aspect. The last is self-development in that sense that means developing itself, individual will contribute to the organizational interests but it is not considered to be OCB type by many authors. These types of organizational citizenship behaviors are correlated with previous researches of other authors but are categorized under different name [2].

Polat in his work describes 5 dimensions of OCB including altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civil virtue. By altruism he means helping colleagues to perform their job, courtesy means helping others to avoid potential problem, conscientiousness means performing job according to the rules, sportsmanship means protecting team interests and avoiding team conflicts and at the end civil virtue means high level of interest for the organization and high level of loyalty to the organization. According to these 5 dimensions, 219 administrators in secondary schools from Turkey were questioned and the results showed that the highest level of OCB were found in the following order: courtesy, altruism, civil virtue, conscientiousness and the sportsmanship [4]. There is a difference in evaluation of the young and elder administrators and medium age administrator, where young and elder administrators evaluate that teachers are less engaged in OCB because they have high expectation from teachers and consider that it is a part of their job to participate in extra activities.

Kwantes et al. were exploring relationship between social axioms and perceptions of OCB. 363 undergraduate students from the southwestern Ontario in Canada were examined.

Survey was based on 5 factors, conscientiousness- desire to do task well, initiative- action to improve group communication, volunteerism- spend your time doing social work, boosterism- promotion of organization, and sportsmanship- fair play. Result of survey showed that being conscientious employee is typically in-role behavior, and on the other side, volunteerism and sportsmanship are typically extra-role behaviors [3]. Individuals who approve social cynicism (negative attitude about human nature) OCB view like extra-role, the same as individuals who approve religiosity (positive effect of spiritual forces). Hadjali and Salimi concluded that OCB and its aspects (sportsmanship, civic behavior, consistence and altruism) have positive effect on the customer orientation [7].

5. THE EFFECTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF OCB

Different OCB behaviors have different consequence on organizational effectiveness. For example, helping others can improve productivity, sportsmanship can improve team morale, etc. there is a need to expand current knowledge about OCB through investigating task variables and leadership behavior because in the most of the studies these two elements had high level of correlation with OCB. It is also important to investigate how OCB influence on work performance, is it the connection direct or indirect and is it effect immediate or delayed. When managers evaluate employee's performance they engage OCB, but the question is whether all citizenship behavior types have the same impact on organizational effectiveness and do they all worth the same for manager. It is also possible that employees who have good work performance have more free time so they can engage in OCB.

There is a question in the literature how job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior are related. It is natural that job satisfaction leads to the citizenship behavior. Felling the job satisfaction employees are willing to do their best and in some way, reciprocate to the organization as a gratitude for providing good job conditions. Bateman and Organ questioned 88 employees in a major Midwestern state university about their job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was measured by Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which contains 5 different aspects of job satisfaction like work, pay, promotions, coworkers and supervision. The result showed that citizenship behavior is positive correlated with all of these aspects of job satisfaction [1]. Connection between general satisfaction and citizenship behavior was greater than previously discussed connection between satisfaction and job performance where authors Lawrel and Porter in 1967 claimed that relation between these two elements was based on reward [1]. Organizational culture moderates the positive relationship between interactional justice and OCB in that way that relationship is stronger when respect for people is higher [8].

Teaching is one of the best example of OCB because it involves performing citizenship behavior most of the time during work. Zeinabadi was analyzing presence of OCB among teachers. The survey included 652 teachers and 131 principals. The primary goal was to highlight connection between employees (teachers) and OCB. By this analyze Zeinabadi confirmed strong connection between OCB, organizational commitment and job satisfaction. „Model suggests that behavior is a coping activity that results from an individual's appraisal of situation and subsequent emotional response. Job satisfaction represents an appraisal of various facets of the work environment. Organizational commitment is positive emotional response to the positive appraisal of work. Furthermore, OCB is a coping activity which emerged as a result of positive emotion." [9]. This research represents difference among other studies because includes education organization, and primary goal of this organization is to work with people, students, to help them to develop their knowledge so it is hard to make a border between job requirements and OCB. The results of the study are the same as Baterman and Organ studies where in both cases the positive correlation between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior.

