

International Handbooks of Quality-of-Life
Series Editor: M. Joseph Sirgy

Nora P. Reilly
M. Joseph Sirgy
C. Allen Gorman *Editors*

Work and Quality of Life

Ethical Practices in Organizations

Work and Quality of Life

International Handbooks of Quality-of-Life

Series Editor: M.J. Sirgy

For further volumes:
<http://www.springer.com/series/8365>

Nora P. Reilly • M. Joseph Sirgy • C. Allen Gorman
Editors

Work and Quality of Life

Ethical Practices in Organizations

 Springer

Editors

Nora P. Reilly
Department of Psychology
Radford University
Radford, VA 24142, USA

M. Joseph Sirgy
Department of Marketing
Pamplin College of Business
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Blacksburg, VA 24061, USA

C. Allen Gorman
Department of Psychology
Radford University
Radford, VA 24142, USA

ISBN 978-94-007-4058-7 ISBN 978-94-007-4059-4 (eBook)
DOI 10.1007/978-94-007-4059-4
Springer Dordrecht Heidelberg New York London

Library of Congress Control Number: 2012940232

© Springer Science+Business Media B.V. 2012

This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed. Exempted from this legal reservation are brief excerpts in connection with reviews or scholarly analysis or material supplied specifically for the purpose of being entered and executed on a computer system, for exclusive use by the purchaser of the work. Duplication of this publication or parts thereof is permitted only under the provisions of the Copyright Law of the Publisher's location, in its current version, and permission for use must always be obtained from Springer. Permissions for use may be obtained through RightsLink at the Copyright Clearance Center. Violations are liable to prosecution under the respective Copyright Law.

The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.

While the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication, neither the authors nor the editors nor the publisher can accept any legal responsibility for any errors or omissions that may be made. The publisher makes no warranty, express or implied, with respect to the material contained herein.

Printed on acid-free paper

Springer is part of Springer Science+Business Media (www.springer.com)

Contents

Part I Introduction

- 1 Stuck Between a Rock and a Hard Place: Quality of Work Life.....** 3
Nora P. Reilly

Part II Foundations

- 2 Professional Ethical Standards: The Journey Toward Effective Codes of Ethics** 21
Connie Rae Bateman
- 3 Employee Well-Being: An Integrative Perspective** 35
M. Joseph Sirgy
- 4 Work Stress: Help Me Get My Feet Back on the Ground.....** 65
Amy E. Mickel and Elise J. Dallimore

Part III Ethics at Work I: Individual Sources of Dilemmas

- 5 Mentoring in Organizations: Mentor or Tormentor?** 81
Carrie S. Hurst and Lillian T. Eby
- 6 Selection for Training: The Forgotten Employment Decision?** 95
C. Allen Gorman, Christina N. Thibodeaux, Sarah E. Eisinger,
and Benjamin L. Overstreet
- 7 Career Stagnation: Underlying Dilemmas and Solutions in Contemporary Work Environments** 107
Andrea E. Abele, Judith Volmer, and Daniel Spurk
- 8 Employee Well-Being: Can Performance Management Systems Help? Yes, But They Sure Can Hurt Too!.....** 133
Paul E. Levy, Kelsey Herb, Noelle Frantz, and Alison Carr
- 9 Counterproductive Work Behaviors and Their Ethical Dilemmas: Creating Just, Respectful, and Productive Organizations** 157
Joseph J. Mazzola and Stacey R. Kessler

10 Ethical Imperatives of Work/Life Balance	181
Carrie A. Bulger and Gwenith G. Fisher	
11 When Sending Flowers Is Not Enough: The Eldercare Dilemma in the Workplace.....	203
Carol F. Shoptaugh, Michelle E. Visio, and Jeanne A. Phelps	
12 A New Layer to Inclusion: Creating Singles-Friendly Work Environments.....	217
Wendy J. Casper and Bella DePaulo	

Part IV Ethics At Work II: Organizational Sources of Dilemmas

13 Perceptions of Justice in Employee Benefits.....	237
Chester S. Spell and Katerina Bezrukova	
14 Telecommuting and Flexible Work Hours: Alternative Work Arrangements that Can Improve the Quality of Work Life	251
James A. Breugh and Angela M. Farabee	
15 Remote Working and Work-Life Balance	275
Cath Sullivan	
16 Ethical Leadership and Core Job Characteristics: Designing Jobs for Employee Well-Being	291
Ronald F. Piccolo, Rebecca L. Greenbaum, and Gabi Eissa	
17 Blame and Credit Attributions and Quality of Work Life: The Effect of Organizational Structure and Culture.....	307
Donald E. Gibson and Kelly McCann	
18 Teamwork, Ethics, and the Quality of Working Life.....	325
Graham Sewell	
19 Workplace Violence and Aggression: When You Do Not Want Your Company on the News	343
Joel H. Neuman	
20 Hostile Work Environment: “Is It Just Me or Is It Chilly in Here?”	375
Alicia S.M. Leung and Ed Snape	
21 Sexual Harassment: “Is It Just Me or Are You Hot?”	395
Camille Gallivan Nelson and Keith A. Carroll	

Part V Ethics at Work III: Cultural Sources of Dilemmas

22 Generational Differences: Something Old, Something New	417
Dianne Gardner and Keith Macky	
23 Religious Diversity in the Workplace	429
Carolyn Ball	
24 An Overview of Workplace Spirituality and Its Likely Relationship with Employee Well-Being.....	449
Badrinarayan Shankar Pawar	

Part VI Integration: The Road Ahead

**25 From Nonmaleficence to Beneficence: Key Criteria, Approaches,
and Ethical Issues Relating to Positive Employee Health and Well-Being** 463
Kathryn M. Page and Dianne A. Vella-Brodrick

Author Biographies..... 491

Index..... 505

Part I
Introduction

Chapter 1

Stuck Between a Rock and a Hard Place: Quality of Work Life

Nora P. Reilly

In 2005, an American television series, *The Office*, hit the airwaves. Strongly influenced by its British counterpart of the same name, *The Office* portrays events in the typical work day of a small group of white-collar employees at a paper-supply company in Scranton, Pennsylvania. The series is a fictional documentary of work life. The office manager, Michael, is simultaneously ignorant, insensitive, and boorish while attempting to be politically correct. His inappropriate interactions with his employees make the viewer want to cringe. One now classic episode, *Diversity Day* (Novak & Kwapis, 2005), portrays a trainer sent from corporate headquarters to conduct diversity training for the staff. Michael muddies the efforts of the trainer by attempting to co-facilitate without being invited to do so, only to create an early ending to a failed exercise. After he sat down with the trainer to discuss where, in his opinion, the trainer fell short, Michael discovers that headquarters had only planned a *group* training program in order for him to save face because, in fact, his own employees had filed complaints about his racist and sexist remarks. He himself had generated a desperate need for the training. After refusing to sign the requisite documentation of participation in the program using his own name (he used “Daffy Duck”), Michael conducts his own diversity training the “right” way that very afternoon. Each employee was randomly assigned a label with a sticky note, indicating membership in a protected group to place on his or her forehead. While employees were unaware of the content of their own personal billboards, Michael instructed them to walk around the room and make positive comments about the characteristics of other people based on their labels without directly revealing the reluctant target’s group assignment. The one Black man in the exercise left in disgust when he realized his sticky note said “Black.” Needless to say, the training did not go well. Stereotyping and condescension were rampant, basically because Michael effectively induced those behaviors.

In this and other episodes, Michael’s consistent ineptitude creates a sense of incredulity in his subordinates, often generating anger and then a lingering frustration at being stuck in jobs with limited alternatives. To make matters worse, the self-serving assistant manager, Dwight, vigilantly ferrets out and reports infractions of office rules and company policies. While his goal is to eventually assume the position of manager, his strategy for reaching it is primarily shown through his eagerness to identify faults in others. The employees quite possibly feel a sense of learned helplessness. Not surprisingly, the work climate is best evidenced by the employees’ desire to escape. While all employees at *The Office* watch the clock, some break

N.P. Reilly, Ph.D. (✉)
Department of Psychology, College of Graduate and Professional Studies,
Radford University, Radford, VA 24142, USA
e-mail: nreilly@radford.edu

up the tedium through practical jokes, unrequited romantic interests, various forms of overt deviance, and gossip.

Keep in mind that while *The Office* is ostensibly a comedy – and an award-winning one at that – it may be regarded as an acquired taste in terms of its entertainment value. While some viewers find Michael's behaviors pathetically endearing, it is more likely that most identify with his offensiveness, often through direct experience in their own work environments. Whether as recipient or observer, many employees can relate to at least some of the awkwardness of the incidents in the series. A little social comparison can be engaging, especially if it results in feeling relief or even slight superiority. For example, thinking that one's direct supervisor is also a bit annoying – but not as bad as Michael – has potential entertainment value. However, being able to identify with many of the dysfunctional behaviors portrayed in the show can be uncomfortable, if not unbearable. One can imagine that viewers who find their own quality of work life highly comparable to that in the sitcom may not be able to watch it for long. After all, even the characters in the show try to escape from those feelings at the end of their work days, too.

Ethics at Work

So, how does this parody allow us to segue to a serious discussion of ethical issues associated with quality of work life (QWL)? Essentially, the series shows the viewer what is missing from the work lives of its employees: an ethical work culture. There is little *respect* among groups of employees as well as most employees with management. Employees and organizations must recognize that people of different races, colors, religions, genders, sexual orientations, ages, national origins, etc., may hold different values that do not interfere with the performance of their jobs. Michael expresses superficial concern for *balance* within his employees' lives. Employees juggle multiple roles, both at work and at home, and organizations must allow for prioritizing attention to critical roles – without punishment – when the need arises. The lack of enthusiasm of the employees at *The Office* reflects a thwarted sense of *responsibility*. Organizations hold responsibility for the well-being of their employees (training, health care, working conditions, etc.), and employees hold responsibilities to perform their jobs to the best of their abilities. Michael generates a climate in which employees do not feel mutually responsible for the company. Similarly, the lack of *autonomy* contributes to the felt responsibility of employees. Dwight, the tattle-tale with promotional aspirations, judges – and often reports on – all activities. Employees must ask permission to do the smallest things. To the extent possible, employers should empower employees to conduct their jobs without undue oversight, implying trust. Autonomous job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) should improve a sense of employee contribution and responsibility. Policies at *The Office* also seem to come down as edicts, without employee *participation* in their development. Employers should allow employees to engage in decisions that affect them whenever feasible, not just as a motivational incentive, but as recognition of the employees' expertise. That expertise should be communicated in an environment that encourages *voice*. Employees should be allowed to express their opinions without fear of retribution, in appropriate places and at appropriate times. Finally, *The Office's* employees seem to operate daily with the expectation that fairness will not be exercised; there is no sense of *justice*. In a well-functioning organization, all decisions pertaining to employees must follow established principles of procedural justice which, with some luck, may result in distributive justice (selection, appraisal, advancement, etc.). Employers must also follow established labor laws. In sum, the misery of *The Office's* employees is a manifestation of the culture of their work environment. It lacks respect, balance, responsibility, autonomy, participation, voice, and justice – the elements of an ethical work culture proposed here.

Clearly, one sitcom does not suggest a widespread problem. The American Management Association's 2002 Corporate Values Survey reported that the core values of companies were customer service, ethics and integrity, accountability, respect for others, and communication. It then described the degree to which companies adhere to stated values of ethics and integrity. In short, 36% of respondents said their companies "always" did what was legal, but did not always do what was ethical; 23% said "only some of the time." Thirty-seven percent of respondents said their companies adhered to their accountability values "only some of the time." *The Office* is not science fiction, nor does it depict a uniquely American phenomenon.

Given that the USA borrowed heavily from the UK's version of *The Office*, it would not be too far a stretch to venture that at least some of the other European Union's (EU) workplaces may show cultures that also fail to reflect the core values of balance, respect, responsibility, autonomy, participation, voice, and justice. In fact, the European Commission that defines "quality of work life" (Royuela, Lopez-Tomayo, & Surinach, 2008) suggests the following dimensions of QWL.

- Intrinsic job quality
- Skills, lifelong learning, and career development
- Gender equality
- Health and safety at work
- Flexibility and security
- Inclusion and access to the labor market
- Work organization and work-life balance
- Social dialogue and worker involvement
- Diversity and nondiscrimination
- Overall work performance

They are quite similar on the US side of the pond. Whereas QWL may be viewed from different perspectives and has several subcomponents, authors have examined its various correlates (e.g., Efraty & Sirgy, 1990; Kohl & Schooler, 1982; Marcel & Dupuis, 2006; Morrison, Tay, & Diener, 2011; Seashore, 1975). These include a multitude of job and organizational attitudes and behaviors. Addressing the subjective well-being associated with QWL interventions has become an international imperative (Morrison et al. 2011). The problem is the sheer volume of issues that arise which detract from employee well-being at each of the individual, organizational, and cultural levels of analyses.

As a brief aside, it is relevant to compare QWL to "quality of life" in general. After all, work is part of life. While not specifically addressing ethics in the workplace, Grasso and Canova (2008) describe objectives of the 25 members of the 2008 EU that are directly applied to quality of life and necessarily include a heavy emphasis on the interface between work and nonwork environments. The first objective addressed economic and social progress, with an emphasis on quality of life. It specified the improvement of economic conditions, the creation of employment and struggle against unemployment, improvements in education, the enhancement of health and security, and the reduction of pollution and improvement of environment protection as its priorities. The second major objective addressed strengthening economic and social cohesion: its goals were to reduce regional disparities and strengthen social bonds. While not restricted to work, social indicators of the objectives listed above were selected. They address the same dilemmas that affect quality of life in the USA. These included economic resources and consumers' conditions, employment and working conditions, education and access to schooling, health and access to medical care, family and social relations, housing and amenities, culture and recreation, security for life and property, and political resources and participation (cf., Sirgy, 2002). While a multidimensional analysis of these EU nations' quality of life indicators appeared to show rather heterogeneous results in regard to the *degree* of quality of life, it provided evidence that economic and social indicators were highly correlated with subjective well-being, a corollary of life

satisfaction. However, due to the much higher level of analysis used in the Grasso and Canova study (i.e., national), one should not presume that money buys happiness, either at work or at home (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2002; Diener, Ng, Harter, & Arora, 2010).

Do We Have a Problem?

Perhaps as a result of the corporate ethics scandals of the early twenty-first century, many organizations have made a point of creating codes of ethics intended to reflect their values. Ethical corporate cultures should influence work life both in terms of effective behaviors and attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, creativity, turnover intentions; Valentine, Godkin, Fleischman, & Kidwell, 2011). However, Webley and Werner (2008) report that an ethics policy based only on a code of ethics is inadequate to influence organizational attitudes and behaviors. Based on data from the Institute of Business Ethics' 2005 UK National Ethics at Work Survey (Webley & Dryden, 2005) and a global business ethics survey conducted by the American Management Association (AMA, 2006), neither formal ethics programs nor positive self-reported corporate cultures close the gap between policy and practice in terms of ethical behavior at work.

Where does QWL fit in here? Is there evidence as to whether employers and employees live up to these standards? Is there a problem with ethics in the workplace? QWL mirrors an "ethical work environment." According to an Ethics Research Council press release (November 18, 2009), the observed amount of misconduct, employees' willingness to report it, the strength of an organization's ethical culture, and the amount of pressure to cut corners at all levels are the key criteria of ethical behavior. But is the sky falling? The results of the 2009 National Business Ethics Survey (published every 2 years by the National Ethics Research Board – or NERB – in the USA) suggest not. It reported an improvement over the prerecession 2007 results on key ethical measures, with one large exception being that the fear of retaliation for reporting misconduct has risen. In 2007, 56% of respondents reported that they witnessed misconduct on the job; this fell to 49% in 2009. In 2007, 58% claimed that they actually reported observed misconduct; this rose to 63% in 2009. As a final example, it should be noted that 10% of the 2007 respondents reported pressure to commit an ethics violation; this value fell to 8% in 2009. Having nearly one out of ten employees experience this pressure still remains an unfortunate indicator of the quality of organizational cultures. However, these data may also be interpreted to suggest that when times are tough, ethics improve. Regardless, unless there is a strong culture of ethics, misconduct will rise.

Interestingly, these data do not reflect the outcomes of similar studies conducted by the NERB a decade ago. In 2001 and 2003, the most frequently reported issues were abusive or intimidating behavior toward employees (24% in 2001 and 21% in 2003), misreporting time worked (21% in 2001 and 20% in 2003), lying (26% in 2001 and 19% in 2003), withholding needed information (25% in 2001 and 18% in 2003), EEO discrimination (17% in 2001 and 13% in 2003), theft or fraud (12% in 2001 and 12% in 2003), and sexual harassment (13% in 2001 and 11% in 2003). Instead of 1 out of 2 in 2009, the results of both the 2001 and 2003 National Business Ethics Surveys reported that about 1 in every 3 employees observed misconduct at work. A comparison of the results of the 2009 to the 2003 survey suggests, perhaps, that the sky *is* falling.