Another important aspect of OCB is the difference between OCB in a organization and OCB related to the customers. The similar example like the one that was previously analyzed and which concerns OCB among teachers. OCB in hotel sector includes as the most important element relationships with customers, customer satisfaction, etc. It is a challenge for hotel sector to motivate employees to engage in OCB because as this study concluded there is high correlation between job satisfaction and OCB, but it is well known that job in hotel is not always desirable place to work and if employees are not satisfied with their jobs they will simply avoid citizenship behavior. This is not problem only for hotel sector it is generally problem for service sector considering the customer contact level. There are few elements of business excellence practice that are evaluated by Arasli and Baradarani and those are leadership, management by fact, all work is process, teamwork, people based management and continuous improvement which relate to job satisfaction and OCB. The study has been conducted in Iran, Teheran in 32 hotels. 4 of 6 elements of the business excellence practice have positive correlation with job satisfaction. Exceptions are leadership and teamwork, reason for that is lack of trust among employees and leaders. As it was stated before, job satisfaction has strong correlation with OCB, so there is indirect effect of BE practice on OCB [10]. This was the first study to examine role of the Business Excellence practice in the hotel sector.

Hadjali and Salimi conducted the survey in one nursing home in Tehran on 71 individuals with goal to examine relationship between customer satisfaction and OCB of employees. It was concluded that OCB has positive effect on customer-oriented relationship so engaging in organizational citizenship behavior means better relationships with customers and better work performance [7].

In the Zeinabadi and Salehi`s research were mentioned two models for predicting OCB. One of them was proposed by Moorman, et al. (1993) where 3 main elements are procedural justice, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and as a result there is OCB. By Moormans research the most important element in his model is procedural justice, or the idea of following the formal rules of organization. It is the base of satisfaction, commitment and OCB. A little bit different opinion had Konovsky and Pugh (1994) where 2 main elements were procedural justice and trust. From procedural justice, we gain trust which results with OCB. Model proposed by Zeinabadi and Salihi is a combination between previous described models [11]. Direct connection between procedural justice and OCB has been removed because previous researches stated that correlation of these 2 elements is indirect, mediator in this case is trust. Also, correlation between trust with one side and job satisfaction and organizational commitment has been added. Based on previous researches, procedural justice influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment but the influence can be accomplished only through gained trust. And finally, there is relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment, because it was stated before that job satisfaction has positive effect on organizational commitment.

Zeinabadi and Salihi questioned 131 male principals and 652 teachers in Teheran to investigate principal’s beliefs about teacher’s individual level of OCB at individual level. The highest correlation level was found between trust and procedural justice. And the lowest correlation level was found between procedural justice and organizational commitment [11]. First and second model were found to be more convenient than third model so third model should be adapted. According to this model which shows us influence on OCB there is a difference in construction. Procedural justice has direct effect on job satisfaction and trust but also, we can notice indirect effect on organizational

commitment and OCB. Trust is directly connected with OCB and job satisfaction has direct influence on organizational commitment and OCB.
Kassa and Hasan conducted a study in 293 hotels in Malaysia to investigate flow between burnout and OCB and to analyze correlation between flow and OCB. Flow is defined as good, positive energy of employees which help them to fulfill tasks, it is similar to work commitment and burnout is totally different than flow because it represents negative energy among employees, it is result of accumulated stress. The results showed positive correlation between flow and OCB but there is no positive relation between burnout and OCB through flow experience as a mediator [12]. It is important to analyze both phenomenon`s because they can improve knowledge about organization citizenship behavior and to clarify connections with it. It can help to better understand behavior and attitude of employees and to change motivation approaches. If we know what irritates employees and which tasks are undesirably we can make them acceptable for employees and lower the level of burnout and the final result is high organizational effectiveness. On the other hand, through flow we can analyze what is that that motivates employees to do their jobs with enthusiasm and commitment and try to motivate others in the same way. Improving job satisfaction and personal satisfaction of employees we can improve organizational productivity.
One different example is survey about OCB in China, because if we consider scientific articles, the most of them are conducted in Western Europe or America and China is tradition oriented country and due to that it is expected to Chinese employees are more committed to the work than western cultures. When cultural values are similar to the organizational values it is possible to have greater level of organizational commitment, in-role behavior and OCB. Continuance commitment is very important for Chinese employee which is a big difference than in Western countries. General difference between Western and Chinese employees is the fact that for Western employee’s organizational commitment is result of job satisfaction and for Chinese employee organizational commitment is result of having a job at all. The fear of losing job is crucial for organizational commitment in China [13]. China is a country with great cultural changes, past tradition is no longer valid and personal values are constantly changing.