An Ethical Work Culture

A truly successful company has a strong ethical culture. The values of the organization permeate its management practices, including human resource management. The changing composition of the workforce (e.g., race, ethnicity, age, etc.), at least in the USA (United States Bureau of

Labor Statistics, 2011), influences the perceived and actual rights of employees. It may be that decisions regarding employees in many companies have largely changed from an “employment at will” perspective (again, in the USA) *because* of more recently recognized moral obligations of employers. It does not hurt that the Fair Labor Standards Act of, 1938, as amended in 2011, provides a strong reminder of these obligations. Research conducted by the Ethics Resource Center in Washington, D.C., reports that the most critical elements of an ethical organizational culture are modeling ethical behaviors on a daily basis by both managers and nonmanagers, following up on commitments, and providing resources that promote adherence to ethical standards (Maloney, 2007). In a survey of over 900 respondents, Valentine et al. (2011) reported that corporate ethical values were not only positively related to job satisfaction, but also to group creativity. Conversely, they found that corporate ethical values were negatively related to turnover intention. Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts, and Chonko (2009) further support the positive relationship between ethical leadership and attitudinal measures of job satisfaction and affective commitment. Ethics training and compliance programs that establish policies related to employees’ rights and responsibilities can assist in the promotion of an ethical corporate culture. Note, however, that training employees on corporate codes of ethics does not necessarily create an ethical culture. Codes are aspirational. In order for them to be inspirational, Webley and Werner (2008) argue that ethical behavior must be modeled after the highest levels of leadership and infused through all levels of management, findings firmly supported by Neubert et al. They further reinforce the concern that those who report violations of ethical standards must be able to do so without fear of retaliation.

There is increasing pressure on organizations to establish ethics training programs and, to the extent that an organization extends to even one other country, apply their policies to all nations in which they operate as permitted by their laws. Walker (2006) identifies several good reasons for doing so. These include the increasing strength of the EU as a legal force, the globalization of the economy and the workforce, and the continued importance of US laws that are applicable to the conduct of business outside the USA. In general, employees’ reports of “ethics program follow-through” as described by Trevino and Weaver (2001, p. 651) reduces unethical behavior and improves employees’ willingness to report problems. The degree to which an employee engages in ethical behavior boils down to a matter of perceived justice (Schminke, Ambrose, & Noel, 1997).

Breaking the Code: Why Do Ethical Dilemmas Arise?

Both employees and corporations have rights and obligations. In a market economy, employer/employee rights are based on contrasting, sometimes conflicting, assumptions and values. These obligations are based on the premises that (1) there should be balance between an employer’s interest in operating a business and the employees’ welfare and interests and (2) employee rights are based on law and, presumably, the principles that underlie those laws. While laws vary by country, certain employee rights are nonnegotiable in either written or implied contracts, and (3) employees have “moral entitlements” that “function to prevent [them] from being placed in the fundamentally coercive position of having to choose between their job and other basic human goods and treatments” (Des Jardins & McCall, 1985, p. 369, as cited in Weiss, 1998).

What are these obligations? A fair day’s pay for a fair day’s work does not adequately describe them. Employers are obliged to pay fair wages, provide safe working environments, and provide meaningful work. This short sentence packs a lot of punch. First, compensation should be determined by a thorough job evaluation and analysis of external equity. Second, a multitude of occupational safety and health standards must be applied to both blue collar and white collar positions.

The safety climate of a workplace (Huang, Chen, Strauss, & Rogers, 2004) is driven by supervisors and reinforced by upper management. Third, engaging in tasks that benefit others tends to be both motivating and satisfying (Grant, 2008). Meaningful work is a core element of the Job Characteristics Model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976).

In turn, employees are obliged to fulfill the responsibilities of their contracts, adhere to established organizational policies and procedures, follow goals established for – or preferably with – them, perform their work and job assignments to the maximal level of their abilities, and perform required tasks productively.

More central to the current theme is that employees also have rights. Ethical violations occur when there is a conflict between employer and employee obligations. In the USA, these rights are codified. Summarizing points made by Weiss (1998), employees have (1) the right to a job and the right not to be terminated without just cause; (2) the right to due process such as formal grievance procedures; (3) the right to privacy, including strict limitations on the use of polygraphs, surveillance, drug testing, computer-stored data, etc.; (4) the right to know about job-related hazards as well as workplace health and safety (e.g., working conditions, HIV, smoking) under regulation of the federal Occupational Safety and Health Administration; (5) the right to organize and strike as a means of protest against perceived violations of employee rights and employer obligations; and (6) the right of organizations with over 100 employees to know about plant closings as well as being given the opportunity to explore alternative ownership of a plant that is about to be closed. Thus, it is the failure to know and comply with rights and responsibilities that creates problems.

Ethical Dilemmas at Work

Organizations are faced with a number of historical and emerging issues that affect QWL. These may arise from their own policies and procedures, changes in the composition of the workforce, technological advancements, external economic and personal demands placed upon employees, or any combination thereof. It is the degree to which organizations respond to an extant or developing issue with policies that influence employee well-being that defines the ethical nature of their work cultures. Issues that affect QWL vary widely. They include work-life conflict, childcare, eldercare, work schedules, career development, promotional opportunities, work demands versus resources, substance abuse, abusive supervision, sexual harassment, bullying or mobbing, religious divisions, racism, sexism, ageism, the ability to earn a living wage, health-care benefits, wellness promotion, production systems and work design, leadership, management-employee communication, coworker relationships, performance management systems, organizational structure and communication, workplace violence, downsizing and outsourcing, and generational differences in work expectations – just to name a few. Strategically designed interventions based upon psychological principles offer redress.

While industrial and organizational psychology typically does not consider itself as the primary interface between ethical dilemmas and QWL, even a casual review of the topics in the field suggests that it plays an important role. Its purpose is to improve the efficiency of an organization while maintaining employee well-being. The purpose of this section is to identify several examples of workplace dilemmas from the popular literature that create ethical issues for employees by violating principles of balance, respect, responsibility, autonomy, participation, voice, and/or justice. Researchers then need to pose resolutions to problematic issues based on the empirically verified principles of industrial and organizational psychology. It may well be that the manner in which an organization treats its vulnerable yet competent employees reflects its true ethical culture. Realistically, all employees are vulnerable in one way or another: through

their individual needs, through an organization's practices, or through cultural changes that influence how employees think and behave at work. These vulnerabilities are not mutually exclusive, and their overlap is often large. However, the following few subsections attempt to categorize a broad spectrum of challenges that influence the QWL of employees. The supposition is that organizations that address these sorts of dilemmas create a more ethical work environment.

Regardless of the nature of the dilemma, conflict between the rights and responsibilities of employees and employers can be sources of stress. Stress is a somewhat messy yet essential concept to the study of ethics and QWL. However, the presence of ethical dilemmas creates a stress-related cultural climate. The possible antecedents to a stress reaction can be quite unique, and the experience of stress – be it positive or negative – is in the eye of the beholder. Mickel and Dallimore (2009) suggest that a stress reaction to a work incident may boil down to a choice between how one wishes to balance work and nonwork responsibilities. Methods for coping with stressful incidents may include setting boundary conditions when ethical conflicts occur and incorporating QOL into an organization's socialization and mentoring programs. However, the ability to effectively manage stress depends on one's sense of self-efficacy. An interview with a clinical psychologist on KDAF-TV in Dallas suggests that peoples' livelihoods are killing them (Carpenter, 2011). She recommends that if you cannot change your boss or your job, change your reaction to job stress. This ability applies to virtually all the examples of individual, organizational, and cultural sources of ethical dilemmas in the following sections, which attempt to integrate the academic perspective with events in the real world.

Individual Sources of Dilemmas

Challenges that affect an individual employee's well-being include but are most certainly not limited to mentoring, training, career stagnation, performance feedback, and work-life conflict.

A *Wall Street Journal* commentary (Sandberg, 2008) reports on a newly hired woman who was assigned a mentor in a marketing department of a theater company. When the protégé asked questions regarding her new job, she received such nebulous replies from her mentor that initiating contact became a waste of time. Realizing that suddenly stopping contact or requesting another advisor could create a host of other problems, she began her "Project Politely Ignore." This simply involved asking fewer and fewer questions to minimize contact, much like reducing interactions with someone one no longer wishes to date. Eventually, the mentoring relationship faded away without repercussion. While there are many reasons why a protégé may want to break up with a mentor (e.g., Eby & McManus, 2004), the commentary goes on to suggest that mentoring may be better as a polygamous rather than monogamous form of career development, especially when some mentors may sabotage, bully, or exploit their protégés. In any failed mentor-protégé relationship, a subtle exit strategy is helpful.

Opportunities for advancement extend well beyond mentoring relationships. One of the most obvious sources of "proving" oneself is to take advantage of training opportunities and transfer that training back to the job. In *The Evening Standard*, Chesworth (2011) reported on the growing number of UK employees who are unhappy with their jobs and recommended that they need to make the most of what is available in terms of training and development, even if it is just a chance to take a lateral move to gain exposure to new areas. The problem is gaining access to the training needed to promote one's own career, as well as possessing the sense of self-efficacy to do so (e.g., Abele & Spurk, 2009). The issue is quite similar in the USA, and there is evidence of an additional level of exclusion working against members of underrepresented groups in need of training opportunities. For example, in 2005, Ford Motor Company agreed to pay a multimillion dollar settlement to African-Americans who were rejected for an apprenticeship training opportunity

based on taking a test that had long demonstrated disparate impact (*EEOC v. Ford Motor Co. and United Automobile Workers of America*, 2005). Training is essential for development, but it must be available.

Even without a cloud of overt discrimination restricting advancement, career stagnation remains a concern for QWL. Flat organizations, small companies, outdated skills, personal animosities, nonwork demands, ageism, and a gloomy economy are just some of the factors that contribute to stalled careers. Consider the following. Many women who want to excel as much as their male counterparts are limited by childcare obligations (see Abele & Spurk, 2011). As described in *The Washington Post* (de Daniel, 2010), a 2005 Virginia Tech report found that the number of “voluntary” departures of female faculty members was disproportionate to that of males; women accounted for one-fifth of the faculty but two-fifths of departures. The reason? The time-honored tenure system in academia is in direct conflict with the most common child-bearing years for women. *The Washington Post* further stated that John Curtis, director of research and public policy for the American Association of University Professors, has evidence that parenthood has an opposite and positive effect on men’s ability to advance their academic careers. He claims that “faculty fathers who do sacrifice work for parenting tend to be admired and rewarded, while the mother who makes the same choice is ‘seen as neglecting her job.’” Hence, both the possibility of advancement and the time it takes to advance are affected.

Consequently, the proposal that performance management systems should be about employees’ successes rather than their shortcomings is another ethical imperative. Strong ethical cultures demonstrate this; weak ones do not. As reported in an Australian newspaper, *The Age*, a US ethics expert (Michele Kacmar) suggests that most workers are motivated more by respect than money (Gettler, 2007); unfortunately, most performance management systems do not attend to this principle. Procedurally, performance appraisals themselves leave much to be desired in a typical organization. For example, Gorman and Rentsch (2009) provide a schema-based explanation for why the efficacy of an evaluation improves after rater training, which increases the accuracy and fairness of the evaluation. Anecdotally, it would be correct to say that adequate rater training does not occur with great frequency. After a review of 300 articles, Levy and Williams (2004) also proposed that the social context in which a performance appraisal is conducted has more influence than previously examined in the literature. Their conclusions that the reactions of the ratee matter, as does establishing a culture that is receptive to feedback, have generated new research. Both recommendations require an ethically principled performance management system.

When employees do not feel respected as individuals, any number of counterproductive work behaviors may arise. These may range from mild (e.g., incivility) to severe (overt acts of violence). Some of the milder examples are hard to call. For example, an article in *The New York Times* (Mihalopoulos, 2011) reports about 200 complaints over a 5-year period that alleged that Chicago city truck drivers were sleeping at their jobs. This apparent social loafing, along with reports by citizens who see work crews with only a few people working while several others stand by idly, were justified by the employees’ union claiming that they were doing exactly what they were supposed to be doing: transporting others to their work sites and nothing more, as specified by contract. As Mihalopoulos reports, the city’s Inspector General agrees: “We have basically codified wasteful overstaffing.” While a dispute between city and union officials about workplace rules is imminent, the situation presents an interesting quandary concerning the obligations of the employer (the city) and the responsibilities of the employees to its citizens. It would be reasonable to suggest that the meaningfulness of work is in question here as well as, perhaps, the political ramifications of a powerful union. In a more egregious incident, *The Times-News* of Burlington, NC, reported on the arrest of an employee who was charged with 18 counts of forgery and/or acquiring money under false pretenses from a customer over a 5-month period (AP, 2011). One cannot know if this represents the employee’s reaction to perceived pay ineq-

uity (e.g., Greenberg, 1990) in addition to a lack of character, but violations of respect, responsibility, and justice are evident.

Perhaps one of the most prevalent individual sources of ethical dilemmas is work-life balance. Employees have obligations to their employers, but they also have obligations to themselves. The balancing act required by employees to care for their nonwork roles is not uniformly perceived or valued. First, consider the remarks of the CEO of the Employers and Manufacturers Association in New Zealand (*The Courier Mail*, 2011). While on a radio talk show, the executive stated that women were less productive than men and were appropriately paid less because they required more sick leave due to menstruation and childcare. He was fired. Conversely, Australia has a federally mandated childcare rebate available to working parents and stay-at-home mothers. *The Australian* (Sue, 2011) reports that this 50% childcare rebate is currently the only benefit for families with working parents that does not require a certain level of income for eligibility. The government considered limiting its access to stay-at-home mothers. When first introduced in 2006 and raised in 2008, women's employment rates have grown from 54.3% before the rebate to 57.2% as of March 2011. Unions have warned that women might have to quit their jobs in order to stay under a proposed raise in family income threshold which would, in turn, reduce women's participation in the workforce and potentially exacerbate the Australian skills shortage. On top of this, *The Age* reports that there are an insufficient number of qualified childcare workers and that, by 2012, the ratio of staff-to-children for the youngest kids will be reduced and, by 2014, every Australian childcare worker must have a minimum level of certification (Griffin, 2011). Less than half of the current childcare workers in Victoria have the qualifications. Griffin also reports that these requirements will lead to a considerably higher cost for childcare per day, further complicating the income threshold described by Sue.

There is more to balancing life than juggling the work-childcare interface (Fisher, Bulger, & Smith, 2009). Work interference with one's personal life, whatever its nature, is a source of constraint and of stress. Consider the "sandwiched" generation. A National Public Radio broadcast (Cox, 2007) tells the story of a married 45-year-old woman with 5-year-old twin girls who needed to step in when her 77-year-old father was diagnosed with Alzheimer's. Though the father was living with his female companion for 17 years in San Diego, the companion could no longer care for him due to the unpredictable nature of his outbursts. That placed the responsibility on the man's daughter and one of his three sons, both of whom lived in Los Angeles. The other two sons opted out of the responsibility. The first step was to convince the unwilling father to move to an assisted living facility near them. That worked. However, they were both unprepared to deal with the frequent crises that arose and the fact that the twin girls did not understand why friends would need to pick them up instead of their mother, or if plans were suddenly canceled. In addition to the deteriorating quality of life for the primary caretaker – the daughter – the burden of financial and legal issues was thrown into the mix, as was the fact that the woman needed to take a hiatus from her job to focus on her caretaker duties. Due to his disease, the father forgot that he had left directives to address this possible turn in his life and resisted them, though they did eventually provide some financial relief. As reported on the broadcast, 42 million women in the USA are members of the sandwiched generation and bear the double burden of caring for their parents and their children. Further, it is much more likely that if there is a female among the potential caretakers, most of the duty will fall to her and that, after a crisis, a single caretaker tends to take on the brunt of the responsibility as those who were there for the crisis gradually return to their normal lives. It will be the baby boomers' collective responsibility to address the cultural and societal attitudes associated with their own imminent aging in order to maintain their own quality of life (Shoptaugh, Phelps, & Visio, 2004).

Another less publicized issue in the study of work-life balance is potential discrimination against childless couples and singles (Casper, Weltman, & Kwesiga, 2007). Despite the growth of "family-friendly" benefits, singles have priorities outside of work, too. In a quote from

The Christian Science Monitor, Bradley (2006) writes the following of a teacher who noticed that almost all of his peers who attended after-hour meetings either had grown kids or no kids: “I thought, ‘Wow, all my colleagues who have children are home now, and they’re getting paid as much as we are. All they have to do is say ‘My kid ...’ and all is excused.’” It is not like someone in the teaching profession is antichildren. The demand is one of equity, not preferential treatment. The article goes on to report a 2003 study by the University of Tulsa which suggests that more than half of the childless singles in the USA resent less flexible hours, mandatory overtime, or less flexible vacation in comparison to their married coworkers with kids. Another example was that of an “office party” in which all employees were asked to pay a flat fee, no matter if many were bringing spouses or children with them. However, other research conducted by the University of Texas at Arlington shows that a singles-friendly work environment can be fostered by a cafeteria style benefits program that allows for different lifestyles which, in turn, promotes retention. While the article supports the shift in our nomenclature from “work-family conflict” to “work-life conflict,” it is certainly not the case that childless singles object to promoting the propagation of their species; rather, they just want equitable benefits based on individual preferences to afford them their rights to balance, respect, voice, and justice.

Organizational Sources of Dilemmas

Challenges that emanate from organizational policies and procedures include perceived justice of such benefits as alternative work arrangements, team development, ethical leadership, accountability, job design, organizational design, and accountability for counterproductive work behaviors, the latter of which include sexual harassment and workplace violence. Again, these topics are not independent of each other though they manifest themselves in myriad ways.