6. HOW LEADERS AFFECT ON OCB

Motivation is highly important for doing job. Personal problems or problems at work can shape work performance and interpersonal relationships among employees. Leader role is to make sure that each employee feel secure and support, to feel like part of the organization. Leader should lead people, with own example and personality and motivate employees to do great things. Only with high motivation individuals can behave like citizenships, if they are not motivated there is no reason for providing extra activities or favors at work. Work tasks are not only those that are formally written, in fact all other activities like promoting organization, advising new colleague is considered to be OCB. If leaders or managers take care of interpersonal relationships at work and employee’s satisfaction, chance for OCB are greater. It is not easy to convince employee to behave like a citizen considering that OCB is not paid or rewarded. Organ and Ryan 1995 argued that employee’s morale has important role in engaging in OCB because it is a question of personality. Emotions of one employee can affect other employees in positive and negative way. It can make them motivated to work or it can decrease their work performance. This kind of a effect is called emotional contagion [14]. Leader`s emotions are transferred to the employees and reflect in their behavior and attitude. Especially it is important the way that leader or manager deal with emotions in front of the employees because leader should be guide in the organization. Even if it is expected to happiness or anger influence first in positive way and second in negative way, there is a difference between circumstances at specific point of time. When manager is happy than employees will think that there is no need to perform additional work and they will be satisfied with outcome and will not engage in OCB. In fact, maybe there is a possibility to improve performances but employees don`t want to think about that further. Next thing is that angry manager will negatively influence on employees and they will think that performance is not good so they will try harder to satisfy manager aspirations.

Koning and Kleef were investigating how employees react on leader's behavior. The study included 2 scenarios. First one was based on the idea that leader who displays anger lowers the level of OCB, opposite situation is when leader displays happiness and the level of OCB increases. Second scenario was based on the experiment, employees were asked to do some computer tasks and afterwards they received feedback with angry or happy tone. Then it was measured overtime work which employees spend in doing the same tasks as an aspect of OCB. It was expected that with happy feedback tone employees spend more time in doing the same tasks. The study included 92 employees from different organizations. For the first study participant were separated in 2 groups and were introduced with 2 different scenarios where first one described good project results and happiness of the leader and the second one described bad project results and angry leader. The results showed that as long as the leader is happy it is not important whether happiness is seen as appropriate or inappropriate. And when leader is angry, inappropriate perceived anger decrease OCB. Level of anger increase when employees face with inappropriate anger of the leader, and level of anger is low when employees face with happy leader [14]. High level of shame was recorded when employees face with appropriate anger and inappropriate happiness. Shame can make employees to improve their results by doing extra activities to compensate previous bad results. And finally, when employees face with appropriate happiness they feel more pride and there is a low level of anger whether it is appropriate or inappropriate. On the other hand, pride may lead employees to improve their extra activities at work. The second part of the study included 87 students whose job was to finish one task and to receive angry or happy tone of leader at the end of the performance. And then they had a chance to improve their result by doing this task using own free time. The results showed that employees prefer happy leader`s reaction than angry [14]. Interesting fact is that employees expect inappropriate happiness when they provide better result by voluntarily spending free time in doing the work. When employees are faced with inappropriate anger they are not eager to spend their free time in doing extra activities. So far, this research area includes only in-role performance. The most important conclusion of this study is that relation between leaders and their followers is crucial for OCB.

One of the interesting thing about OCB is low individual impact on the organization results. More and more researches are about team OCB. Basically, synergy work has higher results than individual work. Nohe and Michaelis were investigating correlation between charismatic leader and team OCB. Mediator between these two elements was trust in leader. Relationship among leader and employees is based on mutual trust. Leaders can gain trust of their employees by carrying for employee's interests and showing them attention. For employees, it is very important when someone values their work and effort so they are motivated to improve their performances engaging in extra organization activities. Charismatic leader can influence on employee's behavior and performance, furthermore, based on trust which employees have in their leader will for doing extra activities is increasing. As it was stated before, OCB has positive effect on organization goals which can easily be achieved through OCB concept. Individual who behave like citizen of the organization with his attitude makes other to behave in the same way. Sharing the same interests, OCBs already unconsciously form OCB team. During the time of changes, leader's role is crucial, it can help employees to understand new environmental conditions. Employees are always afraid of changes so leaders can help them to adjust their attitudes to the new context. The level of trust is higher in the time of changes because employees need leaders to lead them but this fact wasn't supported by research result. Authors Nohe and Michaelis were analyzing one big German company which was in restructuring process with a lot of changes in hierarchical structure. The study included 145 team leaders and 300 team members. One interesting fact is that it was not confirmed relationship between individual level leader charisma and individual level change impact but it was found positive relation between team level change charisma and charisma-trust relation. In environment with high impact of changes, trust and charisma of leader is higher [15].