For many, benefits are as important as their compensation. *The Daily Mail* (“One in three,” 2010) reported that just over half of employees in Ireland had their bonuses and commissions either canceled or reduced and that nearly one-third of companies reduced pension benefits in 2009. Reducing a financial provision for retirement represents an extreme violation of justice for those employees who worked their lives with the trust that there would be some support for them at the end of their careers. In *The Commercial Appeal* (Connolly, 2010), a mayor who recently lost his bid for reelection threatened to veto cuts in vacation days and leave time that had been approved by the county commission in an 8-4 vote. The change in paid leave was even rejected by a member of the opposing political party as a matter of fairness to those who had worked for the county for 15 or 20 years. Unstable economies require drastic measures, despite the perceived injustice. In a somewhat disturbing but appropriate application of procedural justice, Kinsman (2006) from *The San Diego-Union Tribune* reported on a decision by an organization that was legally correct but, perhaps, morally debatable. An employee missed a deadline to file for her company’s stock options and brought the requisite paperwork to the compensation expert the morning after the deadline. The human resources employee realized that no one would ever know if she accepted the papers, but chose to deny the request. The employee immediately appealed to the CEO, who supported HR’s decision. The potential legal repercussions were too severe to overlook. As much as it may appear inconsequential, the organization upheld its ethical responsibility and the employee did not uphold her obligation. Kinsman goes on to report the findings of 418 “World at Work” members who are HR employees. They claimed that 65% said they faced ethical dilemmas at least once per month, and 19 reported that ethical issues arose on a daily basis. Spell and Arnold (2007) confirm that perceptions of justice related to benefits have negative repercussions on the climate of the organization and the mental health of its employees.

Related to the discussion of work-life balance above, many organizations are embracing telecommuting as a standard policy. With rapidly expanding access to technology, the traditional daily commute to work may unnecessarily detract from the quality of work life. According to an article by *UPI Business* based on research from the Universities of Wisconsin-Milwaukee and Northwestern, employees who telework at least 3 days per week better accommodate family life while alienation from workplace communication – often cited as the greatest drawback to telecommuting – was minimal (“Teleworkers,” 2010). Breugh and Frye (2008) provide data that a key factor in the success of a business whose employees work from home is the support of family-friendly supervisors. In fact, both those who did and did not telecommute had timely access to information while the telecommuters were shielded from such workplace distractions as meetings, interruptions, and office politics. Kreiter (2011) reported on others’ data that suggest that approximately 45 million Americans work from home at least once per year, not including the self-employed, and that number is expected to increase to 63 million by 2016. The UK is undergoing the same transition. Sullivan and Smithson (2007) argue that “remote work” offers the potential for flexibility, productivity, and gender equity. It does. Interestingly, Kreiter further reported on a CareerBuilder survey that showed that most telecommuters put in less than 8 h per day, though 63% of them claimed they are at least as if not more productive. The trick to being productive is to get up, get dressed, set up a work routine, and stay focused. A *Philadelphia Enquirer* article by Bauers (2011) claims that a Widener University professor further argues for telecommuting because of the cost saving associated with working from home (i.e., a reduction in office space, energy, and materials) as well as a significant reduction in greenhouse gas emissions due to a drop in commuting.

Organizations that promote an ethical work climate and quality of work life need to be lead from above. Exceptions to the rule are not uncommon. Tavernise (2011) wrote a *New York Times* article that brought back unfortunate memories of a previously disgraced mayor of Washington, D.C. Mr. Vincent Gray, a relatively unknown name in the political arena, was subsequently elected to the position of mayor. Rather quickly, he was accused of nepotism in hiring and of providing inflated salaries, exceeding established salary caps. The dilemma here is particularly interesting from a leadership perspective: while the mayor was justly accused of wrongdoing, the District Council’s public hearings brought forth allegations of a total of five violations, only one of which was substantiated. In a leadership role, even one misstep can affect trust. Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den Hartog, and Folger (2010) provide evidence that ethical behavior of a leader influences the climate in which employees make decisions and, in so doing, may adversely alter the manner in which work gets done.

As a relative newcomer to the mayoral level of administration, did Mr. Gray receive sympathy or support? Tavernise reported that one member of the District’s Council stated “I believe Gray to be honest. My quarrel is not with him. It’s with the individuals in which he places so much trust.” Not surprising, Gray’s chief of staff was dismissed. Someone had to be held accountable. Blame and credit attributions affect both an individual’s and an organization’s ability to learn, develop, and cooperate. Through examining the interaction among organizational roles (Gibson & Schroeder, 2003), it is possible to raise attribution theory to a higher level of analysis. In *The Columbian*, Mize (2009) suggested that the Vancouver, WA, police officers’ guild alleged that the highest levels of the police department were not held accountable for favoritism, cronyism, and disparate treatment. Further, the blame became institutionalized over the years; only 5% of respondents to a commissioned survey believed there was a positive organizational culture within the department. However, 87% of the officers working in line positions reported that they were treated with respect by the employees with whom they worked on a daily basis. When the question of accountability exists in an organization’s top levels, it affects both the morale and quality of work life of its employees. The problem is how to redesign the organization – and the jobs within it – to do so.

The design of jobs has been long studied (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). However, the science and practice of team development and self-management suggests that a team is more than a set of jobs (Hackman, 2002). A 2010 broadcast on how teamwork affects care in hospitals in New South Wales, Australia (“Hospital survey,” 2010), reported on the results of a survey of more than 20,000 public patients about the care they received the previous year. Three percent of the overnight patients and 1% of the day surgery patients rated their care as “poor.” The recently established State Bureau of Health Information’s director asserts that staff teamwork was a major influence. While the explanation for why 94% of the patients rated the top hospital as “good” or better is anecdotal, the design of jobs and the interdependence of those members of a team who value the outcomes of their work are indispensable to success. Respect for others, felt responsibility beyond one’s own interests, and active participation in a team are prime examples of ethical principles that contribute toward a greater good (Sewell, 2005).

Organizational sources of ethical quandaries range from policies and procedures that apply to management, teams, and individual employees. Real-world incidents regarding benefits neatly flow into a discussion of leave time, telecommuting, flexible hours, and alternative work arrangements. In turn, alternative work arrangements require the presence of ethical leadership, supportive supervision, clear organizational structure, and a trickle-down effect to the core design of jobs that promote respect among and within employees for both themselves and their jobs. Other types of policies, however, are not in place to promote the *positive* obligations of employers but, rather, to take responsibility to protect employees from harm. Harmful work events considered here are various forms of violence and sexual harassment. While “counterproductive” in a different sense, these are policies or situations to which employees are exposed and need to be addressed by management.

From a survey of around 500 employees, Barlow (2011) reported that 60% of Ventura, CA, employees had been bullied at work, 69% reported they had witnessed bullying, 44% reported they had been yelled at during work, and 43% claimed they were retaliated against for speaking up. One employee claimed that his supervisors engaged in activities in violation of health privacy laws and, when called on the behaviors, was given 15 min to move 9 years’ worth of work. After seven other employees spoke before a formal board, the normally polite audience marched around the room with signs and chanted “What do we want? Respect!” Duffy (2009) anticipates that antibullying and antimobbing legislation in the USA is imminent for the protection of employees and for establishing formal parameters for a work culture that may have gone awry.

Bullying and abusive supervision are just two of many forms of workplace violence (Neuman & Baron, 1998). Hostile glaring, subordinates nonphysically “ganging” up on a supervisor (i.e., mobbing), intimidation, and mistreatment are actually some of the milder forms of workplace violence, despite the severity of their effects on their victims. *The Nelson Mail* reported that health professionals are at the greatest risk at work based on the number of serious injuries incurred (“Violence rife,” 2011). The Massey University survey of 96 organizations on which the article was based found that more than half of the organizations reported violence ranging from attempted assault, vandalism, and serious physical injury. The coauthor of the survey, Bevan Catley, stated that the rate for all violent incidents (3 per 100 workers) was very high compared to the USA and Europe – small comfort, at best. For often unpredictable reasons – and a lack of restraint – actual bodily harm regularly occurs. Grimson (2011), a reporter from *The Daily Advertiser* in Australia, wrote that a 39-year-old quarry worker was grabbed by the throat and punched repeatedly in the face and chest – by his supervisor. While public laws help to address this degree of violence, they are apparently not enough.

Perhaps one of the most serious and, sometimes, subtle forms of workplace violence is sexual harassment. Both “*quid pro quo*” and “hostile environment” forms of sexual harassment have received much attention in the popular press and the legal system. Based on allegations that a mechanic in Iraq was subjected to a hostile work environment and homophobic slurs for 4 months,

the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission filed a civil lawsuit against the mechanic's military contractor ("EEOC," 2011). Complaints to his immediate supervisor were either disregarded or he was threatened with a transfer. The married, heterosexual mechanic eventually agreed to move to a lower-paying job in Germany. The employee not only sought damages but also a requirement that the contractor institute policies to protect men from sexual harassment. The emotional trauma, frustration, and fear associated with sexual harassment apply equally to both genders. Sexual harassment is a form of violence and an unacceptable imposition of control over another. Strong ethical leadership with a culture of "no tolerance" toward harassment is imperative, as are in-house mechanisms to address the problems that arise for both the perpetrator and the victim (Nelson, Halpert, & Cellar, 2007).

Cultural Sources of Dilemmas

It is difficult to remove any of the previous examples of ethical dilemmas from the culture in which they occur. However, there are more recent issues that warrant a small but separate section on cultural sources of dilemmas that violate ethical principles and decrease quality of life. In this subsection, generational differences, religious issues, and spirituality in the workplace will be considered.

Stewart (2011) in *The Canberra Times* reported on the critical need to retain older workers in Australia in order to prevent skills shortages, as mentioned earlier in regard to the potential consequences of the childcare rebate. The hope is that organizations will develop innovative strategies needed to be developed now in order to remain competitive in the future given that a National Workplace Skills Survey claims that 92.5% of employers hire "mature" age workers. The implication of the article was that younger workers, though scarce, would be less loyal, less productive early in the apprenticeship, and more likely to quit. Contrary to stereotypical beliefs, Kowske, Rasch, and Wiley (2010) provide evidence that millennials tend to hold the same values and work ethic as their seniors. The manner in which they demonstrate their values may differ, but the technological skills that we assume the younger generation to hold may not help them in terms of relative productivity.

Here is a different cultural issue that many in the Western world will not find surprising, though it is also partially based on stereotyping. Marie (2009) reported on a young Muslim woman who was denied a sales position at a high-end children's clothing store in Tulsa, OK, because her attire violated the retail company's "Look Policy." Specifically, the policy bans wearing a head covering. In this case, the applicant was denied the position because she wore a hijab, a head covering worn by some Muslim women because of their religious beliefs. Given that a hijab would not interfere with the essential duties of the job and after an attempt at an informal settlement, the defendant invoked Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act and pursued further action under the EEOC (Ball & Haque, 2003). One wonders whether a young recovering cancer survivor without hair would have been treated similarly. While the spokeswoman for the company could not comment on pending legislation, she did say "We have a strong equal employment opportunity policy and accommodate religious beliefs and practices where possible." The expression of one's religious beliefs as well as the sense of spirituality that may be attained from work has been shown to be positively related to job satisfaction (Pawar, 2009). In fact, Tom Chappell, owner and CEO of the organic production company called "Tom's of Maine," has relied upon his faith to develop and direct his organization (Marques, 2005) in a manner that maintains profitability yet exudes a sense of well-being to employees and customers alike. Employers must allow their employees to live their beliefs whenever reasonable.

Consequences for Employees Stuck Between a Rock and a Hard Place

The consequences for employees who find themselves faced with challenges – and opportunities – to manage ethical dilemmas may manifest in several ways. Subjective well-being falls along an “illness” to “wellness” continuum, and those with lower levels of self-efficacy tend to find themselves at a disadvantage. To succeed, one must simultaneously monitor physical and psychological resources, physical and psychological risks, and both nonwork and work roles to find a safe space (i.e., between the rock and the hard place).

The goal of a successful organizational intervention when faced with an ethical dilemma is not merely financial; it is to find that safe space. Luthans, Avolio, Avey, and Norman (2007) provide evidence that a combination of hope, optimism, resilience, and efficacy produce “positive psychological capital,” which results in improved job satisfaction. Interventions rooted in industrial and organizational psychology offer the promise of building more of it in the workforce.

References

- ABC News. (2010, May 27). Hospital survey shows teamwork affects care. *ABC Premium News*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Abele, A. E., & Spurk, D. (2009). The longitudinal impact of self-efficacy and career goals on objective and subjective career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *74*, 53–62.
- Abele, A. E., & Spurk, D. (2011). The dual impact of gender and the influence of timing of parenthood on men’s and women’s career development: Longitudinal findings. *International Journal of Behavioral Development*, *35*(3), 225–232. doi:10.1177/0165025411398181.
- American Management Association. (2002). *Corporate values survey*. New York: American Management Association. http://www.amanet.org/research/pdfs/2002_corp_value.pdf
- American Management Association. (2006). *The ethical enterprise – A global study of business ethics 2005–2015*. New York: American Management Association.
- AP. (2011, October 21). SunTrust bank employee charged with theft. *The Times-News*. Retrieved from http://www.news-record.com/content/2011/10/21/article/suntrust_bank_employee_charged_with_theft
- Ball, C., & Haque, A. (2003). Diversity in religious practice: Implications of Islamic values in the public workplace. *Public Personnel Management*, *32*(3), 315–330.
- Barlow, Z. (2011, September 28). Bullying a problem within county government, union says. *Ventura County Star*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Bauers, S. (2011, April 7). A tally of telecommuting: Tons of pollutants avoided. *The Philadelphia Inquirer*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Bradley, M. (2006, June 12). In “family friendly” workplaces, singles feel overlooked. *The Christian Science Monitor*. Retrieved from <http://www.csmonitor.com/2006/0612/p13s01-wmgn.html>
- Breaugh, J. A., & Frye, N. K. (2008). Work-family conflict: The importance of family friendly employment practices and family supportive supervisors. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *22*, 345–353.
- Carpenter, B. (Anchor). (2011, February 28). *Office stress: Boss+workload=stress. Blame is on the economy* [Television broadcast]. Dallas, TX: *KDAF-TV*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Casper, W. J., Weltman, D., & Kwesiga, E. (2007). Beyond family-friendly: The construct and measurement of singles-friendly work cultures. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *70*, 478–501.
- Chesworth, N. (2011, June 7). Looking out for number one. *Evening Standard*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Connolly, D. (2010, August 13). Mayor Joe Ford vows veto on reduced county employee benefits: Says county workers deserve vacation, sick days. *The Commercial Appeal*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Cox, T. (Anchor). (2007, January 25). Raising children, caring for parents [Radio broadcast]. *National Public Radio*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Daily Mail. (2010, October 19). One in three scaled back benefits last year. *Daily Mail*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- de Daniel, V. (2010, July 11). Tenure track for women often isn’t easily maneuvered. *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Des Jardins, J. R., & McCall, J. J. (1985). A defense of employee rights. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *4*, 367–376.
- Diener, E., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). Will money increase subjective well-being? A literature review and guide to needed research. *Social Indicators Research*, *57*, 119–169.

- Diener, E., Ng, W., Harter, J., & Arora, R. (2010). Wealth and happiness across the world: Material prosperity predicts life evaluation, whereas psychosocial prosperity predicts positive feeling. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *99*, 52–61.
- Duffy, M. (2009). Preventing workplace mobbing and bullying with effective organizational consultation, policies, and legislation. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *61*(3), 242–262.
- Eby, L. T., & McManus, S. E. (2004). The protégé's role in negative mentoring experiences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *65*, 255–275.
- EEOC v. Ford Motor Co. and United Automobile Workers of America, No. 1:04-CV-00845 S.D. Ohio. (2005).
- EEOC. (2011, August 17). EEOC sues DynCorp for hostile work environment. *AP Regional State Report-Virginia*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Efraty, D., & Sirgy, M. J. (1990). The effects of quality of working life (QWL) on employee behavioral responses. *Social Indicators Research*, *22*(1), 31–47.
- Employer group chief sacked for sexist slur. (2011, July 7). *The Courier Mail*, p. 23. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Ethics Research Council. (2009, November 18). <http://www.ethicsworld.org/ethicsandemployees/nbes.php#new09>
- Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, 29 U.S.C. § 201–219 (as amended 2011).
- Fisher, G. G., Bulger, C. A., & Smith, C. S. (2009). Beyond work and family: A measure of work/nonwork interference and enhancement. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *14*, 441–456.
- Gettler, L. (2007, May 23). How performance appraisals send you GAGA. *The Age*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Gibson, D. E., & Schroeder, S. J. (2003). Who ought to be blamed? The effect of organizational roles on blame and credit attributions. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *14*(2), 95–117.
- Gorman, C. A., & Rentsch, J. R. (2009). Evaluating frame-of-reference rater training effectiveness using performance schema accuracy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*, 1336–1344.
- Grant, A. M. (2008). The significance of task significance: Job performance effects, relational mechanisms, and boundary conditions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*(1), 108–124.
- Grasso, M., & Canova, L. (2008). An assessment of the quality of life in the European Union based on the social indicators approach. *Social Indicators Research*, *87*(1), 1–25. doi:10.2007/s11205-00709158-7.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Employee theft as a reaction to underpayment inequity: The hidden costs of pay cuts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*, 561–568.
- Griffin, M. (2011, March 21). Childcare worker shortage looms large. *The Age*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Grimson, K. (2011, February 3). A workplace row erupted in violence on Monday. *Daily Advertiser*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Hackman, J. R. (2002). *Leading teams: Setting the stage for great performances*. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. (1976). Motivation through the design of work: Test of a theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *16*, 250–279.
- Huang, Y. H., Chen, P. Y., Krauss, A. D., & Rogers, D. A. (2004). Quality of the execution of corporate safety policies and employee safety outcomes: Assessing the moderating role of supervisor support and the mediating role of employee safety control. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *18*, 483–506.
- Kinsman, M. (2006). Ethical behavior in workplace is desirable, necessary. *The San Diego Union-Tribune*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Kohl, M. L., & Schooler, C. (1982). Job conditions and personality: A longitudinal assessment of reciprocal effects. *The American Journal of Sociology*, *87*, 1257–1286.
- Kowske, B., Rasch, R., & Wiley, J. (2010). Millennials' (lack of) attitude problem: An empirical examination of generational effects on work attitudes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *25*(2), 265–279. doi:10.1007/s10869-010-9171-8.
- Kreiter, M. S. (2011, September 25). Consumer corner: Have computer will travel. *UPI Business*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Levy, P. E., & Williams, J. (2004). The social context of performance appraisal: A review and framework for the future. *Journal of Management*, *30*, 881–905.
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *60*(3), 541–572.
- Maloney, P. (May, 2007). Research report discusses the critical elements of an ethical culture. *Federal Ethics Report*, *14*(5), 9.
- Marcel, J. P., & Dupuis, G. (2006). Quality of work life: Theoretical and methodological problems, and presentation of a new model and measuring instrument. *Social Indicators Research*, *77*, 333–368.
- Marie, P. (2009, September 18). Lawsuit filed in Tulsa federal court alleges Abercrombie & Fitch discriminated against Muslim. *The Journal Record*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Marques, J. (2005). HR' crucial role in the establishment of spirituality in the workplace. *Journal of the American Academy of Business*, *7*(2), 27–31.