Self-serving leadership is leader`s behavior where the main point is to leader gain personal benefit rather than organizational benefit. Leaders are turned toward themselves and own interest and motivation and do not care about its followers. Although the most important element of being a leader is to have whom to lead, followers do not use their status to influence on leader's behavior and fulfill own and organizational goals together. Engaging in OCB is seen as a part of followers influence on leader behavior [16]. Engaging employees in OCB for leaders represent kind of duty reduction, employees who involve in OCB are more likely to help their coworkers and strengthen team spirit. Decoster et al. were investigating the self-serving leadership. 73 undergraduate students from the University of Leuven participated in the study. In the study, all participants were given scenarios in which they were a part of a team with a group team leader. The result showed that preposition like employees would behave more in a self-serving manner as a leader when there is a low level of individual OCB [16]. And other part of the survey included 121 employees and leaders all across Belgium. It was discovered that OCB between employees on individual level is negatively connected with leader's hindrance stress. Study 3a explores the impact of followers OCBI on leader's hindrance stress and study 3b explores the impact of leaders hindrance stress on their intentions of self-serving behavior. The result was that participants would experience more hindrance stress when their followers display low level of OCB [16]. Decoster et al. showed that "lack of followers OCB was related to leaders' self-serving behavior" [16]. Lack of OCB behavior can lead to organizational conflicts. If employees are not motivated to participate in OCB, leader can put his own interest on the first place instead of organizational interests. Hindrance stress can be reduced by organization and leader's tasks can be easier. Self-serving behavior by leaders can be explained as a picture of work environment. So far, OCB was investigated in its good aspects but there is also possibility to see OCB like attempt to skip regular work and do extra-role activities or it can be mask of private interest of individuals. In this case, OCB lowers employees work performance and it is not good for organization. There is a need to explore negative effects of OCB on employee's work performance.

Two biggest consequences of OCB are the effect of OCB on managerial evaluations of performance and judgments regarding pay raises, promotions, etc. and the second is the effect of OCB on organizational performance and success [2]. A lot of managers take into consideration engagement in OCB when evaluating employee's performance, some unconsciously and some because of personal evaluation scale. But if we consider main definition of OCB it is clearly define that OCB shouldn`t be taken into consideration when evaluating work performance and it is not connected with any kind or organizational rewards.

7. CONCLUSION

OCB has many advantages. Several of them can be mentioned like improving organization relationships among employees, improving organization results, increasing job satisfaction, improving work performance, environmental protection etc. It is emphasized that OCB is not the most important part of the work performance, individual can engage in OCB but if the work result is not good than OCB efforts are not so important. Employee training can improve level of OCB, and encourage employees to involve in extra activities or to help other employees to act like citizens. In an organization with high quality workers, only way to be distinguished is to perform citizenship behavior. Training can be seen as a one way to encourage citizenship behavior of permanent employees or newly hired employees. Giving awards for good task results can influence badly on citizenship behavior because the idea of equality is not respected, if the results are achieved only in sense of task performance and citizenship behavior is not properly valuated by the organization. The main problem here is not how good results were achieved, it is who the responsible people for the success were. When both, task and contextual performance are evaluated equally than employees are ready to engage in OCB. The idea of OCB is not based on receiving the reward but opposite, employees act like citizens because they want to, it is a question of freedom choice. Not all employees want money as a reward for their engagement. There are also other types of rewards which don`t have price like feeling part of the organization and personal achievement, organizational status, respect of colleagues, etc. If employee assess that according to his inputs and results organization provides him adequate reward he will respond with engagement in OCB. Cultures where team work is seen as a normal part of interpersonal relationships expect that team members sacrifice for the sake of team.

Also, it is stated that specific behavior can be in-role for one person and for another it can be extra-role. Individual who value specific behaviors as in-role instead of extra-role is ready to involve more in those behaviors. It is important to provide good job environment with organizational emphasizing extra-role behaviors so employees feel free to engage in those behaviors. If employees have leader`s support and adequate example of leader`s behavior they are more willing to help their colleagues improving the organizational performance. But engaging in OCB is just a half of the way to the good organizational effectiveness because task performance must be on high level and OCB is there only to contribute to the organizational effectiveness. A lot of researches show that level of OCB of the employees influence on relationship between employees and customers, especially employees who are strongly correlated with customers. OCB is seen as a competitive advantage of organization. Customer orientation is described as orientation toward customer needs and it serves to create added value for the consumers, using OCB positive effects can be made.

Culture is important aspect of employee’s behavior among other aspects. In the example of China, it can be concluded that personal engagement in extra-role activities may be caused by many factors, in the current case it was fear of being unemployed. The same situation is in many poor or developing counties where employees put extra effort in doing their job because of negative emotions.

OCB relates to all disciplines like economics, marketing, health, psychology, etc. Number of literature investigating correlations between OCB and different disciplines is increasing fast. This is very important for further development of the topic. In the future researches physical context could be evaluated from the job satisfaction point of view and its correlation with organizational citizenship behavior. By physical context it can be included work conditions as environmental factors which influence on employee`s work behavior. Also, the real impact of the OCB on the organizational effectiveness could be evaluated more precise.

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