- Mickel, A. E., & Dallimore, E. J. (2009). Life-quality decisions: Tension-management strategies used by individuals when making tradeoffs. *Human Relations*, *62*, 627–668.
- Mihalopoulos, D. (2011, July 10). Emanuel and unions square off over work rules. *The New York Times*, p. 21A. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Mize, J. (2009, August 10). Police guild sees accountability absent at top. *The Columbian*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Morrison, M., Tay, L., & Diener, E. (2011). Subjective well-being and national satisfaction: Findings from a worldwide survey. *Psychological Science*, *22*(2), 166–171.
- National Business Ethics Survey. (2009). <http://www.ethicsworld.org/ethicsandemployees/nbes.php#new09>
- Nelson, C. G., Halpert, J. A., & Cellar, D. F. (2007). Organizational responses for preventing and stopping sexual harassment: Effective deterrents of continued endurance. *Sex Roles*, *56*, 811–822. doi:10.1007/s11199-007-9239-8.
- Neubert, M. J., Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Roberts, J. A., & Chonko, L. B. (2009). The virtuous influence of ethical leadership behavior: Evidence from the field. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *90*, 157–170.
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. *Journal of Management*, *24*, 391–419.
- Novak, B. J. (Writer), & Kwapis, K. (Director). (2005). Diversity day [Television series episode]. In B. Silverman, G. Daniels, R. Gervais, S. Merchant, H. Klein, & P. Lieberstein (Executive Producers), *The Office*. New York: NBC.
- Pawar, B. S. (2009). Individual spirituality, workplace spirituality and work attitudes: An empirical test of direct and interaction effects. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *30*(8), 759–777.
- Piccolo, R. F., Greenbaum, R. L., Den Hartog, D., & Folger, R. (2010). The relationship between ethical leadership and core job characteristics. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *31*, 259–278.
- Royuela, V., López-Tamayo, J., & Suriñach, J. (May, 2008). The institutional vs. the academic definition of the quality of work life. What is the focus of the European Commission? *Social Indicators Research*, *86*(3), 401–415.
- Sandberg, J. (2008, March 18). With bad mentors, it's better to break up than to make up. *The Wall Street Journal*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Schminke, M., Ambrose, M. L., & Noel, T. W. (1997). The effect of ethical frameworks on perceptions of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Journal*, *40*(5), 1190–1207.
- Seashore, S. E. (1975). Defining and measuring the quality of working life. In L. E. Davis & A. B. Cherniss (Eds.), *The quality of working life* (pp. 105–118). New York: Free Press.
- Sewell, G. (2005). Doing what comes naturally? Why we need a practical ethics of teamwork. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *16*, 202–218.
- Shoptaugh, C. F., Phelps, J. A., & Visio, M. E. (2004). Eldercare, job attitudes and organizational outcomes: Should organizations care? *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *19*, 179–196.
- Sirgy, M. J. (2002). *Psychology of quality of life*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Spell, C. S., & Arnold, T. J. (2007). A multilevel analysis of organizational justice climate, structure, and employee mental health. *Journal of Management*, *33*, 724–751.
- Stewart, F. (2011, April 10). Older workers' wisdom. *The Canberra Times*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Study finds violence rife in workplace. (2011, June 17). *The Nelson Mail*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Sue, D. (2011, April 19). Business warns against childcare means test. *The Australian*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Sullivan, C., & Smithson, J. (2007). Perspectives of homeworkers and their partners on working flexibility and gender equity. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(3), 448–461.
- Tavernise, S. (2011, April 16). In Washington, headlines that revive bad memories. *New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Trevino, L. K., & Weaver, G. R. (2001). Organizational justice and ethics program “follow-through”: Influences on employees' harmful and helpful behavior. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *11*, 651–671.
- United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2011, July). Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/cps/demographics.htm>
- UPI. (2010, November 17). Teleworkers happier than those in office. *UPI Business*. Retrieved from <http://web.ebscohost.com>
- Valentine, S., Godkin, L., Fleischman, G. M., & Kidwell, R. (2011). Corporate ethical values, group creativity, job satisfaction and turnover intention: The impact of work context on work response. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *98*, 353–372.
- Walker, R. (2006). International corporate compliance programmes. *International Journal of Disclosure and Governance*, *3*(1), 70–81.
- Webley, S., & Dryden, P. (2005). *Ethics at work: A national survey*. London: Institute of Business Ethics.
- Webley, S., & Werner, A. (2008). Corporate codes of ethics: Necessary but not sufficient. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, *17*, 405–415.
- Weiss, J. W. (1998). *Business ethics: A stakeholder and issues management approach* (2nd ed.). New York: The Dryden Press.

Part II

Foundations

Chapter 2

Professional Ethical Standards: The Journey Toward Effective Codes of Ethics

Connie Rae Bateman

Sama and Shoaf (2008) defined a profession as a “moral community ... a non-random collection of groups of people engaged in reciprocal and positive social interaction” (p. 41). As such, professional ethical standards of the community are often formalized in codes of ethics (codes). While numerous definitions of codes have been published across a variety of disciplines, there exists general agreement that a code’s primary purpose is to influence moral behavior within a profession (Di Norcia, 2002; Messikomer & Cirka, 2010; Stevens, 2008). Schwartz (2004) provided such definition, “A code of ethics is a written, distinct, and formal document which consists of moral standards used to guide employee and or corporate behavior” (p. 324). In essence, codified moral standards provide the primary foundation upon which specific rights, duties, and reporting requirements (at the individual or organizational levels) are built (Mabe & Rollin, 1986; Schwartz, 2004). Other definitions such as that provided by Mabe and Rollin (1986) have portrayed a secondary purpose for a code as somewhat transformative and related to considerations of governance, “Although its primary function is to establish a framework for professional behavior and responsibility, the code also serves as a vehicle for professional identity and a mark of the maturity of a profession” (Mabe & Rollin, 1986, p. 294). Frankel (1989) stated, “A code embodies the collective conscience of a profession and is a testimony to the group’s recognition of its moral dimension” (p. 110). There is general agreement that, at minimum, effective codes address moral responsibilities of the user, the organization, and management of the educational process inherent in code implementation (Davis, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Pitt & Groskaufmanis, 1990; Vinten, 1990) by striving to:

- Intentionally lift user behavior to higher (but reachable) levels through aspirational guidelines
- Govern activities ungovernable by other methods (e.g., socialization, self-interest, or supervision) through regulatory and compliance-oriented standards
- Encourage and obtain perceived relevancy and thus obtain responsiveness from users through an educational orientation (e.g., sensitizing users to ethical issues and concerns)

Practically speaking, Schwartz (2004) defined an ineffective code as “one that has failed to prevent illegal or unethical behavior on the part of corporate agents that was prohibited in the code” (p. 325). Sadly, research on code effectiveness is mixed or negative indicating that code

C.R. Bateman, D.B.A. (✉)
Department of Marketing, College of Business and Public Administration,
University of North Dakota, STOP 8366, Grand Forks, ND 58202, USA
e-mail: connie.bateman@business.und.edu

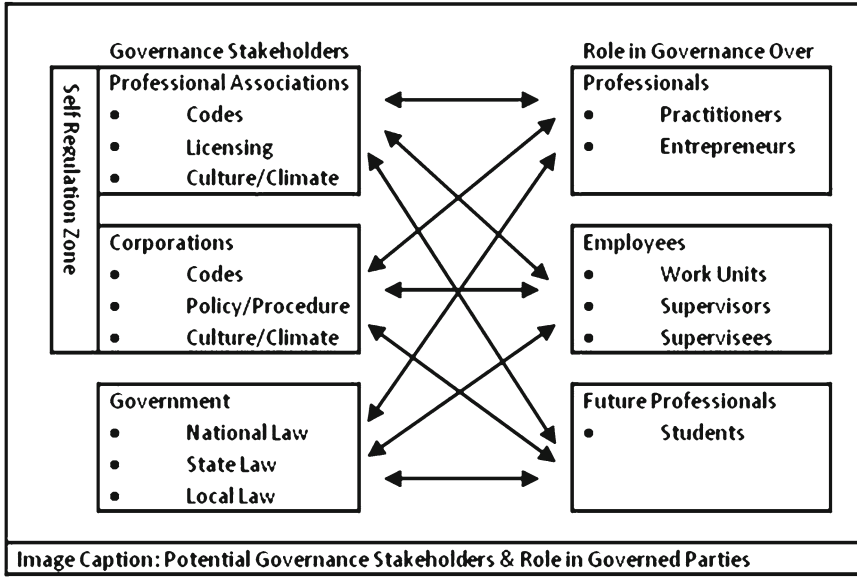


Fig. 2.1 Potential governance stakeholders and role in governed parties

developers struggle in striking the right balance between a regulations-oriented approach (e.g., too constraining) and an aspirational orientation (e.g., too general) (Murphy, 2005; Schwartz, 2004; Skubik & Stening, 2009; Stevens, 2008).

Advancements in the field of code research continue to uncover deeper dimensions of complexities and interdependencies between individuals and organizations. Over the last 30 years, research in the field of professional ethical standards has evolved from a microlevel (or content focus) to include a macrolevel strategic orientation, specifically from a focus on the code itself (development, content, compliance, enforcement) to a systems perspective of the code as one of the potential key contributors in effective formal or informal governance over a profession (Gotterbarn, 2009; Mabe & Rollins, 1986; Murphy, 2005; Skubik & Stening, 2009; Stevens, 2008; Tucker, Stathakopolous, & Patti, 1999).

According to Bonn and Fisher (2005), “an organization’s approach to ethics must have its foundation in its corporate governance framework” (p. 732). The concept of governance over unethical behavior has been applied in either a more traditional sense by some researchers who have focused on rigid policies and procedures that effect compliance, or in a less traditional, humanistic, or social network orientation. It has been argued that the nature of the interfaces between the professional, employee, and future professionals and society must be guided by a consideration of the governance systems within a profession and by doing so will more effectively manage risks (Gotterbarn, 2009). Key stakeholder groups involved in the governance of a profession can be broadly categorized as professional associations, organizations (for-profit, non-for-profit), and governments (local, state, federal, and international), with professional associations and organizations fueling self-regulatory efforts. Each stakeholder, alone or in concert with other(s), may attempt to influence governance over professionals, entrepreneurs, employees, or future professionals through a code. Figure 2.1 reveals a macroview of potential linkages between the entities in a profession attempting to govern moral behavior and those they are attempting to influence.

Reciprocal engagements between parties may be driven by duties to be truthful in the provision of information or to respect privacy or confidentiality (Sama & Shoaf, 2008). Methods of

attempted governance may include codes, licensing, policy and procedures, and culture or ethical climate. Practically speaking, some have argued that “Codes are not the teeth of an organization” (Gotterbarn, 2009; Messikomer & Cirka, 2010).

Some have claimed that “codes themselves do not contain the due process and sanctions within an organization but do describe the conscience of a profession” (Gotterbarn, 2009, p. 179). Mayer, Kuenzi, and Greenbaum (2010) stated, “Climates help explain the processes individuals use to make sense of their work environments” (p. 10). A number of researchers highlight the importance of human resource practices, such as the use of selection tools (e.g., integrity tests, structured interviews, ethical dilemma reasoning exercises), in assisting the betterment of the professions’ governance systems (Berenbeim, 2010; Singhapakdi, Sirgy, Lee, & Vitell, 2010). Self-governance from this perspective would align with the belief that “professionals are taught to be intrinsically motivated and their work is thought to be better executed when self-regulated, that is without interference of government ... (and may include) ... election to a body that governs the profession” (Sama & Shoaf, 2008, p. 41). The ethics of a profession will be reflected in its norms and practices, but the debate continues on whether and to what degree norms and practices should be or need to be institutionalized (Sama & Shoaf, 2008). Future professionals, through interactions and influence from leaders in the profession (informally or formally), should learn that it is a responsibility, rather than a right, to be a professional.

Code Research Evolves: Content to Governance

Code research in the 1980s appeared to be driven by an implicit assumption that unethical behavior (e.g., behavior against the organization) could be reduced by a code that included the right content, which, when effective, would evidence a strong commitment to social responsibility by the individual user, endorsing entity, and profession as a whole (Cressey & Moore, 1983; Schwartz, 2004). Codes during this time were referred to as creeds, credos, codes of conduct, and codes of practice, mission statements, or value statements (Clarkson & Deck, 1992; Murphy, 1989, 1995). Content analysis during this time revealed that codes tended to be legalistic and reflected the main priorities of senior management (Mathews, 1987; McDonald & Zepp, 1989) and specifically focused on issues relating to conflict of interest (Pitt & Groskaufmanis, 1990; White & Montgomery, 1980), misuse of confidential information and gifts (Pitt & Groskaufmanis), affirmative action (Benson, 1989), and other legal compliance (Sanderson & Varner, 1984). By contrast, codes rarely addressed ethical standards relating to the environment, product or service quality, or product safety (Mathews, 1987). Table 2.1 shows the findings from a variety of longitudinal and cross-sectional studies on code content. Although much of the research during the 1980s was focusing on the code itself, there was also recognition of the code’s role in representing the values of the organization to outside stakeholders.

A code remains one of the most visible ways an organization pronounces its professional norms to the community (Frankel, 1989; Murphy, 1989) but should not be the sole basis for elucidating professional responsibility (Mabe & Rollin, 1986). A code of ethics should be publicly available, embody specific relevant ethical behaviors, clearly and concisely identify the ramifications of code violations, and be revised periodically (Murphy, 1988), and may exist in tandem with an ethics program (Murphy, 1988). However, other research described below brought in a dose of realism about the actual use of even a well-built code.

By the end of the 1980s, optimistic researchers believed that attainment of an effective code would require more than striking the right balance of content materials, but with continued diligence, the drivers of ethical workplace behavior could be uncovered (Murphy, 1988; Vinten, 1990). However, a camp of pessimistic researchers resisted the value of a code and

Table 2.1 Specific standards in organizational codes: comparison between 1980s and 2000s

Years	1980s ^a	2000s ^b
Content ^c	Conflict of interest	Conflict of interest
	Gift giving/receiving	Gift giving/receiving
	Competitive intelligence	Competitive intelligence
	Affirmative action	Workforce diversity
	Other legal compliance	Bribery/grease payments
		Selling practices
		Working conditions/safety
		Environmental problems
	Relationships with dealers	
	International issues	

Notes:

^aBenson (1989), Pitt and Groskaufmanis (1990), Sanderson and Varner (1984), and White and Montgomery (1980)

^bMurphy (2005)

^cListings show specific standards mentioned in over 50% of the codes

espoused that (given the lack of empirical support) codes were essentially no more than public relations tools and the intent of behavioral control could easily be replaced by good internal auditing procedures combined with legal constraints (Benson, 1989; Pitt & Groskaufmanis, 1990).

Throughout the 1990s, code research continued to advance in the areas of content as well as development, implementation, effectiveness, and integrative role within an organization. Content analysis revealed the new generation of codes burgeoned with enhancements that went well beyond the legalistic statements of the previous decade, expanding specifically on the organization's underlying philosophical principles and values (Ferrell, 1999; Stevens, 1996), and the value of providing relevant examples either in the code or during training (Murphy, 1995). Other researchers were drawing attention to the firm as a whole and called for a firm-level "comprehensive integrity strategy" which would form supporting connections between intrafirm self-evaluations and processes that support the values written in a code of ethics document (Paine, 1994), and others were turning their eye toward the code's development process used in professional associations (Tucker et al., 1999). However, in spite of enhancements in content breadth and depth, codes were still charged with lack of strategic vision and being too focused on preventing behavior against the organization (Snell & Herndon, 2000; Stevens, 1996). In light of the increasing decentralization and participative management philosophies in place at the time, Tucker et al., (1999) called for researchers to address the issue of code effectiveness from strategic (leadership) and tactical (membership) levels. By the end of this decade, several categories of business ethics research had been identified: empirical research (beliefs and behaviors), methodological research, conceptual frameworks, institutionalization of ethics codes (e.g., top management commitment, transformational leadership and culture, informal systems), and code content for corporations and/or associations (Tucker et al., 1999).

Among the research, one prominent comparative study stands out because of its nature (e.g., longitudinal), its investigative scope (e.g., content, process, governance, and perceived effectiveness), and its contribution toward understanding. Using a multidimensional assessment of ethics codes, Tucker et al. (1999) analyzed the codes of 81 professional business associations using mail survey and code content analysis. In over 80% of the cases, codes used positive wording (e.g., the member "will"), focused on external stakeholders (e.g., customers, suppliers, etc.), and were believed by the executive directors to be adhered to by the majority of its members. Although the majority of codes used a positive tone, critics claimed it was a mistake to do so,